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MIFS 2019,
*16-17 May 2019, Barcelona, Spain***

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Adaptive Smart Assembly Concept in e-Mobility: A Research Direction

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Abstract

Achieving high total volume, high variety batch size production can be quite expensive. In this vision paper, the methodology of achieving this at low costs and the available technologies in the field of e-mobility production are described. The focus of this research lies in high adaptive and cognitive aspects in the assembly. To match the high flexibility of a Flexible Manufacturing System while considering costs, a use case of an e-axle assembly is being done. E-axle is chosen due to the ongoing electrification of mobility as the demand of mass production is low. Hence, a solution for implementing a set of methodologies for an adaptive manufacturing system with respect to assembly and implementation efforts is shown. A LoPA (Level of Practical Application) matrix is presented of all the possible adaptive technologies that are feasible to implement in the e-assembly line.

Keywords: Adaptive Smart Assembly, e-Mobility, Cognitive Production, High Variety Batch Production, Level of Practical Application (LoPA).

1. Introduction

In the last century, researches were focused on low-cost products and achieving them with mass production with highly efficient Dedicated Manufacturing Systems (DMS). These are used for manufacturing high quantities of the similar product at low throughput times. Hence, DMS are fixed and have a monotonous sequence of steps. If an additional process step for one part is required, the efficiency of this system decreases significantly. (Ko, Hu, & Huang, 2005).

Now given the shift in recent years, researches are focusing on Flexible Manufacturing Systems (FMS) to keep pace with the ongoing mass customization. Flexible Manufacturing Systems are versatile and adaptive to variety of products. But, the complexity of FMS and costs of implementing such a system is quite high. Also, FMS has a lower productivity compared to DMS as the production steps are not conducted simultaneously (Abou-El-Hossein, Theron, & Ghobashy, 2015). Thus, an advantage of FMS would be that it has a vast amount of flexible automation. It is also noted that majority of users in the industry are not satisfied with the FMSs because of variety of problems including lack of reconfigurability as a result of their fixed capacities and functionalities (Mehrabi, Ulsoy, Koren, & Heytler, 2002). These are the two opposed types of manufacturing systems.

One of the challenges of the 21st century is the dynamic interaction between the distinct manufacturing processes and adaptability machines developed by engineers (Sugiarto, Axenie, & Conradt, 2016). The variances in vehicle types of electromobility (e-mobility) are high and the batch size is low, which in turn makes the manufacturing and assembling costs higher (Marcel Schwartz, Dipl.-W irt.-Ing. Dominik Kolz, & Katharina Heeg, 2016). Thus, the manufacturers are dependent to match this high flexibility and variety. To match the high flexibility of an FMS system while considering costs, a use case of an e-axle assembly is being done. E-axle is considered as the market maturity of the electric vehicle sector is low (“Electric Car (Market) Data,” 2018). Hence, the goal would be to implement a set of smart technologies for an adaptive assembly system with respect to e-mobility. Also, the focus is to achieve the right balance between the machines and humans to make the assembly process simpler, faster and less expensive by combining the proven methodologies.

This paper outlines the planned research in terms of investigating how the aforementioned adaptivity can be achieved in an e-axle assembly. To do so, the existing process design of the assembly is analyzed to identify the technological gaps. Further, to bridge this disparity, requirements of adaptive assembly system are described. Additionally, the research gap is presented by combining the benefits of these concepts and presenting the various technologies. Finally, with the help of verification models, the paper draws an outline of expected results.

2. Process Analysis and Requirements

2.1 Existing Process Design

To develop an adaptive assembly system the process sequence is defined. To do so, the assembly sequence for an existing specific e-axle (as illustrated in **Figure 1**) is analyzed first (short overview).

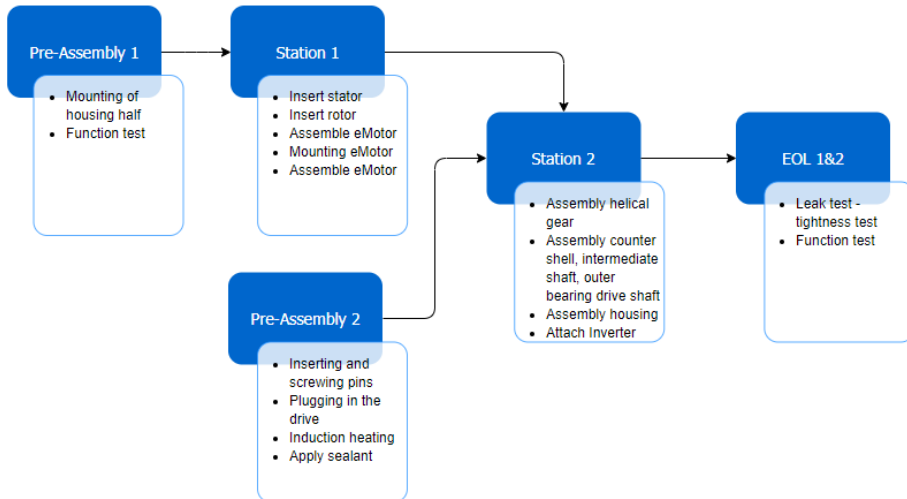


Fig. 1. Structure of the e-axle assembly.

The assembly sequence is an ideal case of flow or series assembly. All the parts are transported to the pre-assembly station except for the rotor and stator, which are supplied to station 1. All the tasks are performed manually. There are two end of line testing stations (EOL 1 & 2) which have a machine for testing the final run of the axle. The yearly requirement is to assemble 4000 axles, thereby the daily output would be roughly 20 axles considering 205 working days. However, additional e-axles would be assembled on this assembly line. Thus, the aim is to make the assembly line adaptive thereby reducing the assembly time for this specific e-axle.

Since the yearly output of an e-axle is low, implementing a fully automatic assembly would not be feasible and cost effective. As described in a case study done in (Wiendahl et al., 2007), implementing an automated system for lower throughput per day can be expensive. **Figure 2** describes the summary relation between output volume and costs based on (Wiendahl et al., 2007).

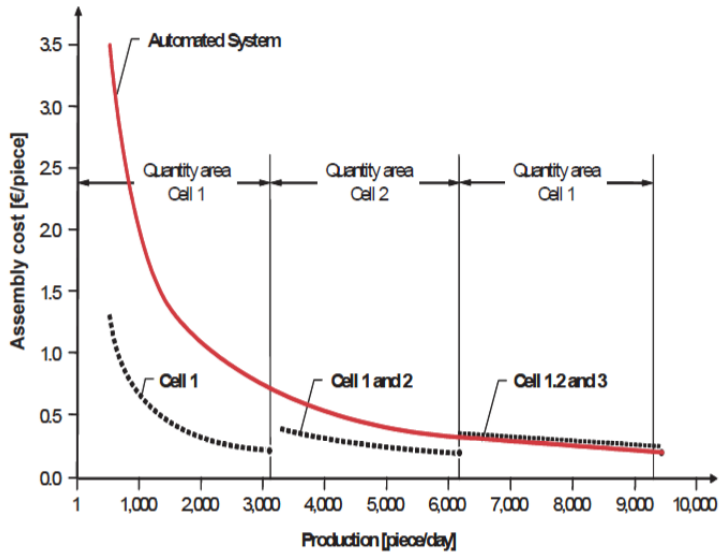


Fig. 2. Assembly cost for automated assembly versus hybrid assembly cells (Wiendahl et al., 2007).

2.2 Requirements of Adaptive Assembly

After the thorough literature review phase, four main concepts were derived (Migration manufacturing, Holonic Manufacturing System, Reconfigurable Manufacturing System, Cognitive Factory – HMI). These concepts focus on one or more core areas of an assembly plant along with their KPIs (Key Performance Indicators). For example, if “throughput” is considered, the concept of HMS, RMS, and Cognitive Factory achieve this KPI. Likewise, the concept of Migration Manufacturing focusses on the KPI: “Area” and so on. These KPIs forms the basis as a requirement of an adaptive assembly. Table 1 shows these 4 concepts, core areas and respective KPIs. Marked “x” indicates that the concept targets a specific core area.

Table 1. Concepts, core areas and their KPIs.

		Concepts			
Core Area	Key Performance Indicators (KPIs)	Migration Manufacturing	Holonic Manufacturing System (HMS)	Reconfigurable Manufacturing System (RMS)	Cognitive Factory – HMI
Layout	Area (m ²), design of layout	×			
Processes	Throughput, Overall Equipmen		×	×	×

	t Efficiency (OEE), quality				
Mach ine	Cost, throughpu t, quality, performan ce		×	×	×
Logist ics	Time, inventory		×		

3. State of the Art

As shown in table above, the concepts focus on 4 main core areas of the assembly plant which in turn has several KPIs. These concepts are selected as they are most suitable for ramp-up of high variety, low batch size assembly. They are explained below in a nutshell.

Migration Manufacturing. The number of variants of each e-axle are increasing considerably with slight variations. Migration manufacturing helps with a method that can manufacture these different parts on the same assembly line (Meichsner, 2008). The use-case of migration manufacturing with meandering technique has been explained in (Meichsner, 2008).

The assembly process has base stations and the additional tasks (such as welding) that are required for some products can be implemented by creating a loop through the stations. In other words, implementing an additional small line where the input and output of the line is the same station. Inside this loop stations, are worker(s) which perform the additional task required for the product/part. A part which does not require this additional task moves forward through the main line, and the part which requires it moves into the loop line. (Meichsner, 2008)

Holonic Manufacturing System. Holonic Manufacturing System (HMS), is a concept used for increasing the flexibility, agility, and reconfigurability of the manufacturing process (Bussmann & Sieverding, 2002). Each unit of HMS is represented by an autonomously working unit called holon (Gräßler & Pöhler, 2017). A holon, is defined in the holonic paradigm as a unit that advocates the use of autonomous and cooperative manufacturing units (Bussmann & Sieverding, 2002). These holons can interact and communicate with other holons and build a hierarchy, which in HMS is termed as holarchy (Gräßler & Pöhler, 2017).

If any assembly station breaks down, a multi-function (MF) station can be utilized to continue the process. These MF stations perform the same assembly operations as a set of stations on the main assembly line. The

docking station (DS holon) decides whether (and when) to divert the part from the main line in case of a bottleneck and sends a signal to AGV (Autonomous Guided Vehicle) which transports the picked-up part. Hence, there is coordination between these holons. However, the assembly stations can still be manually operated. (Bussmann & Sieverding, 2002)

Reconfigurable Manufacturing System. Reconfigurable Manufacturing System (RMS) can be defined as an intermediate between DMS and FMS (Bi, Lang, Shen, & Wang, 2008). However, the concept of reconfigurability is applicable for a specific part family of products (Abou-El-Hossein et al., 2015) and customized flexibility (Koren & Shpitalni, 2010). It bridges the gap between the high flexibility and high cost of totally flexible machines and the low flexibility and low cost of fully dedicated machines. (Katz, 2007)(Abele, Liebeck, & Wörn, 2006) Reconfigurability at lower levels such as machines, cells, and shop floors are achieved by changing the hardware resources (Bi et al., 2008). The throughput of RMS is higher than the FMS throughput, but is lower than that of DMS for the same investment cost (Koren, Gu, & Guo, 2018). There are 6 core characteristics and principles that an RMS system can achieve: scalability, convertibility, diagnosability, customization, modularity, and integrability (Koren et al., 2018).

Reconfiguration technologies can be implemented on various aspects of an assembly station such as machine, inspection, system, (Koren et al., 2018) and small assembly stations. This system can also be called as a hybrid system where one can obtain volume flexibility with low investment shown in (Wiendahl et al., 2007). For instance, the incoming part can be fixed at a specified position on the turntable by the worker. As the turntable rotates, say 180 degree, a robot arm performs the fixed, repetitive operation (example - press). At the simultaneous time, the worker can place a new incoming part on the table. The system is economical because the movements are reduced to minimum (Wiendahl et al., 2007). Also, the output can be increased as the time required by the worker decreases.

Cognitive Aspects – HMI (Human Machine Interface). Being cognitive is about flexibility and faster adaption to change. The easy interaction between humans and machine is the key success of a cognitive factory. This is an alternative which reduces the complexity of a station or worker by actively supporting the worker with cognitive assistance systems. This also allows automatic knowledge transfer and collaboration between experts and unskilled workers (Gorecky, Worgan, & Meixner, 2011). Sensors and actuators form the main basis of the basic interaction between the assistance systems and humans (*Chang. Reconfigurable Manuf. Syst.*, 2008). As described in (Gorecky et al., 2011), this sensor network can be based on initial measurement units (IMU), cameras, and a processing units. To simplify the understanding, chosen two functional cases that can be derived:

a) Input/observation techniques

- Hand gesture recognition – the movement of hands (such as grasping) can be tracked by the sensors or a camera (Wallhoff et al., 2007) and this can be integrated with pick-to-light system.
- Pick-to-light system – to help the operator when the system has high product and component variety (Fath-Berglund & Stahre, 2013).

b) Output modalities

- HMD – Head Mounting Devices such as retina display or AR (Funk & Schmidt, 2015) are suitable.
- Visual screen (Wallhoff et al., 2007) – visual screen at a static position showing the next steps would help if there variety in axles to be assembled.
- Text-to-speech system (Wallhoff et al., 2007) – since the assembly process is noise free, implementing text to speech systems which can help the worker with the assembly can be a reliable option.

4. Research Direction

Achieving the right balance between the two opposed manufacturing systems by combining the different concepts explained above would be an ideal way of achieving the right flexibility. Each approach has that has been studied, would ideally fit the assembly line of low volume and high variety of batch production. Hence, an ideal direction is to implement the best aspects of each concept to achieve this flexibility, adaptability, and low costs. Table 2 summarises the benefits of each concept.

Table 2. Benefits of each concept.

Parameters	Migration Manufacturing	Holonic Manufacturing System (HMS)	Reconfigurable Manufacturing System (RMS)	Cognitive Factory – HMI
Ideal for	Increasing variants (Meichsner, 2008)	Flexible and dynamic allocation of resources (Gräßler & Pöhler, 2017)	Quick and easy adjustments to new products (Abou-El-Hossein et al., 2015)	Increasing productivity (Fath-Berglund & Stahre, 2013)
Initial investment	10-30% less than FMS (Meichsner, 2008)	Higher than DMS, but lower than FMS	Lower than automated system (Wiendahl et al., 2007)	High initial equipment cost
Overall efforts for implementing	50-80% lesser compared to individual lines	Higher initial efforts than DMS	Depends on the level of reconfigurability	Comparatively lower than

	(Meichsner, 2008)			RMS and HMS
Other advantages	Faster break-even point than an additional line; 5-14% lesser variable cost (Meichsner, 2008)	Increase in productivity and throughput (Bussmann & Sieverding, 2002)	High responsiveness to fluctuating markets (Koren et al., 2018); movements of operator are reduced to minimum (Wiendahl et al., 2007)	Pick-to-light can be used for variety of tools (Fasth-Berglund & Stahre, 2013)

Achieving the maximum adaptability in the assembly process with a high variety of e-axes is the goal of these concepts as the current assembly process is designed for a single e-axle assembly. Also, maintaining the right balance between the automated systems and manual work keeping the small volumes, high variety and finally costs in mind. To enable this adaptability, as shown in **Figure 4**, the derived morphological matrix has various technologies based on their Level of Practical Application (LoPA). These technologies can also be classified individually on their Technology Readiness Level (TRL) (Böckenkamp, Mertens, Prasse, Stenzel, & Weichert, 2016). This matrix can be served as a building frame for adaptability. The aspects or features tagged with an asterisk (*) are the aspects that are being focussed on for the current assembly type and these aspects have higher practical implications.

LoPA	Low	Medium	High
Focussing Area	- Research phase - Simulation approach *	- Evaluation phase - Prototype implementation	- Implementation phase - Applicable in all industries
Level of Risk	- Very high risks	- Medium to high risks *	- Zero to Low risks *
Communication	- Real-time Wireless communication, 5G - Self-organised wireless networks, Neuronal network	- Wireless communication * - Holonic communication *	- Real-time bus interfaces * - Mobile networks * - EMUX and High perf., communication *
Sensors	- Miniaturized sensors - Smart sensors - Vibration device *	- Multi sensor fusion - Networked sensors - Innovative safety sensors (fail-safe system) *	- Motion sensors * - Temperature sensors - Pressure sensors - Acceleration sensors
Actuators		- Intelligent actuators - Networked actuators - Safety actuators	- Pneumatic grippers in robot *
Human Machine Interfaces	- Human behaviour model - Object recognition (YOLO) - Semantics visualization - Exoskeleton	- Voice controls - Gesture controls - Augmented reality * - Virtual reality *	- Intuitive controls * - Pick-to-light systems * - Digital watch/static screen *
Layout/Logistics	- Matrix manufacturing - Bionic layout structure	- Meandering technique * - Matrix manufacturing * - Logistics: Agent based communication *	- Series/flow/parallel production, etc. - Automatic Guided Vehicles (AGV), AG cart *
Machine	- Hybrid Machine - Additive Manufacturing	- Reconfigurable Machine System, RM Tools (RMT) * - Collaborative Robots (Cobot) *	- Mass Production by dedicated machines, High variety & low volume flexible manufacturing machines - Robots, smart tools *
Embedded Systems/ Software	- Industry 4.0 simulation - Miniaturized/smart sensors - Multicriteria situation awareness - Artificial Intelligence	- Energy harvesting - Machine learning - Digital Twin *	- AutoID technologies - Big-Data, cloud-computing
Probable TRL Level	1-3	4-6	7-9

Fig. 4. LoPA morphological matrix

5. Expected Results

The various technologies specified previously are to be implemented and verified with the help of verification models. To help implementing and testing the reliability of the adaptive systems, the recent approaches such as digital twin (Zhuang, Liu, & Xiong, 2018), plant simulation (Kikolski, 2016), DYNAMO++ methodology, FMEA, cost-benefit which are explained further can be enforced. These technologies help us in implementing and verification of the mentioned adaptive concepts.

5.1 DYNAMO++ Methodology (LoA matrix approach)

To move towards cognitive automation strategy, the scientific approach is to perform a DYNAMO++ methodology which further classifies

into 12 steps including LoA (Level of Automation) Matrix (Fath-Berglund & Stahre, 2013). This methodology helps in increasing the Level of Automation (LoA) (Fath-Berglund & Stahre, 2013). The initial steps have been completed and the current LoA for the above e-axle assembly has been determined as shown in the **Figure 3**. In the current assembly process, there are 92 tasks which are distributed in the matrix as shown. The implementation of the cognitive aspects must be followed which increases the LoA in the directions shown by the arrows. This improvement in LoA is measured to determine the increase in cognitive and physical automation.

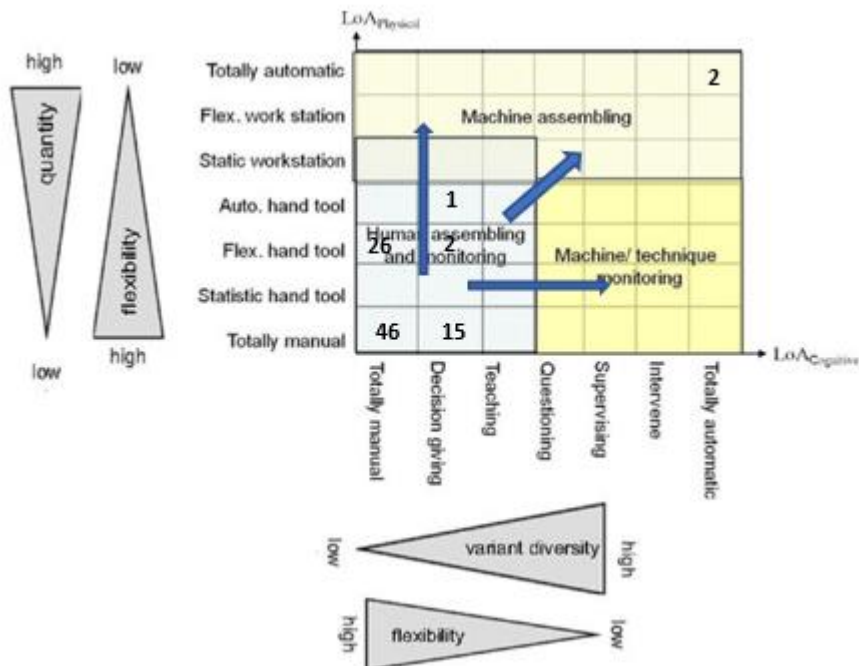


Fig. 3. LoA matrix (Dencker et al., 2009)(Lotter & Wiendahl, 2008)

5.2 Simulation Model

Currently, the assembly process is completely manual with high process times and this has been implemented in the assembly model in Plant Simulation tool. The simulation model helps in determining the bottleneck and the process clearly. A bottleneck is defined as a workstation limiting the production efficiency of the entire process (Betterson & Silver, 2012). The simulation model allows to calculate the effectiveness of various methods and processes (such as HMI, RMS, etc) and for a variety of e-axles. The creation of simulation model is done by using a seven-step approach as described by Law (Law, 2009). The computer simulation models can be freely improved and further simulations to the improved processes can also be applied freely (Kikolski, 2016).

The implementation was done as per the layout and station timings. The bottlenecks were clearly seen from the statistic graphs derived from the plant simulation. Furthermore, the changes (cognitive aspects) are also implemented in the simulation tool to determine the increase in throughput and efficiency of the system. Also, with the help of simulation tool, the errors during the ramp-up production are considerably reduced (Kikolski, 2016). Further, a simulation model can be used to visualize in real-time and focus on the affecting parameters (Kikolski, 2016). This approach can also be linked to the concept of digital twin (Zhuang et al., 2018).

5.3 Other Approaches

There are various other methodologies that are being done to determine the priority of each concept. Also, an FMEA analysis as done in (Pascu & Paraschiv, 2016), cost benefit analysis is done to improve the process performance. For example, a pair-wise comparison will be done for various cognitive features, an FMEA analysis depicting the benefits of each adaptive concept, and finally a cost-benefit analysis. The FMEA analysis illustrates the initial constraints and errors in a single e-axle, manual assembly. Thereafter, by implementing the adaptive technologies, these constraints are improved and the FMEA is again applied to justify it.

The described verification models would focus on improving the adaptability of the assembly process. It could also form a lead to the integration of reconfigurable assembly machines for high variety with human machine interfaces. Furthermore, by implementing these techniques, the costs of complex machines are relinquished. Thus, this would form as a basis for achieving a high variety production.

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How Socially Responsible Are Business Students – Evidence from Slovenia?

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Abstract

This paper reports about research examining social responsibility of business students through students' perception about corporate social responsibility (CSR). Study exposes the behavior and CSR theories and analyzes answers from 183 business students from Slovenia. Authors established a model, to examine students' perception about the impact of the economic CSR - considered through the "primary concern for economic results" and "devoting resources for CSR", to the "natural CSR" and "social CSR". Among student the interest for the natural CSR prevailed, while the economic aspect of CSR is the least appreciated. In the considered sample, associations between CSR aspects reveal significant and negative association between the concern for economic results and the natural and social CSR. In addition, positive and significant impact of devoting resources for CSR to the natural and social CSR exists between students. Devoting resources contributes more to the concern for social than for the natural CSR. The economic CSR explains significantly more variance in the social than in the natural CSR. Findings could help improving students' CSR behavior as future employees, but also development of education about CSR in the higher education organizations and society.

Keywords: Natural environment, social environment, economic environment, Slovenia, social orientation of students.

Introduction

The paper reports about research that examines social responsibility of business students through students' perception about corporate social responsibility (CSR). From 1960s on, scholars have intensively studied organizations' relations to social, natural, and economic environments (Dahlsrud, 2008; Aguinis, 2011). In addition, attention for inclinations and

preparedness of students for CSR - as future employees, has been growing in both academic and practitioner communities around the world (Carroll, 1999; Rego et al., 2017).

CSR theory addresses issues, which theorists studied through several specific disciplines, like environmentalism, management, and organizational behavior, among others (Elkington, 2004; Aguilera et al., 2007; Rego et al., 2017). Other theorists and practitioners wrote literature reviews addressing methodological and contextual issues of CSR (Stern, 2000; Slaper, Hall, 2011). In that framework, contextual studies were focused on building of theories and fundamental knowledge of CSR that provide “potential guidance for conceptual frameworks and methods for addressing the management, organization, and societal challenges in CSR practices” (Wang et al., 2016: 535).

As the field of CSR has evolved, academics like Aguilera et al. (2007), and Campell (2007), called for further behavior studies of socially responsible behavior (SRB) of all stakeholders in the modern society. Behavior studies exposed overlaps between different: behavior theories, business practices, and personals’ beliefs, values, and attitudes for studies of CSR (Schultz et al., 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012).

More fragmented are available conceptualizations of CSR in their implementation in specific contexts of young generation in studies among several institutional, educational, and cultural-cognitive preconditions for development of students’ perceptions about SRB (Kemmelmeier et al., 2002; Furrer et al., 2010; Cordano et al., 2011). In the last decade big attention among academics and practitioners exposed discovering of importance of students’ inclinations to CSR for their SRB as organizational stakeholders in the future (Furrer et al., 2010; Cordano et al., 2011). We followed these promising studies with examination of students’ SRB considered through their perception of CSR.

Our study contributes to knowledge on business students’ CSR with multi-dimensional research of CSR, state of students’ inclinations to individual CSR’s dimensions, and mutual effects of their inclinations about economic, natural and social dimensions of SCR. Finally, our study uncovers critical knowledge gaps for broader analyses of behavior gaps about students’ preparedness for their SRB in the future.

Theoretical overview and development of hypotheses

From 1960s on, attention for CSR has been growing among organizations and other stakeholders of society (Dunlap et al., 19903; Wang et al., 2016). A detailed overview of CSR development is beyond the scope of our research and for our study we just briefly outline variables of interests for development of research hypotheses.

Academics developed triple bottom line model of CSR through research of socially constructed CSR, dimensions of CSR, and guidance for operationalization of CSR in society (Elkington, 2004; Dahlsrud, 2008; Glavas, 2016). Theorists and practitioners considered conceptualizations of CSR in organizations according to several motives, interests, and specific circumstance for implementation of CSR (Waddock et al., 1997; Gelfand et al., 2017). Our research originated in Aguinis' (2011: 855) definition of CSR: "context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance".

Another stream of academics, like Elkington (2004), and Campbell (2007) calls for further study of SRB issues like development trends, situation among individual stakeholders, and multi-level study of SRB. According to findings of Furrer et al. (2010), and Cordano et al. (2011), we focused our study on SRB of business students, as future employees, who will manage development of SRB in organizations.

Following the tradition of social psychology, we considered behavior as "the range of actions, and mannerisms made by individuals in conjunction with themselves or their environment" (Minton, Khale, 2014; p. 25). Prevailing behavior theories – like planned behavior, organizational behavior, and behaviorism, treated SRB as a specific form of behavior (Schwartz et al., 2012; Minton, Khale, 2014) related with organizational responses to environment, social and economic issues (Schultz et al., 2005). Behavior studies of SRB exposed importance of balanced behavior of all stakeholder for achievement of SRB goals, social role of organizations' SRB, and SR economic, business and financial behavior (Wood, 2000; Aguilera et al., 2007).

Behavior literature defined behavior model of SRB through consideration of values-attitudes-behavior chain, where large attention was paid to attitudes to SRB's dimensions (Homer, Kahle, 1988; Wood, 2000; Schwartz et al., 2012). We considered attitudes as psychological responses to a person, an object, to a situation, to society and to life itself (Minton, Khale, 2014). Behavior studies exposed the importance of attitudes for behavior, correlations between attitudes and behavior, and different (direct or indirect) impacts of attitude on behavior in efforts for SRB (Gelfand et al., 2017). Results of studies about behavior models of SRB (Schultz et al., 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012), made us limit our study by focusing on direct effect of personal attitudes toward SRB on students' SRB.

In addition, theoretical cognitions about SRB (Dunlap et al., 1990; Elkington, 2004), lead us to presumption, that students' attitudes toward natural, social, and economic environment define students' SRB.

Students attitudes toward natural environment express the relative importance that students ascribe to natural environment (Schultz et al., 2005; Aguilera et al., 2007). Environmental psychology informs us that individuals with positive environmental attitudes are likely to act in order to protect ecological environment (Stern, 2000), and that individuals with positive environmental attitudes can significantly affect the environment through other behaviors (Aguilera et al., 2007). This made us presume that business students with highly developed natural attitudes will focus more on protection of nature in their lives (Schultz et al., 2005; Aguilera et al., 2007).

Students' attitudes toward social environment express students' response to social roles and norms expected from them by society (Davis et al., 2008; Rego et al., 2017). Social norms in students' life declare guidance for socially acceptable behavior and define their adequate behavior in particular positions (Homer, Kahle, 1988; Schwartz et al., 2012). CSR authors applied this framework to predict effects of students' social attitudes on their current SRB (Slaper, Hall, 2011).

Students' attitudes toward economic environment express students' orientation on achievement of the economic results and economic prosperity in society (Windsor, 2006; Crifo, Forget, 2015). Decisions of humans about economic issues are effected by their economics (Friedman, 1970) and their ethical opinion about societal economic prosperity (Carroll, 1999). Studies of balancing between economics and ethics revealed diverse results - negative, positive or neutral effects of economic attitudes on SRB (Windsor, 2006; Crifo, Forget, 2015). Following these cognitions, we presume that students' attitudes toward economic environment effect their current SRB (Crifo, Forget, 2015).

International studies like Furrer et al. (2010), and UN (2018) revealed the basic situation and trends of CSR in Slovenia. In addition, development documents of EU (EC, 2018) revealed the need for more studies to understand situation of CSR: (1) in individual EU member states, and (2) among younger generation as future decision makers on societal development (Furrer et al., 2010; Potocan et al., 2016).

Slovenia recorded stable development of CSR in last three decades (EC, 2018). Results of European Commission Growth Survey (EC, 2018) indicated large development of CSR and SRB among all stakeholders of Slovenian society. In addition, empirical studies revealed several potential areas for further development of CSR, especially improving of CSR in public administration (Jelovac et al., 2011) and necessary structural reforms for further sustainable development (Potocan et al., 2016).

As empirical studies by Kemmelmeier et al. (2002), Furrer et al. (2010), and Potocan et al. (2016) noted, Slovenian students show a big congruency about the importance of CSR for society and their future life, but

their opinions about importance of individual dimensions of SRB for CSR are more biased. These arguments suggest the following research hypothesis for our study:

H 1 – Among business student differences exist in perception about importance of individual dimensions of CSR.

Empirical studies on balancing between individual dimensions of CSR economics, revealed differing perceptions about impact of economic dimensions on other dimensions of CSR among organizational stakeholder (Stern, 2000; Wood, 2000) and younger generation (Cordano et al., 2011; Potocan et al., 2016). As Carroll (1999), and Furrer et al. (2010) reported, perception of specific groups of students received less scholarly attention, with particular knowledge, as business students with broader economic knowledge, about importance of economic results for organizations in modern society. We followed this promising stream of studies with research of the students' economic attitudes through students' perception about importance of "Primary concern for economic results" and "Devoting resources for CSR". This reviews different students' economic opinions about two basic options about relations between economics and CSR, e.g. about primary importance of economic results and the need for balancing achievement of organizational goals in frame of CSR. Thus, for research we hypothesize:

H 2 – A primary concern for economic results is negatively related with natural and social aspect of CSR, as perceived by students.

H 3 – Devoting resources for CSR is positively related with natural and social aspect of CSR, as perceived by students.

Method

The sample included 183 business students from Faculty of Economics and Business, University of Maribor, Slovenia. In the academic year 2017/2018 the survey included business students from diverse years and fields of study. Students were surveyed during the classes and participated voluntarily.

In sample, 26.9 percent are males and 73.1 percent are females; the average age of students was 21.61 years; 78.8 percent are bachelor students and 21.2 percent are master students.

Authors used a modified version of a Ralston's Survey working relations for examining values, relations at the workplace and CSR (Ralston et al., 2011). For this research authors used data from the second part – i.e. 25 items aimed to measure different aspects of CSR, and the third part covered demographic data of students.

Students' attitudes toward CSR were measured with 25 items from a sub-scale of the questionnaire. Each item had nine Likert-type response choices (1 – Strongly agree to 9 – Strongly disagree). Based on the results of factorial

analysis, using varimax rotation, authors established two variables to capture business students' attitudes toward economic aspect of CSR: Primary concern for economic results, and Devoting resources for CSR, and two variables aimed to capture the natural and social aspects of CSR: Devoting resources for CSR, and Concern for the natural aspect of CSR.

In this study the internal reliabilities for dimensions of CSR are comparable to those obtained in other studies using this instrument (Egri, Herman, 2000; Furrer et al., 2010; Potocan et al., 2016).

Authors focused on detecting the situation of business students' perception about CSR' dimensions aiming to examine impact of economic aspects on natural and social aspects of CSR among. The first step of research outlined elements of descriptive statistics and zero-ordered correlations between variables, interesting for sample of students, using SPSS 23. In the second step authors revealed perception of business students about economic, natural and social aspect of CSR. In the third step authors used structural equation modeling approach, using AMOS 18, to examine the relations between the economic aspect of CSR and latent variables "concern for the natural aspect of CSR" and "concern for the social aspect of CSR".

Results and discussion

Authors first statistically describe the interesting variables for students' sample. Mean values, standard deviations and zero-ordered correlations among the studied variables revealed associations, calling for deeper examination of current state of CSR's dimension and associations between the economic dimension and the natural and social CSR among the surveyed business students. The limited space made authors exclude table with descriptive statistics here.

The next is examination of the current situation of natural, social and economic dimensions of CSR among business student (Table 1).

Table 1. Concern for economic results and CSR among business students in Slovenia (created by authors)

Variables	Slovenia	
	Mean	SD
Primary concern for economic results	3.45	1.89
Devoting resources for CSR	3.04	1.55
Concern for natural aspect of CSR	2.45	1.32
Concern for social aspect of CSR	2.72	1.05

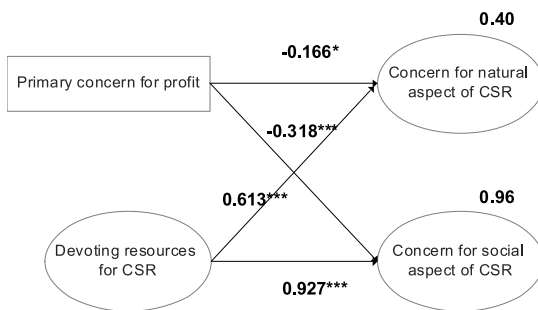
Business students strongly care for natural CSR; this can result from several factors, like social consensus about CSR' orientation and prevailing focusing of organizations on achievement of CSR goals in Slovenia (Jelovac et al., 2011; Potocan et al., 2016).

Students also denoted their largest attention to societal CSR; this matches “High social standards in Slovenia” (Furrer et al., 2010), and developed “social dialogue” in Slovenian society (Jelovac et al., 2011).

To business students the economic dimensions of CSR, measured through Primary concern for economic results, and Devoting resources for CSR, are the least important among CSR' dimension, regardless of relatively successful economic results of Slovenian organization in last decades, which enabled stable development of organizations in Slovenian economy.

Hypothesis 2 suggests that business student differently perceive the importance of individual dimensions of CSR. This hypothesis was supported by values for individual dimensions of CSR among students in Table 1.

Next, we are outlining the results regarding the associations between the four considered variables for business students (Figure 1).



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

Figure 1. Path analysis of concern for the economic aspect of CSR on the natural and social aspects of CSR for the Slovenian sample (created by authors)

Results about impact of economics dimension of CSR on other dimensions of CSR partly followed the previous studies from Central Europe and their cognitions about the negative impact of maximization of economic results on the natural and social CSR (Kemmelmeier et al., 2002; Furrer et al., 2010). Thus, Figure 1 reveals a significant negative impact of “Primary concern for profit” on the natural and social aspects of CSR. Hypothesis 2 about negative impact of primary concern for economic results on natural and social aspect of CSR was supported (see results in Figure 1).

On the contrary Figure shows that “Devoting the resources for CSR” significantly and positively impacts the natural and social dimensions of CSR. These results supported Hypothesis 3.

Finally, results of study cause conclusion that business students' understanding of economic dimension of CSR is divided. Economics and business education informs students about importance of economic goals and the omnipresent idea of "necessary maximization of economic results of organizations", which can generate opinion that natural and social activities are unnecessary actions causing unjustified organizational costs (Friedman, 1962; Reinhardt et al., 2008).

Results on CSR' working and behavior of business students as future employees promise more through their perception about impact of "Devoting the resources for CSR" on other dimensions of CSR. One can conclude that this students' CSR orientation results from efforts of society for CSR development, prevailing orientation of organizations on CSR goals and broader education about importance of CSR among educational institutions (Jensen, 2000; Wang et al., 2016).

Conclusions

This research examined the current situation of CSR among business students in Slovenia, and emphasized the impact of the business students' economic attitudes on their perception of the natural and social aspects of CSR.

The survey revealed that the business students find all three CSR dimensions significant for further development of CSR and SRB. They favor concern for natural and social dimensions; their perception about importance of the economics aspect of CSR, considered through the primary concern for economic results and devoting resources for CSR, is lower.

The students' current care for the natural environment might reflect institutional development of CSR and integration of CSR in all level of education in the last decades. Regarding the social dimension of CSR one can presume that social orientation of society together with high social expectation among stakeholders of society, effect the students' opinion about social issues. Lower interest of students for economic dimension of CSR can be explained with students age: youngsters do not focus on material goods and lack business experiences about importance of economic goals.

On the basis of the examined references and results from the authors' field study one can outline the following implications. First, perception of CSR' dimensions among students enables development of actions and initiatives for further development of CSR and SRB in educational organizations. Organizations, knowing of attitudes towards CSR of "newcomers" in the organizations will benefit their development. Finally, results of this study provide suggestions for development of educational sphere. For instance, business schools can complete their curriculum with broader consideration of economic dimension of CSR.

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Self-Efficacy: The Perception of Self-Preparedness for Leaving Institutional Care and Becoming an Independent Individual

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Abstract

The family is the main socializing factor for the child and it should perform its role in relation to the healthy development of the child's personality. If the family fails systematically to perform its functions, another possibility of securing the child's needs would be sought. Children's Home is a type of institutional facility in the Czech Republic where a child from a dysfunctional family can get into. It mainly serves as a pedagogical, educational, and social stimulant for the children. Despite the fact that the children's homes are trying to stimulate the family environment as best as possible, they can never completely replace and restore all family functions. Children living long-term in institutional care often have problems in the psychological and social areas. Their socialization and successful functioning in the society is in many ways difficult and complicated.

The paper presents partial results from a quantitative research that focuses on the relationship between self-efficacy of the respondents and their sense of preparation for leaving the children's home as independent persons. Data was collected using a questionnaire consisting of two parts, standardized and non-standardized. The target group used was children's home clients within the age of 17 to 26, who were soon expected to leave the children's home for the purpose of becoming independent. The essential research sample consisted of 263 clients of public children's homes and the selective sample included 208 respondents. The data was then statistically verified using Shapiro-Wilk normality test and Mann-Whitney test. The correlation between variables was determined by the Spearman correlation coefficient.

It was proven that clients who evaluate their self-efficacy better also feel better prepared to leave the children's home than low self-efficacy clients.

Keywords: Children's home, quantitative research, readiness, independence, self-efficacy.

Introduction

Children's homes are one of the types of institutional facilities in the Czech Republic. They provide background for children who, under all circumstances, cannot grow up in their original family. These individuals may remain in the children's homes until they are 18 years of age. In the case of continued preparation for their future occupation, this period can be extended up to 26 years. Individuals who grow up in this type of institution, in the long term, have considerable difficulty in leaving the institution and moving into independent living and they are included in one of four sub-groups of socially disadvantaged pupils in the context of Czech education (Němec & Vojtová, 2009). Often times, children leave the homes without a deeper understanding of what awaits them, and they cannot rely on their biological family to take that important step of their life. Preparing for an independent life is an important phase of the social rehabilitation process in the substitutional educational care in the Czech Republic. So far, however, not enough attention has been given to this process by experts. Czech legislation and methodological concepts are also insufficient in this area. Much of the responsibility is transferred to children's homes, their employees, and to clients themselves (Štenclová & Čech, 2018).

Therefore, this paper presents a part of the quantitative research implemented between January and March 2019. It follows the first part of the research, which was carried out in 2018 (Štenclová & Čech, 2018a; 2018b). The first part worked with the directors of 98 children's homes in the Czech Republic. The same children's homes were also included in the second part, where the respondents were clients who would soon be leaving their children's home for independence (n = 208). To ensure a high degree of reliability of the research tool and the validity of the results obtained, the questionnaire used was triangulated by several independent experts from among academics, directors, and educators of selected children's homes.

The Structure of the Substitute Care in the Czech Republic

Many children in the Czech Republic cannot grow up in their own family. If the family does not want to take responsibilities for the child, or is unable to take care of the child for various reasons, he/she is then placed in one of the types of alternative educational or substitute family care. Generally, there is a tendency to place these children in family care which includes foster care for a temporary period, adoption, personal custody, and care by a person other than a parent (MLSA, 2006). If this kind of care cannot be realized, it is necessary to place the child in one of the types of alternative care under three ministries of the Czech Republic. The Ministry of Health (MH) manages special children's institutions such as infant homes and children's homes for children aged 0-3. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MLSA) has, in

addition to the above-mentioned substitute family care, a facility for children requiring immediate assistance. The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MEYS) manages school facilities for institutional and protective education. This section also includes children's homes (hereinafter CH), which are crucial in terms of contribution.

Children are placed in the CH on the basis of a preliminary measure or a court order of institutional care. This happens in cases where biological parents are unable or unwilling to care for their children, they cannot find a substitute family for them, and children do not show signs of serious behavioural disorders. CH care for children according to their individual needs and they fulfil mainly educational and social tasks. Also, children can usually be placed in the CH at the age of 3 to 18 years (Act No. 109/2002 Coll.). At the age of 18, individuals in the Czech Republic reach legal majority. At this time, individuals who have been placed in the CH on the basis of a court decision may terminate their stay on their own request. They can also stay in CH, but their condition is to prepare them for the future. In such a case, this person usually concludes a written contract, which creates a so-called stay for agreement. CH provides full direct service until he/she reaches 26 years, under the terms of the contract. Although the individual remains among his/her friends and people he/she knows, it is still only a temporary solution, as he/she will have to leave the CH and become independent (Štenclová & Čech, 2018a).

According to information from the Statistical Yearbook of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (2018), there are about 3500 children in CH with ordered institutional care in the Czech Republic. However, only a very small number of these children are full orphans (33 children). In most cases, they are called “social orphans”. In this case, the child's own family has not been created, disintegrated, or are unwilling to take care of the child.

Specifics of Individuals Growing Up in the Institutions

A child growing up in institutional care is considered to be a vulnerable child in the Czech Republic. Such a child, according to Dunovsky et al. (1995), is considered to be at risk in his/her natural development. Schneiberg (2011) also adds that his/her needs are not adequately met or satisfied. The life conditions of the child are so deviated from the usual norm that they can threaten the child's health and development, including inclusion in society by limiting, deviating, or even disabling the anticipated development. Despite the fact that individual institutional care facilities try to substitute the family as much as possible to ensure the best possible needs of the child, they will never completely stop all family functions. In addition, Matoušek (1999) states that a long-term stay of a child in an institution may lead to various personality deformations in the areas of social relationships, attitudes, value systems, or

self-esteem. However, the need for self-esteem, positive self-appreciation, and unconditional self-acceptance is essential for the proper development of the child's personality. Fulfilling this need directly influences motivation for human behaviour and influences the way we perceive reality in adulthood (Bittner et al., 2007).

A great risk for these children is the emergence of psychological deprivation, which Langmeier and Matějček (2011) define as a psychological state that arose as a result of life situations, when a person is not given the opportunity to satisfy some of his basic psychological needs in a sufficiently long time. Mental deprivation usually occurs in children who have been in institutional care for a long time, commonly from early childhood to adulthood. The consequences of this deprivation are very serious due to the long time the child has been in institutional care (Mühlapachr, 2001).

Deprivation may manifest itself in various forms. These are deficiencies in social, intellectual, emotional, and character areas. After leaving the institution, it represents a considerable handicap for the individual. In connection with becoming independent, the emphasis is mainly on planned strategies for preparing the child leaving the children's home. In a biological family, this strategy takes on a more unconditional form; individuals prepare for their independent life on an ongoing and unorganized basis, with the support of their family (Běhounková, 2012).

Social Integration of Individuals Leaving Institutional Care in the Context of Self-efficacy

The family is the main socializing factor for the child. However, if the family is nonfunctional, socialization of the individual becomes difficult. Social integration is the highest level of socialization, which is a process of integrating man into society and his everyday life. Through socialization, an individual adopts complex forms of behaviour and regulates his attitudes and values (Kauffman, 2007). Many mechanisms have influenced the child's socialization throughout its life including the quality of early emotional attachment (Bowlby, 1965), the quality of language acquisition (Bernstein, 1971), and the quality of social learning (Bandura, 1977). In the context of social learning, the child acquires and consolidates patterns of behaviour and also acquires a basal experience with the functioning of society (Běhounková, 2012).

In the context of social cognitive learning, Albert Bandura comes with the concept of self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) understands self-efficacy as self-confidence in our own skills and belief in control of events and ability to influence our life. If the individuals are convinced of their ability to manage theirs, they have a better idea of coping with the difficulties that arise in their life. This sense of self-efficacy refers to the future, but it depends on the past

performance of the individual (Bandura, 1994). Self-efficacy affects many aspects of life. For example, high self-efficacy is a strong predictor of academic success and aspirations. It has a positive impact on social relations or prosocial behaviour (Bandura, Barbaranalli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1996). At the same time, it prevents depression (Bandura, Pastorelli, Barbaranelli, & Caprara, 1999) and it has a positive effect on shyness (Caprara, Steca, Cervone, & Artístico, 2003). Consequently, it has also been found that there is a connection between the sense of self-efficacy and life satisfaction.

High self-efficacy in connection with the research presented in this paper may point to better coping with the transition to independent life for individuals leaving institutional care. In substitute care institutions, preparation for independent life is an important phase of the social rehabilitation process. However, the Czech environment has not given enough attention to this issue. The surveys carried out (Hanáková & Kormaňák, 2015; Gjuríčová, 2007; Matoušek, Pazlarová & Baldová, 2008) point to the lack of preparedness of young adults to leave the children's home. Thus, this may in many cases lead to various life failures (drug addiction, prostitution, stealing, etc.) in their own lives.

On the basis of the UN documents (2009), children's homes should secure successful integration into the society, particularly through the cultivation and acquisition of social and life skills. However, the development of social skills complicates e.g. the so-called institutional dependence syndrome. This phenomenon is, according to Musil (2008), characterized by a state of adaptation to artificial institutional conditions which helps to reduce the ability to adapt to life outside the institution.

Clients of children's homes are provided with food, finance, and accommodation without any stronger participation. At the same time, the daily schedule is applied. These individuals are then unable to satisfy their needs and manage the situations of everyday life (material needs, a daily routine organisation, finding a job, an apartment, finance management or communication with the authorities). According to Matoušek, Pazlarová and Baldová (2008), the common reason for the problems of individuals after leaving the children's home is a lack of experience with life outside the institution, which leads to the unrealistic expectations and ideas about their own life. Another problem is a low degree of education and insufficient social competences (Matoušek, Pazlarová & Baldová, 2008). The impossibility of mastering a successful personal development leads to a crisis that Macek (2003) sees as a clash of biological, psychological, and social aspects. This conflict causes the disruption or non-creation of moral attitudes and opinions, the relationship with the outside world, self-reflection, and self-concept.

Methodology

The aim of the paper is to present the partial results of the quantitative research carried out between January and March 2019. The presented results represent the second part of the research. The first part was made in 2018 (Štenclová & Čech, 2018a; 2018b) and was focused on finding how the children's homes prepare the children for independent living and what aspects are affected by this preparation. The respondents in the first phase were the directors of children's homes.

In the second phase, this research focuses on finding how the clients, who are about to leave the children's home, evaluate their current readiness for this action. The area of preparation for leaving the institution is still insufficiently addressed in the Czech Republic. There is no uniform definition of how, or by what means and approaches, should the clients be effectively prepared for leaving the institutions so they can be integrated successfully into the society (Štenclová & Čech, 2018a).

Main Research Question and Tested Hypotheses

The main research question was defined in connection with the aim of the research as follows: How do clients who are expected to leave the children's home to become independent evaluate their current readiness for this action in the context of their self - efficacy?

This paper presents an analysis of one of the hypotheses:

H1: Clients who evaluate their self-efficacy higher, feel better prepared to leave CH than low self-efficacy clients

Research Design and Method of Data Collection

For the quantitative data collection, we used a questionnaire consisting of two parts as a research tool. The first part was a questionnaire developed for this particular research. This section contained 17 questions focusing on finding out the respondents' subjective opinions regarding their departure from CH aimed at becoming independent. The questionnaire was compiled on the basis of information from professional literature and also in cooperation with some executives and educators of selected children's homes. The second part of the research tool was a structured self-efficacy questionnaire (GSE) created in 1981 by Jerusalem, M. and Schwarzer, R. (1995). It is based on Bandura's concept of self-efficacy (see above). However, the standardization of the Czech population questionnaire was conducted by Jaro Křivohlavý in 1993 (Křivohlavý, Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1993).

The questionnaire has ten items and answers are recorded on a four-point scale. The questionnaires were distributed among the clients through the managers of the individual institutions. This distribution was either through online communication, followed by return of scanned documents or by email.

The questionnaires were anonymous and, therefore, no informed consent or other documents on the preservation of personal data had to be signed.

Characteristics of the Research Sample

The research group consisted of 98 children's homes in the Czech Republic, which were involved in the first phase (Štenclová & Čech, 2018a; 2018b) and 61 institutions were involved in the second phase of the research. The target group for data collection were clients in the age range of 17 to 26, who are expected to leave the children's home in the near future. Of the total number of 263 questionnaires collected, a sample of 208 clients was selected, including 104 girls and 104 boys. The average age of respondents is 18 years. The average self-efficacy score of clients is 28.6, which indicates a rather high self-efficacy value for the research sample.

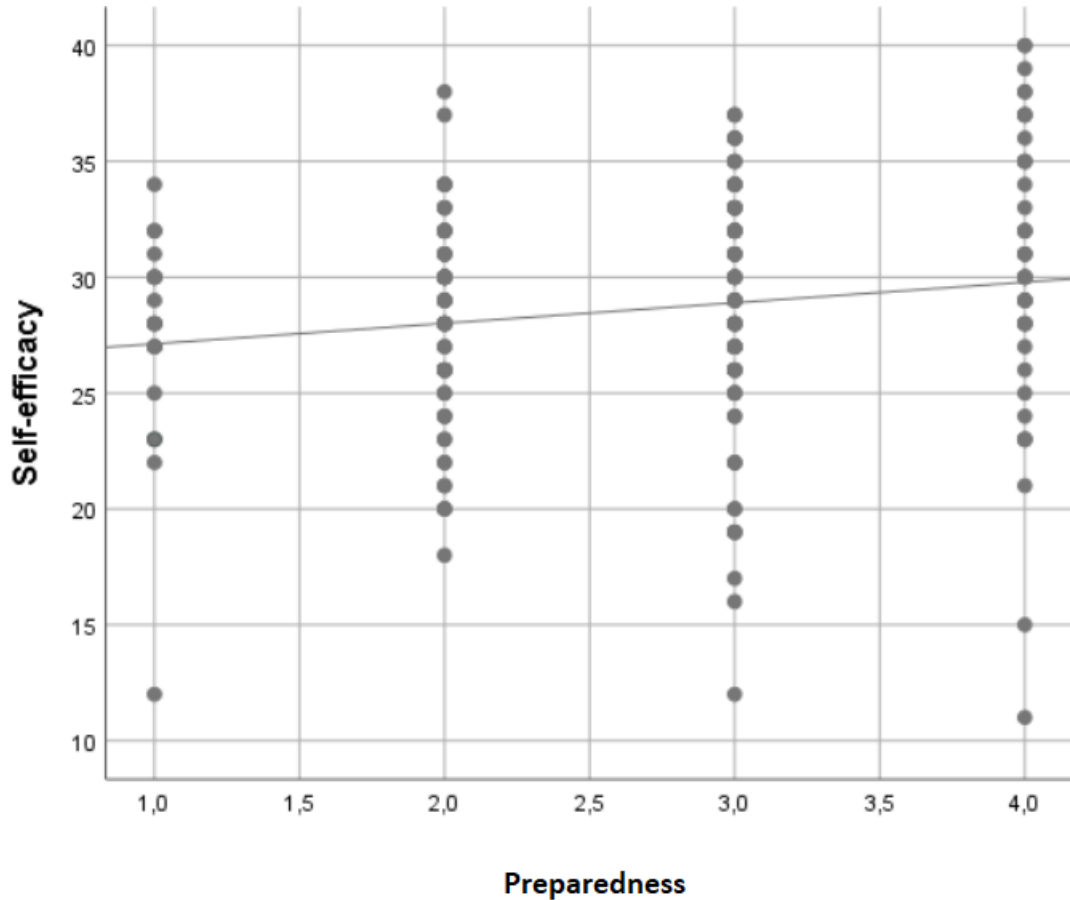
Data Analysis

A statistical analysis was made in the statistical programs R and SPSS. Based on the Shapiro-Wilk normality test, it was found that the data did not have a normal distribution. In addition, a nonparametric correlation test was applied to verify the existence of a positive relationship between self-efficacy and readiness for leaving from CH.

Statistical Hypothesis

H_0 = self-efficacy and readiness to leave DD are independent variables.

H_A = self-efficacy and readiness to leave DD are dependent variables.



Graph 1. Self-efficacy link with readiness to leave CH

The graph above provides a first idea of the relationship between variables. From a point graph and a growing regression line, it can be assumed that with increasing levels of self-efficacy, on an average, readiness for leaving the CH also increases. However, this dependency is likely to be small. Whether there is a dependency between variables and what dependence is, it has been investigated throughout the research sample separately in the male and female groups.

	Research Sample ($n = 208$)	Men ($n_m = 104$)	Women ($n_z = 104$)
r_s	0,175	0,078	0,239

$p \leq \alpha$	0, 012 < 0, 05	—	0, 014 < 0, 05
$p > \alpha$	—	0, 433 > 0, 05	—

Table 1. Results of Spearman's correlation coefficient for H1

Since the p-value is less than the significance level (see Table 1), the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. A positive dependence between self-efficacy and readiness for leaving the CH can be assumed. This dependence is significant and small. Therefore, better self-efficacy assessment can be combined with feelings of better readiness to leave CH.

This finding also supports the outcome of a group of women with higher significant correlations between variables but it is still small. A contradiction occurs in a group of men where a statistically insignificant correlation is based. The assumption of the existence of a positive relationship between the variables was further verified by the Mann-Whitney test. Here, the readiness for leaving the CH was divided into better and worse, and the self-efficacy of the two groups was compared. It was examined whether clients who feel more ready to leave CH perceive better self-efficacy than clients who feel less ready to leave CH.

For the purpose of verification, clients were divided into two groups.
Group 1 - Clients who definitely do not feel and rather do not feel ready to leave CH.

Group 2 - Clients who definitely feel and rather feel ready to leave CH.

	<i>p</i> -value
Group 1	0,032
Group 2	0,003

Table 2. Shapiro-Wilk normality test

Normal distribution cannot be expected. As a result, only the Mann-Whitney test was applied (see Table 2).

Statistical Hypotheses

H_0 = medians are identical.

H_A = medians are different.

Mann-Whitney Test results: p - value = 0.044; 044 < 0.05;

Results

Group 1 Median is 28, and Group 2 is 29. Group 2 clients who definitely feel and rather feel ready to leave CH perceive self-efficacy better than clients from Group 1. The difference in self-efficacy is significant since the p-value is less than the significance level and the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative. Therefore, better self-efficacy assessment can be combined with feelings of better readiness to leave CH.

Conclusion for H1: In the research sample, a positive relationship between self-efficacy and readiness for leaving from CH was significant and small. Furthermore, there is a significant difference between clients who assess their self-efficacy better and low self-efficacy clients, where a better self-efficacy assessment can be combined with feelings of better readiness for leaving the CH. Thus, the validity of H1 can be assumed: Clients who assess their self-efficacy better feel more ready to leave CH than low self-efficacy clients.

Conclusion

Children's homes are one of the types of institutions providing care to children in the Czech Republic that their original family cannot or does not want to take care of. They are set up for children from 3 to 18 years old. If individuals prepare for their future occupation, they can stay in the children's home for up to 26 years. However, their leaving from the institution is, in many aspects, more difficult than for individuals who are getting independent on their own biological families. Children who grow up in institutions in the long term have problems psychologically based on social relations, attitudes, value systems, and their own self-esteem. The social integration of these individuals is still not sufficiently, legislatively or otherwise methodologically, grounded in the Czech Republic.

Therefore, the paper presents a part of the quantitative research of the respondents of which were clients of children's homes, who would soon become independent and leave the facility (n = 208). Based on the analysis of their statements, an analysis of the H1 hypothesis is presented. It assumes that clients who assess their self-efficacy better feel better prepared to leave the CH than low self-efficacy clients. Using the Spearman correlation coefficient and the Mann-Whitney test, the hypothesis presented can be assumed to be valid. Therefore, clients who assess their self-efficacy better feel better prepared to leave CH than low self-efficacy clients. Furthermore, using the Spearman correlation coefficient, it was found that the positive dependence between self-efficacy and readiness for leaving the CH is small.

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Building Bridges Between Cultures: The Originalities of the Portuguese Tile

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Abstract

Tile was introduced in the Iberian Peninsula by Muslims, who occupied it from the 8th century ahead, following the Muslim invasions. This material has become a striking element of the centre and south Spanish culture. However, its introduction and dissemination in the present Portuguese territory occurred only in the sixteenth century, more specifically in the D. Manuel I Reign. Not being a Portuguese creation, but resulting from multiple contacts and cultural crossings, the tile was not only absorbed by the local culture, but also taken by the Portuguese people to other places, such as Brazil or India. In these new places, it acquired new meanings, being adapted and transformed according to the local aesthetic tastes. The tile acquired a maximum expression in Portugal as a decorative element narrating, at the same time, events of the Portuguese society and culture. It has been used extensively over five centuries and has been adapted to the local spatio-temporal circumstances, being created in innovative and aesthetic forms. The tile, starting as a decorative element inside palaces, manor houses, churches and convents, would eventually become a material for facade cladding of public and private buildings. This represents panoramas of an abstract geometry and also events of the local life. In the 21st century, tile has acquired new symbolic values in the representation of the community to the tourist audience.

Keywords: Tiles, Museums, Cultural heritage, Symbolic value.

Introduction

The introduction of tile in Portugal allows the building of bridges between diverse cultural and geographical contexts, even though it is not a Portuguese invention. In the national milieu, tiles or panels of tiles took on local creative languages, being invented and reinvented constantly. This was taken by the Portuguese, in the Discoveries age, to other places like Brazil or

India, and it stands as an element capable of witnessing an enriched intercultural cross between Islamic, Christian, and other cultures.

In a world characterized by transnational flows of goods and people, ideas and cultural behaviors, it is urgent to question ourselves about the educational role and communication that the tiles can trigger in the understanding of various peoples. As an element of cultural connection, the tile allows the transmission of messages about various cultural behaviors. This helps to understand cultural diversity through the deconstruction of stereotypes about the communities that are currently confronted with globalization.

In this paper, we will reflect about the symbolic value acquired by the tile, in Portugal, as the result of a cross of cultures that not only crossed its territory but also was expanded to distant places, such as Brazil or India. In short, the Portuguese people received this “gift” from the Muslims and in turn spread it in new places.

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The tile was incorporated into the Portuguese culture which gave it distinctive specific characteristics. The Portuguese tile, reflecting and supporting religious or profane themes and reflecting narratives of the local culture daily life, has characteristics that distinguish it from other contexts where it has also been present, such as North Africa, Islamic culture, or southern Spain. In the Portuguese territory, it has been a prolonged use both in space and in time, as well as the techniques employed to make it. However, the aesthetic forms and its use are distinct from those of other places.

As Maria Antónia Pinto de Matos et al. (2015) pointed out that "the Portuguese tile, its artistic expression, and technical persistence are unparalleled in any other territory. Unlike other geographical areas of production, the emergence of new manufacturing techniques led to the abandonment of hitherto employed ones. In the Portuguese case, this did not happen. The techniques that could be classified as archaic are periodically recovered with another meaning and in diverse contexts of taste. This is what happens with the so-called Islamic tiling technique used initially in the production of pavements and was abandoned in the Peninsula in the first quarter of the 16th century" (p. 3, 4).

The tile of Muslim origin was introduced in Portugal in the sixteenth century by Manuel I, King of Portugal (1469-1521), who visiting “Castile, was so impressed with the ceramic compositions used in Andalusia that, [...] on his initiative, an order for 10 146 Hispano-Moorish tiles, for the decoration of his palace in Sintra, arrived in the port of Belém, in Lisbon, in 1508, in which a wide variety of tile patterns and techniques were applied like dry rope, edge,

stapled, and relieved tiles” (Roteiro De Museu Nacional Do Azulejo, 2005, p. 34).

The tile intensively used, in religious and civilian buildings in Portugal, came from Andalusia and were firstly executed using Spanish-Moorish dry rope technique. This was done at the Fernan Martinez Guijarro factory or maybe in his son's, Pedro de Herrera, workshop, which are both potters of Seville. In addition, D. Jorge Almeida in the 16th century (1508) bought a large quantity of Hispanic-Moorish tiles produced in Seville, which is used to cover the Coimbra city cathedral. From the inclusion of the tiles, simulating the presence of tissues and spans, the cathedral became a testimony of the community sociocultural dynamics that inhabited this space, shaping it according to its interests of that moment. The Coimbra cathedral is a relevant testimony of the Portuguese Middle Ages as well as the introduction of the tile art in Portugal and its adaptation to the cultural specificity of the place.

The first Portuguese tiles are a sociocultural document. It depicts scenes from the life of Christ and other elements of the Judeo-Christian tradition which has marked the cultural life of the medieval and pre-modern national community. On the other hand, the national tiles and their techniques were distinguished earlier from the Spanish tiles. As noted by the historian João Simões in 1956, "although the tiles come from Andalusia, its decorative arrangement does not follow that of the original parietal panel's type "lambri". The Portuguese tile setters made a highly imaginative use of these tiles, arranging them in architectural patterns, following the style of the buildings they were to enrich. Such is the case of the tile decoration of the Old Cathedral of Coimbra" (Monteiro, 2007, p. 32).

The tiles and panels of tiles were used by the clergy and the nobility in their "public statement of prestige ... and are often the preferred support for the heraldry inscription, as is the case of D. Jaime I, Duke of Bragança, coat of arms (c.1510), a sevilian worked piece ..." (Roteiro de Museu Nacional do Azulejo, 2005, p. 35).

The tile intensive and uninterrupted use over the last five centuries, as a decorative and as a narrative element, is a characteristic that distinguishes Portugal from other European countries. Here, the use of the tile has also been common but not continuously in space and time. The tile introduction in Portugal, coinciding with the discoveries age, operated as an historical and cultural record of the Portuguese life over time. It becomes an integral part of the Portuguese society and culture, working both as a decorative art and as a device for recording the community imaginary, and recording at the same time the local community social and cultural memory.

As stated by Paulo Henriques, Portugal is different from other countries "for the originality of the functional and symbolic use attributed to the tile, ubiquitous both as a monumental architectural and as a urban cladding

and support of the most genuine national imaginaries” (Henriques, 2005, p. 7). On the other hand, Alexandra Curvelo (art historian and tile researcher) pointed out that the Portuguese tiles are unique because "the tile establish a dialogue with the space where it is located, it is a tile that completely fills this space, which change this space, and which on the other hand is always in a dialogue with other arts..., the engraving..., and we also have the architectural references, of course. Therefore, it is this cross between the various arts, and on the other hand the dialogue with the space where the tile was initially located which in fact illuminates and transforms it into totality, which is an absolutely distinctive character of Portugal's tiles” (Visita Guiada Ao Convento Da Madre De Deus, Lisboa – Portugal, 2014, 3,11 Minutos).

The first Portuguese tiles imported from Spain followed the Mudéjar or Hispano-Moorish patterns, influenced by the Muslims techniques living in the Iberian Peninsula. They created this artistic style in the fourteenth century. According to Robert Gomes (2011), it can be stated that the Hispano-Moorish style was "a style of tile that was rehearsed and developed in this place, resulting in different tiles typologies, which are affirmed by the materials and techniques used, reflecting chronologically the changes of the decorative languages.

The whole plot associated with the Mudéjar and Hispano-Mourisco tiles use had a certain influence on the development and improvement of the taste for ceramic decoration in Portugal” (Gomes, 2011, p. 19). In this sense, the Portuguese culture is also the result of the temporal crossings with the people of Islamic culture who developed this technique to tile in the Iberian territory.

However, one of the largest Portuguese examples of Spanish-Moorish tiles is located in the Sintra Palace which is a symbol of tile introduction in Portugal. They have common characteristics with the Islamic production like vegetal and geometric patterns. However, we highlight in this context, the local figurative adaptation that is visible in Discoveries pattern with the armillary sphere that was commissioned by Manuel I (Monarch of the Portuguese Discoveries Golden Age).

According to J. Pereira (1991), “the Sintra Palace are the only examples of tiles engraved with the armillary sphere... resulting from the Sevillian production of the first half of the 16th century, where it is possible to read excerpts from a significant period of the Portuguese history.”

The expansion of the art of making tiles has followed cultural flows which are manifold, diverse, and crusading. This cultural movement has been accentuated by globalization. However, they are neither new nor innovative. With the Muslim occupation of the Iberian Peninsula for nearly eight centuries, new buildings construction modes and models were introduced. In

the present days, there are many testimonies of these technical, artistic, and architectural innovations introduced by the Muslims, such as the ancient city of Medina Azahara classified on July 1, 2018, as World Heritage, or the typical architecture of the Algarve in the south of Portugal, or yet the famous tiles located throughout the Iberian Peninsula. Among all the civilizations that crossed the Portuguese territory, we emphasize the Roman and the Muslim which contributed to the people's miscegenation and to their cultural syncretism, leading to the cultural behaviors that contributed to the permanent becoming of the Portuguese community. Portugal received from the Muslims numerous architectural and artistic influences, especially the art associated with the tile.

Subsequently, the Portuguese expanded the tiles art beyond the oceans. The tiles were taken by them to Brazil and India shortly after their introduction in the national territory, accompanying the expansion of the Portugal's Empire. In the 16th and 17th centuries, tile was introduced in Brazil, following the urban configuration of the Portuguese cities whose model was inherited from the Muslims. Tônia Matosinho (2016) stated that it is "different from the geometric model of city implanted and diffused by Rome, in which the grid layout is practiced, providing a rapid demarcation of the city in flat terrain; the Brazilian cities, mainly those of rugged terrain, were organically constituted with curved streets in the mold of the old Muslim cities" (Matosinho, 2016, p. 1).

In the buildings configuration, architecture and decoration, the Portuguese used the tile in the Brazilian cities, mainly from the 17th century. Therefore, this art acquired expression mainly in Bhaía, a Brazilian state, and in Olinda in the Pernambuco state. According to Ingrid Wanderley (2006), "tastes, manners, customs... almost everything produced by the Royal Court was brought at the same time to the colony. It was the same with the tiles. At the end of the 17th century, polychromic pottery in the Italian style lost its place to the novelty of blue porcelain, imported from China (...). The Portuguese tiles began to reproduce in two shades of blue and the old polychrome patterns. The best specimens of this kind were sent to Brazil, such as the blue-patterned tiles present in the interior of the Nossa Senhora dos Prazeres church, in the Guararapes Mountains, in the Pernambuco State" (p. 17).

On the other hand, in the most important Brazilian city of the former Portuguese Empire, "Rio de Janeiro has few tiles of this period: among the oldest are the carpet tiles of the Açude Museum in the Alto da Boa Vista and those of the São Bento Monastery, in the centre of the city, both from the 16th century. The most representative tiles of the Rio de Janeiro city are from the 18th century, namely from Nossa Senhora da Glória do Outeiro Church, Nossa Senhora da Pena in Jacarepaguá, Nossa Senhora da Saúde - Church of the

Santo António Convent, and Church of the Nossa Senhora do Desterro - Santa Teresa Convent (Matosinho, 2016, p. 3).

In the 19th century, tiles were used in João Pessoa, both in civil and religious buildings, such as the well-known "Casarão dos azulejos" and Sobrado do Comendador Santos Coelho. This building has the exterior facades clad "with Portuguese tiles from the Devezas factory, located in the Porto city" constituting one of the last examples of residence in João Pessoa, which still presents this type of finishing (Memória João Pessoa: Informatizando a História do Nosso Património - Sobrado Comendador Santos Coelho). Another old and remarkable building, in the context of the tile introduction in Brazil, is the Nossa Senhora do Carmo Church. It started at the end of the 16th century. Due to suffering from the Dutch invasions, it was completed in the 18th century with the side walls of its main chapel and those of the nave "covered with Portuguese tiles from the 18th century, constituting ten panels depicting episodes of Carmelite life framed in the rococo language" (Memória João Pessoa: Informatizando a História do Nosso Património - Igreja de Nossa Senhora do Carmo). In this period, the rococo, organic, and asymmetric forms marked the Portuguese aesthetic tile taste.

Consequently, the rococo, pombaline, and neoclassical styles were very present in the tiles manufacture in the second half of the 18th century. These tiles were used mainly for decorative purposes, reflecting a time when, as in other arts, "changes in Portuguese society taste are evident", suggesting rococo, organic and asymmetrical forms, with irregular shells and foliage, drawing frames complex in the tile panels, painted first in a strong blue colour in contrast to the pale blue colour of the central image, then in lush polychromy in dialogue with the central scenes only in blue or purple manganese colours" (Roteiro de Museu Nacional do Azulejo, 2005, p. 124). In these tiles, panels can be observed religious panoramas conjugated with profane images "gallant, bucolic, and chinoiserie, based on engravings of Watteau and Pillement" (Idem, p. 124), among others. The tiles of these styles constitute the majority of those that were transported to Brazil. In this country, similarly to what happened in Portugal, tiles started to be used as decorative and narrative elements of the interior buildings facades, mainly in the religious buildings and, later, on other buildings façades. Its decorative and narrative function adds to the protection against the tropical climate, which is adapted to the local context.

As Tônia Matosinho (2016, p. 4) states "sun, rain, sea, and humidity are responsible for the buildings wear and tear in a tropical country. As the glazed outer surface of the tile reflects the light, it serves as a thermal insulation, providing a cooler internal environment; and also repels moisture, minimizing the conservation costs due to the action of the weather" (p. 4).

The great earthquake of Lisbon in 1755 brought about another remarkable period in the use of tiles in Portugal, such as the invention and reinvention of its aesthetic forms. Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo (better known by Marquês de Pombal) was a secretary of State in the José I reign. He led the reconstruction of Lisbon after the earthquake, integrating the national tiles in the capital city reconstruction and reissuing the tradition of “pattern” tile (an effective and inexpensive decorative solution). In a case of cultural syncretism, Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo was inspired by the Brazilian tradition, ordering the facades cladding of the new Lisbon buildings with tiles. It is a cultural communion between two cultures, “from a tile heritage, not only from a decorative point of view but also from the utilitarian value” (Matosinho, 2016, p. 4).

The tiles manufacture led to the installation of new production centres, first in Portugal and later in Brazil, where “the oldest potteries of Lisbon with Muslim roots were located in the Anjos area (oriental pottery), expelling in the 16th century to the South Bank and later to the West of the city, to the Santos zone” (Sebastian, 2010, p. 91-138). Crockery and tiles were produced at the same time in the pottery of the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries (Carvalho & Mangucci, 2018, p.9). Later, new factories were founded, producing sophisticated and beautiful tiles such as the “Real Fábrica de Louça in the Rato area of Lisbon, founded in 1767. It was included in the industrialization policies carried out by the Marquês de Pombal. The “Real Fábrica de Louça” assembled the various tasks in the same place from the preparation of the clay to the hanging, through to the painting of crockery and of pattern and figurative tiles....” (Carvalho & Mangucci, 2018, p.13). These stood out based on the technical advances and creativity.

Although it has been receiving Portuguese tiles since the 17th century, it is only at the beginning of the 20th century that some factories appear in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo in Brazil. The Brazilian tiles acquire relief in the second quarter of this century when the tiles became one of the basic elements of the Brazilian modernist architecture. Candido Portinari and Athos Bulcão were two of its main users and Brazilian disseminators. As Tônia Matosinho (2016) point out, “Portinari creates in the early 1940s the tile panels for the Gustavo Capanema Palace, a landmark of modern tile in Rio de Janeiro; and Bulcão, in designing since 1957, panels for Brasília, the capital that was emerging” (p. 5).

Also, Lúcio Costa and Óscar Niemeyer “used the Portuguese tile tradition with a new understanding of public expression. This sense brought to Portugal the use of large tile panels in public spaces, creating a generation of artists who worked on it adapting to the languages and demands of their time, and it also reflects on the pictorial and technical memories of the past”

(Matos et al., 2015, p.5). Thus, this takes pace in an enriched cultural synchronism.

On the one hand, the multiple cultural heritages contributed to the permanent making of the Portuguese culture. Also, the Portuguese bequeathed several cultural traits to Brazil, both in the domain of their cities and the use of the tile in their buildings. The tiles in Brazil acquired a new and innovative language, in particular with modernism, which marked the country's aesthetic movements throughout the 20th century.

Conclusion

The tile began to be part of the Portuguese cultural behavior from the 16th century to the present day. Its intensive use in space and time, the insertion and invention of new forms of design, and new artistic styles has attributed unique characteristics to the art of tile production in the Portuguese context. First, it was used to decorate the interior palaces walls and religious buildings. It was later, especially in the 18th century, used for the exterior decoration of buildings facades. Being an aesthetically beautiful solution, effectively communicative and of a little economic demanding, the tile ended up defining the rural and urban landscapes of Portugal. The tiles, individually or in panels, more or less old, are common in public fountains, parks, train stations, buildings facades etc., a bit throughout the country.

However, by acquiring unique aesthetic and technical forms inside this context, the tile is useful for thinking and challenging concepts such as "authenticity" or "cultural roots". This is irrespective of the fact that it is not an original Portuguese element. Its introduction into Portugal has resulted to a crossroads of cultures that have crossed Portuguese territory from Islamic to Christian religions. This is because it was taken to distant lands such as Brazil or India.

Tiles covered with Western religious and secular themes were applied to churches, palaces, and Indian houses. The Portuguese fascination with the oriental culture had its influence on the Portuguese tiles in a remarkable cultural syncretism. Rosie Mitchell (2017) notes: "By the 17th century, motifs were inspired by works from the Orient and India. This is particularly seen in azulejos used for altar decoration, which became common up until the 18th century, and which imitated oriental fabrics (calico, chintz). Examples can be found in the Hospital de Sta. Marta, Lisbon, or in the church of Almoester and the Convent of Buçaco. Between 1650 and 1680, imported Indian printed textiles that displayed Hindu Symbols, flowers, animals, and birds became influential, and an azulejo composition called "aves e ramagens" ('birds and branches') became fashionable (p. 348).

India is therefore another territory where the Portuguese, remaining about 450 years, left elements of their culture, and they were influenced by the

Indian artistic styles. Until date, cultural contacts and the Portuguese presence are visible in various cultural domains such as language or architecture. Thus, the tile which was also introduced by the Portuguese in India is present in the decoration of civil and religious buildings. It is still used as a narrative element in both religious and profane space, allowing the definition of bridges between different cultures. With the discovery of the maritime route to India by Vasco da Gama, in 1498, and the resulting cultural crossings due to the introduction of tile, there would be a new line of research that would be developed in the future.

Nowadays, museums, based on effective educational and communication services, stand as fundamental institutions in changing the value of objects as well as in the development of a positive image of the community cultural behaviors which they intend to represent for a growing audience.

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A Research Note on using Mortality Statistics in Tort Claims

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Abstract

Personal injury insurers constantly need to model the future mortality experience in the process of handling tort claims. Various stochastic mortality modelling techniques are deployed so that lawyers and actuaries specialised in this field of civil litigation can effectively perform the procedures related to dispute resolution and assessment of compensation. In this project, how lump sum awards are judicially determined in Hong Kong is examined. The impact of future mortality rates is discussed in the context of future medical expenses and loss of future earning as a result of discounting the future pecuniary values into a single present-day amount. The time value of money affected by inflation and the claimant's mortality are among the key factors to be calibrated in the present study. The work described in this paper was fully supported by a grant from the Research Grants Council of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China (Project No. HKU 17636316).

Keywords: Tort law; personal injury claims; mortality statistics; compensation.

Background

This present research informed the introduction and on-going judicial recognition of actuarial assessment of personal injury compensation based on Hong Kong's mortality experience and economic conditions. The research produced new insights and had significant impact on how Hong Kong judges apply the century-old English common law principle of *restitutio in integrum* in a modern and global financial hub. The research directly led to an increase in the actual quantum of compensation awarded to the victims of personal injury accidents and clinical negligence, and the surviving dependants of the deceased victims.

Objectives

When an innocent party is injured in a tort-based system of law as the result of the wrong of another party, the innocent party should be awarded adequate and proper compensation. Lady Hale of the Privy Council stated this principle simply and clearly: “The only principle of law is that the claimant should receive full compensation for the loss which he has suffered as a result of the defendant’s tort, not a penny more but not a penny less.” [*Simon v Helmot* [2012] UKPC 5] The basic principle underlying the assessment of the quantum of damages is *restitutio in integrum*. This principle has been defined in various *dicta* of the courts. For example, during the Victorian era of England, Lord Blackburn stated:

“Where any injury is to be compensated by damages, in settling the sum of money to be given ... you should as nearly as possible get at that sum of money which will put the person who has been injured ... in the same position as he would have been in if he had not sustained the wrong.” [*Livingstone v Rawyards Coal Co* (1880) 5 App Cas 25]

As previously articulated by the present authors, the award of adequate and proper compensation to victims of personal injury accidents is a matter of both private and public importance. It is of private importance that the victims receive sufficient compensation to recompense them for the wrongs they have suffered. The purpose of such compensation is not only to ensure that they receive all proper and necessary damages so that they may live as fulfilling lives as possible after injuries. It is also of public importance to instill confidence in the judicial system which provides such compensation. This requires that the system of compensation be based on rational and justifiable economic criteria which can be objectively measured. The system of calculating such awards should be simple to operate using such criteria which are easy to understand, such as life expectancy figures and tables that reflect the proper and true value of money. (*Personal Injury Tables Hong Kong 2016* by W.S. Chan, F. Chan, J. Li and N. Sarony, Sweet and Maxwell).

Until very recently, judges in Hong Kong selected the appropriate multiplier “intuitively” without making any reference to the evidence regarding life expectancies, mortality rates, inflation rates and investment return rates. In 1971, Lord Person of the UK House of Lords said in *Taylor v O’Connor* [1971] AC 115:

“I do not think that actuarial tables or actuarial evidence should be used as the primary basis of assessment. There are too many variables, and there are too many conjectural decisions to be made before selecting the tables to be used. There would be a false appearance of accuracy and precision in a sphere where conjectural estimates have to play a large part. The experience of practitioners and judges in applying the normal method is the best primary basis for making assessments.”

In so doing, Lord Pearson set the scene for what was known as the “intuitive” selection of the appropriate multiplier. Judges used their “knowledge” and “wisdom” yet all too often neglected a large group of factors that actuaries, economists and demographers took into account when compiling the life tables and actuarial tables. It was almost 30 years before formal judicial recognition was accorded to the use of actuarial tables in determining the appropriate multiplier. Lord Lloyd stated in *Wells v Wells* [1999] 1 AC 345:

“The [actuarial] tables should now be regarded as a starting point, rather than a check. A judge should be slow to depart from the relevant actuarial multiplier on impressionistic grounds, or by reference to ‘a spread of multipliers in comparable cases’ especially when the multipliers were fixed before actuarial tables were widely used.”

The tables to which Lord Lloyd referred were the Ogden Tables, published by the UK Government Actuary in 1981 based on the work done by a committee chaired by Sir Michael Ogden QC, and used extensively by judges and practitioners in England and Wales to determine the appropriate multiplier. With General Research Funds awarded by the Hong Kong Research Grant Council, Felix W.H. Chan (as the Principal Investigator) collaborated with W.S. Chan (actuarial science and econometrics) in conducting the research. This project is distinctly interdisciplinary. Four editions of Personal Injury Tables Hong Kong were published by Sweet and Maxwell respectively in 2000, 2005, 2013 and 2016. The latest edition contains the updated tables taking into account the revised HK mortality projections by the Census and Statistics Department (HK Population Projections 2015-2064), under which there is an increase in life expectancy. Its comprehensive contents also cover the inflationary rates for adjusting PSLA (Pain, Suffering and Loss of Amenities), wage statistics and retail price indices.

Research Methods

As explained above, actuarial tables have been used extensively in England and Wales since 1981. Unfortunately, in *Chan Pui Ki v Leung On* [1996] HKCA 678, the Hong Kong Court of Appeal appeared to be ignorant of the tables that had been in use in England and Wales for the previous 14 years, preferring the “intuitive” approach. Justice Litton rejected the admission of economic evidence for determining the investment return on the lump-sum compensation against inflation, a retrograde step which locked the personal injury victims in HK into a time warp which bears very scant relevance to economic reality.

However, significant changes took place in response to the Personal Injury Tables Hong Kong. Recently in Hong Kong, two significant judgments

were rendered by Bharwaney J. in *Chan Pak Ting (No.1)* [2012] HKCFI 1584 and *Chan Pak Ting (No.2)* [2013] HKCFI 179. Chan Pak Ting, 31 years old at the date of trial, suffered catastrophic injuries after a car crash. Two clinical negligence cases were consolidated together with Chan Pak Ting on the same issues related to actuarial tables and discount rates. The plaintiffs are: 12-year old Li Ka Wai who suffered from deprivation of oxygen at birth and became paraplegic, and 12-year old Yuen Hiu Tung who suffered a cardio-respiratory seizure and became mentally retarded and paralysed due to clinical negligence.

The Personal Injury Tables Hong Kong gained judicial recognition in *Chan Pak Ting (No.1)*. Bharwaney J. stated: “[32] ... I agree that the [actuarial] tables should be accepted as the starting point in Hong Kong, just as the Ogden Tables are accepted as the starting point in the UK. In future, there should be less need to refer to previous case law of multiplier precedents, particularly if those cases were decided without reference to actuarial tables by way of a cross-check.” This new approach was subsequently endorsed by the Hong Kong Court of Appeal in *Chan Wai Ming v Leung Shing Wah* [2014] HKCA 318 and *Hussain Kamran v Khan Amar* [2016] HKCA 455.

We explored the methodology of setting the appropriate discount rate in Hong Kong based on Hong Kong’s economic conditions. The discount rate is fundamental to the actuarial determination of the multipliers. It is the rate of investment return the claimant can be expected to achieve on the lump-sum award before it is fully exhausted. The lower the discount rate, the larger the multiplier and also the higher the lump-sum award. In *Chan Pak Ting (No.2)*, Bharwaney J. departed from the conventional discount rate of 4.5% per annum (set by the House of Lords in *Cookson v Knowles* and endorsed by the Hong Kong Court of Appeal in *Chan Pui Ki*). Having examined Hong Kong’s economic evidence, he set 3 different discount rates, reflecting the investment choices of each class of investors as driven by their specific needs and goals. For needs exceeding 10 years, he set a discount rate of 2.5% per annum by taking an “average” portfolio of: (1) 10% in time deposits; (2) 70% in high quality bonds; and (3) 20% in high quality blue-chips which qualify as “widows and orphans” stock. It should be noted that 2.5% is also the current discount rate in the UK. For needs extending beyond 5 years but not exceeding 10 years, the court set a discount rate of 1% per annum. For needs not exceeding 5 years, a negative discount rate of -0.5% per annum was set, following the Privy Council’s decision in *Simon v Helmut* that there was nothing wrong in principle to set a negative discount rate.

The facts of *Chan Pui Ki* can be used to illustrate the impact. As explained above, Justice Litton in *Chan Pui Ki* rejected the admission of actuarial evidence and awarded:

- HK\$108,000 (multiplicand) x 15 (multiplier) = HK\$1,620,000 (lump-sum award for loss of future earnings, about US\$208,660)
- Had actuarial tables (Table 9) been used at a discount rate of 2.5%, the compensation awarded would have increased significantly:
- HK\$108,000 (multiplicand) x 28.10 (multiplier) = HK\$3,034,800 (about US\$390,891, a sharp increase by 1.87 times)

Analysis

(1) On what basis are personal injury damages awards assessed in Hong Kong?

The multiplicand-multiplier approach is adopted in ascertaining the lump-sum awards. Periodical payments are not available in Hong Kong. Hong Kong applies the English common law principles laid down by the House of Lords (now known as the UK Supreme Court) in *Wells v Wells* [1999] 1 AC 345. In awarding damages in the form of a lump sum, the court had to calculate as best it could the sum that would be adequate, by drawing down both capital and income, to provide periodical sums equal to the claimant's estimated loss over the period during which that loss was likely to continue. Hong Kong does not have the equivalent of the UK Damages Act 1996. Assessment of personal injury damages in Hong Kong is governed purely by common law principles.

Hong Kong has its own set of actuarial tables (the latest edition is *Personal Injury Tables Hong Kong 2016: Tables for the Calculation of Damages*, Sweet and Maxwell 2016). The 2016 edition is based on the revised Hong Kong mortality projections by the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (Hong Kong Population Projections 2015-2064), under which there is an increase in life expectancy. Whether a new edition is needed in the future will depend on the next mortality projections to be issued by the Hong Kong Government. It is estimated that on average, a new edition is needed in every 5 or 6 years.

The actuarial tables are judicially accepted as the starting point in Hong Kong, just as the Ogden Tables are accepted as the starting point in the UK. (Bharwaney J. in *Chan Pak Ting (No.1)* [2012] HKCFI 1584 and *Chan Pak Ting (No.2)* [2013] HKCFI 179; confirmed by the HK Court of Appeal in *Chan Wai Ming v Leung Shing Wah* [2014] HKCA 318 and *Hussain Kamran v Khan Amar* [2016] HKCA 455).

(2) Periodical payments and discount rate

Periodical payments are not available in Hong Kong. The Law Reform Commission of Hong Kong has recently set up a committee to explore the possibility of introducing periodical payments in the future. Lump sum

awards are adjusted to take account of accelerated receipt. Hong Kong does not have the equivalent of the Damages Act 1996 in the UK. Assessment of personal injury damages in Hong Kong, including the determination of the discount rate, is governed purely by common law principles.

In England and Wales, the discount rate of 4 - 5% was set in *Cookson v Knowles* [1979] A.C. 556. The same discount rate of 4 - 5% was followed in Hong Kong until 2013. In *Chan Pak Ting (No.2)* [2013] HKCFI 179, Bharwaney J. departed from the conventional discount rate of 4.5% per annum (set by the House of Lords in *Cookson v Knowles* and endorsed by the Hong Kong Court of Appeal in *Chan Pui Ki v Leung On* [1996] HKCA 678; [1996] 2 HKC 565). Having examined Hong Kong's economic conditions, he set 3 different discount rates, reflecting the investment choices of each class of investors as driven by their specific needs and goals. The discount rate is the annual net rate of investment return in excess of inflation that a claimant is assumed to achieve on the lump-sum award. To calculate the real rate of return, net of price inflation, the Hong Kong Court employed the changes in the Composite Consumer Price Index ("CPI") as the proxy for price inflation, as it covers approximately 90% of all households in Hong Kong.

As explained in the earlier part of this paper, for needs exceeding 10 years, he set a discount rate of 2.5% per annum by taking an "average" portfolio of: (1) 10% in time deposits; (2) 70% in high quality bonds; and (3) 20% in high quality blue-chips which qualify as "widows and orphans" stock. For needs extending beyond 5 years but not exceeding 10 years, the court set a discount rate of 1% per annum, by taking a portfolio of: (1) about 15% in time deposits; (2) 85% in HK Government Exchange Fund Notes and high quality bonds. For needs that do not exceed 5 years, a negative discount rate of -0.5% per annum was set, following the Privy Council's decision in *Simon v Helmot* [2012] UKPC 5 (an appeal from Guernsey Court of Appeal) that there was nothing wrong in principle to set a negative discount rate. The portfolio is: (1) about 20% in time deposits; and (2) 80% in Hong Kong Government Exchange Fund Notes.

Conclusion

The Personal Injury Tables Hong Kong have been cited more than 60 times in the Hong Kong courts after *Chan Pak Ting*. Example of recent citations can be found in the Annex of this paper. Choosing multipliers "intuitively" on impressionistic grounds has been eschewed. The breadth of factors which actuaries took into account when producing the actuarial tables is now fully appreciated. Judges, lawyers and mediators welcome the move to a standard method of assessing compensation that facilitates sensible resolution of personal injury disputes, keeping with the spirit of the Civil

Justice Reforms in HK. Concerning the discount rate, Mr. Neville Sarony QC argued:

“Taking as a starting point the necessity to take financial information into account, the judge was faced with the critical distinction that Hong Kong had no financial instrument equivalent to UK gilts but he still had to devise a model portfolio that met the criteria for being relative risk free, inflation sensitive and accessible to be drawn down on during its life.” (*Hong Kong Lawyer*, June 2017, pp.32-35)

It is hoped that a working party consisting of judges, lawyers, actuaries and economists will be established in the future. The working party should regularly review the relevant issues for the purpose of setting the most appropriate discount rate(s) for the assessment of personal injury compensation.

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ANNEX

Case name	Judicial reference number	Citation of the Personal Injury Tables
(1) CHAN PAK TING v. CHAN CHI KUEN AND ANOTHER	[2012] HKCFI 1584; [2013] 1 HKLRD 634; [2013] 2 HKC 182; HCPI 235/2011 (16 October 2012)	[16][21][22][30][31][32]
(2) LI KA WAI AND ANOTHER v. HOSPITAL AUTHORITY	[2012] HKCFI 1585; [2013] 1 HKLRD 634; [2013] 2 HKC 182; HCPI 671/2007 (16 October 2012)	[16][21][22][30][31][32]
(3) YUEN HIU TUNG v. HOSPITAL AUTHORITY	[2012] HKCFI 1586; [2013] 1 HKLRD 634; [2013] 2 HKC 182; HCPI 228/2010 (16 October 2012)	[16][21][22][30][31][32]
(4) CHAN PAK TING v. CHAN CHI KUEN AND ANOTHER	[2013] HKCFI 179; [2013] 2 HKLRD 1; [2013] 2 HKC 365; HCPI 235/2011 (7 February 2013)	[9][137]
(5) LI KA WAI v. HOSPITAL AUTHORITY	[2013] HKCFI 180; [2013] 2 HKLRD 1; [2013] 2 HKC 365; HCPI 671/2007 (7 February 2013)	[9][137]
(6) YUEN HIU TUNG v. HOSPITAL AUTHORITY	[2013] HKCFI 181; [2013] 2 HKLRD 1; [2013] 2 HKC 365; HCPI 228/2010 (7 February 2013)	[9][137]
(7) LAM CHAN HUNG v. HANG YUE ENGINEERING LTD	[2013] HKCFI 392; [2013] 3 HKLRD 420; HCPI 121/2011 (12 March 2013)	[62]
(8) FANG HANBIAO v. CHEN DEWEI AND ANOTHER	[2013] HKCFI 449; HCPI 808/2008 (22 March 2013)	[108]
(9) LEUNG KWUN CHUEN v. LI SHING KONG	[2013] HKCFI 463; HCPI 749/2011 (22 March 2013)	[75][88][89]
(10) SO YUK KAM v. LAU KAM YUEN	[2013] HKCFI 841; HCPI 5/2011 (24 May 2013)	[15]
(11) EPIFANIO CANDEL RBASTO v. CHAN KING YUN JAMES	[2013] HKCFI 1834; HCPI 42/2012 (31 October 2013)	[50]

Violent Behavior and Learners' Performance Difficulties

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Abstract

This study aims to know the effects of psycho-emotional problems caused by school violence, both to students and teachers. Hence, the hypothesis is that violence has an impact on students' and teachers' performance. As for our sample, it comprises 250 students, divided into three groups. Concerning our analysis methods, we chose the Multiple Correspondence Factor Analysis (MCA) as a multidimensional analysis method and the Hierarchical Ascending Classification (HAC) for the classification. Finally, our data analysis reveals a link between attachment schemes and learning difficulties. This link is different depending on whether the attachment schemes are related to family or teachers.

Keywords: Violence, psycho-emotional, attachment, Multiple Correspondence Factorial Analysis.

1. Introduction

The phenomenon of violence has grown internationally and has become a global concern. Thus, it is not uncommon to see a teacher being beaten by students or students molested by their peers. This leads to the appearance of psychological problems leading to weak school results. Despite the authorities and all the partners of the education system's efforts, including teachers to eradicate this scourge, schools are full of violence of different kind (physical, verbal and moral).

Violence is a general phenomenon in all societies. Cabanel (2007) defines it as the fact of forcing someone to do something, to say, to think the way one wants him; to behave the way one wants him or to forbid him to do, to say, to think; to behave the way one does not want him. The studies conducted by Vangah and Sika (2006) reveal an increase of violence in schools in Côte d'Ivoire.

What are the causes of this violence in schools? Various causes according to the UN (2005) explain this violence. Indeed, with the advent of multiparty in politics in 1990, under the influence of the generation gap, the young people adopted a behavior defying any intervention and any attempt of supervision of parents, elders and the teachers. This noble practice from traditional education was rejected. Society is left without a model and this is an open door to instability and all the scourges we see today.

The evidence, during the 2009 crisis, some children have been enrolled, others have followed their comrades or senior brothers according to their testimony. After the crisis, the state hired or rewarded the oldest and the youngest were abandoned. It is these abandoned and unguided children who are the children in conflict with the law, also known as "microbes" today. They are spreading terror everywhere. Thus, Traoré (2007) indignantly says that this laborious and fighting youth that has helped Côte d'Ivoire to emancipate, develop and filled its lack in qualified personnel, which is manipulated for political end. Violence sets in at school and the main actors are students. These acts go beyond the scope of the school and come in different form: verbal violence or incivility (heckling, insults, verbal threat) and in physical form (bodily injury, blows, etc.) and moral (stress, fear, worry, trauma) against the administration staff, teachers, possessions and even other students. Many students and staff members are in insecurity. Doumbes (2006) follows, saying that violence is generally observed during teachers or students strikes. Proteau (2002) argues that the impunity reinforces this threat. Some authors attribute this violence to a change in society that loses its perceptible moral models through the failure of families in education. The deviation of certain principles such as equality or freedom or democracy are often the causes of debauchery and disorder. Margerat (2003) notes that it is within the family that we should look for the main reasons for juvenile marginalization.

Koudou (2006) goes further and identifies other explanatory variables of violence: delinquency. These are due to rigid educational practices and laissez-faire, or parental verbal stigmas. Family rejections, in a context where these dysfunctions develop through the psychic mechanism of introjections, a personality at risk of delinquency, in terms of negative identity or negative self-representation, disappointed hope and feeling of exclusion. To this, must be added, the curricula and unsuitable teaching methods for the level, sometimes outdated and extroverted, or the collapse of the educational system. In addition, the influence of the media with violent films and the effect of combined mimicry are at the root of this violence.

At the economic level, Dupâquier (1999) emphasizes that the life cost and the poverty of the parents can be a cause of violence. The working conditions of teachers do not always favor good communication with learners concerning violence according to Bernard (2006).

The feelings of insecurity of concerning teaching, administrative and student staff, the loss of life and injuries are the consequences of this violence. Jamouille (2002-2005) stresses that schools must be protected from violence and the resulting social exclusion.

The consequences are therefore multiple on the students themselves, teachers, society and the country. As far as students are concerned, they have bad school results, school failure, gangsters, influence on recalcitrant children, weak children, phobia, stress, trauma, drop-out by some students and chronic absenteeism. Regarding teachers, we have the deterioration of the moral references followed by the deterioration of the teacher's images and their demotivation, the communication break between teachers and pupils. All this leads to the non-completion of the school programs. Galy (2004) believes that violence increases unemployment. Indeed, a teacher who is beaten by his students no longer has credibility in front of them. To this, it should be noted the lack of concentration of the teacher due to the fear of being beaten a new. An anxious teacher who is frightened at any moment because of insecurity deserts classes.

For Proteaux (2002), the apprehension and exclusion of perpetrators is the best way to eradicate these scourges. The warm and encouraging relationships of adults increase self-esteem, lead to fewer psychomatic problems, less victimization, and a supportive attitude towards harassment and threats of violence. Through our literature review, we conclude that the causes and consequences of violence in schools are multiple according to the authors cited above. However, the psycho-emotional component related to academic achievement has not been sufficiently addressed. But what are the effects of psycho-emotional problems caused by school violence both to students and teachers? What are the causes, manifestations, consequences and attempts of solutions? Our topic, school violence and school performance aims to identify the psycho-emotional problems caused by school violence. Our hypothesis is that violence has an impact on students' school performance and teacher's efficiency. In other words:

- The more violent the student, the less efficient he is.
- The more violent the student, the less motivated the teacher is.

We used Bowlby's attachment theory to diagnose the interactions between teachers and students and between students and students. We have added the socioconstructivist theory of Vygotsky (1987) which advocates the interaction with the subject, the teacher and the student, which highlights the impact of teacher's demotivation on children's school results. To these two theories, we have added the psycho-critic, which permits us to superimpose the problems in order to identify the most repeated ones that will make it possible to evaluate the psychological impact. Studies have shown that the interactions between the actors of each institution present a specific attitude

that constitutes its personality and has an impact on the learning. The quality of the attachment is necessary for the psychological development of the child, a guarantee to the eradication of all learning difficulties.

2. Methodology

Our study is part of the influence of personal factors on school difficulties.

2.1. Sites and participants

The population consists of 320 students comprising 143 girls and 177 boys from lycée moderne of Abobo located near the market of Abobo and the town hall. We extracted 250 people as our sample, divided into three groups called stratum. It is made up of 140 non-violent students, 60 very violent students and 50 teachers, all victims of the school violence. The students are from form 1 to form 4. All of these people are plagued by psycho-emotional problems that affect their school performance.

They were chosen on the basis of the information received from their peers who remained anonymous and the results from the school booklets given by the administration of lycée moderne 2 of Abobo (IT department and archives). The students were ranked according to their level and particular problems. As for the teachers, we categorized them according to their psycho-emotional problems and their attendance at school.

2.2. Data collection instruments

Several data collection techniques were chosen: the documentary study through observation, questionnaire, interview and psychological tests. These techniques helped us to obtain appropriate information about violence.

Observation

The documentary study deals not only with the observation and the study of students' files and selected teachers, but also with the existing psychological, sociological and dialectical literature.

Questionnaire

It was administered to all the student part of the sample.

Interview

Group or individual interviews with violent or non-violent students, teachers, authorities or partners of the education system and civil organizations. Focus groups were carried out to evaluate the effects of psycho-emotional problems due to violence.

Psychological tests

They allowed us to obtain information on the psycho-affective dispositions of the people submitted to the psychological tests.

The dependent variable: school result, has two indicators: good result and bad result. This has been validated.

The independent variable: school violence, has two indicators: psycho-emotional problems and teachers' demotivation. They have also been validated.

2.3. Data analysis methods

The methodology we choose for this study is a multidimensional analysis followed by classification. We choose the Multiple Correspondence Factor Analysis (MCA) as the multidimensional analysis method and the Hierarchical Ascending Classification (HAC) for the classification.

The MCA is a method that makes it possible to study the population according to several qualitative variables and to represent the using graphs, the associations of these variables in pairs. This method generates axes that define the factorial plans in pairs. The statistical model ranks the axes in decreasing order of their "explanatory power", that is to say, their ability to account for the information they synthesize. The MCA is the factorial analysis method par excellence because it is the most appropriate to the analysis of the questionnaires. In addition, having quantitative variables such as the term average is not a problem since these variables can be recoded into classes; thus passing from quantitative variables to qualitative variables to be used in the analysis.

The hierarchical classification will make it possible to release, following the MCA, a typology of the population grouping the individuals in different categories that characterize them according to the most frequent modalities present in the category. The principle of this analysis is to group in the same class the closest individuals, then, step by step, to merge these classes into larger and larger classes. Then, we obtain a typology of the population studied by releasing several groups of individuals homogeneous regarding the variables studied.

These methods made it possible to identify the origin of the growth of violence in schools and resulting in psycho-affective consequences. They also made it possible to evaluate the impact of these problems on school results.

The results below establish the typology of the students according to their violence status, then according to their performance at school. Our analysis along these two axes will allow us to identify specific typologies in relation to these two axes.

3.Results

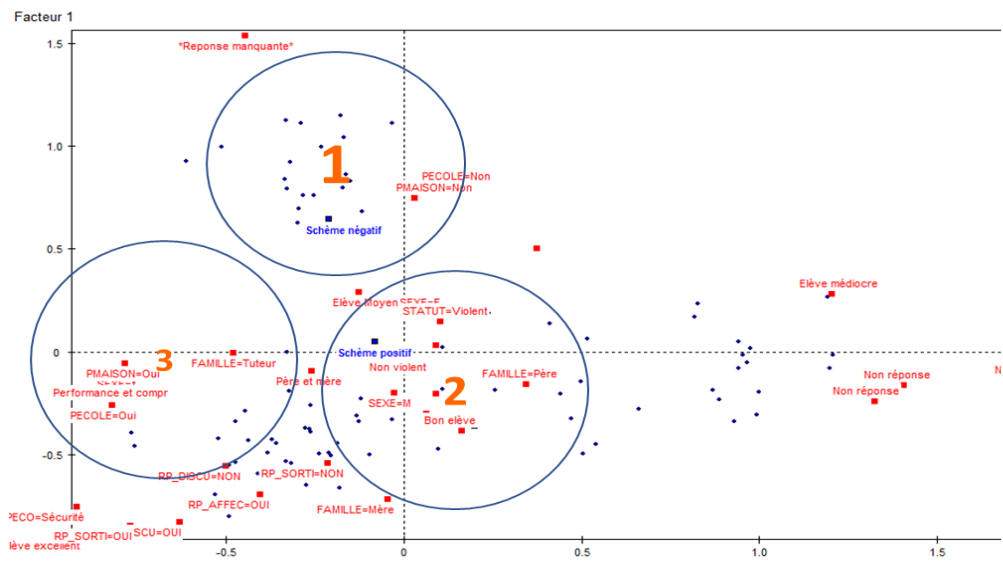
The analyzes below establish the typology of the students according to the schemas of attachment. We first analyze attachment patterns in relation to parents and then attachment patterns in relation to teachers.

3.1. Hypothesis 1 related to the attachment schema

3.1.1.Scheme of attachment to parents

Multidimensional data analysis identifies three types of students with different characteristics. These features are illustrated in the graph below.

Chart 1: Characterization of students according to the attachment



scheme to parents.

The first type of student (circle 1)

They are students with a negative parenting scheme. This class includes violent students. It also contains girls who say that they do not have problems at home or at school. concerning performance, they are rather average students, that is to say with a general averages between 10 and 12.

The second type of students (circle 2)

Here, the students have a positive attachment pattern, they are non-violent. This type of student is particularly in emotional balance. They live either with both parents (father and mother), or with their father in stable

family. In terms of academic performance these are students who perform well at school, with averages from 12 to 14.

The third type of students (circle 3)

These are students who have problems at home or at school. They have an emotional imbalance because they are far from their parents. In addition, these students, very often, have performance and comprehension problems at school. They are closer to positive patterns.

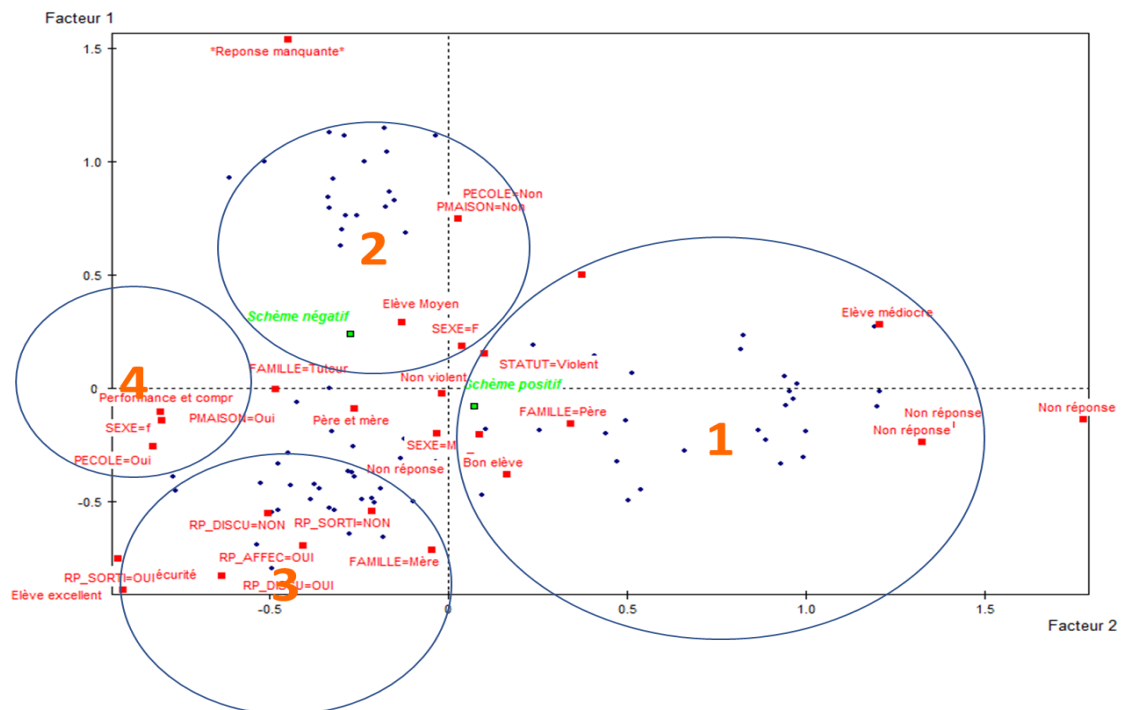
It appears that attachment schemes are related to the student performance. Indeed, according to the graph above, students mastering attachment scheme have more school success. Learning difficulties would therefore be more apparent in students with negative family patterns. Is this trend only related to attachment scheme? What is the link in a learning situation?

To answer these questions, we rely on the crossed analysis of the schemes of the learner and his academic performances.

3.1.2. Attachment scheme to teachers

In terms of teachers' attachment scheme, there are 4 categories. The characteristics of these categories are illustrated in the graph below.

Chart 2: Characterization of students according to the attachment scheme to teachers



The first type of students (circle 1)

This first category groups students with positive patterns in relation with teachers. Most of these students live with their father and identify themselves as violent. In terms of school results, this student has often good results, that is to say an average between 12 and 14. However, there is a large portion of less successful students in the classroom.

The second type of students (circle 2)

The second group of students is essentially girls with negative patterns. They do not live with parents; they live with tutors. As far as performance is concerned, they are average that is to say with averages between 10 and 12.

The third type of students (circle 3)

This category is composed of studious students. These students live in a stable family. Indeed, in their relationship with their parents, these students have discussions, they feel deep affections and go out for relaxation. In addition, their teacher attachment scheme are positive. It is the family that promotes their academic performance since it is the category of excellent students. Their overall averages are more or equal to 14. However, these students experience insecurity in school settings; which could prevent them from being optimal regarding their performance.

The fourth type of pupil (circle 4)

The students in this category have negative scheme with respect to teaching. Several girls belong to this category. In addition, students in this category have performance and comprehension problems at school.

In the light of these two graphs, we can conclude that learners with positive and controlled patterns have a good result, unlike their peers.

At this stage, one might question the contribution of the learner's family to the development of positive or negative scheme. In other words, what role does the family environment or the violence status of the learner play in implementing these schemes?

The analysis below establishes the type of the students according to the violence status, then, according to their performance at the school. Our analysis along these two axes will permit us to identify specific typologies in relation to these two axes.

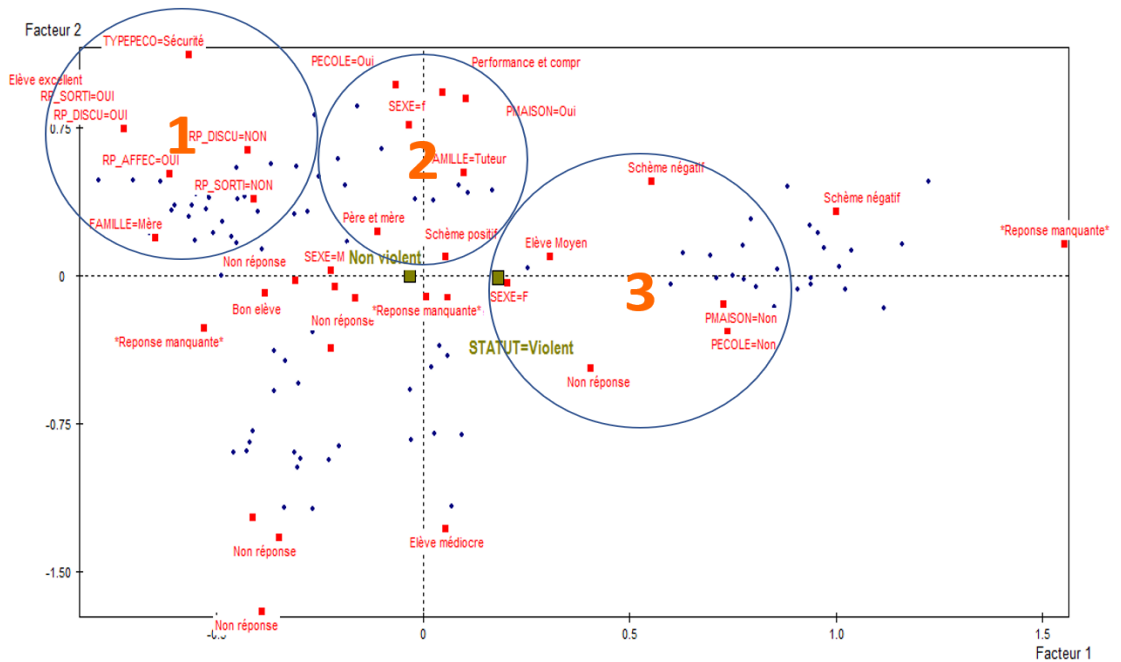
3.2. Hypothesis 2 related to the status of violence

For this study, students were asked if they felt violent or not. At the end of this question, we have two categories of students: violent and non-violent.

3.2.1. Typology related to the typology of violence

An analysis of the typology of our entire base allows us to identify 3 main classes. These classes are illustrated on the graph below. Of these three types of students, we release the descriptions that follow needed.

Chart 3: Characterization of Students by Violence status



The first type of student (circle 1)

In terms of school performance, this type of student is very bright; they are excellent at school (that is, their annual average is more than 14). However, these students often do not feel safe in their school environments.

The second type of student (circle 2)

These students are non-violent with a family comprising the father and the mother or living with a guardian. These students are often girls with problems at home or at school. The problems encountered in schools are related to comprehension and performance. This is probably why students in this category are closer to average performance.

The third type of student (circle 3)

This class is made up of violent students. This violence is not justified by the problems encountered at home or at school. Indeed, these students do not encounter any particular problems at home or at school. Their striking feature is that they have negative attachment scheme; concerning parents as well as education. Regarding school performance, they have an average performance.

3.2.2. Typology according to academic performance

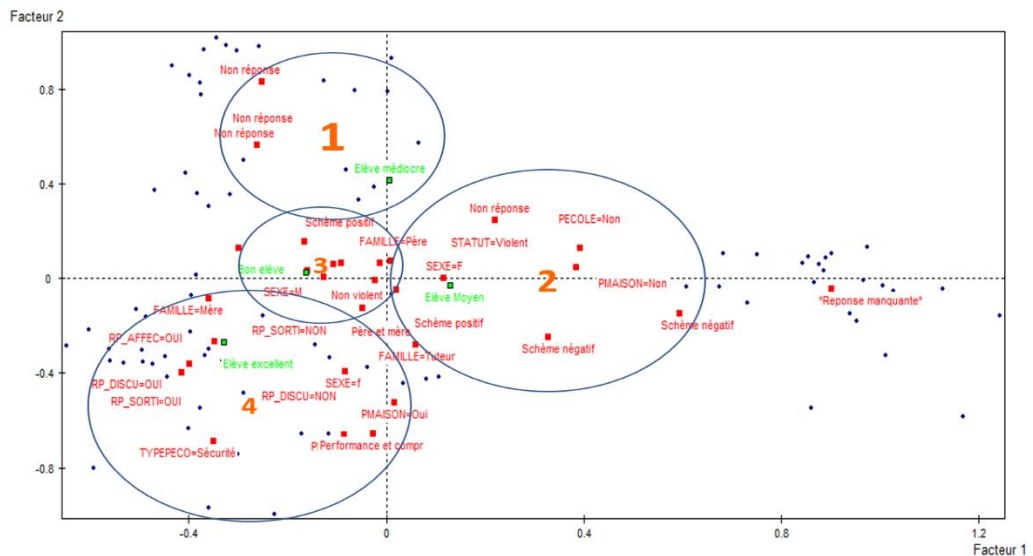
A fundamental question in this study is to know the typology around school performance compared to other indicators. To do this, we analyze the

typology of students according to their school performance. The performances are grouped into 4 classes:

- Poor students: these are students with a general average less than 10 out of 20;
- Average students: these are students with a general average of between 10 and 12 out of 20;
- Good student: these are student with a general average of between 12 and 14 out of 20;
- Excellent students: these are the student with a general average greater than 14 out of 20.

Chart 2 illustrates the description of these categories.

Graph 4: Characterization of students by school performance



The first type of pupil (circle 1)

This first category groups students who are weak. These students did not answer all the questions in the study; that creates a high rate of non-responses in this category. Note, however, that this category is close to positive attachment schemes.

The second type of student (circle 2)

In this category, students report that they have no particular problems at school or at home. These students are violent and have negative attachment patterns. In addition, this category is made up of more girls.

The third type of student (circle 3)

This category is composed of students living with their father. They are non-violent, have positive attachment scheme and many are boys. This is

the category of students who are good, that is to say with an average between 12 and 14 out of 20.

The fourth type of pupil (circle 4)

This group describes the excellent students. Their description is very close to circle number 1 in the analysis of violence. They are rather non-violent students, having family relaxation or discussions as well as the necessary affection. However, in addition to the security issues in their school environments, some of these students feel underperforming and have comprehension problem.

4. Discussion

The data analysis reveals a link between the attachment scheme and learning difficulties. This link is different depending on whether the attachment schemes are related to family or teachers. In relation to the family, it should be noted that the schemes depend on the student's environment. When the living environment with the parents is stable, the student develops positive schemes, otherwise, he develops negative schemes. Besides, when attachment schemes are positive, the student is more successful at school.

Concerning teachers, we note that the attachment scheme are also linked to the family environment. Students with positive attachment patterns are more likely to be more efficient at school than the others. However, this performance tends to be reduced due to the insecurity felt at school.

The objective of this research is to identify the psycho-emotional problems resulting from violence related to the students' results and teachers' demotivation. The results showed that students and teachers fear violence. Indeed, violence is a source of psycho-emotional problems for both students and teachers. These troubles cause learning difficulties and lead to low school performance. Certainly, there are some students who are efficient. However, the problems remain. This is explained by the neurological predispositions of the children or parents' pressure on them.

Two hypotheses lead this study because, the violence demotivates teachers and affects the academic performance of violent and non-violent students. Our hypotheses have been confirmed. We agree with Koudou (2006) who argues that the acquisition of serious behaviors is apparently early in our teenagers, perhaps because the difficulties experienced since childhood continue until the end of adolescence. Violence therefore has an important impact on students' school performances and on teachers. Personality development disorders due to attachment schemes are considered as a risk factors for school failure (Adams, Breithaupt-Perters, 2010). The rejection of attachment model causes children to disinvest in the affective domain: vandalism (Miljkowitch, 2001). The lack of a close relationship with parents is linked to children and adolescents learning difficulties (Bowlby, 2011). The

students having pleasant interactions with their parents are more likely to be less engaged and less successful at school compared to those who enjoy a positive relationship with their parents. The quality of attachment is essential to changing the child's psychological development; it is a guarantee for facilitating learning.

Conclusion

School violence is a concern for all the partners of the education system. Several causes justify it and the consequences are countless on the students, the teachers, the population and on the family, the most vulnerable layer. Our study, school violence and school performance aims to identify the psycho-emotional problems caused by school violence.

We used Bowlby's attachment theory to diagnose interactions between violent students and teachers, between violent and nonviolent students. Vygotsky (1987) theory has been useful to us. It helped us to evaluate the impact of violence on school results through the interaction between the subject studied, the teacher and the student. This study has limitations. Several parameters can also be explanatory variables. If the teacher for example is fully available for the student, if he finds safety and comfort with him, he will not dare to attack him. If he manages his own projects, he will be less violent. It requires true cooperation concerning the school, the family, the teacher and the students. Identifying all the violent students and taking care of them psychologically will be a significant help to the eradication of this plague.

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The Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility On the Relationship Between Corporate Reputation and Brand Equity – A Study of GSM Users

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Abstract

Corporate reputation refers to stakeholder perception of a company. All companies desire a strong and favorable reputation as it is an effective means to brand loyalty and a competitive edge. Building a strong reputation requires reputation management, which is often based on sustainability and consistency as well as creating an emotional bond with consumers. This has led many companies to be more involved in the social responsibility initiatives since such initiatives are known to change consumer's beliefs and attitudes toward brands. From this perspective, the present study aims to investigate the mediating role of corporate social responsibility in the relationship between corporate reputation and brand equity perceptions. The study sample consisted of 324 GSM users in Turkey. The data was collected using survey method and analyzed using SPSS 23.0 statistical package. The results of the study showed that corporate reputation has a positive effect on brand equity and corporate social responsibility plays a mediating role in this relationship.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Reputation, Brand Equity.

1. Introduction

In today's globalized world, brands try to create emotional bonds with consumers in order to survive and increasingly focus on corporate social responsibility due to the significance of this phenomenon. The concept of social responsibility is proven to improve the image of a brand and leads to brand differentiation in the eyes of consumers. Therefore, it can be assumed that companies implementing corporate social responsibility initiatives would

have an improved value of their brand, leading to enhanced corporate reputation and brand equity.

The reputation of a company is an essential factor affecting the decision-making process of consumers regarding buying a product or a service from a company. Consumers who consider a company have the tendency to value that company or its brand more, resulting in improved brand equity. Therefore, companies are in a continuous effort to distinguish their products or services from their rivals. For this purpose, companies try to establish an emotional bond with their consumers. Such goals can be achieved through investing in social responsibility initiatives.

Although there is several research on corporate reputation and brand equity, the present study aims to determine the role of corporate social responsibility in the relationship between corporate reputation and brand equity in service industry among GSM users.

2. Corporate Reputation

Due to its key role in improved competitive edge and organizational performance (Hall, 1993), corporate reputation has gained considerable interest of scholars especially in management literature; however, the concept is still vague with no consensus and various approaches. Corporate reputation, in essence, is the ability of a corporation to associate its business performance with its identity, prestige and image in line with its overall goals, (Argüden, 2003). Rosson and Gassman (2002) defines corporate reputation as the joint decisions of outsiders regarding the activities and successes of an organization. Almost all definitions have a common contextual point that reputation of an organization is a kind of assessment according to certain variables.

A good or strong reputation provide corporations with some advantages. According to Fombrun (1996), the most common benefit of such reputation is strategic advantage, whereas Walsh et al (2009) argue that customer loyalty is the outcome of a good reputation. Regardless of their size, today's organizations are exposed to this very common challenge on how to build a good corporate reputation in order to have a positive image on the minds of all their stakeholders, decision-makers and consumers in a such vulnerable and competition-intensive markets (Kuyucu, 2003).

A good reputation also improves the efficacy of organizational marketing tools. Reputation causes current and future products and services to be perceived as reliable, marketing and publicity activities to be noticed by larger populations, and consumers to be less sensitive to the prices of products and services (Bozkurt, 2011). Accordingly, reputation management aims, among others, to create customer value (Kadıbeşegil, 2006). A high level of perceived reputation leads to quality and high standard perceptions, which, in

turn, results in increased loyalty of consumers to the products and services of that particular company (Nguyen & Leblanc, 2001). Therefore; continuance, consistency and sustainability can be considered as the concepts underlying a solid corporate reputation.

The review of the extant literature reveals that corporate reputation is associated with several factors. For example, Chun (2005) showed an improved customer satisfaction and loyalty with a positive corporate reputation, while Page and Fearn (2005) reported that corporate reputation decreased risk of product selection. For the purpose of the present study, corporate reputation will be examined in terms of its relationships with brand equity and corporate social responsibility.

3. Brand Equity

Brand equity is a concept often interpreted similar to corporate reputation. Although these two phenomena are related, they are different assets. Brand equity simply refers to the assets identified with the name of a brand and creates an improved value for the product/service of a company. This makes brand equity a significant contributor to corporate reputation as it establishes and increases the quality of the relationship between a company and consumers (Saxton, 1999). Just like corporate reputation, brand equity has been conceptualized in many different ways. For instance, brand equity is positive feelings, attitudinal tendencies and behavioral inclinations according to Ranganwamy et al. (1993), whereas Aaker (1991) explains the phenomenon as the knowledge and other proprietary assets regarding a brand. Keller (1993), on the other hand, adopted a different approach and used the term consumer-based brand equity, which refers to “the differential effects of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of a brand”. This conceptualization, i.e. the customer perspective, has been followed and mentioned by many other scholars like Yoo and Donthu (2001) and Washburn and Plank (2002). The present study also approaches to brand equity from the perspective of customer by examining this construct in terms of a specific brands of service at customer level.

Brand equity as the value added to the name of a brand provided by an organization through its products and services (Aaker, 1991), creates that value when it is well-known and respected by consumers, and such value constitutes the brand equity (Keller, 1993; Wang et al., 2006). The more confidence customers have at the brand, the stronger the brand equity becomes, which, in turn, results in in financial and competitive adnantages (Aaker, 1991; Papu & Quester, 2006).

There are several studies in the available literature regarding how corporate reputation and brand equity are related. For instance, the study by Yungwook (2001) established a positive relationship between corporate

reputation and brand equity. The study by Beneke et al. (2015) also reported a positive relationship between corporate reputation and brand equity.

4. Corporate Social Responsibility

As a contextual construct regarding the relationship of an organization with its environment, corporate social responsibility involves vision, mission and values, organizational climate, social dialogue, market relations and ethics (Blowfield & Murray, 2008). Economical, legal, ethical and favorable expectations of the society in which an organization operates are met by corporate social responsibility (Crane et al., 2009).

The social responsibility activities of organizations are not carried out for the purpose of gaining profit; such activities implemented or supported by organizations lead to a strong and positive reputation among public. Strong reputation, in turn, causes society members to prefer the products and services of organizations that are involved in social responsibility projects (Sakman, 2003). Therefore, the sensitivity of organizations to the problems of their society becomes highly important in terms of their reputation. Becker-Olsen et al. (2006) explains this by stating that the beliefs, intentions and attitudes of consumers are improved by the corporate social responsibility actions of companies.

Socially responsible companies distinguish themselves from their rivals and improve their reputation. Social responsibility has a central role in accomplishing corporate and brand goals through its prestige creation, differentiation, empathy development and social contribution functions (Landa, 2005). Social responsibility, therefore, considerably contributes to value creation via integrating the brand with social responsibility in order to enhance the identity and value of the brand, which bears a great deal of importance for the business world (Özdemir, 2009). Companies employ positive emotions, thoughts and beliefs targeting consumers while they are establishing their brand by following social responsibility standards, and this fosters their brand image. Brand image, on the other hand, is strengthened by creating brand awareness (Visser et al., 2010).

Several studies conducted in the marketing field showed that corporate social responsibility initiatives influence corporate reputation. For example, the study by Khan, Majid, Yasir and Arshad (2013) found a strong relationship between corporate reputation and corporate social responsibility. Likewise, Maden et al.,(2012) reported that corporate social responsibility has a strong and positive effect on corporate reputation. The available literature also contains studies regarding the relationship between corporate social responsibility and brand equity. In this context, Lai et al. (2010) determined a positive effect of corporate social responsibility on industrial brand value and brand performance. The study by Torres et al. (2012) also reported a positive

association between corporate social responsibility and brand equity. Furthermore, Niazi, Haider and Islam (2012) showed that both corporate reputation and corporate social responsibility have a positive impact on brand equity and that corporate reputation partially mediates the corporate social responsibility and brand equity relationship.

In light of the extant literature and above information, the present study proposes following hypotheses:

H¹: The GSM users' corporate reputation perception has a positive effect on their brand equity perception.

H²: The GSM users' corporate reputation perception positively affects their brand equity perceptions through the mediating effect of corporate social responsibility.

5. Method

5.1. Research Goal

The primary goal of the present study is to investigate the mediating effect of corporate social responsibility on the relationship between corporate reputation and brand equity among mobile phone users in Turkey.

5.2. Participants and Procedure

The present study was conducted with 324 participants (197 female, 127 male) reached using snowball sampling method. The participants were clients of three different GSM operators available in Turkey. Data were collected using the survey method and analyzed using SPSS 23.0 for Windows statistical package.

5.3. Measures

Data collection was carried out using a questionnaire form that consisted of a demographic form and three Likert-type scales.

The first part of the questionnaire, the Demographic Form, was developed by the researchers in order to collect personal details of the participants, and included questions about gender, age, marital status, educational background and the name of GSM operator.

The GSM users' perception of the reputation of their GSM operators was measured using the Reputation Quotient (RQ) developed by Fombrun, Gardberg and Sever (2000). The RQ consists of 27 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree). Higher scores mean higher levels of agreement with scale statements, referring to a more positive perception of the reputation about the company. The reliability coefficient of the scale in the present study was $\alpha=0.969$.

The GSM users' perception of the brand equity of their GSM operators was measured using the Brand Equity Scale developed by Yoo and Donthu in 2001. The instrument has 14 items under three dimensions (brand loyalty,

perceived quality and brand awareness) to assess customer-based brand equity. The reliability coefficient of the scale in the present study was $\alpha=0.931$.

The GSM users' perception of whether their GSM operator shows social responsibility was measured using the Corporate Social Responsibility Scale developed by Carroll (1991), which is based on four-dimension Corporate Social Responsibility Model. The instrument consists of 6 items rated on a 5-point scale. The reliability coefficient of this one-factor instrument was found $\alpha=0.937$.

6. Statistical Analyses

6.1. Research Model

The proposed model of the present research is presented in Figure 1.

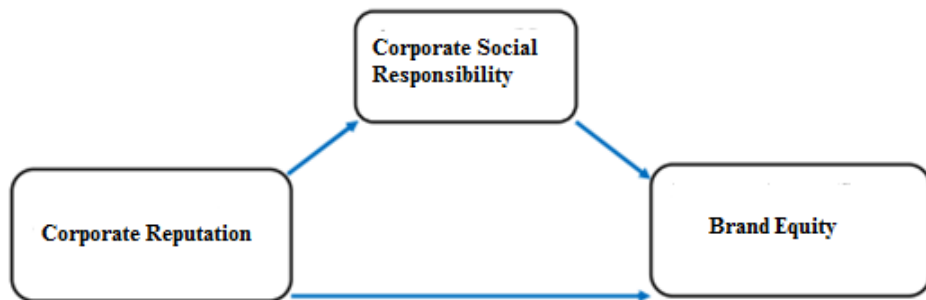


Figure 1. Research Model

6.2. Results

6.2.1. The Effect of Corporate Reputation on Brand Equity

The effect of GSM users' perceived corporate reputation on brand equity was examined using a linear regression analysis. The research model on this relationship is provided in Figure 2.



Figure 1. Proposed Model about the Effect of Corporate Reputation on Brand Equity

The ANOVA analysis showed that the GSM users' perception of corporate reputation is a significant predictor of brand equity ($F=966,74$; $p<.001$).

In a similar vein, the regression analysis indicated that the GSM users' perception of corporate reputation has a significant and positive effect on brand equity ($\beta=.866$; $p<.001$; Table 1). The results showed that the participants' brand equity scores increase with increasing corporate reputation scores. The coefficient of determination, R^2 , was 0.750, meaning that the perceived corporate reputation explains brand equity at a rate of 75.0% ($p<.001$). From all these findings, it was concluded that the first hypothesis is affirmed and the perceived corporate reputation positively affects brand equity.

Table 1. Regression Analysis for Determining the Effect of Corporate Reputation on Brand Equity

Independent Variable	R	R ²	ANOVA		Coefficients			
			F	p	B	β	t	p
Constant					0.80		8.03	0.000***
Corporate Rep.	0.866	0.750	966,74	0.000***	0.83	0.866	31.09	0.000***

*** $p<.001$; Dependent Variable: Brand Equity (Overall)

6.2.2. The Mediating Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility

The mediating effect of corporate social responsibility on the relationship between corporate reputation and brand equity was examined using multiple linear regression analysis suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The proposed model for this mediating effect is provided in Figure 2.

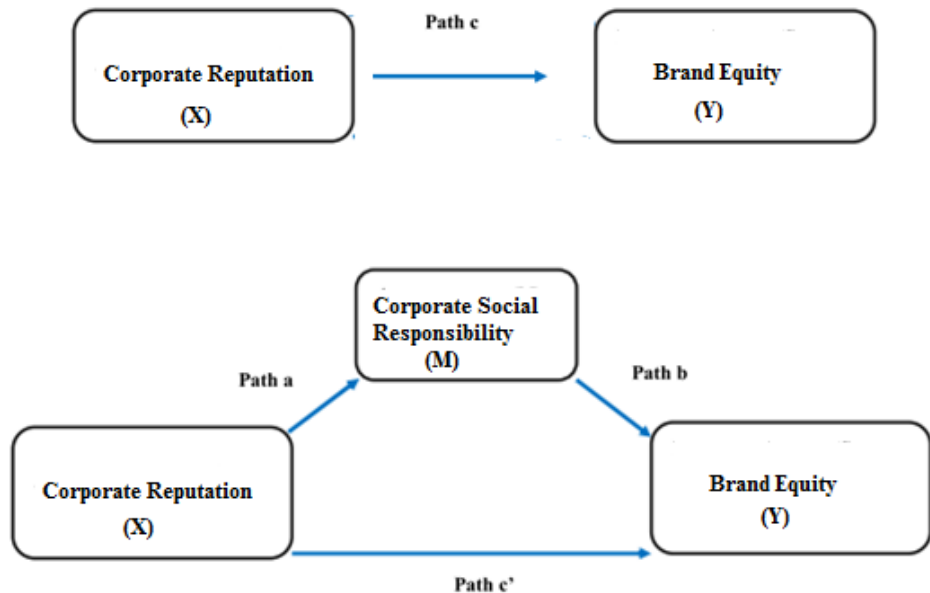


Figure 2. Proposed Model about the Mediating Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility

In order to affirm the second hypothesis, i.e., the mediating effect, first a significant effect of perceived corporate reputation on (perceived) brand equity should be shown. Then a significant effect of corporate reputation on corporate social responsibility, and a significant effect of corporate social responsibility on brand equity should be established. Finally, the effect of corporate reputation of brand equity should be decreased (partial mediation) or completely removed (full mediation) when corporate reputation and corporate social responsibility were included in the model together.

According to the results shown in Table 2, the first step of the analysis indicated a significantly positive effect of corporate reputation on brand equity [(F=966,74; $p<.001$); (B(b)=0.83; $t=31.09$, $p<.001$). The R^2 value, the coefficient of determination, was found 0.75, suggesting that GSM users' corporate reputation perceptions explain their perceived brand equity at a rate of 75.0%. The second step of the analysis showed that corporate reputation significantly and positively predicts corporate social responsibility [(F=321,10; $p<.01$); (B(b)=0.77; $t=17.92$; $p<.001$)]. The finding indicate that the GSM users' corporate reputation perception explains their corporate social responsibility perceptions at a rate of 50.0% ($R^2 = 0.50$). The third and the final step of the analysis revealed that the effect of corporate reputation on brand equity decreased to 0.74 when corporate reputation and corporate social responsibility variables were included in the model together (B(b)=0.74; $t=19.95$; $p<.001$). This finding clearly indicates that (perceived) corporate

social responsibility plays a (partial) mediating role, and has a significant impact on perceived brand equity. Furthermore, a Sobel test was performed for the mediating effect of corporate social responsibility and the test result was found significant ($Z=3.34$; $p<.001$). Therefore, the second hypothesis was affirmed and it was concluded that corporate social responsibility has a mediating effect on the corporate reputation and brand equity relationship. The relationships in this model are summarized in Figure 3.

Table 2. Multiple Regression Analysis for the Mediating Role of Corporate Social Responsibility in the Relationship between Corporate Reputation and Brand Equity Perceptions of GSM users

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	R ²	ANOVA		Coefficient		
			F	p	B	t	p
Brand Equity	Constant	0.75	966,74	0.000***	0,80	8.03	0.000***
	Corporate Reputation				0,83	31.09	0.000***
<i>Perceived Brand Equity = 0,80+0,83* Corporate Reputation</i>							
Corporate Social Responsibility	Constant	0.50	321,10	0.000***	0,48	2.98	0.003**
	Corporate Reputation				0,77	17.92	0.000***
<i>CSS= 0,48+0,77*Corporate Reputation</i>							
Brand Equity	Constant	0.76	505,10	0.000***	0,74	7.49	0.000***
	Corporate Reputation				0,74	19.95	0.000***
	Corporate Social Responsibility				0,12	3.41	0.000***
<i>Perceived Brand Equity= 0,74+0,74* Corporate Reputation +0,12*Corporate Social Responsibility</i>							

Sobel Test: $Z=3,34^{***}$, $p<.001$

** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

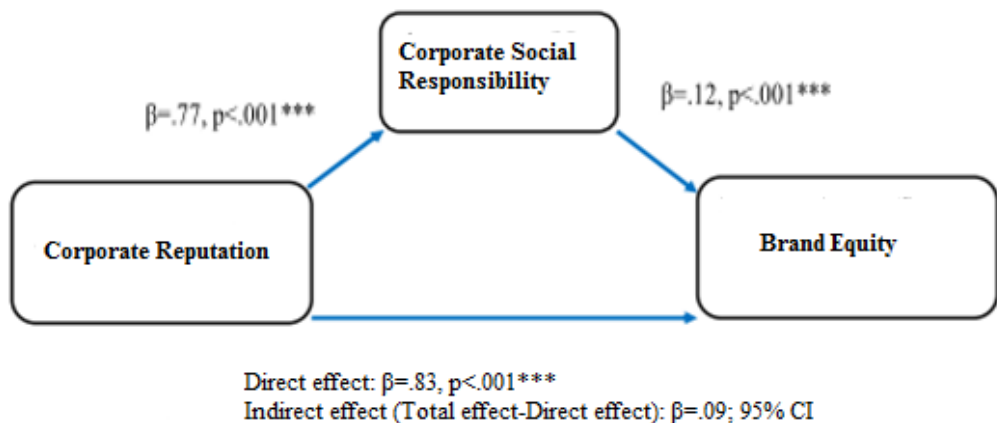


Figure 3. Regression Results for the Relationships in the Proposed Mediating Model

7. Conclusion and Suggestions

The present study aimed to determine whether corporate social responsibility plays a mediating role in the relationship between corporate reputation and brand equity among GSM users in Turkey. Study findings clearly showed that corporate reputation significantly positively affects brand equity, and corporate social responsibility has a mediating effect on such relationship.

The findings of the study indicates that GSM users in Turkey do not take only the service they get into consideration, but they also consider the reputation of the service company and whether they are socially responsible or not. The study findings empirically confirm that the perceived reputation of a service provider is significantly and positively associated with that provider's brand equity. This means that GSM users value and respect more when they perceive their service provider more reputable. This suggests that service provider companies should consider how to manage and improve their reputation. In this context, the mediating effect of corporate social responsibility that was found in the present study may bring an insight into how to achieve this. The established positive impact of corporate social responsibility clearly and empirically shows that service provider companies should focus on their environment, sensitive to the problems of their society and take more initiatives in social and environmental terms.

The present study is not without any limitations. First of all, it was conducted in a single business field (GSM sector), therefore, the results should be tested in different business fields and ideally with studies covering more than one field. This would help revealing whether such effects are not specific to the field but can be generalized to all business fields. Secondly, the present study is limited by its study sample. Future studies may consider involving a larger population with more diversified participants in order to have better understanding on how consumers' perceptions are shaped regarding brand equity and corporate reputation.

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Education, Human Capital and Competitiveness of Small Open Economies (Case of Georgia)

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Abstract

Education policy, which must ensure the formation of human capital and sustainable economic growth of countries, is of a particular importance for small open economies. The purposefulness of the education costs for the states having restored their independence not long ago is associated with certain risks. The goal of the work is to analyze the competitiveness of small developing economies in the context of expenditures borne for the formation of human capital. Improving a country's competitiveness is always desirable, as it gives new opportunities to the society both, at personal and microeconomic and macroeconomic levels. In terms of modern technical and technological changes, small economies are unable to improve their competitiveness without permanent improvement of human capital. There is quite a close association between human capital quality and labor productivity, while labor productivity is influenced by the achievements in the field of education. The study accomplished within the scope of the present work considers such indicators as GDP per capita, education costs, net migration, average incomes, etc. The quantitative analysis is based on the use of regressive models. The causal factors were determined mainly by using the qualitative analysis. Traditionally, Georgia is a country prone to education what must have been an advantage of the country. The paper shows how much the country with a small economy could maintain qualified labor and ensure the economic growth, how much the country's competitiveness and human capital changed. The gained results and experience must be interesting and useful for other small open economies.

Keywords: Productivity, Education, Human capital, Competitiveness, Labor market.

Introduction

Education is a necessary attribute of qualified labor. A country oriented on the economic development must ensure the education and training of the high-qualified personnel, who will develop both, fundamental and

applied sciences and will freely master and implement advanced techniques and technologies. Permanent and sustainable development what is much needed by small economies is ensured at the expense of education intensive and science intensive branches. Valuable human capital is the best means to improve the competitiveness of the country.

The significance of human capital was talked by A. Smith (Smith, A., 1776) as early as in 1776 and this factor has not lost its topicality even in the following centuries (Human Capital Investment: An International Comparison, 1998) (Savvides, A., and Thanasis Stengos, 2009, etc.). Virtually, there is a close relationship between education, the human capital and the competitiveness of the country. The more the gross domestic product is, the greater the possibility to finance the branch of education. However, the exact portion to use to develop the education system depends on the economic policy of the given country.

The study and analysis of the labor resources must consider the country's ability to reproduce the labor. No less important is to maintain local labor in the country. The labor markets in small economies face additional difficulties due to the increased migration and emigration flows (Mikiashvili, N., and Maia Giorgobiani, 2017).

The independent policy of Georgia in the field of education realized for more than a quarter of a century gained experience and achieved results need complex analysis. Particularly important is to determine the efficiency of the costs in the education sector what is mainly seen by the improved human capital, GDP growth, and maintenance of the qualified personnel both, at the companies and in the country.

Georgia's education system and human capital:

The education system of Georgia is presented by general, vocational and higher education. Particular attention is paid to inclusive education. The right of choice of the kind of education is guaranteed by the Constitution of Georgia (Constitution of Georgia, article 35). The country harmonizes the educational system of the country with the international education area. Preschool, elementary (6 years in the I-VI forms) and basic (3 years in the VII-IX forms) education is mandatory. Then, a student chooses between the secondary and the vocational education (which covers five grades).

The right to give general education to the students is granted to the educational establishments by means of a special procedure, the "Authorization". On the other hand, the national curriculum establishes the necessary minimum of the curriculum and guarantees the right of students with special needs to gain general education (Law of Georgia on General Education).

Academic education, except medical and dental education, is possible to gain as bachelor and master courses. The highest grade of all is doctoral education (Law of Georgia on General Education). There are three kinds of higher education institutions in Georgia: a university (with all three grades of the educational programs and scientific studies), an educational university (with the higher educational program(s) except doctoral courses) and a college (provides a curriculum of only the first grade of the higher education). The status of a higher education institution can be obtained only through "authorization".

In 2005, Georgia joined Bologna Process (initiated with signing the Agreement on European Higher Education Area by the ministries of 29 European countries in the city of Bologna, Italy, on June 19, 1999) (The Bologna Declaration). At the end of April of 2019, by the decision of the European Associate for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA), Georgia became a full member of the National Center for Educational Quality Enhancement (NCEQE). The official decision will be published in May.

The state supports the optimal operation of all grades of the educational system both, financially and institutionally. Generally, education in Georgia is available to both, the Georgian and foreign citizens. However, not all grades are totally available. The basic conditions of the human capital development are provided by the state and the strategic directions are also determined by the state. However, how adequate the current goals will be to future challenges will be seen by the rates of growth of the country's competitiveness and gross output.

State expenditure and education system:

Macroeconomic stability is very important for small economies and can be achieved by providing an organic agreement between fiscal and monetary policies (Mikiashvili, N., and Nino Lobzhanidze, 2016). Consequently, development of such a macroeconomic environment, which ensures favorable output growth at a branch level is another topical issue (Mikiashvili, N., 2017, pp.180-195), because due to the limited resources, open economies find it difficult to realize systemic changes in the unstable and institutionally chaotic environment. The funds assigned by the state for the development of education and science in the country may increase from year to year, but unless the state is stable and has a well-developed economy, such growth will be unproductive. Besides, quite often, even uptake of the funds assigned by the international organizations was problematic due to poor administration. All obstacles must be overcome and a system of international educational standards must be developed, if the country wishes to be competitive both, regionally and globally.

Georgia approaches European standards gradually. On April 9, 1991, after restoring its independence, which the country had lost 70 years ago, simultaneously with the hard process of transformation, gradual changes were made in the field of education needing relevant financial support. The Executive Authority realizes the changes in the field of education through the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia (presently, the Ministry of Education, Science, Culture and Sport of Georgia), whose financial provision shows the state's opportunities and priorities in the given field (the corrected data of 2018 will be published on 15.11.2019, and so, we do not use them during our consideration) (See Table 1).

Table 1. The budget of the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia in different years, mln. GEL

Year	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Mln GEL	626,8	675,9	741,1	815,8	948,3	1100,0

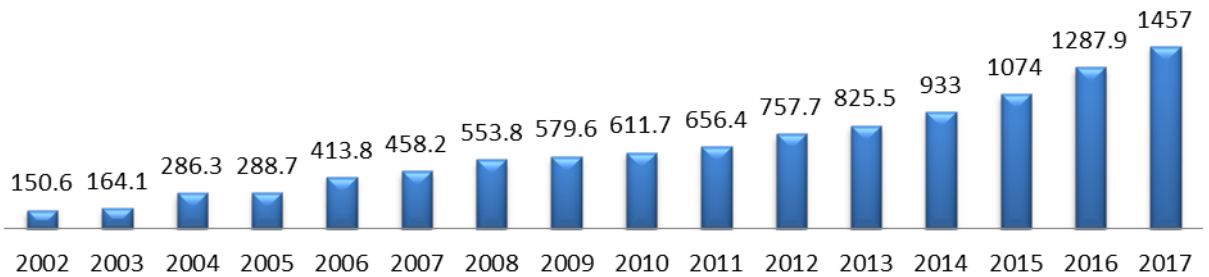
Source. The Ministry of Finance of Georgia

In addition to the Ministry of Education, Science, Culture, and Sport of Georgia, other state bodies also render support in this deed. In particular, the Ministry of Defense, Ministry of Internal Affairs, Ministry of Culture and Ministry of Sport and Youth Affairs (the two latter ministries merged to form the Ministry of Education and Science in 2018), as well as autonomous units, Ministry of Education and Science of Abkhazia, Government of Ajara, local self-governing bodies, etc. As per the official statistics, according to the consolidated budget, the funding of the field of education increases year after year what is clearly seen in the column diagram. See Diagram 1.

Diagram 1. Consolidated budget expenditures for education

Consolidated budget expenditures on education (MIn GEL)

■ Consolidated budget expenditures on education (MIn GEL)



Source. The Ministry of Finance of Georgia

Families also invest in education. As per official statistics, the funds spent on education are characterized by a non-uniformly decreasing trend.

In international practice, the state expenditures are described based on the percentage ratio of some of its parts to the gross domestic product. For Georgia, the relevant values of expenditures borne for education through from 1998 through 2017 are characterized by descriptive statistics as follows: Mean-2.65115, Standard Error-0.148399, Median-2.590265, Moda #N/A, Standard Deviation-0.593597, Simple Variance-0.352357, Kurtosis(-0.23649), Skewness-0.825619, Range-1.84663, Minimum-1.98331, Maximum-3.82994, Sum-42.4184, Count-16, Confidence Level (95.0%)-0.316305 (the data are taken from the World Bank database missing the data in some years, and as a result, cover 16 observations instead of 20). Despite the fact that in some cases, the share of expenses in the GDP borne for education purposes decreases, a generally increasing trend is observed. As per the state budget of 2017, the Ministry of Education ranked the third with the amounts of funding of 1.116 million GEL. From 2019, a large-scale reform is planned to realize in the education system envisaging funding the sector of 6% of the GDP by 2022 and 11% of GDP through the partnership between the public and private sectors.

The expenditure borne for education in the European Union makes up 10.3% of the budget, while it is 10.9% in Georgia; educational costs in Baltic countries are as follows: 14.5% in Lithuania, 16.2% in Latvia and 15.1% in Estonia. However, only the mean values of developed countries cannot be used as a desirable reference point, as the education funding policy in those countries relies on long traditions of infrastructural and institutional

development for decades. In this respect, the Post-Soviet countries, including Georgia, show drawback. Therefore, it is important for similar small economies to equalize a number of their indicators with those of the developed countries, but also to make double efforts to develop their own educational systems. The need for greater efforts is proved by Georgia ranking the 79th among 187 countries of the world with the Education Index (United Nations Development Programme, Education Index). With the Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme, Human Development Reports), with the Education Index being a part thereof, Georgia ranked the 70th in 2017 and the 71st in 2016.

Expenditures on education as an independent factor of an econometric model:

Of three main investments in the labor market (investments in education and vocational training, migration costs, costs associated with finding a new job), the education and training have a key role; they are even viewed as separate units at the state level (Ehrenberg, R.G., and Robert S Smith. p.304). All these investments are supposed to bring better returns in the future, what, in an aggregate scale, will improve the economic activity and life level and finally, the competitiveness of the country. It is true that country competitiveness is measured by using a set of indices, but GDP per capita serves the function of a resultant variable in the considered econometric model (per capita indicators for quarterly and annual figures were revised in line with the updated data from 2014 general population census). Independent factors are educational expenses given based on the consolidated budget of Georgia; higher education and training as efficiency enhancer according to the global competitiveness index and net migration balance (1995-2011 based on the retro-projection; starting from 2012 based on the MIA Border Police data).

Table 2. Causal variables of the econometric model

year	GDP per capita in GEL ¹	Expenditure on education (Mln GEL) ²	Higher education and training ³	Net Migration ⁴
2006	3553.8	413.8	2.5	-12086
2007	4402.4	458.2	3.5	-23418
2008	4956.5	553.8	3.7	-20542
2009	4715.3	579.6	4.6	-34948
2010	5478	611.7	5.3	-30438
2011	6480.6	656.4	5.2	-35982
2012	7017.5	757.7	6.8	-21521
2013	7221.6	825.5	7.2	-2606
2014	7837.4	933	7.4	-6620
2015	8524.3	1074	6.3	-3408

2016	9129	1287.9	7.1	-8060
2017	10152	1457	7.1	-2212

Source. 1. and 4. National Statistic Office of Georgia, 2. Ministry of Finance of Georgia, 3. The Global Competitiveness Reports, World Economic Forum, Scope (1-7)

The correlation matrix evidence that the independent variables have a close relationship with the dependent variable and do not have multicollinearity relation among themselves.

Table 3. Pair correlation matrix of the econometric model variables

	GDP per capita in GEL	Expenditure on education	Higher education and training	Net Migration
GDP per capita in GEL	1			
Expenditure on education	0.970561	1		
Higher education and training	0.885692	0.796321	1	
Net Migration	0.62023	0.656576	0.496147	1

Source: Individual calculations

The multiple regression model identified by using regressive analysis is as follows:

$$y=820.6872+4.586403x_1+375.4593x_2-0.00258x_3$$

Where: y is GDP per capita in GEL,

820.6872 - intercept,

x₁ - Expenditure on education

x₂ - Higher education and training

x₃ - Net Migration

With a significance level of 5% (and confidence interval of 95%) all the variables are statistically significant, except net migration. The multiple R, coefficient of determination (R Square) and the adjusted coefficient of determination (Adjusted R Square) are quite high and equal 0.9888388, 0.97691 and 0.978251. The equation is statistically significant too, F=112.823.

It should be noted that indicator, such as net migration, has a negative coefficient. This may be the result of its being negative for years in Georgia. As for the human capital outflow, it has a negative impact on GDP growth.

Conclusion

The operation of the educational system must rely on the state view and strategic goals what will promote the further development of the country.

The human capital suitable for the modern global market can be formed and maintained only by using a systematic approach.

In terms of basic conditions, a developing economy must reform the educational sector and develop the infrastructure relevant to modern requirements.

The need for perfecting the field of education in Georgia is clear today. The planned short-term changes must make the education a dominating sector of the economy of Georgia in a mid-term period.

Georgia, with its geographical location and many other aspects, is a potential regional and global business center. Located on the crossroad between Europe, Asia, and Near East, the country has although small economy, but it is attractive for international investments. The country's market is open and its economy is liberal. In such terms, high-quality human capital will give Georgia more attractiveness and reliability.

As compared to the mean indicators of the European Union, in terms of percentage, Georgia does not spend little funds for education. However, the Post-Soviet countries, which are now EU countries, spend 5% more on average. During the active modification of the educational system, Georgia must take the existing experience into account.

The efficiency of the educational system also depends on the degree of outflow of the potential qualified labor from the country. The only way to maintain human capital is increasing the access to education and providing high-quality service meeting the international standards.

Caring about the macroeconomic stability of the country and improving the macroeconomic environment in the country will be the guarantee for the successful implementation of the changes planned in the field of education of Georgia.

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Methods and Means to Order the Organizations' Workload by Prioritizing Time Management

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Abstract

Every person wishes to have a high-quality life and every business wishes to achieve its business goals. At the same time, all these are in cause-effect relations: we achieve what we are concentrated on and we gain the results, what we create the reasons for. An important role in our existence and achievement of success in modern world is played by the rational distribution and right management of time. This important skill is to be developed from an early age, surely if we wish to be as much efficient and useful as possible. Time is limited and a human, who is able to manage time correctly, manages and controls all his life. Therefore, we must use the limited time of our lives rationally and not waste it in vein.

The rhythm of life is fast and we permanently experience time deficit. This is why we are unable to do all the things we plan in our minds. In this case we must use time management. Successful people are productive. They work much and achieve much. Productivity, first of all, means the outcome, not the process. People waste time, as they have not decided whether or not to increase their productivity.

The major secret of time management lies in the concentration and purposefulness. Start with solving the first objective on the list and continue with other objectives in the given order.

Keywords: Causal effect, capable, concentration, productivity, purposefulness.

Classification of Goals

According to the method, named "Eisenhower Matrix", goals and activities to be done are arranged by importance and urgency and allocated in 4 quadrants:

	Urgent	Nonurgent
important	<p>Quadrant 1</p> <p>Important and urgent goals and activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. crisis-ridden activities 2. urgent issues 3. projects that are on the edge of the fail 4. taxes, debts, crisis 	<p>Quadrant 2</p> <p>Important but nonurgent goals and activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. defining the causes, planning 2. preventive activity 3. self-development 4. creating new opportunities 5. health, money, relations
unimportant	<p>Quadrant 3</p> <p>Insignificant but urgent goals and activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. minor notifications 2. presenting useless reports 3. worthless meetings 4. unplanned calls 	<p>Quadrant 4</p> <p>Insignificant and nonurgent goals and activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. watching low-quality TV series 2. playing games for spending your time 3. pointless meetings 4. "mandatory" events 5. other people's goals

Quadrant 1 – a quadrant of urgency

At a glance, the first quadrant may seem to be the most important (there are gathered more significant and urgent objectives and activities), however, in fact, it is a zone of crisis situations –nonfulfillment of the activities will have considerably negative consequences, and there is extremely short time left for their completion. It should be noted that implementation of important tasks in short time is too difficult and there is a reasonable risk of their failure. Most people are engaged exactly in this quadrant, which is associated with continuous stress, critical thinking and tension for them.

Quadrant 2 – a quadrant of high-quality life and development

This is the most significant zone. It unites the goals and activities, which are associated with a long-term perspective and increase the chances of finding, creating and using the opportunities to a maximal degree; this zone includes exactly those goals and activities, achieving and implementing of which prevents a person from focusing on the first quadrant, decreases the rates of crisis situations and inevitability to complete important activities within a short time.

Quadrant 3 – self-deception

It often creates an imitation of the fact that a person is doing something important, as many people believe that things, which are urgent, are important as well. The results of the continuous focus on this quadrant are short-term effects, crisis-ridden decision making, absence of valuable goals and activities, externalism.

Quadrant 4 – a quadrant of wasting resources

A person, continuously focusing on the first quadrant, often goes directly to the 4th one - a zone of insignificant and non-urgent activities, which make no benefits in life, however create an imitation of performing the work and preventing crisis situations.

Successful people always avert the goals and activities of the 3rd and 4th quadrants due to their insignificance and uselessness. They try their best to decline the 1st quadrant activities and focus on the 2nd one, which includes building solid relationships with people, strategic planning of life, preventing undesirable events, self-development, financial empowerment, health, self-realization, advancement and progress. Focusing on the above-mentioned quadrant decreases the rates of crisis situations and resource waste on unpleasant, worthless and insignificant activities to a minimal degree. Now, write down your current goals and activities to be done, complete the urgent and important tasks you have to do today, minimize the number of insignificant activities (both urgent and non-urgent ones), analyze why you appeared in the 1st, 3rd and 4th quadrants and immediately start planning the 2nd one. We recommend you to do this from time to time, and to occasionally compare the obtained results to the previous ones and very soon you will clearly see the improvement of your work and generally the quality of life.

The Eisenhower matrix has the following advantages over other methods:

- It is easy to use;
- The method allows reducing the number of insignificant activities;
- It helps us to effectively prioritize the tasks.

However, if we have several options for performing work and cannot assign priorities to them, multi-criteria evaluation method is a good choice then. This method will help us to efficiently assess the situation. Thus, you need to take only 5 steps:

1. Identify the criteria based on which you should evaluate the different options (you should desirably use 5-7 criteria);
2. Compare the criteria with each-other and establish their relative weight (sum of weighted criteria should be one whole);
3. The options should be assessed according to each criterion (for evaluation use 3-point scale: 1 _ bad; 2 _ good; 3 _ very good);
4. Sum up the weighted criteria;

5. Choose the most optimal option.

Pareto Principle

Pareto principle is a principle for evaluating efficiency of any activity. According to it, 20% of the effort can bring 80% of the results, as for the rest 80%, it only brings 20% of the results.

Based on Pareto principle, if you select a small number of important tasks, their completion will bring you most part of the results; as for the insignificant tasks, their fulfillment may appear unjustified – most of them is waste of time and do not contribute to achieving the desired result.

The cause-effect ratio is less important in this principle. It can be 20/80, 25/70 or any other correlation. The main essence of Pareto principle is that causes and effects are not directly proportional – if there were 10 tasks to complete, it would never mean that fulfillment of 1 task would bring 10% of the results, 2 tasks – 20% of them, etc. The main thing is to distinguish the most important and fruitful tasks and concentrate on them.

At a glance, this simple and freaky principle had enormous impact on the world: it is used by businessmen, inventors, sportsmen, managers, doctors and perhaps everyone without exception.

Our conventional worldview accustoms us to the concept that every action has approximately the same result. People, who does not care about Pareto principle while making decisions, think that every customer brings the same revenue to the company, that all of us receive the similar education, etc.

In fact, Pareto principle 20/80 states that the maximum result is achieved by using the minimal effort. Actually, the rest of the activities are worthless. A good example is our relations: only a few of our acquaintances are important to us, the rest of them are just familiars. The same happens while reading a book, watching a movie and generally, receiving any information – only a small amount of the data appear to be useful for us, they are memorable, helpful in life and teach us many things.

In the 1990s, Vilfredo Pareto published some of his scientific studies in mathematics and economics; That's when he found out, that 20% of family households in Italy (some people believe the work talked about England) received 80% of the revenues. Later Pareto analyzed the data of other countries and obtained the same result. Exactly this study became a milestone. Despite the above-mentioned fact, Vilfredo Pareto did not become an author of the law, named after him. Pareto principle attracted attention quite late (as we know it today). It happened in 1914, when it was presented by Joseph Juran. He was the first who named the method Pareto Principle, based on which 20% of the effort can contribute 80% of the results, 20% of the causes account for 80% of outcomes.

From the late 1940s and early 1950s, there emerged studies of other scientists, confirming Pareto's idea. One of them is a professor of Philology at Harvard, George Zip. He directed people's attention to Pareto's law. He argued that all the resources are organized so that 20-30% of work accounts for 80% of outcomes. At the same time, he talked about self-organization of the resources, such as: time, humans, knowledge, etc.

If we follow Pareto principle, it will turn out that only 20% of the company's customers bring 80% of the whole revenue, as for the rest 80% - they consume time and energy of the company's staff in vain, considering the fact that they do not contribute to important part of income.

We may conclude, that it is not always necessary to strive for 100%-result. Sometimes we may be satisfied with 80%, which come from only 20% of our energy and effort, while using the rest of resources more efficiently. Exactly this is the art of managing your capabilities. If you do the main thing, you will get rid of all the insignificant activities, products and markets, and you will see how it will increase efficiency of your and your enterprise's activities.

This simple law helps us to receive more effective decisions, getting more results with less effort. It is successfully used in situations where you should select only one opportunity from multiple ones.

ABC analysis

Successful management of business demands rational time distribution of tasks. ABC analysis is one of the effective and simple methods to achieve it. It aims at sorting the tasks by their priorities – importance and urgency. You should take the following steps while using the technique:

- Make a to-do list for the day (or the week)
- Move the high-priority tasks to group A, less important tasks – to group B, and the least important ones – to group C.

Class A comprises products, which have a special impact on business. This class requires more attention and intervention of management department. Supervision of class A, usually, demands making lots of exceptions from mechanical regimen and regulations.

Class B includes products which may have considerable impact on a company, however, unlike class A, it does not require special attention and allows development of appropriate policies. Sometimes, it also needs management interventions;

Class C unites all of the rest products. Their influence on the company is insignificant, hence, their control mechanisms are simple, time and effort of the management – minimal.

It is worth mentioning, that this classification is abstract and may need to be comprised by more classes (D, E, F, etc.). During ABC analysis, we may

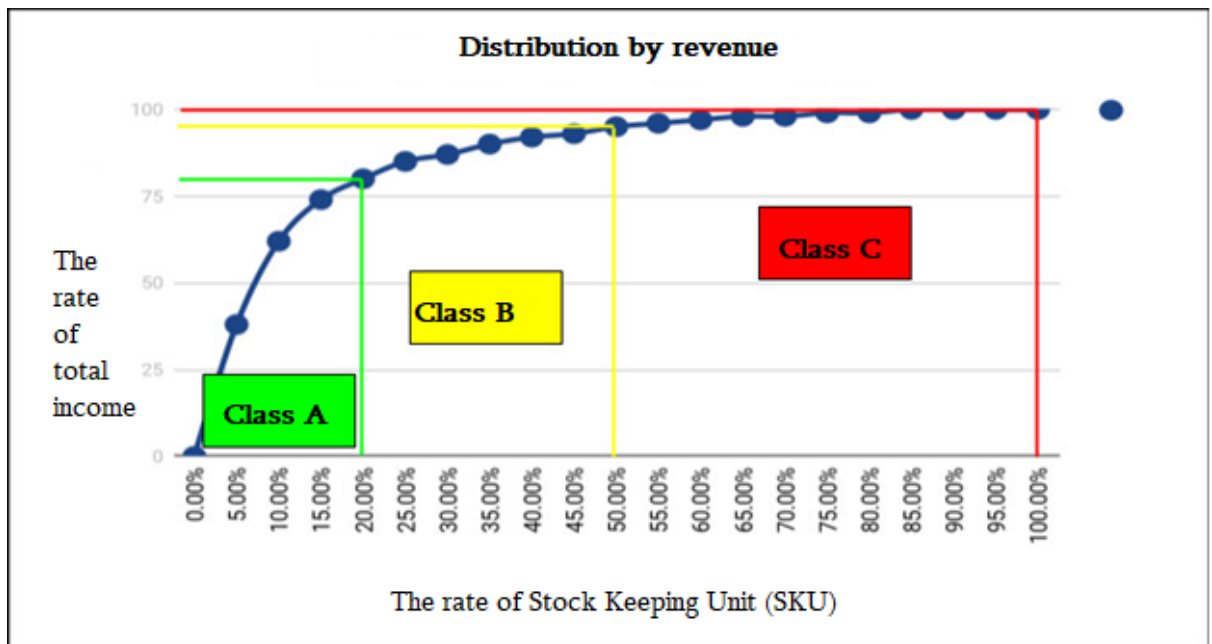
use the following criteria: weight, geographic location, perishability of the product, etc. but the most wide-spread and economically justified criteria are income and profit. Such classification leads to the following distribution:

Class A – 80% of the revenue comes from the first 20% of Stock Keeping Unit (SKU).

Class B - 15% of the revenue comes from the following 30% of Stock Keeping Unit (SKU).

Class C - 5% of the revenue comes from the rest 50% of Stock Keeping Unit (SKU).

The image depicts the distribution:



As you see, such distribution gives us Pareto's effect. Of course, this is not a strict law, but - regularity, and the real values may be a bit different, however, general tendency is following Pareto principle.

Sort the tasks of each group by their importance and urgency (A1, A2 ...).

If you are not a manager, start performing the tasks of group A and only after their completion, move to the group B activities; As for the tasks of group C, let's leave them in the end. If you are a manager, finish the tasks of group A and assign group C activities to anyone, who is lower in rank. Perform the tasks of group B, requiring your intervention, on your own, and assign the rest of it to the lower-ranked employees.

You will see that the rate of the highest priority-tasks (A) in activities to be done is the least, but their completion leads to the best results for your business. Implement this method in practice, focus on the main things and not only on easy-to-perform tasks and soon you will find out that efficiency of your activities will significantly increase.

The advantages of the method are:

- Simplicity of the analysis and rapidity to increase the sales efficiency;
- Reliability of the results. The obtained results are sustainable in time and allow the company to focus on its resources and budget for development of more perspective products;
- Optimization of time and resources. Using the above-mentioned method will give us a chance to release additional financial and time resources;
- Uniqueness of the analysis. It can also be used in other fields of the company's activities.

The method, the advantages of which has been described above, is characterized by the following faults:

- One-dimensionality of the method. It is a simple analytic method and cannot be used for sorting complex, multiple-dimensional objects;
- Product classification is based on only quantitative values;
- There are not presented any loss-making products;
- It does not depict the impact of environmental factors on the sales, e.g. seasonality, purchasing power, influence of competitors.

Conclusion

Rational distribution of time and its appropriate management plays an important role in existing and achieving success in the modern world. This is a significant skill, which should necessarily be developed from an early age - of course, if we would like to be productive and beneficial to a maximum degree. Time is limited, a person who is able to rationally manage his time, is managing and controlling his whole life. Therefore, it is important to rationally use the limited time of our lives and not to waste it unreasonably.

Hence, we should pay attention to defining priorities of our own activities, and determine appropriate time and sequence for their fulfillment, which will help us to achieve our goals and become successful.

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Evaluation of The Role of Development Strategy in Growth of Operating Profit On the Example of Semi-Finished Food Production Enterprise

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Abstract

It is very important to evaluate how well the implementation process of the strategy a company has chosen is going. To make such evaluations it is important to Analyse customer relations, Study how well internal business processes are organized, Evaluate growth and development perspectives and Analyse and summarise financial results.

In this article we will pay attention on financial results, in particular the analysis of changes in operating income.

Three factors which cause changes to profit while implementing the strategy are: volume, prices and productivity. In Our opinion, using the method mentioned in this article, it becomes possible to calculate the contribution that strategy makes to the growth of profit.

Keywords: Operating income (profit), strategy, growth, price, productivity, cost.

Introduction

Companies selects certain strategies for conducting their activities. The main directions of the strategys are strategy of cost leadership or strategy of product differentiation. If in the first case, the aim of the management is to achieve minimal costs, in the second case, their aim is to highlight the uniqueness of the product, create the best image among the analogues, and as a result to achieve high sales price.

It is important to assess how successful the strategy is accomplished. As a rule, for this task Should be: 1) Analysis of Customer Relations; 2) Study of internal business processes; 3) Evaluation of growth-development perspectives; 4) Summing up financial results.

Most important from these four directions are financial results and The ultimate goal of successful implementation the first three is to have a positive impact on the financial results.

In the article, based on the financial resultss of 2017-2018 of the food production enterprise “Samepo” and analysis of certain statistical data, the reasons for the change in profit are determined.

Main Text:

Small Enterprise "Samepo" since 2012 has been producing some kind semi-finished food products. By the end of 2017 the enterprise replaced the old 4 equipment, the output of which was 6,000 kg per year. It was purchased 5 modern equipment with the same productivity whose operation significantly reduces production costs and loss of raw materials. Consequently, it was decided to offer low prices for the market - strategy of cost leadership. The summarized accounting data below is from the 2017 and 2018 indicators of the enterprise:

	2017	2018
Kg product produced and sold	19,190	29,430
Selling price per kg	\$5.5	\$5
Direct material used- Flour	5,050 kg	6,540 kg
Costs per kg of Flour	\$1.1	\$1.05
Direct material used- Meat	9,595 kg	13,080 kg
Costs per kg of Meat	\$4.7	\$5
Additional cost per kg of product	\$0.5	\$0.42
Manufacturing capacity	24,000	30,000
Total conversion costs	\$9,600	\$7,500
Selling and customer-service capacity (customers)	30	60
Total selling and customer-service costs	\$3,600	\$5,400

Annual manufacturing conversion costs depend on production capacity defined in terms of kg that can be produced not the actual units produced. Selling and customer-service costs depend on the number of customers that “Samepo” can support, not the actual number of customers. It should be noted that, in 2018 one sales manager managed 15 clients on average and was hired 2 manager. The trainings conducted at the end of 2017 and the Implemented program gave every manager Ability to service 20 customers. At the same time, the third manager was hired in this direction and that's why the company has been able to provide service for 60 potential customers. “Samepo” has 27 customers in 2017 and 35 customers in 2018.

By Statistical data, during 2018 the market grew for “Samepo’s” products was 10%.

At first let's calculate operating income for years 2017 and 2018:

	2017	2018	Change
Sales Revenues	\$ 105 545	\$ 147 150	\$ 41 605
costs:			
Direct material used- Flour	\$ 5 555	\$ 6 867	\$ 1 312
Direct material used- Meat	\$ 45 097	\$ 65 400	\$ 20 304
Additional costs	\$ 9 595	\$ 12 361	\$ 2 766
conversion costs	\$ 9 600	\$ 7 500	\$ -2 100
selling and customer-service costs	\$ 3 600	\$ 5 400	\$ 1 800
Total costs	\$ 73 447	\$ 97 528	\$ 24 081
Income	\$ 32 099	\$ 49 622	\$ 17 524

It is important to find out how successful the implementation of the selected strategy was and what is the share of strategy in the growth of profit by \$ 17,524. For that we need to calculate the growth, price recovery and productivity component that would explain the change in operating income from 2017 to 2018.

- Lets figure out what effect the growth of production and sales volume had on profit in 2018.

For this purpose, under condition of other factors remaining static, we should calculate the impact of produced and sold goods growth in quantity on revenue and expenses.

Now let's calculate cost effect of growth:

Revenue Effect of Growth =

(Actual kg of output sold in 2018 – Actual kg of output sold in 2017) ×
Selling price in 2017 = (29,430 – 19190) × \$5.5 = \$56320

In 2017 production of every additional kilogram required 0.263 kg of flour and 0.5 kg of meat. Therefore,

Cost effect of Growth for Flour = (29,430 × 0.263 – 5050) × \$1.1
= \$2,964

Cost effect of Growth for Meat = (29,430 × 0.5 – 9595) × \$4.7
= \$24,064

Additional raw materials for kg of product were used in 2018 by the same amount as 2017. That's why

Cost effect of Growth for Additional costs = (29,430 – 19,190) × \$0.5
= \$5,120

For calculation effect of growth on Conversion and selling and customer-service costs we will use the following formula:

Cost effect of growth
for fixed costs

$$= (\text{Actual units of capacity in 2017 if adequate to produce 2018 output in 2017 or, if 2017 capacity inadequate to produce 2018 output in 2017, units of capacity required to produce 2018 output in 2017} - \text{Actual units of capacity in 2017}) \times \text{Price per unit of capacity in 2017}$$

In our case for Conversion and Selling and customer-service costs we'll get:

Cost effect of growth for Conversion costs

$$= (30,000 - 24,000) \times (\$9,600/24,000) = \$2,400$$

Cost effect of growth for selling and customer-service costs

$$= (45 - 30) \times (\$3,600/30) = \$1,800$$

If we sum up effects of growth we'll get:

Revenue Effect of Growth		\$56 320
Cost effect of Growth for Flour	\$2,964	
Cost effect of Growth for Meat	\$24,064	
Cost effect of Growth for Additional costs	\$5,120	
Cost effect of growth for Conversion costs	\$2,400	
Cost effect of growth for selling and customer-service costs	\$1,800	
Change in operating income due to growth		\$19,972

Consider how the profit has been changed because of the change in the selling and purchase prices.

For revenue we will have:

$$\text{Revenue effect of price recovery} = (\text{Selling price in 2018} - \text{Selling price in 2017}) \times$$

Actual units of output sold in 2018

In our case we'll get:

$$\text{Revenue effect of price recovery} = (\$5 - \$5.5) \times 29,430 = -\$14,715$$

Connection to raw materials we will use the formula:

$$\text{Cost effect of price recovery for variable costs} = (\text{input price in 2018} - \text{input price in 2017}) \times \text{Units of input required to produce 2018 output in 2017}$$

We'll get:

Cost effect of price recovery for Flour

$$= (\$1.05 - \$1.10) \times (29,430 \times 0.263) = -\$387$$

$$\text{Cost effect of price recovery for Meat} = (\$5 - \$4.7) \times (29,430 \times 0.5)$$

$$= \$4,415$$

For additional costs we'll have:

Cost effect of price recovery for Additional costs
 $= (\$0.42 - \$0.5) \times 29,430 = -\$2,354$

For fixed costs we will use the formula:

Cost effect of price recovery for fixed costs = (Price per unit of capacity in 2018- Price per unit of capacity in 2017) \times Actual units of capacity in 2017 if adequate to produce 2018 output in 2017 or, if 2017 capacity inadequate to produce 2018 output in 2017, units of capacity required to produce 2018 output in 2017

For Conversion and selling and customer-service costs we get:

Cost effect of price recovery for Conversion costs $= (\$0.25 - \$0.4) \times 30,000 = -\$4,500$

Cost effect of price recovery for selling and customer – service costs $= (\$90 - \$120) \times 45 = -\$1350$

In summary, the net decrease in operating income attributable to price recovery equals the following:

Revenue effect of price recovery		-\$14,715
Cost effect of price recovery for Flour	-\$387	
Cost effect of price recovery for Meat	\$4,415	
Cost effect of price recovery for Additional costs	-\$2,354	
Cost effect of price recovery for Conversion costs	-\$4,500	
Cost effect of price recovery for selling and customer-service costs	-\$1,350	
Change in operating income due to price recovery		-\$10,538

Consider how the profit has been changed because of the more efficient or inefficient use of raw material and manufacturing capacity.

The productivity-component calculations use 2018 prices and output:

Cost effect of productivity for variable costs $= (\text{Actual units of input to produce 2018 output} - \text{Units of input required to produce 2018 output in 2017}) \times \text{Input price in 2018}$

We'll get:

Cost effect of productivity for Flour $= (6,540 - 29,430 \times 0.263) \times \$1.05 = -\$1,265$

Cost effect of productivity for Meat $= (13,080 - 29,430 \times 0.5) \times \$5 = -\$8,175$

Cost effect of productivity for Additional costs $= (29,430 - 29,430) \times \$0.42 = 0$

To calculate the cost effect of productivity for fixed costs (Conversion and Selling and customer-service costs), we use the 2018 date and the analyses of capacity required to produce 2018 output in 2017:

cost effect of productivity for fixed costs = (Actual units of capacity in 2018 - Actual units of capacity in 2017 if adequate to produce 2018 output in 2017 or, if 2017 capacity inadequate to produce 2018 output in 2017, units of capacity required to produce 2018 output in 2017) X Price per unit of capacity in 2018

Cost effect of productivity for Conversion costs = (30,000 - 30,000) X \$0.25 = 0
 Cost effect of productivity for selling and customer-service costs = (60 - 45) X \$90 = \$1,350

In summary, the net increase in operating income attributable to productivity equals:

Cost effect of productivity for Flour	\$1,265
Cost effect of productivity for Meat	\$8,175
Cost effect of productivity for Additional costs	\$0
Cost effect of productivity for Conversion costs	\$0
Cost effect of productivity for selling and customer-service costs	<u>-\$1,350</u>
Change in operating income due to productivity	\$8,090

If we summarize the results we will have the following picture:

Change in operating income due to growth	\$19,972
Change in operating income due to price recovery	-\$10,538
Change in operating income due to productivity	<u>\$8,090</u>
Total change in operating income	\$17,524

As noted above, the market for product produced by "Samepo" increased by approximately 10% during the year 2018. Consequently, it may be argued that the increase in sales of 10,240 kg was partially, namely 19,190 * 10% = 1,919 kilograms, achieved by market growth and partially, 10,240 - 1,919 = 8,321 kilograms, from the growth of "samepo's" market share.

That is why part of the growth in operating profit due to quantitative sales growth - (1,919/10,240) X 19,972 = \$3,743 - is achieved by the growth of market volume and is not the effect of the selected strategy performed.

Growth in operating profit, from the low prices and cost savings can be calculated as follows:

Growth in operating profit due to growth of market share	\$19,972 - \$3,743	\$16,229
Change in operating profit due to prices		-\$10,738
Change in operating profit due to productivity		<u>\$8,090</u>
Total		\$13,781

Finally, we got the factors of differences between the operating profit of 2017 and 2018:

The effect of market growth	\$3,743
The effect of the low prices and cost savings	\$13,781

Total change in operating profit \$17,524

As shown above, the increase in profit by 55% $= (\$17,524 / \$32,099) \times 100\%$ largely (almost 79% $= (\$13,781 / \$17,524) \times 100\%$) is seen as a result of the chosen strategy. **Therefore, financial indicators indicate successful implementation of the selected strategy.**

Conclusion

Thus, the analysis of financial indicators in the article gives an opportunity to assess how well the selected strategy has been achieved and what was the main factors influencing on change company's profits. Changes, implemented by the small enterprise "Samepo", and the selected strategy were successful. A similar approach can be used in other industries and for other strategies selected.

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Health disparities and determinants of health: A glance at Healthy People 2020 goals

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Abstract

Introduction: Adverse health outcomes are often used as indicators of the health of a nation and are generally better in developed countries. According to the World Health Organization, every day, about 800 women died due to complications of pregnancy and child birth. Almost all of these deaths occurred in low-resource settings, and most could have been prevented. Maternal mortality ratio in the United States in 2015 was 14 maternal deaths per 1000 live births, range, significantly higher than most developed countries including Sweden (4 per 1000 live births), Switzerland (4 per 1000 live births), Austria (4 per 1000 live births), Japan (5 per 1000 live births), Germany (6 per 1000 live births), Canada (7 per 1000 live births), France (8 per 1000 live births), United Kingdom (9 per 1000 live births).

Methods: Health outcomes were collected from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention while socio-economic related indicators were extracted from the US Census Bureau. Selected health outcomes in the study are: infant and fetal mortality, maternal mortality, life expectancy and cancer. Socio-economic indicators such as poverty and health insurance coverage were also analyzed. An evaluation of health disparities among racial and ethnic groups was performed. Correlation analyses were conducted to explore the potential strength of the relationship between health outcomes and socio-economic factors in the US at the state level.

Conclusion: Health disparities are still a major public health problem in US. A strong correlation at the state level between health outcomes and poverty and health insurance coverage at the state level was identified.

Keywords: Health disparities, determinants of health, infant mortality, maternal mortality, cancer, socio-economic factors, poverty.

Introduction

Adverse health outcomes such as infant mortality, maternal mortality and life expectancy are often used as indicators of the health of a nation and are generally better in developed countries. Health disparities are variances that occur between specific population groups in the fulfilment of full health capacity that can be determined by differentiations in prevalence, mortality, burden of disease, and other unfavorable health conditions (NIH, 2014).¹ An individual's health is determined in part by access to social and economic opportunities; the resources and support available within their homes and communities; the stability within their workplace; their access to clean water, food, and air; and their social relationships within their environment (Healthy People, 2010).²

One of the main goals of Healthy People 2020's guidelines was not only to reduce health disparities, but also to attain health equity and advance the health status of all citizens. Among the underserved and disadvantaged population groups are African American and Latinos (US Census Bureau, 2018).³

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), every day, approximately 830 women die from preventable causes related to pregnancy and childbirth. Almost all of these deaths (99%) of all maternal deaths occur in developing countries. Maternal mortality is higher in women living in rural areas and among poorer communities (World Health Organization, 2018).⁴

Maternal mortality ratio in the United States in 2015 was 14 maternal deaths per 1000 live births, range [12-16], significantly higher than most developed countries including Sweden (4 per 1000 live births, range [3-5]), Switzerland (4 per 1000 live births, range [4-7]), Austria (4 per 1000 live births, range [3-5]), Japan (5 per 1000 live births, range [4-7]), Germany (6 per 1000 live births, range [5-8]), Canada (7 per 1000 live births, range [5-9]), France (8 per 1000 live births, range [7-10]), United Kingdom (9 per 1000 live births, range [8-11]) (World Health Organization, 2015).⁵

Infant death

Infant mortality is the death of an infant before his or her first birthday. The infant mortality rate is the number of infant deaths for every 1000 live births. In 2016, the infant mortality rate in the United States was 5.9 deaths per 1,000 live births (Mortality in the United States, 2016).⁶ Infant mortality rate (IMR) in the United States, in 2016, according to the National Vital Statistics Report, was approximately 5.24 infant deaths per 1000 live births; for males and female the IMR were 5.72 and 4.75 respectively. However, among Non-Hispanic black, the IMR, was 11.76, more than twice higher than in the in the general population and 2.5 higher than Non-Hispanic whites revealing 4.80 infant deaths per 1000 live births (National Vital Statistics).⁷

In addition to giving us key information about maternal and infant health, the infant mortality rate is an important marker of the overall health of a society (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention).⁸

Maternal death

Maternal death is the death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy, from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management but not from accidental or incidental causes. To facilitate the identification of maternal deaths in circumstances in which cause of death attribution is inadequate, a new category has been introduced: Pregnancy-related death is defined as the death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the cause of death (WHO).⁹

The pregnancy-related mortality ratio is an estimate of the number of pregnancy-related deaths for every 100,000 live births. This ratio is often used as an indicator to measure the nation's health. Factors that affect the health of the entire population can also affect mortality among pregnant and postpartum women. The pregnancy-related mortality ratio fell significantly in the United States during the 20th century. This historic decline was because of medical and technological advances. Interest and concern at the local, state, and federal levels for why pregnancy-related deaths occur led to the development of systems for identifying, reviewing, and analyzing pregnancy-related deaths (UNICEF).¹⁰

Fetal death

Fetal death refers to the spontaneous intrauterine death of a fetus at any time during pregnancy. Fetal deaths later in pregnancy (at 20 weeks of gestation or more, or 28 weeks or more, for example) are also sometimes referred to as stillbirths. In the United States, State laws require the reporting of fetal deaths, and Federal law mandates national collection and publication of fetal death data. Most states report fetal deaths of 20 weeks of gestation or more and/or 350 grams birthweight. However, a few states report fetal deaths for all periods of gestation. Fetal death data is published annually by the National Center for Health Statistics, in reports and as individual-record data files (National Vital Statistics System).¹¹

Life expectancy at birth

Life expectancy at birth reflects the overall mortality level of a population. It summarizes the mortality pattern that prevails across all age groups - children and adolescents, adults and the elderly. Definition. Average number of years that a newborn is expected to live if current mortality rates continue to apply (WHO).¹²

Poverty level

The Federal Poverty Level (FPL), or the "poverty line" is an economic measure that is used to decide whether the income level of an individual or family qualifies them for certain federal benefits and programs. The FPL is the set minimum amount of income that a family needs for food, clothing, transportation, shelter, and other necessities (Census Bureau).¹³

Following the Office of Management and Budget's (OMB) Statistical Policy Directive 14, the Census Bureau uses a set of money income thresholds that vary by family size and composition to determine who is in poverty. If a family's total income is less than the family's threshold, then that family and every individual in it is considered in poverty (Census Bureau).¹⁴ According to the Census Bureau, 18.5 million people reported deep poverty, which means a household income below 50 percent of their 2017 poverty threshold. These individuals represented an estimated 5.7 percent of all Americans and 46.7 percent of those in poverty.

The University of California, Davis Center for Poverty Research in its October, 2018 report *What is the current poverty rate in the United States?* revealed that historically, the official poverty rate in the United States had ranged from a high of 22.4 percent when it was first estimated for 1959 to a low of 11.1 percent in 1973. Since its initial rapid decline after 1964 with the launch of major War on Poverty programs, the poverty rate has fluctuated between around 11 and 15 percent. The same report stated that the official poverty rate is 12.3 percent, based on the U.S. Census Bureau's 2017 estimates. An estimated 39.7 million Americans lived in poverty in 2017 (Center for Poverty Research).¹⁵

Objectives/Purpose

The purpose of this cross-sectional study is to assess and increase awareness of present health disparities among racial and ethnic groups and its reflection on adverse health outcomes of the entire nation. The association between socioeconomic indicators, especially poverty, health insurance coverage and health outcomes at the state level is also explored in this study. Recent health indicators will be reported by race/ethnic groups.

Methods

Sources of data

Indicators related to health and health outcomes were selected and collected from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) while socio-economic related variables/indicators were extracted from the Census Bureau. Data from the year 2017 was reported. Other sources of information were used and properly identified throughout the text. The study's selected variables associated health outcomes are: infant, fetal and maternal mortality.

Socio-economic related variables such as poverty and health insurance coverage were also collected and analyzed.

Statistical Analysis

A multiple correlational analysis was conducted to explore the potential strength, direction and significant of relationship between health indicators/outcomes and socio-economic factors in the United States at the state level. Pearson correlation coefficients and 95% confidence prediction intervals were calculated. An evaluation of health disparities among racial and ethnic groups was also performed. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 25®) was used to analyze collected data. A level of significance of 0.05 was selected for all tests of significance.

Results

Quality of health outcomes

Infant and Fetal Mortality

Live births among African Americans represent 15% of all live births in US. However, 27% of infant deaths are among this race/ethnic group. The overrepresentation of infant deaths among African American contrasts with whites and Hispanics infant deaths are underrepresented (Figure 1 and 2).

Figure 1. Live births, US, 2017

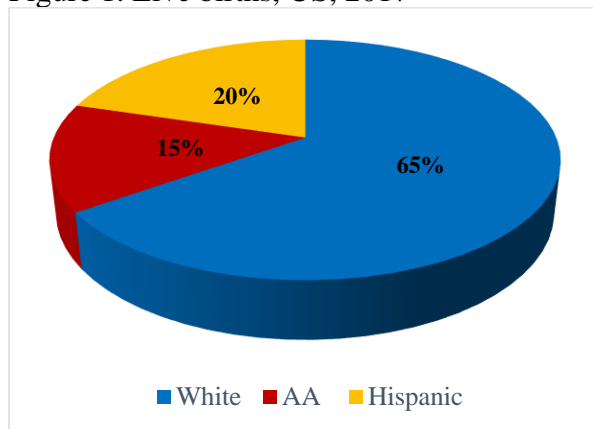
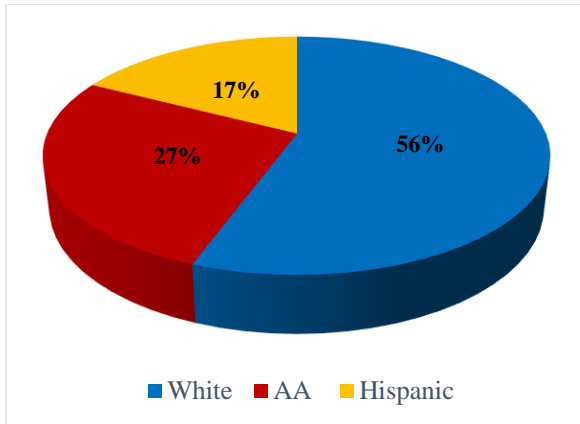


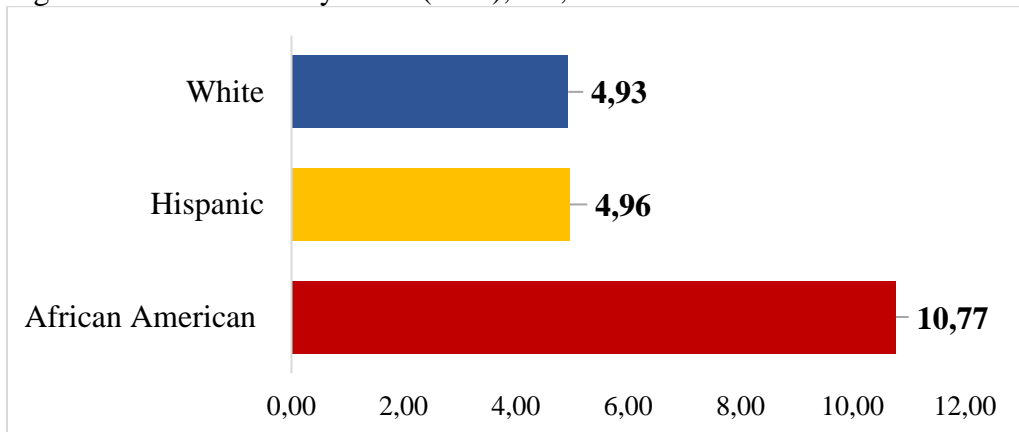
Figure 2. Infant deaths, US, 2017



Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).

Health disparities is more evident when infant mortality rate is analyzed. The risk of dying of an African American infant (10.77 infant deaths per 1000 live births) is more than twice than both Whites (4.93 infant deaths per 1000 live births) and Hispanics (4.96 infant deaths per 1000 live births) (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Infant Mortality Ratio (IMR), US, 2017



Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).

Fetal mortality is an important health indicator when assessing health disparities. The risk of dying during the fetal period is almost three times higher among African Americans (9.78 fetal deaths per 1000 live births) than among Whites (3.56 infant deaths per 1000 live births), and it is almost two times higher than Hispanics (5.19 infant deaths per 1000 live births) (Table 1).

Table 1. Fetal deaths and mortality rate, US, 2017

<i>Race of the mother</i>	<i>the Live Births</i>	<i>Percent Births</i>	<i>Live Fetal Deaths</i>	<i>Percent Fetal Deaths</i>	<i>Fetal Mortality Rate</i>
African American	654067	14.48	6394	29.54	9.78
Hispanic	918447	20.33	4769	22.03	5.19
White	2945970	65.20	10482	48.43	3.56

Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).

Maternal Mortality

Maternal death is considered among experts a highly sensible indicator and a clear evidence of the significant and historical health disparities among racial and ethnic groups in US. Maternal mortality ratio among African Americans (47.2 maternal deaths per 1000 live births) is four times higher than among Hispanic (12.2 maternal deaths per 1000 live births) and close to 3 times higher than among Whites (18.1 maternal deaths per 1000 live births) (Table 2).

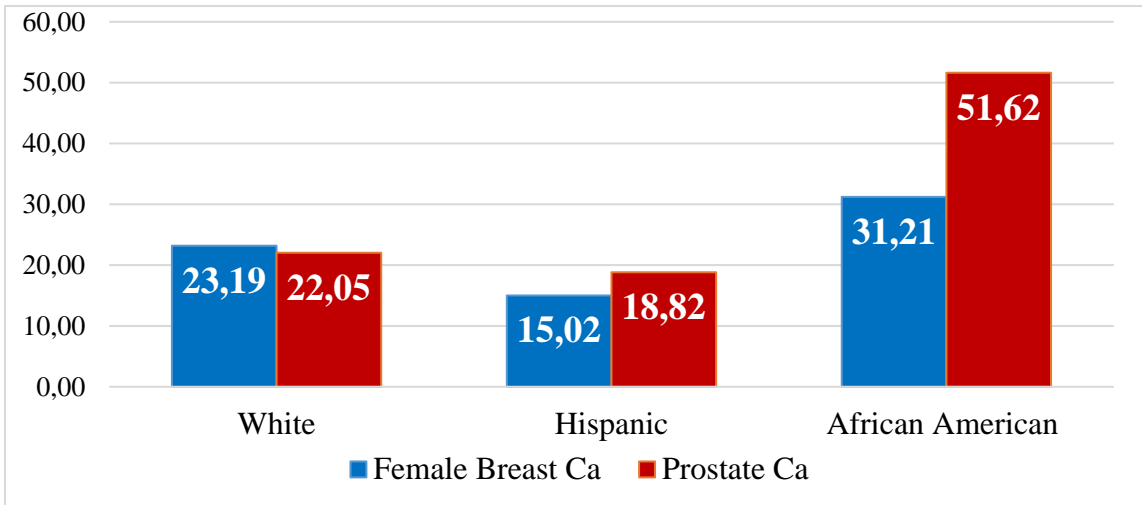
Table 2. Maternal deaths and mortality ratio, US, 2017

<i>Race of the mother</i>	<i>the Live Births</i>	<i>Percent Births</i>	<i>Live Maternal Deaths</i>	<i>Percent Maternal Deaths</i>	<i>Maternal Mortality Ratio</i>
African American	654067	14.48	761	43.5	47.2
Hispanic	918447	20.33	299	11	12.2
White	2945970	65.20	812	12.7	18.1

Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).

Non-Communicable diseases (Cancer)

Figure 5. Female Breast Cancer and Prostate Cancer Mortality by Race/Ethnicity, US, 2017



Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).
Age-adjusted mortality rates by race/ethnicity, US, 2017

The risk of dying by female breast cancer in 2017 was significantly higher among African Americans (31.21 deaths per 100,000 population) than among Whites (23.19 deaths per 100,000 population) and Hispanics (15.02 deaths per 100,000 population). Even greater disparities were found regarding prostate cancer. The age-adjusted prostate cancer mortality rate for African Americans (51.62 deaths per 100,000 population) was more than two times higher than among Whites (22.05 deaths per 100,000 population) and almost three times higher than Hispanics (18.82 deaths per 100,000 population) Figure 5.

Health Outcomes and Socio-economic factors

Multiple Correlation Analysis

A significant positive relationship between the proportion of people living below the poverty level and Infant Mortality Rate at the state level was identified from the Pearson correlation analysis, $r(51) = .604, p < 0.01$ Figure 6.

Figure 6. Correlation analysis between Infant Mortality Rate and percent of people living below the poverty level by state, US, 2017.

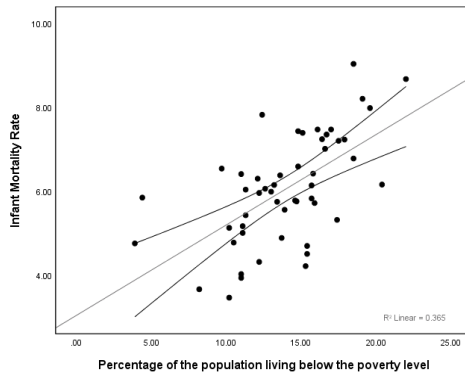
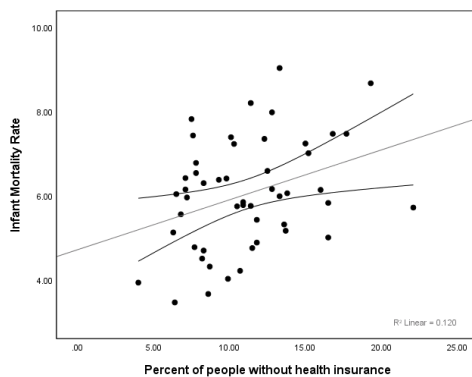


Figure 7. Correlation analysis between Infant Mortality Rate and percent of people without health insurance by state, US, 2017.



The direct association between the proportion of individuals without health insurance coverage at the state level and infant mortality was significantly evident from the correlation analysis, $r(51) = .347$, $p < 0.05$ Figure 7.

Significant positive relationship between the proportion of people living below the poverty level and Maternal Mortality Ratio at the state level was clearly identified from the analysis, $r(51) = .429$, $p < 0.01$ Figure 8. The

proportion of people in the state without health insurance coverage was also significantly associated with maternal mortality reported in the state, $r(51) = .389, p < 0.01$ Figure 9.

Figure 8. Correlation analysis between Maternal Mortality Ratio and percent of people living below the poverty level by state, US, 2017.

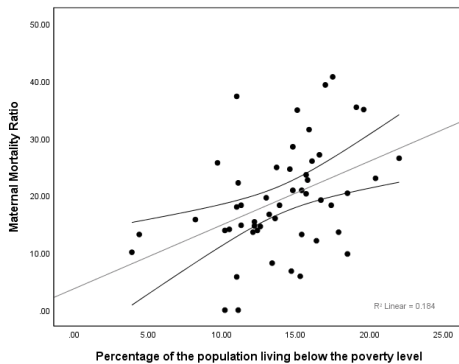
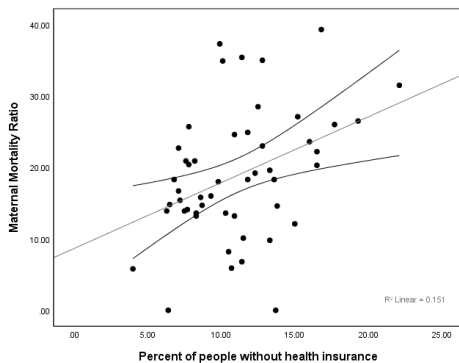


Figure 9. Correlation analysis between Maternal Mortality Ratio and percent of people without health insurance by state, US, 2017.



Life expectancy

The life expectancy is inversely and significant related to both the proportion of people living below the poverty level, ($r(51) = -.676, p < 0.01$. Figure 10), and proportion of people without health insurance coverage at state, $r(51) = -.454, p < 0.01$ Figure 11.

Figure 10. Correlation analysis between Life Expectancy at birth and percent of people living below the poverty level by state, US, 2017.

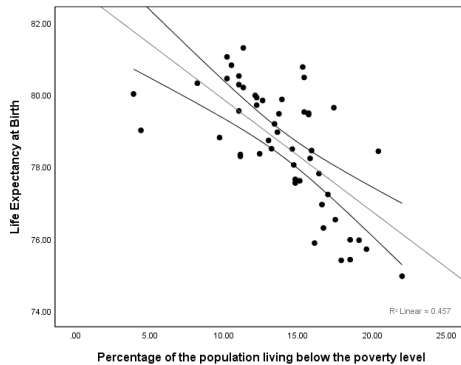
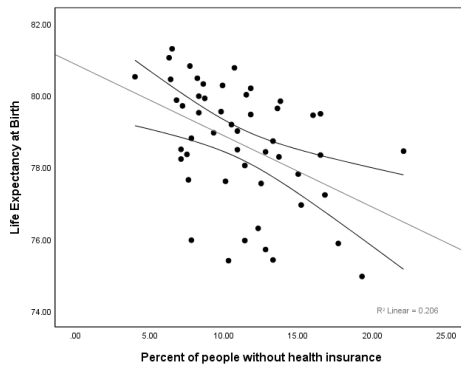


Figure 11. Correlation analysis between Life Expectancy at birth and percent of people without health insurance by state, US, 2017.



Discussion

Quality of health outcomes

Infant and Fetal Mortality

This study found that the risk of dying of an African American infant is more than twice than both Whites and Hispanics. The Center for American Progress, in the article *Exploring African Americans' High Maternal and Infant Death Rates* published in February 2018, reported that African American infants are 3.2 times more likely than non-Hispanic white infants to die from complications related to low birth weight. The authors also stated that higher rates of preterm births and low birth weights have been reported among African American women. Similarly, infants in the United States have

a 76 percent higher risk of death compared with infants in other wealthy nations (Center for American Progress, 2018).¹⁶

The Newsweek article, *Black and White Infant Mortality Rates Show Wide Racial Disparities Still Exist*, published in July 2017, based on data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and published in *JAMA Pediatrics*, quoted that “there has been limited progress in reducing the infant mortality rate among the non-Hispanic black population; suggesting that mortality rates for white infants are at least 50 percent lower than for blacks.” The same article stated that “sustained progress in reducing infant mortality among black infants since 2005 has stalled in the past few years. This has led to increases in the absolute inequality in infant mortality between black and white infants during the past three years” (Newsweek, 2017).¹⁷

The Population Reference Bureau, in the article *The Growing Color Divide in U.S. Infant Mortality* published in October, 2007 reported that the infant mortality rates were at least three times higher for black than for white newborns in four states: Colorado, Hawaii, New Jersey, and Wisconsin. In the District of Columbia, the rate was four times higher for black infants” (Population Reference Bureau, 2007).¹⁸

Fetal mortality is an important health indicator when assessing health disparities. The risk of dying during the fetal period is almost three times higher among African Americans than among Whites, and it is almost two times higher than Hispanics. The New York Times article, *Why America’s Black Mothers and Babies Are in a Life-or-Death Crisis: The answer to the disparity in death rates has everything to do with the lived experience of being a black woman in America*, published in April 2018, stated that black infants in America are now more than twice as likely to die as white infants (11.3 per 1,000 black babies), compared with 4.9 per 1,000 white babies, according to the most recent government data. The reporters stated that this is a racial disparity that is actually wider than in 1850, 15 years before the end of slavery” (New York Times, 2018).¹⁹

A Health News report from National Public Radio (NPR), *How Racism May Cause Black Mothers To Suffer The Death Of Their Infants*, reported that rate of black infant deaths is more than double than white infant deaths. The article also referred that “scientists and doctors have spent decades trying to understand what makes African-American women so vulnerable to losing their babies. Now, there is growing consensus that racial discrimination experienced by black mothers during their lifetime makes them less likely to carry their babies to full term” (Health News, 2017).²⁰

Maternal Mortality

The researchers found that in 2016, maternal mortality ratio among African Americans is four times higher than among Hispanic and close to 3 times higher than among Whites.

The Washington Post report, *A shocking number of U.S. women still die of childbirth. California is doing something about that*, initiated the article noting that “over the past three decades, the world has seen a steady decline in the number of women dying from childbirth. There has been a notable outlier: The United States.” The author, Michael Ollove, argue that in the nation “the maternal mortality rate has been climbing, putting the United States in the unenviable company of Afghanistan, Lesotho and Swaziland as countries with rising rates” (Washington Post).²¹

The article, *Maternal deaths in childbirth rise in the U.S.*, publish in the in 2014, stated that “United States has one of the highest maternal mortality rates in developed and developing countries, and that maternal deaths related to childbirth in the United States are nearly at the highest rate in a quarter century” (Health & Science, 2014).²²

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), since the *Pregnancy Mortality Surveillance System* was implemented, the number of reported pregnancy-related deaths in the United States steadily increased from 7.2 deaths per 100,000 live births in 1987 to 18.0 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2014. Similar to our findings, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), in the 2018 *Pregnancy Mortality Surveillance System*, reported a considerable racial disparity in pregnancy-related mortality exist. During 2011-2014, the pregnancy-related mortality ratios were: 12.4 deaths per 100,000 live births for white women, 40.0 deaths per 100,000 live births for black women and 17.8 deaths per 100,000 live births for women of other races. (CDC/ *Pregnancy Mortality Surveillance System*, 2018).²³

According to 2015 data from the World Health Organization, each year approximately 60,000 women in the U.S. experience near-fatal complications during pregnancy or birth. Statistically, this puts the country in the same category of developing nations such as Afghanistan, Belize and South Sudan. In last year’s March of Dimes Premature Birth Report Card, the U.S. earned a “C” grade due to widening differences in prematurity rates across different races and ethnicities” (Newsweek, 2017).¹⁷

According to the Center for American Progress “women in the United States are two to three times more likely to die than Canadian women in the maternal period—from the start of pregnancy to one year after delivery or termination. Disaggregating data by race reveals that higher rates of maternal and infant death among African American women drive the United States’ mortality crisis” (Center for American Progress, 2018).²⁴

In the article *The Health Care System and Racial Disparities in Maternal Mortality*, published by The Center for American Progress, reported

that “African American women remain at higher risk for maternal and infant mortality. Indeed, one study showed that after controlling for income; gestational age; and maternal age and health status, the odds of dying from pregnancy or delivery complications were almost three times higher for African American women than they were for non-Hispanic white women. The article also cited a report which found that black women are at least twice as likely as non-Hispanic white women to have unintended pregnancies” (Center for American Progress, 2018).²⁴

Non-Communicable diseases

Disparities in cancer goes past race or ethnicity. Cancer specific disparities are comprised of differences across socioeconomic position (such as education and income), insurance status, and marital status. Cancer health disparities change in the frequency, pervasiveness, mortality, or burden of cancer and cancer-related undesirable effects that exist within specific populations (Singh & Jemal, 2017).²⁵

Disparities are not restricted to cancer; they are also comprised of circumstances that precede the development of cancer and the effects of these circumstances on the quality of life and mortality. In the United States, prostate cancer is the most frequently diagnosed cancer for males and the second primary cause of death linked to cancer for men over the age of 40 in the United States (Jackson, Owen, Friedman, & Hebert, 2014).²⁶

Even though the prevalence of prostate cancer is diminishing, the overall prostate cancer related mortality continues to rise for African America. In addition, African American men are more often diagnosed with more advanced and aggressive forms of prostate cancer (Bhardwaj, Srivastava, Khan, et al. 2017).²⁷

The findings from our study regarding female breast cancer and prostate cancer disparities are supported by a study conducted by Lee et al. (2018); they were exploring health disparities among men who received prostate cancer treatment and found that compared to Whites, African Americans were less likely to receive treatment (95% vs. 87%) and more likely to receive unnecessary procedures (1% vs. 20%). Furthermore, Hispanics were more likely to receive treatment from low-quality providers than Whites (17% vs. 2%). Therefore, improving access to evidence-based care for all male patients regardless of race and/or socioeconomic status may decrease health disparities in prostate care (Lee, Zhao, Huang et al., 2018).²⁸

Another prostate cancer study performed by Smith, Eggen, and Murphy in 2017, found that compared to European-American men, African American men had significantly higher rates of cancer severity (33 vs 13%) and adverse pathology (7% vs. 20%). This health disparity may be related to a large proportion of African American men who are uninsured (62%),

compared to European-American men. This finding may also be related to poverty level, educational level, and mistrust in the healthcare system among African Americans. (Smith, Eggener & Murphy, 2017).²⁹

On the other hand, Ojinnaka, Luo, Ory, McMaughan, and Bolin in 2016 examined breast cancer health disparities in Texas and discovered that residents of racially segregated areas were less likely to receive treatment for breast cancer (OR 0.56; 95% CI, 0.36-0.88). In addition, racial disparities in treatment increased with increasing racial segregation. (Ojinnaka, Luo, Ory, et al., 2017).³⁰

In a fourth study of 4,364 women by Dialla et al. (2015), it was found that socio-economic deprivation was associated with disease stage at diagnosis. Women, aged 50 to 74 years who lived in deprived areas, were more often diagnosed with advanced cancer stages, compared to those living in wealthy areas (OR 1.27, 95% CI, 1.01–1.60). Relative survival rates were also lowest in women living in deprived areas (88.4% vs. 92.6%) (Dialla et al.2015).³¹

Life expectancy

Life expectancy at birth was found, in our study, significantly and inversely proportionally related to poverty and health insurance coverage at the state level. In 2017, life expectancy at birth was 78.6 years for the total U.S. population—a decrease from 78.7 years in 2016, according to data released Thursday by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention’s National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS). For males, life expectancy changed from 76.2 in 2016 to 76.1 in 2017. For females, life expectancy remained the same at 81.1.

According to a February, 2016 report from National Vital Statistics, as an average in US, whites live (78.9) more than three years longer than blacks (75.5). The live expectancy at birth for Hispanics was reported as 81.9 years. (Murphy, Xu, Kenneth et al., 2018).³²

Socio-economic factors

We have identified in our study that there is a significant correlation between health indicators and socio-economic factors such as poverty and lack of health insurance in the U.S. population. Similarly, a study from the Center for American Progress reported that infants in the United States have a 76 percent higher risk of death compared with infants in other wealthy nations. (Center for American Progress, 2018).²⁴

According to the World Health Organization (WHO) “U.S. has some of the most sophisticated medical care, yet the country still lags far behind in the area of maternal and infant health care” (Newsweek).¹⁷ The article, *Poverty and Inequality Pervasive in Two-Fifths of U.S. Counties*, published in

November, 2016 by the Population Reference Bureau stated that over the past two decades, inequality and poverty have both become more pervasive in U.S. counties (Population Reference Bureau, 2016).³⁴

Conclusion

Health disparities are still a major public health problem in US. A strong correlation at the state level between health outcomes and poverty and health insurance coverage at the state level was identified.

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Persian – Arabic Gulf: Old Conflicts, New Solutions: The Convention of the Legal Status of the Caspian Sea

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Abstract

The area of the Gulf is synonymous not only to the huge amount of resources but also to the fact that it resembles to the setting of inexorable disputes and fights. The disputes in the Gulf emanate from various reasons, namely religious, factious, national and racial. Undoubtedly, disputes over sovereignty, borders and resources have human, economic, environmental and cultural cost. It may be suggested that the evolution and the continuity of such disputes in the region mainly consists an effect of a perpetual quest for power and resources. Iran consists one of the fundamental powers in the region, which attempts to establish its terms and status quo. At the same time the Caspian Sea tends to provide rich resources to Iran as well. However, are these resources enough to render Iran regional hegemony? The present study examines this scenario in light of the newly adopted Convention on the legal status of the Caspian Sea between the five littoral states.

Keywords: Persian - Arabic Gulf, Caspian Sea, Iran, Caspian Convention.

Introduction

The location of the Middle East joining the Old World's three continents is deemed to be of utmost importance in terms of its vast reserves and its transit ways (Cohen, 2015). Furthermore, the region of the Middle East is enclosed by major water bodies, namely the Caspian, eastern Mediterranean, Red Sea and Persian- Arabic Gulf. In light of this event, this particular region has been the bone of contention for Great Powers, who sought to establish their status quo.

The disputes in the Gulf emanate from various reasons, namely religious, factious, national and racial. Undoubtedly, disputes over sovereignty, borders and resources have human, economic, environmental and cultural cost. It may be suggested that the evolution and the continuity of such disputes in the region mainly consist an effect of a perpetual quest for

power and resources. However, it goes without saying that the region of the Persian- Arabian Gulf constitutes one of the most prominent and major sources of crude oil on a global scale, which means that energy politics and strategy- establishment tend to consist the cornerstone of disputes. Typical instance of the aforementioned vast oil reserves consists the field of Al-Safaniya, which is the biggest offshore field with 35 billion barrels of remaining reserves (EIA, 2017). To be more specific, the Persian Arabic Gulf is characterized by heavy concentration of crude oil reserves, estimated to 50% of the world's oil reserves (OPEC, 2016).

The history, the extent and the ambition of Iran in the Gulf and the rivalries with neighboring countries appointed it the center of numerous unsolved disputes (with Iraq and United Arab Emirates) for islands, adjoining water and sovereignty. Tension between Iran and the rest of the Arab world is also projected on the name of the Gulf. Regarding maritime delimitations in the area, it is important to mention that the peculiar morphology of the Persian-Arabian Gulf entails in the whole seabed and subsoil's appertaining to international jurisdiction while the need of delimitation of maritime zone is obvious. However, two special circumstances should be taken into consideration during the process of maritime delimitation; the great number of islands and the enormous amounts of oil reserves.

Regarding Iran's oil reserves and exports, it is worth mentioning the fact that Iran had an estimated 157 billion barrels of proved crude oil reserves, representing almost 10% of the world's crude oil reserves and about 13% of reserves held by the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) (EIA, 2019). Furthermore, Iran holds the second position- after Russia- of largest proved reserves of natural gas (EIA, 2019). The majority of Iran's reserves tend to lie onshore with the Khuzestan Basin (North Persian Gulf) containing almost 80% of the onshore reserves (EIA, 2019).

It is worth mentioning the fact that despite the efforts having been made, little have been achieved in the utilisation of renewable energy sources in Iran. To be more specific, although it is urged Iran use alternative energy resources for the sake not only of its economic development but also as a means to minimize the environmental impact of the use of fossil fuel, the legislative gap has led to minor use of eco-friendly resources. However, it is of utmost importance to briefly mention a core part of Iran's renewable energy sources. Solar power consists one of the most prominent renewable resource for energy, on the grounds that it is covered in deserts and it is characterized by high solar radiation (Khojasteh, Khojasteh, Kamali, Beyene, Iglesias, 2017). What should be stressed is that Greater Tunb Island- the bone of contention as analysed in the section below- has demonstrated great potential for utilisation of tidal energy (Radfar, Panahi, Javaherchi, Filom, Mazyaki, 2017)

At the same time, the existence of numerous islands in the Gulf as well as their significance due to oil reserves demonstrates the need for a brief analysis of the International Law of the Sea in the area. Typical instance is Abu Musa island located between Iran and United Arab Emirates (Emirate Sharjah, Umm- Al- Qaywayn and Dubai) as its territorial water is rich in recourses.

According to the United Nations Convention of the Law of the Sea 1982 (henceforth UNCLOS 1982), islands are entitled to territorial sea, continental shelf and exclusive economic zone. Territorial sea is a term used to describe a belt of sea adjacent to a coastal or archipelagic state where the sovereignty of the coastal or archipelagic state is extended. Each state is entitled to establishing the breadth of its territorial sea (extended to the air space over it and to its bed and subsoil as well) up to 12 nautical miles measured from baselines (UNCLOS, 1982). Additionally, under UNCLOS 1982 the continental shelf of a coastal state consists of the seabed and the subsoil of the submarine areas beyond its territorial sea to a distance of 200 nautical miles. In the particular maritime zone, the coastal state exercises exclusively sovereign rights for purpose of exploring and exploitation of natural resources (UNCLOS, 1982). Finally, according to Article 57 of UNCLOS 1982, Exclusive Economic Zone (hereinafter EEZ) can extend up to 200 nautical miles from the baselines. EEZ is a sui generis maritime zone where the coastal state exercises sovereign rights, namely exploring and exploiting natural resources, over waters, seabed and subsoil. At the same time, other states, both coastal and land- locked enjoy the freedom of navigation, overflight and laying cables and pipelines as established in Articles 58 and 87 of UNCLOS 1982 (UNCLOS, 1982).

The Main Dispute

The dispute between United Arabian Emirates (henceforth UAE) and Iran concerning sovereignty over Abu Musa and Greater and Lesser Tunbs dates back in 1971. Abu Musa Island (measures 12,8 km² and inhabited by approximately 2000 inhabitants) is located on the east part of Persian- Arabian Gulf, on the mouth of the strait of Hormuz. Abu Musa and Tunbs Islands (only Greater Tunb is inhabited by 350 residents) are of great geopolitical importance due to the fact that their seabed and subsoil are rich in natural resources (Rubin, 2002). Iran claims that the word “Tunbs” is of Iranian linguistic origin and means “hill”. On the contrary, the UAE tend to advocate that the word is purely Arabic and means “long rope being used for assembling a tent”. In addition, their strategic location is of great geopolitical importance on the grounds that that they are in control of energy, environmental, commercial and shipping activity not only in regional but also in global level as well.

The springboard to the dispute between the UAE and Iran over Abu Musa Island and Tunbs Island was 1971 (Al- Nayhan, 2013). In 1968 Great Britain announced the end of its administrative and military presence in the region of Persian- Arabian Gulf. Consequently, the administration of Abu Musa Island was assigned to Sharjah (one of the seven sheikdoms that later constituted the United Arab Emirates). However, Tehran stated that Iran is historically entitled to the Persian Gulf, while sovereignty over the under-dispute islands were given to the Arabs during 19th century (Ahmadi, 2008).

After Great Britain had resigned from the Persian- Arabian Gulf in 1971, a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) was signed between Iran and Sherjah sheihdom, according to which Sherjah would retain sovereignty over Abu Musa island, while Iran was entitled to establish military troops on the island (Ahmadi, 2008). Furthermore, according to the aforementioned MoU, oil deposits and natural resources surrounding Abu Musa island would be allocated. After Iranian military force's establishment on Abu Musa island, Iran occupied Tunbs island, which entailed in triggering a new sequence of reaction in the Arab world. In 1980 (a few years after United Arab Emirates were constituted) United Arab Emirates appealed to United Nations and simultaneously collaborated with five states of Persian- Arabian Gulf (Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and Oman) founding Gulf Cooperation Council- GCC. Events of 1992 were determining for the region of Persian- Arabian Gulf as a new strategy against Iran was established by not only United Arab Emirates but also by moderate conservatives. The particular strategy focused on Abu Musa island, while it extended to Greater and Lesser Tunbs later, due to which the dispute was intensified. The peak of intensity was the Abu Musa occupation by Iran and at the same time the expulsion of island's Arab population (Ahmadi, 2008). This action suggests an Iranian attempt for the island to be entirely inhabited by Iranian population so that it could be incorporated in the corpus of Iran and consequently be under Iran governance. It can be assumed that this circle of actions and reactions having taken place in 1992 consists a byproduct of new tendencies in the region (Askari, 2013, p.94) as well as the deterioration of relations between Iran and states of Gulf Cooperation Council (Ahmadi, 2008). Thus, the dispute over Abu Musa island was both a product and means of promoting a strategy aiming at confining and isolating Iran. Bilateral relationships had already suffered were it to be taken into consideration that Arab nations did not recognize the diplomatic approach of Iran (Ahmadi, 2008).

The Mubarak oilfield located six miles off Abu Musa island is claimed to be "an inseparable part of Iran" (Rahnema & Behdad, 1996) and it was a fundamental reason for Iran's extending its continental shelf up to 12 nautical miles (Act on the Marine Areas of the Islamic Republic of Iran in the Persian Gulf and the Oman Sea, 1993). The particular expansion is of paramount

importance should be taken into account the size and the proximity in the Persian- Arabian Gulf.

On the contrary, United Arab Emirates, whose economy is based upon oil (UAE Economic Report, 2015), attempt to gain as many as possible oilfields. Despite the remaining dispute, neither the United Arab Nations nor Gulf Cooperation council have planned to escalate the dispute. The major reason of choosing this particular policy is the border dispute between United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia.

Overall, Iran has recognized the significance of the three islands in the region of the Persian- Arab Gulf. The islands dominate in the mouth of the Gulf and it seems that control and sovereignty over the islands is the key to regional security and domination in the particular area.

The Caspian Basin

The Caspian basin, despite the fact that its legal status has not been established yet as to whether it is a sea or a lake, is one of the most important and significant regions of the world. The reason? The vast amount of hydrocarbons deposits that lie along both the coastline and inland and they can be used as an alternative source to meet the global energy shortage.

Specifically, the Caspian basin consists an enclosed or inland body of water, which is located in the northwest Asia and is surrounded by five littoral states; Russia, Iran, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan and Azerbaijan. According to the estimations of the US Energy Information Administration (henceforth EIA) there are 48 billion barrels of oil and 292 trillion cubic feet (henceforth Tcf) of natural gas in proven and probable reserves in the Caspian region (EIA, 2013). Additionally, according to the estimations of the Iranian company “*Petroleum Iran*” the region of Caspian holds 17-33 billion barrels of proven oil reserves and about another 233 billion barrels of probable oil. Moreover, according to the estimations of the aforementioned company, it holds 177-182 Tcf of proven natural gas deposits and 293 Tcf of unproven natural gas reserves (Petroleum Iran, 2019). The difference in estimations lies on the ground that its legal status has not been determined yet and each of the littoral states tend to claim the “lion’s share” of the deposits.

Until the beginning of the 20th century, the Caspian basin was identified as a lake and was controlled only by two littorals states, namely Iran and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (henceforth USSR). Their relations were regulated by two treaties; the first one was the “*Treaty of Friendship between Persia and the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic*”, which had been signed in 1921, recognizing equal rights for both parties in the Caspian basin, as long as the right of free navigation was under their flag, while the second one was the “*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation*”, which was signed in 1940, reaffirming the same rights (Treaty

of Friendship between Persia and the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic, 1921: Article 11 & Pawletta, 2007 & Bahgat, 2007 & Koutsouradi, Karkazis, Siousiouras & Chondrogianni, 2018). The situation changed drastically in the beginning of 1990s when the USSR was dissolved and the new independent states (Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan and Azerbaijan) claimed more space in the region and asserted equal rights and participation in the oil and gas deposits. The last ones belonged to the category of the “land-locked” states (UNCLOS, 1982) and the access to the high seas was of vital importance to them. As a result, they were in favor of its proclamation as a sea and wanted to be enforced the 1982 Convention in order to ensure their rights in the region (Koutsouradi, Karkazis, Siousiouras & Chondrogianni, 2018).

After twenty years of lasting and active conflicts and turmoil in the region, the solution to this situation seems to be the newly adopted Convention on the Legal Status of the Caspian Sea (henceforth the Convention), which had been signed on 12th August 2018 by the five littoral states and according to the Russian President, Vladimir Putin, “*it replaced the aforementioned treaties of 1921 and 1940*” (BBC, 2018 & Putin, 2018).

The Convention tries to establish a stable, secured and peaceful environment for the littoral states, by eliminating the hostilities of the past and by prohibiting the presence of third parties’ armed forces. In order to achieve these, it is pointed out that each country in the region could claim a territorial zone, which cannot be extended more than 15 nautical miles (henceforth nm). The delimitation of the maritime zone between states with adjacent coasts shall be determined in accordance with the rules of international law (Convention on the Legal Status of the Caspian Sea, 2018: Article 7). Moreover, the states shall delimit the seabed and subsoil into sectors by mutual agreements, which should be made between their adjacent and opposite states. In its sector, every state shall exercise exclusive sovereign rights and the rest of the countries can not interfere in its sector (Convention on the Legal Status of the Caspian Sea, 2018: Article 8).

Additionally, the neighboring states could have the opportunity to delimit a fishery zone until 10 nm, in which every coastal state shall hold an exclusive right to harvest aquatic biological resources (Convention on the Legal Status of the Caspian Sea, 2018: Article 9). The remaining the sea is called “common maritime sea” and is free and open for all the surrounding countries. In this area every littoral state shall enjoy the freedom of navigation, the freedom of transit and the freedom of access to the oceans (Convention on the Legal Status of the Caspian Sea, 2018: Article 10).

As it is concluded from the above analysis, the Convention divides the Caspian’s water into three zones; the territorial waters, the fishery zone and “the common maritime space”, which operates as the high seas.

The Outcome of the Convention

The Caspian Sea is of vital importance to the littoral states and each of its “players” knows it. Although the Convention does not define the Caspian basin as a sea or a lake and it has not entered in force yet¹, its “special legal status” may be a positive step towards settling this long-lasting dispute for all the surrounding states. Moreover, it can be advocated that the aforementioned Convention is a milestone and establishes a “sui generis” regime for the Caspian basin, which may lead to a positive outcome for the stability and the good – neighborly relations among the states not only in the region, but at a global scale as well.

It is a fact that by signing the Convention the parties accept that they have the same rights and duties, enjoy the freedom of navigation and reassure their access to the oceans regardless of whether it is a coastal state or a land-locked one. This prospect seems to be favorable for all the participants and especially to Iran for multiple reasons. First of all, the prohibition of any armed presence in the region of a third country, which does not belong to the Caspian basin, means that Iran is protected from the absence of the USA and their allies. Second of all, although Iran has the least oil and gas reserves in the region, it could use the Caspian basin as one of its diversified energy sources, in order to confirm its reputation as one of the major oils and gas producers in the world. Thirdly, by the adoption of the Convention it is probably that new, foreign companies will be willing to invest in the region, in order to construct new pipelines and new projects. This is a very positive prospect, because the economy of the country will flourish. Last but not least, Iran’s position and role in the region is being upgraded by the fact that without its acquiescence the rest of the countries cannot exploit the available deposits.

Conclusion

The Persian – Arabic Gulf is one of the most important regions of the world, due to its location and to the vast amount of the deposits it holds. It is a fact that controlling the aforementioned sea could easily increase the power of every littoral state and Iran not only knows that, but it wants to be the protagonist in the region as well. The Persian – Arabic Gulf could function as the pivotal space for Iran, which in combination with the Caspian basin could maximize Iran’s power, increase its protection and its space to the point of becoming the only regional superpower. Thus, this particular region could provide Iran with more hydrocarbon’s deposits, namely oil and natural gas, and as a result it would become one of the world’s largest suppliers. Moreover, the control of the aforementioned Gulf will upgrade Iran’s position on the world map and strengthen its “profile” in the region, while the New

¹It will enter into force, when all the signatories ratify it.

Convention in the Caspian Sea tend to be an integral part of Iran's upgrading. However, in order this prospect to be achievable, Iran should solve its regional active disputes and settle down its conflicts in accordance with the international law, international rules, and to its commitments to its neighboring states.

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Main Features of Georgia's Founding Council Elections

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Abstract

The elections of Georgia's Democratic Republic founding council is a special event in the country's political history, which is characterized by a number of special features, in both: within the country and at international scale. Consequently, the study of the past experiences and rethinking the political processes are very important and relevant. After the announcement of independence of Georgia (26th May 1918), the government had realized the necessity of the founding council's elections. Therefore, the preparation of the election legislation began in the summer of 1918 and on November 22, the Parliament of Georgia had already approved the law – about "Regulations of the Founding Council Elections". In the article 119 the mentioned law was described every electoral issue and its regulations. In this process were involved almost all political subjects. It is important to highlight that by this regulation we can clearly see the democratic character of elections. According to the elections regulation, the elections would be held in proportional terms and there would be determined the rights of active and passive voters.

It is important to note that at that period in Georgian reality the new regulations were already implemented on 14, 15, 16 February, 1919. The Central Election Committee registered the list of 15 Candidates and granted the election numbers to 15 political subjects. There were nominated 600 candidates, out of which 26 were women, and five of them became members of the founding council (it is noteworthy to point out that in some of modern democratic countries, woman was granted the right to vote much later). During the pre-election period the important issues of modern political parties are - the problems of program documents with their pre- election promises. It should be noted that even in the times of the founding council almost all election subjects had presented the electoral platform. It seems that the current problems are almost intersected. They were developing future reforms: emphasize human rights, labor rights, the establishment of general democracy, development of a peaceful environment and an active involvement in

international cooperation. This is the reason of maintaining the importance of century long issues in modern society.

Keywords: Independence, Elections, Rights, Legislation, Minorities, Democracy.

Introduction

In the collective memory of the Georgian people, 26 May 19018 is an important event. Exactly in this day Georgia announced its independence. It is the first political step towards humanity after the country's whole century long colonial regime. Consequently, discussion of this issue and re-thinking the events does not lose its importance, especially when the Democratic Republic of Georgia was the first state in the world, which had elected the Social-Democratic Party.

The study of the issue, is based on the analysis of the historical-comparative method of empirical material, here we have to highlight that it gained a great significance by the time being.

The paper deals with the current political situation in Georgia, it is focused on the main processes, which in order to be actively engaged in international cooperation straight after declaring its independence, was directly depended on the development of democracy.

The main research questions of the paper is - at the time of the constituent assembly elections, whether this topical issue is modern and timely or not, and its importance in the international level.

To the Origin of Georgia's Independent State

On 26 May 1918, the National Council convened at the Government Palace Hall and at the enlarged session declared the state independence of Georgia. The historical council's session was attended by 42 members and 36 candidates.

The Independence Act of Georgia says – “For many centuries Georgia existed as an independent and free state. By the end of the eighteenth century, the country, which was surrounded by enemies from its all sides, decides to join Russia, and Russia from its side gave the permission to defend Georgia from its enemies”².

In the independence act of the first Social Democratic Republic of the world, is shown the power of government representatives, recognition and respect for democratic values. All the seven Articles of the Acts were directed towards the peaceful coexistence of the Democratic Republic, especially, the

² There is an opinion that the National Council has created a precondition for diplomatic cooperation with this statement

following three: the fifth, sixth and seventh articles were directly related to the national minority: "The democratic republic of Georgia guarantees equality of civil and political rights for all citizens regardless of nationality and gender; the Democratic Republic of Georgia will open free environment for the development of all the inhabitants on its territory; prior to the meeting of the founding council, the management of the whole governments - the Board of Governors is headed by the National Council, which will be completed by the representatives of national minorities, and the temporary government is responsible for the Council" [1].

On May 26, 1918, after the announcement of independence of Georgia, the National Council approved its first government, which was consisted of representatives of various parties,³ the government of the coalition was completed by the Social Democrats (4 members), National-Democrats (1 member), Socialist-Federalist (2 members) and (Socialist-Revolutionists) (1 member). However, we have to say that the social democrats were in majority.

Later, by the resolution of October 8, 1918 the National Council of Georgia was named the Parliament of Georgia.

Sovereign Georgia's government had planned to build a national state only based on democratic values and principles. The democratic principles, including the arrangement and development of the state, was agreed and supported by the absolute majority of that time Georgian political elite.

Regulation of the Constituent Assembly Elections

Upon the announcement of independence of Georgia there raised the question about the formation of the founding council. Especially, the seventh Article of Independence Act says: "Prior to the founding council meeting, the governance of the whole Georgia is headed by the National Council", [2] which itself meant that the National Council and the Parliament of Georgia were considered as temporary organs.

The authorities had clearly and correctly understood the issue and sense of coming into power through the legitimate elections of the legislative body, and consequently the need for the founding council elections (parliament). In addition, the elections were a major challenge for the newly created democratic state.

By forming the constituent assembly, the population was able to express its opinion, whether it was justified by the political parties' or not, to prove or reject the independence of Georgia. "We are addressing to the people and we want them to say whether our step was correct or not, they have founded what we declared, it means that they gave it the basis and

3 Except for Bolsheviks. Representatives of the National Council also had ethnic minorities residing in Georgia.

determination, and confirm the act of independence, which was published on May 26th", says the newspaper "Unity" [3,209].

The preparation for the electoral legislation began in the summer of 1918 and on November 22, the Parliament already approved the law consisting of 10 chapters and 119 articles - "Regulation of the Constituent Assembly Elections", as well as it approved the total sum needed for the assembly. The government was ordered to provide 4 million "Maneti" (Georgian currency of that time) for the constituent assembly elections. [4]. On January 10, the Parliament adopted the Law about the "Appointment of the Founding Assembly Elections", which declares the date of the founding council elections - 14-16 February 1919.

Within the scope of our research, the study of primary sources (press materials, archive documents), show us how the Social-Democrats and opposition parties were preparing for upcoming elections. The first chapter of the Regulation begins with the statement of democratic content: "The founding council is completed according to the rule of proportional representations, by the members of the elected country's residents, regardless the gender, - by equal, straightforward and secret voting". It is important that, if we consider this provision by the features of Robert Daly's modern democracy, and at the same time analyze country's current political situation, we can see that the accepted reality is presented by a number of Daly's parameters. Especially, the freedom to create organizations and easily join them; right to participate in elections; right to be elected to the public and / or state position; the right of political leaders to fight for public support and voters; conduct free and fair elections; state institutions should depend on voting results or other forms of public support expressions; the existence of alternatives information sources [5];

We would like to emphasize the few most important articles of the regulations, which do not lose its significance even the centuries later. Especially, the rights for both sexes participation in the elections, the process of elections which was entrusted to the Republic's central, city, rural, rural community and village election committee. Here, we have to point out that in the above mentioned regulations there are certain notes of indications about the Sokhumi election constituency, which is currently occupied by Russia, and as well as the Zakatala constituency, which since the creation of the Soviet Union are no longer the parts of Georgia.

According to the democratic principles, in the multiparty system of Article 10-11 (Chapter 3), the election committee was consisted of 21 members and elected by the Parliament.⁴ The committee itself chose the

⁴ The Election Commission of the Republic was responsible for the management of the entire election process of the founding council (11 sub-paragraphs).

chairperson, deputy chairman, secretary and treasurer. The committee was completed by one representative from a political party nominated by a candidate.

The chairman of the election committee was a member of Social-Democrat party, Aleksandre Lomtadze.

It is necessary to highlight that the most sensitive problem of modernity is respecting the freedom and accuracy of elections (Chapter 9, Article 93-114). These articles are about the agitation materials, the posters, the damage of lists with candidates' names, the spread of candidates' fake information and their discrimination. In this case one will be imposed the administrative punishment, can be fined or sentenced from 1 to 6 months prison (according to the severity of the crime). Ministry of Internal Affairs released an order concerning to administrative staff about the interference in campaign in favor of any political subject [6,104].

The provisions of the Parliamentary Elections, which were adopted by the multiparty Parliament, practically included almost all progressive views of the given period, gender equality for voter rights regulations and for elections barriers campaigns.

The Main Features of the Election of the Constituent Assembly of Georgia

Due to a number of moments, the elections of the Georgian Constituent Assembly, which took place a century ago, even nowadays have a great importance in the international community. The process of elections was genuinely democratic. The state published a number of calls in the press and media, and in the days prior to the elections it addressed to the population: "14, 15 and 16 February are the elections of the constituent assembly of Georgia! My fellow citizens! Today we decide Georgia's destiny! You have to do it yourself! One of the biggest enemies of Georgia will be the indifference towards the elections! In this fatal moment, when Georgia is surrounded by numerous enemies and faces a threat to the distraction, citizens of Georgia, you must give them the right answer! You have to fight based on the necessity - if there is needed gun, with gun, and if word, with word. In the elections of the constituent assembly you have to express your firm will and be ready to defend country's independence and develop it according to the democratic structures and values. Do not forget even for a while that the elections of the founding council are a great phenomenon in our nation's lives! No one should stay at home during the election days! Everyone has to go to the ballot boxes! Do not lose your voice! "[7].

15 political organizations fought for 130 seats. The high quality of democratic elections in the country was expressed by the "diversity" of

political parties. Particularly, in the participation in the elections the ethnic minority parties together with the Georgians.⁵

Georgian electoral legislation imposed interesting, somehow protected, flexible electoral barrier, so called “election meter”.

It is important that the pre-election programs presented by political subjects and published using the help of their own press, actually defined the direction of their views. Political parties explain the importance of the elections to citizens, which was expressed in pre-elections calls.⁶

It should be noted that in the founding council’s elections, out of 130 Social-Democrats nominees 6 women were not Georgian by ethnicity⁷[8]. According to the statute, the voter in the elections of the constituent assembly had just to circle the name of one of the (party’s) listed candidates.⁸

The founding council had a multiparty system. In the elections, the Social Democratic Party had 109 mandates (5 of them were women). Out of 8 mandates, National-Democratic and Socialist-Federalist parties got – 8. As for the Socialist Revolutionaries – they got 5. We have to highlight that apart from Georgians, almost all the national minorities living in Georgia were elected as deputies.

It is true that, the final result of the founding council’s elections was in the favor of only one political party which became full dominant, but all the political parties were ready for cooperation and this process gave a significant impact to the existed at that time opposition parties. In the founding council, out of 6 major positions 3 were occupied by opposition candidates. The representatives of opposition parties had taken the post of the main commission chairman [9].

The archival documents note that the founding council of Georgia is elected by direct, equal, universal, secret and proportionate electoral system of both sexes. At its first meeting on March 12, 1919, the country and history confessed that it accepted and agreed the Act of Georgian Independence approved by the National Council on 26 May 1918 [10].

The government of the country had 3 branches of power, and the political system was based on pluralism and multiparty policy. Citizens' rights

5 №1 Georgian Socialist Labor Party (GSLP), №2 Georgian National Democratic Party (GNDP), №3 Georgian Socialist Revolutionary Party (GSRP), №4 Armenian Revolutionary Party "Dashnaktutuni", №5 The Socialist-Federalist Party of Georgia (SFPG), №6 The National Council of Muslims (Azerbaijanis Group), №7 Radical-democratic peasant party, №8 The nationalist (national) party, №9 The left-wing , Socialist federal party, N10 Shota Rustaveli Group, №11 "Union of Non-Parties", №12 List of Muslims of Borchalo Mazz (Azeri Group), №13 Russia Social-Democratic Labor Party (RSDLP), №14"The League of Esthetic Patriots ", №15 Elinos (Greek) Democratic Party.

6 In the founding council, the number of applicants was about 600, including 26 women.

7 Five women (Social Democrats) were elected as members of the founding council.

8 The lists should be submitted no later than thirty days prior to the election.

based on democratic principles have been developed by the greatest empowerment of the founding council and approved by the adopted constitution, which was worked out and studied on the experience of Western countries. Although, this constitution worked just for a few days, it is still very significant for the Georgian reality, because it shows the Georgian high level political history and the democratic character of the state.

European leaders recognized the independence of Georgia's democratic republic. However, it lasted only for three years, as the occupation of Soviet Russia bring to the end of the existence of democratic country. Despite its short lifespan, the country had a number of significant achievements.

Conclusion

On May 26, 2018, the announcement of the state independence of Georgia appeared on the world political map – which was the birth of the world's first social democratic state, with its unique democratic elections history.

Due to the multi nationality of the country, the Government of the Democratic Republic of Georgia chose a tolerant course towards national minorities. Already a century ago, they intended to grant national minorities the possibility of harmonious coexistence with the Georgians, free social, economic and cultural development.

Despite the fact that the democratic Republic of Georgia, was considered as the former periphery of the Russian Empire for centuries, however, it could manage to hold the general universal elections earlier than many developed countries, where both sexes were granted the right to vote in the elections actively or and passively; 5 women were represented in the legislative body; the government had a multiparty system from its very beginning. However, the majority was the representatives of social democrats; but there were established the state institutions; the constitution was adopted; there was developed the legislation to protect national and religious minorities in the country; women were granted the rights to vote; was created a good example of multiparty system governance; and last but not least there were developed a culture of political opinion and debate.

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Co-operative Investment policy for Growth and Development of Small and Medium Size Businesses and Improve the Poverty Condition in Bangladesh

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Abstract

The research focuses on the assessment of SMEs (Small and Medium Size Enterprises) & its impacts on socio-economic spheres; it focuses on the effective ways for growth & development of SMEs in Bangladesh for socio-economic development. Bangladesh is one of the poorest countries in the world with low GDP/capita and minimum purchasing power. 24.8% of the total population of the country does live below the national poverty line (\$2/day), while 6.5% of them do live in extreme poverty [4]. To bring the vast population out of the vicious circle of poverty and accelerate the economic growth are the target and attention of the country. To pave the way for first & foremost task is either to create direct employment or create condition to create employment to reduce the unemployment rate & accelerate the source and level of disposable income. Growth & development of SMEs, which create self-employments and employments for low and semi-skilled workers, are the target and attention of the country. But the ways for growth & development of SMEs in Bangladesh are not smooth enough. They are frequently confronted with structural, managerial, financial, and social challenges. For sustainable development large population groups are needed to get the ways for their own development. The research was conducted by structural and semi-structural questionnaires and face-to-face interview of 150 recipients of social classes and ages in rural and urban areas in Bangladesh. The aim of the paper is to analyze the effect of Co-operative Investment Policy through “Co-operative Society Micro-saving Bank” and “Innovative SME Model” for growth and development of SMEs and MIAs (Micro Industrial Activities) and its impacts on socio-economic development. The target is to aggregate impoverished individuals’ micro saving, limited capability, little working skills & experiences to create them depositors, investors, successful entrepreneurs & skills workers through establishing co-operative society micro-saving bank and involving them in entrepreneurial activities.

Keywords: Co-operative investment policy, Co-operative society micro-saving bank, Innovative SME model, Economic growth, Poverty alleviation.

Cause of high rate of poverty and way to overcome

Permanent economic downturn & tremendous poverty are the remarkable national issues in Bangladesh and mandatory tasks are to accelerate the economic growth and bring the nation out of the vicious cycle of poverty. There are 3 fundamental reasons which are accountable for permanent economic downturn and prolong poverty in Bangladesh, are: firstly, the poor people don't have permanent regular jobs to earn enough money to support their families, as they are illiterate & lack of working skills and experience to secure formal regular jobs. Secondly, they don't have sufficient investment capital to introduce their own businesses or other income generation activities to change their financial status. And thirdly, they don't have proper entrepreneurial and managerial knowledge & experience to introduce and operate their own businesses perfectly profitably. For these reasons they are not able to lift themselves & their families out from the vicious cycle of poverty either by working capitals or entrepreneurial capabilities and they are poor from generation to generation. These factors impose huge pressure on national economy, infrastructural and economic growth plan & potentiality.

For sustainable development large population groups are needed to get the ways for their own development.

When poor are encouraged to save & the capital is associated with an increase in assets & money liquidity is accelerated effectively, when borrowers are encouraged and patronized to invest in low risk income generation activities; the vulnerability of the poor people is reduced & improve the poverty conditions & national economy.

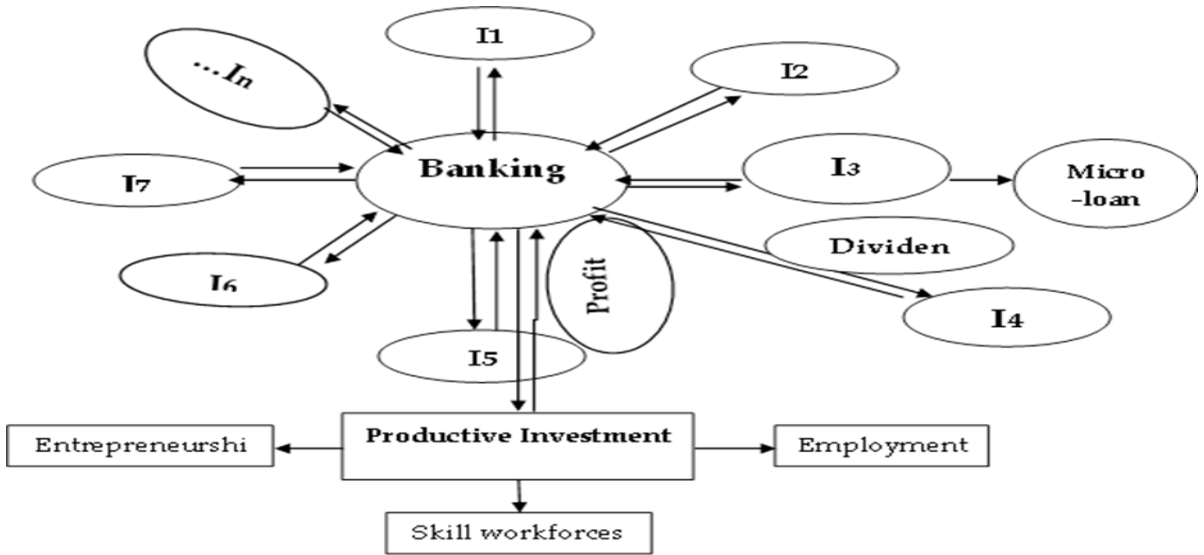
In these very condition **Cooperative Investment policy**, whereby little deposit capitals of many impoverished individuals are aggregated gradually in co-operative manner and invested in highly labors productive & profitable sectors as their (impoverished investors') own financial institutions (SMEs and MIAs) which the poor investors are employees with their shareholders status and receive salaries with dividends, could be a very potential breakthrough to accelerate the economic growth, generate employment and improve the poverty condition in Bangladesh. The proposed 'Co-operative Society Micro-saving Bank' and 'Innovative SME Model' are to apply the methods to examine the effectiveness of it on socio-economic development in Bangladesh.

A. Co-operative society micro-saving bank

Co-operative Society Micro-saving Bank is an innovative micro saving banking and microeconomic activities. It's is a micro saving based dividend sharing bank. It is mainly a profit & lose sharing basis investment bank. Co-operative Society Micro-saving Bank is created by little & equal deposit capital of a large number of impoverished investors. The bank first aggregates month-month basis installment based little but equal deposit capital from a large number of impoverished investors and invests gradually in highly labor productive and profitable sectors as the impoverish investors' micro joint ventures. Moreover, the bank manipulates formal banking activities including saving, money transfer and lending activities.

The impoverished investors, who have neither sufficient investment capitals nor proper entrepreneurial knowledge to introduce and operate their own businesses or other financial activities, do deposit very little amount of credit (\$5/month) for a certain period of time (2 years). After 6 months, when sufficient investment capital is deposited, the bank goes to direct investment in highly labor productive and profitable sectors including, small cottage industries, micro industrial and other low risk commercial activities and employs maximum of its investors (Shareholders) to its financial activities. After a month they start receiving salaries as their first source of income since they are the employees of the financial institutes. They receive dividends of the profitable sectors as the second source of their income at the same time as they are the shareholders of the ventures. Moreover, they are allowed to receive low interest loan from the bank for productive investment, for example, to introduce SMEs or other income generation activities and it would be potentially the 3rd source of income. The bank recruits maximum of its shareholders in its incrementally growing job sectors. The impoverished investors are the depositors, the shareholders, the credit recipients and the employees of the bank. As the impoverished individuals neither have sufficient investment capital nor proper entrepreneurial knowledge and experiences to introduce and operate their own businesses or financial institutes, the bank deposits little investment capitals of large number of impoverished investors and invest them in low risk and labor productive income generation activities as micro industrial activities and conduct them properly as their representative. Whole systems is operated by a skilled governing body which is the employee of the bank and each member of the governing body may hold one and equal share like any other ordinary shareholders.

Figure 1: Model for Co-operative Society Micro-saving Bank



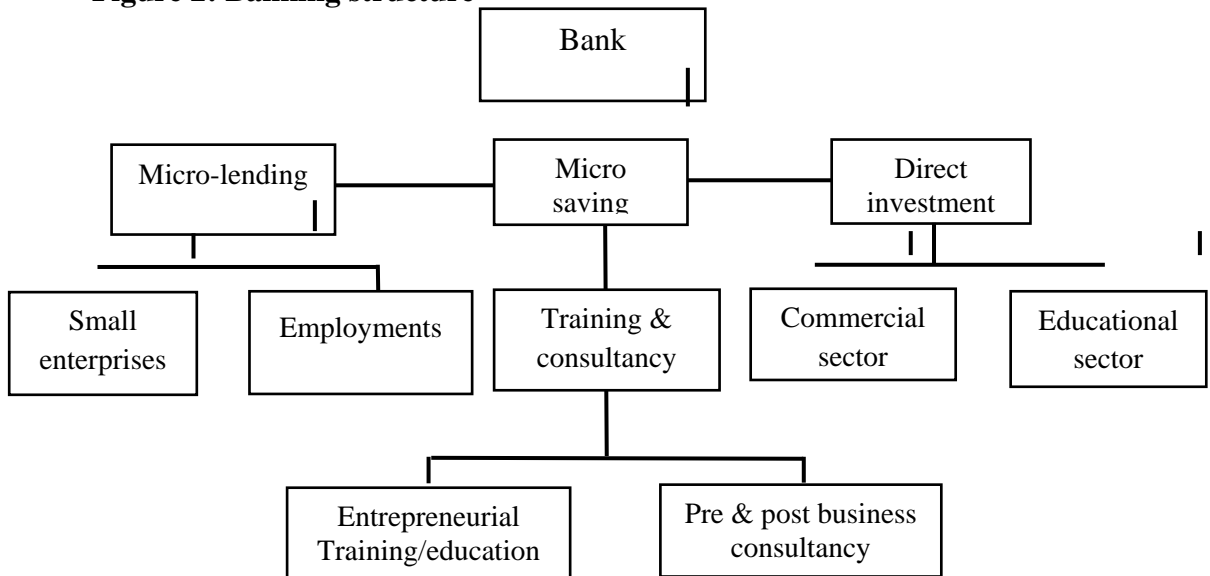
$I^1+I^2+I^3.....I_n; (I=Investors)$

Source: Computation by the Author 2015

a. Banking structure of co-operative society micro-saving bank

The principal objective and focus of the bank is to accelerate the growth & development of SMEs, MIAs and other income generation activities to bring the impoverished people out of the vicious cycle of poverty, utilizing their own capitals, own diligence, own capacities & capabilities. For this quest the bank pursues micro-saving based investment principle. Effective banking structure & investment policy are predominantly significant to reach its economic growth and poverty alleviation goal. The Bank adopts the 3 functional micro financial activities: Micro saving, Direct Investment, Micro lending (figure 2). The Micro saving creates the saving habit of the impoverished population which accelerate their money utilization and entrepreneurial activities. The direct investment policy of the Bank accelerates the revenue & leverage of institute and creates employments. The easy accessible low interest rate loan reduces underprivileged peoples' liquidity constraints and accelerates the growth of SMEs and disposable incomes. Moreover, training and consultancy program increases the entrepreneurial skills of underprivileged investors (shareholders). The bank adopts the following banking structure to encourage and increase entrepreneurial activities and reduce the investment failure rate and bring socio-economic sustainability (figure 2).

Figure 2: Banking structure



Source: Computation by the Author 2015

b. Investment in productive sectors

The banking concept was emerged with the idea that it would pursue micro saving & investment based dividend sharing principle. So, the bank directly invests in various profitable and labor productive sectors. It predominantly give priority to invest in low risk labor intensive income generation activities, including small & medium scale commercial, micro-industrial & educational sectors. Commercial sector includes, dairy milk processing, packaging, marketing, water purification & bottled, farming, fisheries etc. Micro-industrial investment includes, readymade garments, little handicraft etc. and educational investment includes, introduction and operation of commercial primary school, secondary school etc. A half of the profit is invested to set up new enterprises and to expand the existence ones for the first 2 years while the rest of the profit (50%) is provided to the shareholders as dividend every month. The investment activities contribute to accelerate revenue; generate employment, enhance disposable income and improve poverty conditions of the impoverished investors.

c. Credit giving policy

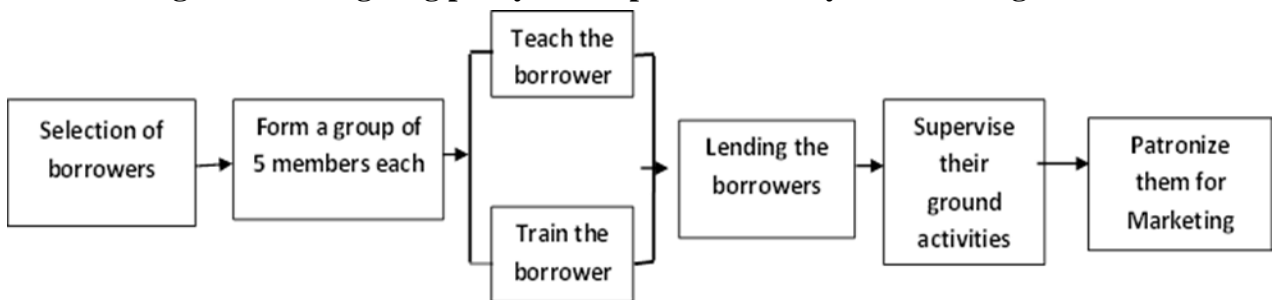
The ultimate goal & attention of the bank is to accelerate the economic growth activities and to lift the impoverished people & areas out of the vicious cycle of poverty through growth and development SMEs, MIAs and other income generation activities and involving them in the growth potentiality. To maximize the development, the bank provides low interest loan to its

shareholders for entrepreneurial activities. As credit giving principle, the bank first surveillances the projects of the loan applicants and provides knowledge & training in the areas including entrepreneurial, managerial, marketing and bookkeeping spheres to accelerate the SMEs' profitability & success rate and reduce the failure rate (figure 3).

For effective utilization of loan capital & maximization of output of credit functions, the bank pursues the following pre & post credit allocation policy:

- Forming a group of five potential borrowers (credit recipients)
- Surveillances their planned projects and projects' survival & growth potentiality
- Effective entrepreneurial and managerial training
- Pre & post investment & business oriented consultancy
- Allocated loan capital range from \$2000-\$10,000

Figure 3: Loan giving policy of co-operative society micro-saving bank



Source: Computation by the Author 2015

d. Collateral free credit program

Access to easy financial services is very significant factors for sustainable growth and development of SMEs [1], [12], but access complexity to financial services is still the biggest challenge to SMEs in Bangladesh [11], [13]. Less than 20% of small businesses in Bangladesh have access to institutional financial services [13]. The main obstacle to access to institutional finance by small enterprises is the credit with collateral [13].

To alleviate the financial access interruption of SMEs' entrepreneurs and to enhance the growth and development of SMEs, the bank introduces easy accessible collateral free micro credit program with effective payback principle. The bank provides trust based micro credit to its shareholders for productive investment. The exclusive payback policy reduces the pressure on credit recipients and at the end of the loan period they can operate loan free business activities.

e. Interest rate & pay back strategy

Short term & Long term loans, interest rate and repayment structure

Effective credit giving policy and repayment structure are very significant for permanent economic growth by marginal entrepreneurs and improve the poverty conditions. The bank provides low interest micro-credit to encourage and increase entrepreneurs and spread entrepreneurial activities.

The Bank introduces two types of micro loans named; **Short term credit** and **Long term credit** and imposes different interest rates and payback strategies for different loan functions.

Short term credit: For short term credit, the bank imposes 5% annual interest rate and applies flexible installment based repayment principle. The bank gets the loan back with month to month basis 12 installments during a year. First installment is started after a month of receiving loan then every month gradually.

Long term credit: For long term credit the bank impose 7% annum interest. The total loan capital with interest is payback in single installment after a year of receiving loan.

The low interest rates minimize the pressure on credit recipients and payback principles enhance the time to invest and make profits which accelerate the small business's profitability and success rate. In Bangladesh, impoverished investors invest in mainly 2 types of income generation activities: 1. to introduce SMEs wherefrom revenue and profit comes daily basis and 2. to introduce farming including cattle fostering, poultry farming, fisheries etc. which take 9-12 months to get return on investment. Due to the investment failures of the small investors in Bangladesh, the bank pursues the different loan functions.

Short term loan's repayment sample:

Repayment installment =total loan capital with interest/12

If a client receive \$1200 loan on 1st of January, from the 1st of February his/her installment is started and installment capital is \$105 ($\$1260/12=\105)/month till January of the following year.

f. Women empowerment

Women make up almost half the total workforce of Bangladesh [49.586 (f): 50.414 (m)], but they are in lagging behind in outside financial activities in the open air, prominently because of religious and cultural settings. Only 31.6% of the female workforces were active in Bangladesh labor market against 81.7% of their male workforce counterpart [5]. Moreover, in term of entrepreneurial activities, they are also lagging behind of their male counterpart. As of 2014, 3 million SMEs are operated in Bangladesh. Of them only 7.2% are owned by female entrepreneurs [6]. Their

contribution to national GDP is only merely 6.85% of the total GDP [6].

Keeping a vast population out of income generation activities, sustainable development is imposable. Home based small businesses enhance women's involvement in economic activities and enhance entrepreneurial skills which accelerate household's income and reduce social discrimination.

To encourage and increase the women in entrepreneurial activities, the bank provides them credit with beneficial banking they need to start up business ventures and actively participate in economy. It gives them confidence, improves their status and make them more active in decision-making, greater accession to financial resources, greater social network and greater freedom of mobility thus encourage gender equality. But just simply access to micro financial services of women doesn't empower them automatically; rather loan contribute women to support the family and society in large economically to empower them.

g. Entrepreneurial training

Every year 1/3 of new SMEs is introduced by the microcredit of MFIs in Bangladesh but 2/3 of them can't survive longer than 1 year because of low market share and low profitability [2]. These are due to lack of entrepreneurial, managerial, marketing and bookkeeping knowledge and experience of SMEs investors [11], [7], [13], [14]. Most of the SMEs in Bangladesh are introduced without any plan, outline or framework which lead high rate of small business failure. A survey conducted by Bangladesh Bank [3] showed that 89% owners of SMEs practically done the business plans by themselves without seeking consultation from professionals or experts.

To counter the impediment, the Bank establishes SMEs training & consultancy center to provide fundamental training, knowledge and consultancy in the identified areas including, entrepreneurial, managerial, marketing and bookkeeping spheres before providing them loan to reduce the SMEs failure rate and accelerate profitability & success rate.

h. Setting helps desks in bank and business promotion bodies

SMEs entrepreneurs are marginal, uneducated and disadvantage inhabitants of the society. But investment functions in Bangladesh are bureaucratic, corrupted and complicated with a lot of paper works and red tape barriers [8]. The poor entrepreneurs are not knowledgeable and experienced with the formal administrative procedures. Thus, they are often confronted with harassment, unexpected delay and side payment to get registration & business license. Thus, investment cost of SMEs goes unexpected high and investment plans of many potential investors are ended before introduction. To repel the impediments & extend the outreach of SMEs development, the

bank sets up help desks in bank branches to assist the SMEs investors for successful growth and development of SMEs.

i. Regional raw material based production industries

In Bangladesh investment and industrial policies and activities are mainly capital city Dhaka and financial capital Chittagong based. Almost all of the products and services are produced either in Dhaka and or in Chittagong and spread throughout the country for marketing. It hike the cost of products or services several folds due to high labor cost & high rent of space, transportation cost and other services. This policies also responsible for unhealthy rural-urban migration problem, rapidly growing city slams, contamination of city environment, rapidly growing crime rate as well as hindrance of urban development plan & potentiality and socio-economic growth potentiality of rural areas.

The bank mainly invests in regional raw materials based micro-industrial and commercial activities within the regions for the regional market. The investment policy reduces the cost of the products and creates employment in regional labor market which repel rural-urban migration problem and accelerate regional development.

j. Investment in education sector

Creation of an effective human nation that increases labor productivity and accelerates return to capital is one of the most important things for the long-term and sustainable development of a nation [9], [10]. Education is the single most significant component to create human nation [9]. But the education sector in Bangladesh lags behind the standard. Literacy and school attendance rate is relatively low and school dropout rate is very high, mostly among the impoverished population, as they can't effort to send their children to school rather send them to work. As of 2012, youth literacy rate is 77.1% for male compare with 80.4% female. Primary school attendance rate for male and female child is 72.2% and 81.2% respectively and secondary school attendance rate for male and female child is 42.2% and 47% respectively [15].

The Bank plays a significant role against the backdrop. It works through the current generation and build up the future generation. The bank's distinct investment policy and loan programs increase impoverished investors' economic and income generation activities, employments and households income which contribute them to send more children to school for longer time. Besides, its own educational program is to provide standard education, mainly to the children of underprivileged investors which bring a radical change in socio-economic spheres in Bangladesh. If a generation is possible to lift out of illiteracy cycle through up to date and education, it will bring tremendous changes in socio-economic spheres.

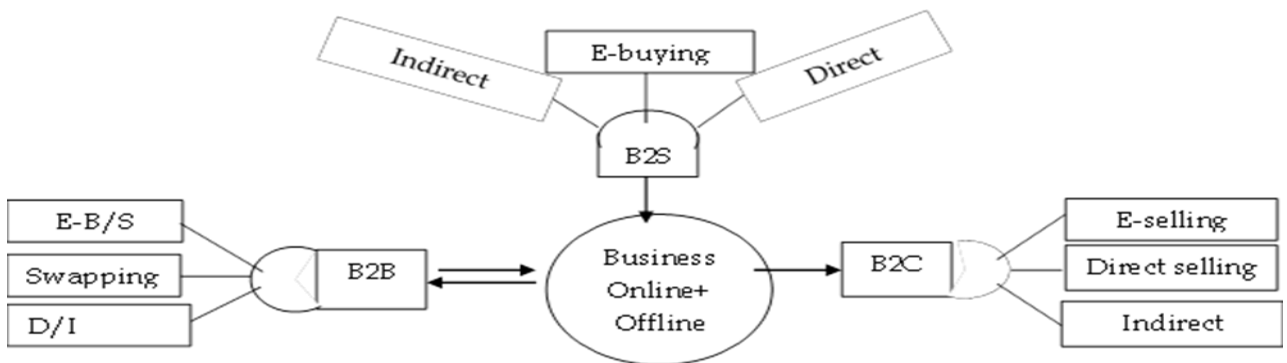
B. INNOVATIVE SME MODEL

Innovative SME growth & development model

Bangladesh has a track record of very high rate of (75%) new SMEs failure each & every year. Small customer volume which leads low market share and low return on investment is one of the most remarkable causes for high percentage of SMEs failure at the initial stage. ‘Innovative SME Model’, which accelerates the customer volume and market share in short order and minimizes the time between ‘Purchasing & Selling’, is a viable alternative to repel the constraints.

Innovative SME Model constitutes SMEs both online & offline formats and creates network among B2C (business to customers), B2S (business to suppliers) and B2B (business to business) and manipulates direct & distance purchasing & selling form the same space (outlet). The business model creates a ‘Customer-Business-Suppliers’ chain (figure 4). The Model accelerates the customer volume and market share in short order & minimize the cost of units and time between ‘order and supply’ and ‘receive and delivery’ (Purchasing-Selling). The model also designs to offer a large volume & varieties of products by low investment cost. The business first receive the order from the customers, contract with the customers according to the customers’ needs, receive the supplies and deliver to customers in time. The business also operates direct purchasing and selling like the conventional business outlets together with distance operations.

Figure 4: Innovative SME Model



Source: Computation by the Author 2015

a. B2C network

The format creates a ‘Business-Customers’ network which does coverage a large number & varieties of customers ranging from Government offices, NGOs, commercial institutes, educational institutes to household clients and contract with them both via online and directly by sale representative. The business receives distance orders online as well as

indirectly by sale representative and delivers the products(s)/ service(s) by minimum time. The business also maintains the conventional direct selling. The objectives of the network are:

- To accelerate customer numbers & sale volumes
- To accelerate the market share
- To reduce gap between purchasing & selling
- To increase profitability

b. B2S network

The format creates a ‘Business-Suppliers’ network which does coverage a large numbers and types of suppliers ranging from farmers, cosmetics, accessories, stationaries to commodities and communicate with them both online and by the representative directly. The objectives of the network are:

- To enhance the volume and variety of products by low investment cost
- To reduce the cost of the products
- To minimize the gap between order & supply
- To accelerate the profitability

c. B2B network

The format creates a ‘Business-Business’ network which does coverage a large number and types of business ranging from commodities, cosmetics, accessories, stationaries to groceries, mostly operating in the same area, and communicates with them both online and directly by the representative. The business network enter-sell, swap or exchange their product(s)/ service(s) according to necessity. The objectives of the network are:

- To increase sale volume
- To enhance mutual understanding and business ethics
- To accelerate profitability

Conclusion

When and how economic growth would be accelerated & poverty could be alleviated depends among the other things on whether and how successfully micro-economic policy address the real constraints faced by the poor in a certain context & area and how effective measures are taken to overcome the impediments. Effective strategies and proper implementation are indispensable to reach its economic growth and poverty alleviation goals.

For sustainable development, large population groups are needed to get the ways for their own development.

The 'Co-operative Society Micro saving Bank' accelerate impoverished people's saving habit & increase growth and development of SMEs, dynamic and diversify the economic activities, increase the employment growth and reduce unemployment rate.

The 'Innovating Small Business Mode' increases small business's profitability and success rate and reduces failure rate through enhancing customer volume & market share and minimizing the time between purchasing & selling and offer a large volume & varieties of products by low investment cost.

Effective policy, good working model and proper implementation of 'Co-operative Society Micro Saving Bank' and 'Innovative Small Business Model' accelerate the economic growth, alleviate poverty and bring socio-economic stability in Bangladesh.

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Gods and Cults: Folk Traditions and Cultural Memory in The Shimla Hills

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Abstract

This paper intends to highlight oral narratives, folk traditions, and performances as an alternative source for the writing of history, for those regions which are inhabited by numerous ethnic and tribal communities and where historical sources are in dearth, and whatever sources are there, are in the form of folklore and folk memory. The history and culture of such communities or groups are rooted in oral traditions and can only be traced through oral evidences, which introduce an entirely new dimension to the study of such areas. This paper is an attempt to correlate different oral sources among themselves and corroborating these with the existing literary documents, with the intention to analyze the cultural influences in this region. In this work main emphasis would be on folk traditions, beliefs, legends, ballads and performances and their practices, how they have emerged, what they signify and what historicity they possess.

Keywords: Folk beliefs, Traditions, Supernatural.

Introduction

Shimla hills have plenty of oral narratives, folk believes, traditions, and performances related to the legends associated with deities, heroes and cults. This folk memory plays an important role in the life of the masses, as it is the part of their history and culture in the form of oral evidences and practices. The region has several great deities drawn from Vedic and Puranic traditions, as well as figures like sages and gods having powers to cure ailments, heroes and primitive spirits etc. These gods and heroes, and the folklore associated with them are the guardians of the traditional value system which governs the life of the people in this area. This unique amalgamation of good and evil spirits as gods has tremendous effect on the social and religious culture of the people residing in the region. Most of the gods have their family members as deities of various villages, which have given birth to strong connections within the region in terms of social and political relationships.

While these project a sense of monolithic culture, it is also possible to read the sources and complexity of the cultural formation through an analysis of the conflicts and contestations within the tradition variation.

Geography and History

Shimla hills is a wholly mountainous region in the lap of Western Himalayas. The altitude ranges from 350 meters to 6975 meters above mean sea level. The altitude increases from west to east and from south to north. Geographically it can be divided into three distinct regions, the Shivalik or outer Himalayas, middle Himalayas or inner Himalayas, and greater Himalayas or the alpine zone. Shimla hills is situated in the heart of the Western Himalayas is specifically known with the term *Dev Bhoomi* ('The Land of Gods')(Sharma,2007, p. 11.) and its divinity has also been elaborated in *Skand Purana*. It is a region which is geographically cut across with mountain ranges, rivers, and valleys, dividing the inhabitation into distinct cultural regions which has given birth to several interesting socio-cultural practices, in which the institution of the village God is most remarkable. These institutions have history behind them rooted in the mist of the past remembered in the form of oral narratives;

Its history goes back to the dawn of human civilization. The early history is an account of migration of the people of different races from Indian plains and Central Asia. Its history is perhaps the most unique and remarkable one as compared with that of any other region of the Himalaya. The history of Shimla hills is the history of *Kols (Proto-Austroloid)* the earliest inhabitants of the area. In the Vedas, they have been called the *Dasas*, the *Dasyus*, the *Nishadas*, etc. Perhaps the *Kolis*, *Halis*, the *Doms* who are the inhabiting tribes in different parts of Himachal are the descendants of that very ancient race. The primitive inhabitants had undeniably bequeathed a very rich religio-cultural tradition and self-sustainable symbiotic socio-economic system, to the people, who followed them in the region, who were, the *Khashas*, a more powerful people, an offshoot of the Aryan race, who later on became the new master of the hills and turned the *Kinnar-Kirat Desha* into *Khash Desh*. They assimilate those tribes and were, in turn, influenced by them, which gave birth to the new social structure.

The *Khashas* organised themselves into the unitary groups which lead to the birth of several small political units, which later on developed into republics, popularly known as *janapadas*. These *janapadas* continued to flourish for a long time till the breakup of Harsha's empire in the mid 7th century A.D. The place of these *janapadas* was taken by Rajputs, who founded several new states in this region. As primitive inhabitants lost their political dominance to the *Khashas*, so was the case with the *Khashas* who later on lost it, to the Rajputs. This repeated suppression and degradation by the

dominating successors led to the formation of the substratum of the multi-racial and multi-cultural *Pahari* (Hill peoples inhabiting the area Western Himalayas specifically Himacal Pradesh.) society which is still visible in the social cultural heritage of the inhabitants in this vast part of the western Himalayas.

Religion in the Himalayas

There is no country in the world in which religion exercise more influence on social and political life than in India. Religion gives the key-note to most of the great changes that have occurred in the history of the people inhabiting this country from the earliest ages to the present day. In discussing the religion in this area, we find a curious blending of pre-Brahmanical, Brahmanical and Buddhist Practices. No doubt the prevailing religion is a form of Hinduism, but to actually ascertain what the actual state of religion is, it is necessary to examine the forms and ceremonies observed in domestic and temple worship and the deities held in honour.

Gerald D. Berreman, in his work says that, “Most *Paharis* are Hindu as evident by their own profession of faith and by application of any realistic definition of that term to observation of the behavior they exhibit and the beliefs they profess relating to the supernatural world (Berreman, p. 80)”. D.N. Majumdar (1944, p. 139) has given similar statement earlier in his discussion of the people of Jaunsar Bawar: “The Khasas are Hindus; their customary rites in temples, the manner and mode of offering sacrifices..... periodical festivals..... all indicate their Hindu origin....”, they are not orthodox Hindus. That is, they are not highly sanskritized or brahmanical in that they do not adhere closely to written prescriptions and proscription of post Vedic Hinduism (Srinivas, 1952, p.30: 1956). Their social life as well as their beliefs and practices connected with their socio-religious life do not identify them with the Hindus of the plains. They re-marry their widows, practice polyandry, recognize divorce as legal, inter-marriage between the various Khasa groups, which is not tabooed and the children born of such marriages do not suffer any social stigma. What D.N. Majumdar had observed in connection with the Khasas of Jaunsar Bawar in Gharwal Himalayas can be applied to this region also: that though they are Hindus and they worship Hindu gods and goddesses, they have “partiality for ancestor spirits, queer and fantastic demons and gods and for the worship of stones, weapons, dyed rags and symbols. The sun, the moon and the constellation are their gods.” (Majumdar, 1944, p.150). A.F.P. Harcourt acknowledging this fact writes: “Throughout Kooloo (inclusive of the upper Beas valley, Wuzeri-Rupi and Seoraj) the faith is Hinduism; but it is not the religion of the orthodoxy..... Beside Hinduism, serpent-worship is also practiced..... The religion of the majority of Kooloo people is a sort of Demon-worship, which may be deemed an offshoot of the Hindu creed”,

(Harcourt, 1979, p. 59). The argument of Srinivas can also be applied in this region too. The people are not orthodox Hindus and their belief systems are the source of their socio-cultural life which depicts its folk-history (Srinivas, 1952, p. 30: 1956). In a work on Pangi valley Meenakshi Chaudhary categorically remarks, “the folks stand at a higher footing than the primitive. Their religion may also be distinguished from *Shastriya* religion.” She further adds, there is a way of life in which “animism, the power of mana, totemism, Pirism and the sophisticated culture of Hindu and other are mixed together” (Chaudhary, 1998, p.128). Along with the Vedic and Pauranic gods and goddess worshipped all throughout the area, Shimla has a rich tradition of worshipping the local deities and village gods in whom they profess unbounded faith. Most of them purport to mythology and history of their area, and signify man-nature dyad.

Folk beliefs

Folk beliefs constitute the traditions, legends, rituals, myths and customs etc. of a group of society. They exist as folk knowledge and are then put into practice as customary behavior. It is through this behavior, they are usually learned. They do not exist solely in the abstract but they actual exist in practice and are often part of complex cultural processes that involve not only belief but also values and other behaviours, which find expression in different genres of folklore. Shimla hills have plenty of folk beliefs and legends associated to it, in which local deities play an important role in shaping the customary practice and behaviour of the masses. This region has several great deities alongside the bramanical gods and goddesses, which includes protective, benevolent, evil or malevolent and ancestral spirits. They are considered to be the guardians of traditional value system, which is governing the life of the people in this area. This blend of good and evil spirits as gods has given a new dimension to the belief and traditions of the supernatural, in this region. The ceremonies associated with them confirm strong roots of collective life-styles and team spirit of the people. These folk beliefs, traditions of the supernatural are the mirror of the cultural life of this area.

The major bulk of population in this part of Western Himalayan region belongs to the Khasha race which was later on brought under the Brahminical fold but still their belief that, “everything in the community is supposed to belong to the clan god and nothing could happen in the community without his indulgence and approval”, is the bedrock of their belief system. The god dispensed edicts through their intermediary known as *gur*, *chela*, or *mali* (an oracle) and this institution of oracle enjoyed a pious and important position in the society. The *gur* is always chosen and appointed by the deity himself, and he is essentially a person from any of the indigenous communities, may be even from the lower castes.

Nature of Folk believes and Traditions

One of the most potent village institutions is of the village god. Interestingly, these gods or goddesses are not defined; they can be a divine spirit, a sage or saint, a *nag* (serpent), some animal or ancient monarch or some spirit. The most important aspect here is that these village gods and the institutions are the center of the cultural life of the masses. Since people are under the admiration of the god and since he has almost dictatorial authority, the attitude of the people towards nature and living and non-living being is governed by the dictates of the god through the *gur* (an oracle). Discussing the power of the village gods B.R. Sharma says that, this institution did not come up as a matter of chance; it has a long tradition that goes back to the hoary past though one cannot ascertain how and when it emerged. There are myriads of stories behind these gods. Sharma further elaborates: the village gods control all the villagers and direct social customs. When this custom of village deities started is not known for certain, but the villagers know only that their activities and destinies are governed by these gods and they cannot afford to disobey them at any cost. Thus it can safely be said that this institution is the major dictator of their activities, hopes and despairs, virtues and vices, natural and created misfortunes in a village society. The village god is the symbol of village culture. (Sharma, 1990, p. 133). The institution of village gods is a major custodian of the activities in the village society. The village gods of Shimla hills are associated with manifestations of Hindu gods and goddesses (Lord Shiva, Durga, Vishnu) which is a clear example of sanskritisation of the belief systems, Nag (serpent worship) and minor gods of local folk cult are also worshiped.

Nag deities are one of the widely worshipped deities or godlings all over this territory. He is worshiped in many forms and has shrines dedicated to him in one or other form. Whether the nag cult refers to some powerful race of early man called Nagas or it denotes snake worship as in other parts of India cannot be ascertained for sure as there are several divergent and conflicting opinions of scholars. The *Nag* deity is not necessarily worshipped in the shape of a serpent. He may assume any form and like other godlings he may appear in dream or exhort the chosen one to establish his seat in the village. According to the local beliefs *Nag* controls rains and if propitiated during drought, he gives abundant rain. The nagas cults and traditions of the Western Himalayan region have been undergoing constant metamorphosis under successive religious and ethno-cultural factors. All these factors have now come down to our times in various forms and manifestations. The cult of *Gugga Jaharpir* is the latest among them.

The folk beliefs and traditions in region can be understood by following the concept of Sanskritization, and the Great and Little tradition (Chetan Singh, 2008, p. 43). Sanskritization was a process that enabled certain

sections of the society to improve their position in the existing social order. The Great and Little Traditions, on the other hand, seemed to represent the entire ideological and religious spectrum within which such improvement in status could take place. One needs to emphasize, however, that even though Brahmanical culture provided the framework for the process of Sanskritization, it was not installed from popular customs. It synthesized and incorporated diverse aspects of folk belief, and in doing so it established a cultural continuity between the Great and Little traditions. Local traditions interacted with an influential Brahmanical one that successfully accommodated many of their principal beliefs and also provided an intelligentsia that mediated between regional diversities; yet it would be difficult to deny that there was also a tendency for the Brahmanical Great tradition to superimpose some of its own thinking upon non-Brahmanical belief systems (Srinivas 1952/1965, p.167).

Patters of worship

The details of worship of various supernatural being in the hilly regions of Himachal vary. There is, however, a basic pattern underlying most worship in the villages. *Gur* (shaman) is the intermediary between the devotee and the villager god. First he conducts a short puja (ceremony), and to the beat of a small drum he sings mantras (prayers or incantations) in honour of the god to whom he is devoted. Gradually, as the god takes possession of him, the *gur* becomes impervious to pain. The god when in complete charge speaks and acts in the body of the *gur*. The god then singles out the various devotee one at a time and tells each what troubles he has had and what the cause is, that is what supernatural being has been tormenting him, and what should be done to alleviate the trouble. The treatment recommended by the shaman is almost invariably performance of a *puja* in honor of the offending supernatural being, or exorcism if it is a ghost. Spell-casting (*jaddu*), witchcraft and evil eye are also the part of the belief systems in the hilly terrain.

Nature of beliefs in supernatural powers

On the basis of different beliefs and religious practices prevailing among the people of this region of western Himalaya it can be summed up that they practice polytheism. The divine powers have been identified with a group of powerful forces and deities which control and influence the happenings in the community. Most the villages in this region have a cluster of spirits and super beings and identification of different powers with different deities is made accordingly. All these deities have their own respective departments and areas of influence, effect and control, as well as nature of actions. The people here believe in many gods and goddesses and have diverse methods of worshipping, depending on their traditions which shows an attachment with

polytheism. Different names, different forms and various responsibilities have been attributed to these gods and deities. Different gods and deities have different specific jurisdictions and abodes. Animistic gods, nature and the ancestral spirits are their premise with which they are preoccupied. The nature of beliefs can also be divided in the following: animism, naturalism, totemism, taboo, magic and ancestor worship.

Supernatural

The supernatural is almost as pervasive in the minds of hill people as is the nature. The supernatural beings, who affect human, range from capricious sprites, malevolent ghosts, and ancestral spirits to household, village and regional gods. Belief in the existence of superhuman or supernatural power is almost universal. Experiences of certain day-to-day sudden happening have led hill folks into believing in other than the material visible world, i.e., in the invisible spirit world of supernatural power. They have established a kind of close relationship between themselves and the power by adjusting themselves to it in two ways, first by controlling or overpowering the spirit by enchanting or practicing some techniques and canalizing the power, for good or bad, and secondly, by offering *puja* or worship to propitiate the superhuman power for acquisition of the thing or object desired. (Lowie, 1950, p. 176)

Conclusion

Himachal Pradesh has a large segment of semi-tribal and tribal population and same is the position in Shimla hills. The essential feature of their religious and cultural practices is their belief in spirits, ghosts, ancestor worship, and the institution of village gods. Even those living in the remote areas, though not tribal, have a large number of common beliefs with their tribal brethren. The concept of supernatural cosmic power dominates their customs with a result that their religious and cultural practices are an admixture of Hinduism, Buddhism and belief in supernaturalism. The tribes of Lahul Spiti and Kinnaur in some parts follow a Buddhist way of life but are also motivated by Hindu practices. Peoples in the lower altitudes are influenced by Hindu cosmology and metaphysics as well as the supernatural world of totems and myths and animism. That explains why so many interesting and inscrutable practices exist side by side the mainstream Hindu or Buddhist beliefs.

Although the present day belief system of these hills are heavily burdened with the Brahmanic bias, yet the core content is still intact. The legends, are true, to some extent, with some changes depending upon the individual narrators. Under the Brahmanic onslaught most of the ancient temples might have lost their actual identity and were adopted into the

Brahmanical fold and re-christened after the name of the brahmanical gods, ancient heroes and sages, but in this process of cultural diffusion and assimilation, both the Great and the Little tradition affected each other to a large extent. Neither the indigenous culture was fully destroyed nor was the brahmanical culture able to establish its dominance. And this was only due to the rich folk tradition in the form of cultural memory and practices which kept the core of the old culture intact and alive. The written tradition of the popular culture and the oral tradition of the indigenous culture have enriched each other and due to this they are admixture in this region.

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The Discursive Ethos: From The Social Conception of Language to The Social Conception of the Subject

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Abstract

The discursive ethos is a notion that is primarily related to communication including verbal interactions. Indeed, language is not only a simple means of individual expression but it reflects the linguistic and extralinguistic side of the talking subject. This social conception of language has developed over the years to show that language activity is closely linked to the social and societal activity of individuals. In an interactive process, as in the case of political communication, interlocutors are led to persuade their audience through a positive self-image. It is thus that projecting a successful ethos becomes primordial. Indeed, the study of the speaking subject in the political discourse shows that the speaker is part of his speech. In other words, he marks its subjectivity through linguistic processes that arise throughout his communication. In addition, the political actor reflects both the image of his political group and that of his social group. And this is through the use of the personal pronoun "we" which gathers three instances: political, citizen and patriotic. It is in this context that this research is carried out from a sociodiscursive approach that involves the linguistic aspect and the social aspect of language.

Keywords: Discourse - individual ethos – collective ethos – verbal interaction - language – communicator/ speaking subject.

Introduction

The social ethos referred to in this article has an essential communicative aspect. Being closely related to the argumentative threesome Ethos, Logos and Pathos, this notion remains an enunciative strategy which is pertinent and appropriate to the field of political communication. Thus, and via the ethos, the communicator reflects, through his ways of being and his ways of saying, a positive self-image. In effect, it is a question of persuasion strategy which is conspicuously manifested in and by the discursive activity. Actually, the communicator can be entirely revealed only through the interactional

dimension where the elements of the communication process intertwine so as to determine and work out a specific ethos.

Far from being a simple message that transmits reality, language stands as a deconstruction, construction and reconstruction of this reality, in a like manner, “the self” as an individual specificity can be manifested only through the relationship between the subjects. Anyway, the individual and social subjects coexist and get manifested in the discursive activity, placing, then, language and interaction in the core of the human activity with its individual and social aspects. It is in this regard that George Hebert Mead came up, in an evolutionary perspective, to the same conclusions as those of Cassirer. George Hebert Mead stated that social activity presuppose effectively language communication. As a consequence, and in view of the limited nature of the communication theories mentioned above and following G. H. Mead, human sciences have the theoretical tools that are likely to define a new approach for the subject and the social which Habermas described as a psychology of individual identity.

The importance of this subject lies in the overcoming of the communication reductive theories that of the mechanistic theory of reflection and the mentalist theory of consciousness. The former holds that communication is reduced to the simple fact of transmitting information and language is nothing but a mere tool that vehicles an already non-linguistic experiment performed outside communication. The latter, on the other hand, considers communication as the individual expression of a conscious willingness. This research case, therefore, is to be placed in a social conception of the subject where the resort to diverse human sciences will allow to comprehend everything that is implicated in communication. By clearing away the transmission problematic, we will trace the functions that language effects within society.

Reviewing language and interaction, in this way, leads to speak of the social and subject categories in communication in terms of a sociodiscursive approach. This is done through two main axes namely: the social conception of language; the verbal interaction: an articulation between the individual ethos and the collective ethos especially in the political discourse.

I. The social conception of language

The work and the ambition of Ferdinand de Saussure to develop an abstract model of language are seen as the cornerstone of modern linguistics. In effect, *Course in General Linguistics* (De Saussure, 1916) is a reconstruction of his lectures on the basis of notes compiled by his students and carefully prepared by his colleagues. The book is regarded as the starting point of structural linguistics. Structuralism sees *"language as a system that*

knows only its own order»⁹ and emphasizes that ‘the true and unique object of linguistics is language studied in and for itself »¹⁰. The extra linguistic elements are pushed aside in the context of this linguistic research and this in spite of some passages that alluded to the social aspect of language where it is regarded not only as “the social part of language” but as “a social institution” as well.

Subsequently, other linguists like De Saussure have given priority to demarcate and bound their scientific research in a way that restricts language as an object of study. The research of Bloomfield¹¹ and Chomsky¹² who have formulated diverse and substantial descriptive systems for the general study of language while discounting its social aspect, fit into this linguistic theorization.

1. *Language and the postsaussurian conflict*

As an abstract form, language cannot, however, exist outside the social context in which its interlocutors shape it and give it form. Hence ‘the history of a language is that of its interlocutors »¹³ linguistic approach has to take into account what it reports to the social side in language. As a consequence and just after Course in General Linguistics had been published, linguistics had approached language in two different ways, and the first approach emphasizes the internal aspect of language whereas the second underlined its social conception.

For a very long time, these two conceptions have been evolving simultaneously surveying and analysing each, the purely linguistic or extra linguistic side of language. Since the emergence of modern linguistics “it appears vis-à-vis a structural discourse which highlights the form of language, another discourse which stresses on its social functions”¹⁴.

The French linguist Antoine Meillet (1866-1939) is considered as the forerunner of the social conception of language which is revealed in a couple of texts. Seen as Saussure’s student, Antoine Meillet distances himself by underlying that “in separating linguistic change from the exterior conditions on which it depends, De Saussure deprives language of reality and turns it into an inexplicable abstraction”¹⁵.

9 De Mauro T., (1985), Course in General Linguistics, critical edition, Paris: Payot, p.314

10 Ibidem

11 BLOOMFIELD, (1970), “Language or ideas”, *Language. Hockett Conference*. La Haye – Paris : Mouton. pp.322-328

12 CHOMSKY N., (1968), “*Language and thought*”, Payot/Rivage. Coll.

13 CALVET L. J. (1993), *Sociolinguistics*, Paris : Presses Universitaires de France. P.3

14 Ibidem

15 MEILLET, A., (1965). ‘How words change meaning’, published in the year of Sociology,

Unlike the language strictly internal approach, Antoine Meillet in his social conception calls, at the same time, for the internal and external approach of language. If Saussure talks about the dichotomy between synchrony and diachrony, Meillet aspires to account for the structure of history. According to him “language cannot be fully understood without reference to its evolution”¹⁶.

In his famous article, “how words change their meaning”, Meillet suggests a definition based on Durkheim’s outlook for this social side of language, he founded his conception on three criteria. First of all, he deemed that the limits of different languages tend to coincide with those of the social groups which we name nations. Moreover, language is, thus, an eminently social fact. In effect it enters exactly into the definition proposed by Durkheim: a language exists independently of each of the individual who speaks it, and though it has no reality beyond the totality of the individuals in question, it is, nonetheless, aside from its generality, exterior to each of them. Finally, the characters external to the individual and coercion by which Durkheim defines the social fact appears, then in the language with the last evidence.

Through this anti-Saussure theme, Meillet reveals clearly, after the publication of the Course of General Linguistics, that language is a social fact and that post Saussurian structural linguistics delve in studies that are not relevant to this theme.

2. *Language: towards a sociolinguistic approach*

The position of Meillet vis-à-vis the conception of language is regarded as the fount of the conflict with structural linguistics. In this respect, Calvet points out that ‘we will practically wait for William Labov to trace the affirmation that if language is a social fact, then linguistics can be a social science, that is to say that sociolinguistics is linguistics’¹⁷. In that respect and in the framework of the research published in English that this social aspect of language emerges especially in the research of Basil Bernstein, an English specialist in sociology of education. This latter was the first to take into consideration the linguistic productions and their social context.

In supporting the idea that learning and socialization are characterized by the social context which affects the linguistic behaviours, Calvet insists strongly on the social dimension of language. Actually, he underlines strongly

1905-1906; Incorporated in *historical linguistics and general linguistics*, Paris: Champion, chez C. FUCHS, ‘*La Co-énonciation section, Carrefour of linguistic anticipation*’, R. Sock at B. Vaxelaire, *the anticipation at the horizon of the present*, Mardaga, 2004. (Hashs-00067945.) p. 166

16 CALVET, L. J. op.cit. p. 7

17 Ibid. p.4

the sociological aspect of language and stressed that “*in a sense, the concepts of restrictive codes and elaborated codes have their origin in the two forms of solidarity distinguished by Durkheim*”¹⁸.

In 1964 and on the initiative of William Bright, the first conference on sociolinguistics was held in Los Angeles. This scientific meeting has allowed rallying various contributions of different researchers like Jean Gumperz, William Labov, Dell Hymes and many others. By ensuring the publication of acts, William Bright sociolinguistics as an approach the definition of which lacks accuracy and precision and that “*one of the major tasks of sociolinguistics is to show that diversity or variation is not free but it is associated with systematic social differences*”¹⁹. In spite of W. Bright convening role, his conception of sociolinguistics made it attached to other researches related to linguistics, sociology and anthropology. It is with the research works by William Labov that the social conception of language was in fact, confirmed independent.

II. The verbal interaction: a place of articulation between the individual ethos and the collective one

The subjectivism being rejected and the theory of consciousness being substituted by the dialogism, the verbal interaction holds a central place in all language theorization. In this respect, Bakhtine states that “*the true substance of language is not constituted by a linguistic system of abstract forms, and not the isolated monologue, and not the psychological act of its expression, but the social event of speech interaction that is performed by the utterance and the utterances*”²⁰. That is how the verbal interaction constitutes the essential reality of language.

The Interaction: Subjectivity and the production of an individual ethos
Structural linguistics or structuralism in general is considered as a linguistic of the form, a linguistic without a subject. This latter is discarded in the sense that their individual behaviour is nothing but the representation of a linguistic or a social system according to the observation or research object.

(a) The erasure of the subject

As it is indicated by R. Vion, it is a question about, “*determined sociology according to which the activity of the subject is entirely determined by the internal system arrangements*”²¹. Determining the subject in a unilateral point of view, other approaches have this structuralist vision of the subject, as it is the case, in the first place, in sociolinguistics since the linguistic activity

18 BERNSTEIN, B. (1975), *Language and social classes*. Paris: Ed. de Minuit. P. 306

19 BRIGHT, W., (1966), *Sociolinguistics, Proceedings of the UCLA Sociolinguistics*. P. 11

20 BAKHTINE, M. *Marxisme and philosophy of language*, Paris : Editions de Minuit. P. 136

21 VION, R. (1992), *verbal communication : interactions analysis*, Hachette, p. 58

of individuals is conceived as totally governed by norms. In this way, it appears like a social which leaves no room for the structuring action of the actors. It's again the direction of *the systemic approach* which is regarded as a variation of structuralism. Even if we switch to the Symbolic Interactionism, it is conspicuous that it can be assembled to this unilateral vision of the subject when it happens to take it as a "self".

Indeed, the subject is regarded as a construction of the other and confines, by the way, his existence to the fact of being the outcome of the other. Then, his expressions depend exclusively on an "expressive order" which seeks a face-saving. Furthermore, considering communication as a closed system where the subject is approached according to some well-defined rites and social norms brings back the idea that excludes the individual as an active entity and backer or advocates the sovereignty and the supremacy of the system.

Afterwards, the erasure of the subject was seen in such a way to replace the subject as an actor within the system and restrict, therefore, this one-sided vision. In effect, "*from genetic structuralism to systemism, a reflection on the whole social is pursued either in its determinations, its dynamism or its openness on the agents and category strategies*"²².

In short, many works managed to place the subject at the heart of the research, while eliminating their status of "the acting" in a given system. Except that the individual can in no way erase the social marks that permeate in a way or another subject; they remain, however, affected by social habits and constraints.

(b) *The communicator: A projection of an individual ethos.*

In linguistics and as Robert Vion indicates: "*The utterance sets up a true theoretical break, it is no longer a question of erecting systems or describing internal distributional arrangements which are inherent to the messages, but to take into account the activities undertaken by the speaking subject*"²³. On the part of the interactionist approach, especially those which analyse the interactions, the symbolic interactionism remains close to the system and the sociological consideration of the subject "self". On the contrary, the ethno methodology has attempted to establish an equilibrium between the actor and the system and this is quite patent at one of the founders of the Chicago school. Actually, Mead has managed to draw a neat distinction at the individual 'the 'Me' the 'self' who is the byproduct of socialization and the "I" who is the producer of the social and one of the actors of this socialization. For him, this conception has "*a virtue to take away from the*

22 ANSART, P. (1990), *Contemporary sociologies*, Paris : Le Seuil, col. P.77

23 Vion, op.cit. p. 60

sociological explanation in terms of socialization, any recourse to the determinism of the social on the actor, and to yield a definition of the social which is not to be binding “24. Anyway, the interaction is seen as a place which permits the projection of an individual ethos, the manifestations of which are diverse.

At the very heart of a system or a social structure, the speaking subjects can reveal themselves and mark their subjectivity via their competencies. In effect, communicating is an act which entails, knowledge and a *savoir-faire*. These latter are comprehended at two levels, the former is of a discursive nature whereas the latter is of a strategic nature.

Concerning the communicative know-how, we would like to point out that during the verbal interactions in a general way, and during the political communications in particular, the argumentative competency fits in this kind of know-how. As a matter of fact, being capable of persuading, allots the speaking subject a positive identity image which allows procuring a real power on the others. In relation to the action strategies, we point out that we should cope with them by avoiding comprehending them as conscious projects of a voluntary individual would act by himself. This means that the strategy is far away from being intentional and conscious because of two reasons. The first is linked to the fact that this competence is related to the interaction itself, in other words, the ground. So, this interactive behaviour cannot be formerly reckoned. What is more, and no matter how are the strategic intentions of a speaking subject, they are confronted to a communicational context which imposes on the speaking subject strategies that they are to adopt *in situ*.

This is, on the one hand, on the other hand, the speaking subject manifests their subjectivity through his own mode of utterance; therefore, while speaking out he sees himself as the player of the situation, when he talks using the subject pronoun I. This subject pronoun allows the enunciator to impose himself in the discourse as an individual entity. His goal is to persuade the other from a set of positive images which reflect that ‘I’. Accordingly, the speaking subject subjectivity is equally marked by what Kerbrat-Orecchioni calls ‘the subjectivemes’²⁵. This is to say that the marks of subjectivity which any speaker leaves in his discourse.

Following the same idea, Patrick Charaudeau attempts to elaborate a splitting between the subject and the subject’s image. In point of fact, when he responds indirectly to Bourdieu in terms of the social status of language, he

24 RAMOGNINO N. (1991), ‘Interaction and social space time, Communication and/or socialization’ mimeographed, communication presented at the first international symposium *interactions analysis*; Aix-en-Provence September 12-14th 1991. P. 4

25 KERBTAT-ORECCHIONI, C.(1980). *The enunciation of subjectivity in the discourse*, Paris: Colin.

states that ‘what we say is that within this society are practiced power strategies which are the result of a play of being and seeming between the social status of the protagonists in the communication situation’²⁶.

Hence, the interaction establishes between a communicating ‘I’ and an interpretive ‘YOU’ a picture game between an enunciative ‘I’ and the addressee ‘YOU’. Which means that there are “*two communication circuits: the external circuit where the acting subjects operate and the internal circuit where the interlocutor’s images are engendered and negotiated*”²⁷. In this respect, the discursive ethos is a projection and a negotiation of the interlocutors prior images.

1. The collective ethos: persuasion and legitimization

In the light of what was developed in the previous point, the interaction remains an area where the individual ethos is projected and conveyed. The individual ethos then can be manifested only through a social structure of the ethos as it is the case in the interaction where the act of communication reflects the social order of the individuals. Indeed, “it is one of Mead’s fundamental institutions to observe that socialization process is achieved through a language mediated interactions”²⁸. The language is then considered as the pillar of the socialization of individuals, which is constructed, reconstructed and generated all along the verbal interactions. Hence, the verbal interactions permit spotlights the individual’s social image, firstly as a projection of a collective ethos which is used later as a means of discursive persuasion and legitimization.

(a) The Interaction: an area of the projection of a social image

Not only does language permits to generate and transmit meaning, but it is also an area where meanings are discussed by being constructed and defined. This is how we can regard that language is also a management of discursive forms because it is not the simple support, the simple transparent tool which allows the expression or the action of the daily lives. It constitutes the place of the patterning of this action and of these daily lives. In this regard, the combined management of the discursive forms enables the speaking subjects to engender meaning, social relationships and identity images which are being built like the essential functions of the verbal interaction.

26 CHARAUDEAU, P. (1983), *Language and discourse – Elements of semiolinguistics*, Hachette University – Coll. p.56

27 Vion, op. Cit. p.87

28 HABERMAS, J., (1987), *the logic of social sciences and other essays*. Paris : PUF, col. P. 442

The making of sense is being prepared during verbal meetings in the sense that, the interlocutors, in a communication process, are called to share, to discuss and to negotiate their ideas in an interactive and intersubjective process. The production of meaning is related, therefore, to the social order simply because it only reflects the cultural values inherited and reacquired by individuals. This leads to say that communication manifests, at the same time, substances, and social relations which complete each other and which sets connection between the interlocutors. Hence, the verbal interaction based upon some preset knowledge and a world vision confronts, negotiates and restructures these cultural values, therefore, it's the social order which is structured and restructured.

In addition to the construction of meaning, the verbal interaction is a place of the projection and of the construction of the social relation. In fact, communication meetings are hinged, above all, upon the roles that each speaking subject occupies. At the very beginning, the position relationships are previously determined and set up conflictual or consistent relations between individuals. Likewise, the position relation determines the relation between a dominating and a dominated depending on the roles assigned to each one. Except that, in an interactive process, this social relation can altogether tip over for the discursive fabric erects and negotiate new relations as long as it erects and structure new contents. This brings back the idea which states that “*Any communication presents two aspects: the content and the relation, such as the second encompass the first*”²⁹. The distinction between the content and the social relation and the speaking subjects grant another dimension to the verbal interaction which overtakes, this time, the construction of meaning so as to attain that of the social relation.

This construction of social relations, long verbal interactions, cannot be comprehended out of the identity images. Indeed, the third function which a verbal interaction accomplishes lies in the construction of identity images that circulate and get negotiated between the interlocutors. It is, thus, a construction and a projection of the individual as well as the collective image of the individuals. It is about the image of the self reflected from the discursive ethos. Through this discursive ethos, through this latter, the speaking subject negotiate preset images concerning his being seen as an enunciative subjectivity and as an individual endowed with a social identity. It is really the dominant concept in the Symbolic Interactionism especially in the micro sociology of Goffman.

29 WATZLAWIK, P. JACKSON, D. & BEAVIN BAVELAS, J. (1972), *A logic of communication*. Paris : Le Seuil, col. p. 52

(b) *Collective ethos: legitimating and identity claim*

Including a set of collective data, the social image is reflected from a set of enunciative procedures which deliberately or undeliberately, aim at legitimizing the self-image by a collective ethos. Within this framework, we assert that the speaking subject is not really an acted subject, but an actor who permeates the social via his subjectivity. The verbal interactions especially the publicized debates and political communications are social structures which require some social aspects. The notion of the status and the role ensures an essential function in the projection of the individual social image because it grants him both legitimization and power. In effect, over the course of the verbal interaction, chiefly the political communication, the speaker already bears a social position which he is to confirm through his interactional positioning and his discursive ethos.

The question here is what is called institutionalized positions which are anterior to the progress of the interaction. In short the notion of status subsumes a set of social positions occupied by a subject and which constitute social features and attributes. Accordingly, the social image is reflected through the notion of the role which is considered as the realization and the implementation of the notion of the status as a matter of fact, “*the role indicates the set of cultural models associated with a given status*”³⁰. Except that the role as a social indicator linked to a specific system turns into an individual role from the moment when this very notion can be activated only in an interactive context which includes and request an interlocutor. By taking on a status or a role, every interactant projects a precise social image which reflects the belonging to a given social community which has in common well-defined social representations.

At this level, the collective ethos crops up during the act of speaking in order to be able to legitimize the self-image or the individual ethos. In the political discourse, the speaking subject by taking the role of the communicator represents political structures whether at the level of the government or the political parties. In this sense, having to resort to the projection of a collective image or to a collective ethos is a kind of discursive strategy which legitimize the speaker’s discourse while granting him oratory credibility. In addition, adopting a collective ethos, during the verbal interactions and especially in the political communications, is viewed as a strategy for the claim of a statutory power and therefore of an interactional power.

These strategies can be noticed over the course of verbal interactions according to two levels: the form and the content. Actually at the formal level,

30 LINTON, R. (1977), *The cultural foundation of personality*. Paris : Dunod. pp. 71-72

the collective ethos can be manifested from the interactional management which confirms the social position of the speaking subject. In effect, by moving from a position to an interactional positioning, he has to manage the progress of the communication by directing it towards its proper goals. In this spirit, the monopoly of speaking and the interruption, even if they are offensive acts, form a key strength in the political discourse mainly if the interactant status compels him to play this role. Besides, the metadiscursive strategy which rallies all the value judgments for instance, the remarks, and the criticism on the progress of the interaction as well as the conversational norms, mirrors the image of a dominating collective ethos which grants the interactant power and a strong position.

In second place, the collective ethos appears in the speaking subject through a set of values and social norms, which they seek to defend and circulate through their discourse. Thus, and in a persuasive reasoning, these norms are enunciative strategies that aim at reinforcing the positive image of the speaker. Moreover, the norms requested by the speaker express his collective identity and his affiliation to a given social group, that's why he introduces them in his discourse by resorting to the collective subject pronoun 'we'. Having resorted to this pronoun is in itself one of the essential discursive strategies in the political discourse, in so far as the speaking subject can incorporate it in his discourse when he tends to reinforce his self-image by a collective image. Switching from an 'I' and a 'We' strengthen and legitimize the sayings of the interactant mainly when this collective pronoun represents instances that are related to the community values for instance the political, citizen and patriotic bodies.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is very obvious that language not only reflects the linguistic aspect of the speaker, but projects also, accordingly, an extralinguistic aspect due to a precise communication situation. That is how the verbal ethos of every speaking subject encloses manifold enunciative voices. This enunciative diversity is linked to the diversity of social representations which permeate the speaking subject and consequently his world vision. In fact, during the verbal interactions the speaking subject is a subject of the saying that is the actual person who utters the statements. Besides, it is the acting and pragmatic subject who constructs and deconstructs a communication process. He projects, thus, his verbal ethos via a set of enunciative strategies which enable him to project a positive image especially in political communication where the political actor stands as a prominent link in the act of persuasion. This is reflected by communicative competencies that bring to the fore the speaker whether at the level of the form or the content. Similarly, the speaking subject in the sphere of political is a representative of

one or another instance, which accounts for the projection of a collective ethos. Be it political, religious or ideological political discourse is impregnated with a given frame of reference which is reflected in the collective ethos of the speaking subject. This ethos is equally a persuasion strategy, used by the political subject and remains changeable depending on the different communicational contexts.

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Innovative Leadership Style for Industrial Companies

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Abstract

Innovation is a very important subject for industrial companies especially in a competitive environment. As there is a lack of innovation in combination with leadership style, this paper focuses on combining these factors as inputs for leaders of tomorrow for industrial companies. Nowadays, leaders are looking for a new kind of leadership style which drives innovation in the company. Therefore, the theoretic perspective is being considered with the basic leadership styles as well as with the input of some international successful leaders of innovative companies. Furthermore, the trends of a practical orientation of a specific industrial sector serve as findings and tips for successful innovative leadership. Finally, leaders of tomorrow will adopt some solution strategies as part of their leadership styles in innovative companies. This will help to enhance the innovative power in their industrial companies.

Keywords: Innovation, Leadership style, Industrial sector, Spirit.

1. Introduction

The topic of leadership is becoming more and more important. After decades of different leadership styles, the question raised is if there is a connection between leadership style and innovation. In this paper, the definition of leadership will be explained at the beginning. In the main part, the aspect of innovation and its criteria are being defined. Also, an excerpt from a qualitative survey with the manager of an industrial sector according to innovative leadership would be studied. Finally, the summary will close with the most important findings.

Leadership Styles

A leadership style is used to support leadership as a management function. In summary, some styles, which are considered to be frequently used, are described in the examples below.

The Theory Z

It is based on a comparison by Ouchi (1981) of the leadership in American and Japanese companies. The result proved that successful American and Japanese companies are the most successful. Companies come very close in their management style to Japanese companies. Type Z companies are characterized by an established and homogeneous corporate culture. Building on this, Ouchi proposes a 13-stage (organizational) development model for a Type Z organization for the less successful American companies. In doing so, it aims to redirect attention to human relationships in the entire organizational community.

The 7F-Model

The leadership style developed by McKinsey (Pascale & Athos, 1981) points to the need to optimally use and coordinate the following 7Fs in order to achieve corporate goals; leadership strategy, leadership skills, leadership system, leadership style, leadership structure, leadership goals/concepts, as well as the target and value system of the executives. There is no generally binding solution. Rather, each company must develop its own 7F profile which is "optimal" only for it.

Strategic Position of Success

The leadership style developed by Pümpin (1982) emphasizes the need to coordinate strategy, culture, and leadership systems (misfit analysis). A strong position is a prerequisite, consciously created in an enterprise through the acquisition of skills, which should enable it to achieve above-average results in comparison to its competitors. It must not be easily copied by the competition and must be based on prerequisites that are highly promising for the future (strategic basic attitude). In order to secure their long-term success, all leadership-relevant systems must be geared to the expansion of the strategic success position; power centres, employee development, reporting, strategies, planning, disposition, organization, leadership style, management deployment, and working methods.

2. Main Part

2.1 Industrial Companies of Innovation

When an industrial enterprise is described as innovative or non-innovative, a challenging distinction in the literature arises. The definition of the innovation criteria was chosen.

2.3 Evaluation of Innovation Criteria

The evaluation of the innovation projects is carried out according to points in the individual criterion. It is then compared with a minimum number of points in each case. The evaluation in the individual criterion is based on the following topics and examples of positive (+) and negative (-) aspects for the evaluation.

Corporate Strategies and Innovation Potentials

The evaluation will focus on which core competencies and traditional business areas exist in the company. It would also show how these relate to the corporate goals and strategies or innovation potentials identified by the innovation project.

- + Comprehensible strategy, objectives achievable in terms of quality and scope
- + Central importance of the innovation project for the corporate strategy
- Existing business segments that are barely consolidated in terms of market success
- Low positive impact on employment and value added at the site

Organizational Structure and Project Management

The existing organizational structures in the company or corporate environment and their compatibility with the requirements arising from the handling of the innovation project were evaluated.

- + Sustainable integration of relevant organizational areas into the innovation project
- + Access to necessary resources and competencies internally and externally
- Lack of clarity or low level of detail in project planning
- Functional overload of the innovation assistant

Market Expectation and Project Exploitation

The assessment includes the needs of the end customer, the assessment of the current market situation (e.g., competition, other technologies), and the measures taken to reach the customer (marketing, sales, product service mix, etc.).

- + Evidence of market expectation or market access
- + Early considerations for (improved) operative implementation on the market
- Rough derivation of general market conditions for situations in niche markets
- Missing survey of the customer's point of view

Type of Innovation and Level of Innovation

The novelty content of the project results in relation to existing products, processes or structures, and the innovative step achieved with the project are evaluated.

- + Significant expansion of core competencies, integration of external knowledge
- + Substantial investment in operation-specific innovations with a clear reference to the latest technologies
- Low direct relevance to market success
- Excessive risk compared to competence base

Project and Innovation Management

The project evaluates the extent to which innovation-relevant factors such as the ability to cooperate, internal innovation management, research and development, or the use of funding instruments, are strengthened in comparison to previous practices.

- + Need for external consulting to increase the propensity to innovate
- + Employment of university or university of applied sciences specialists not yet a matter of course (low proportion of academics)
- Low backlog demand, comprehensive experience in dealing with innovations
- Short-term innovative effort in terms of time and content

2.4 Innovative Leadership

As a beginning innovative leadership style which already exists in literature, the style of successful entrepreneurs like Richard Branson or Steve Jobs can be used. This hardly contains a model. It has more experiences from their innovative enterprises which concerns the high-level personnel. However, these are not produced in relation to industrial companies which suggest that they have not yet been literarily edited.

2.4.1 Not everyone is eligible to be CEO

A manager needs someone who "brings the best to people," someone who communicates well with others, and helps an employee learn from a mistake instead of criticizing them for it.

Not everyone does this, and that is okay. The founder may, but does not have to be the CEO; if the fit is not right, he or she should know when the role is meant for someone else.

2.4.2 Be a leader, not a boss

Branson sees the classic image of the "boss" as an anachronism. 'Heroic is not a desirable characteristic in a manager,' he says. A boss give orders, while a leader organizes.

"Perhaps, therefore, it is strange that if there is any one phrase that is guaranteed to get me on the way, it is when someone says to me: 'Okay, fine. You're the boss!'" says Branson. "What annoys me is that in 90 percent of the cases, what this person really wants to say is: 'Okay, then, I don't think I agree with you, but I'll roll over and do it because you tell me to. But if it doesn't work out I will be the first to remind you that it's not my idea.'"

Therefore, a good innovative business leader is someone who, not only has to execute his own ideas, but also inspires others to come forward with their own ideas.

2.4.3 Innovative Leadership at the Company Apple

Steve Jobs left Apple in great shape. His position as CEO left the chairman position vacant, but left an innovation leadership legacy that is transformative to maintain. There is no leader in this day and age who is more innovative, has broken more rules, and has invented more things that have changed the world.

He described an employee who was part of the team that started the Macintosh computer. He was active in business strategy, strategic planning, and managed global business markets. In addition, industries such as medicine were his passion and focus.

These were described as exciting times, and he has sparked a revolution in computers, information, and culture.

Each leader needs to think in a positive way

A leader's first big vision is to sell to his employees. If they do not get it, then the customers will not. This seems obvious, but too many leaders today have the right finances or seniority or even board support, but they do not embody this lesson. Steve invented it.

Days before the Mac, they sent to take pictures of a Swiss army knife, challenging that Mac was something else; not just a computer, but a lifestyle device. Steve asked them to think about the Mac as more than a technology - it was an innovation in culture, lifestyle, and learning.

Think differently to differentiate your company or product

Steve was focused on innovative marketing, product features, design, and packaging. He knew thinking differently was the key to Apple's differentiation from other companies.

When they launched the Mac to the media and analysts, they wanted a Mac in every room, without a manual. Other computers, like IBM, came up with huge manuals on how to operate it. When the analysts came into their rooms, they expected to touch the computer. The Mac would turn on and hear

them from the computer, saying "hello." Thus, this blew their mind. Steve was of the opinion that the minds of people blew with innovative ideas.

Take smart risks, fast downtime and don't give up

People forget that Apple tried and failed at many things before success. They learned more from their mistakes than successes. Edison's light bulb took 40,000 mistakes to make it right. Before the Mac computer, the Lisa failed. Apple had a run on one of an early iPad called Newton but did not work. Therefore, taking risks and persevering is of significant importance.

Enjoy the Journey

Everyone on planet earth is here for a limited time. Therefore, it is important to make it count. Steve would have reminded us all to enjoy the trip. Or would he not? He urged them all to make a commitment to achieve something big, relevant, and meaningful. These lessons are as true today as they were in 1984.

Invest in the Future

This is a great opportunity. Since it is sustainable, this is what life is all about and it also applies to business. To develop new inventions, they must be willing to take risks, make mistakes, and have big ideas most importantly.

Sell your big idea. Your innovation is what every leader needs. Steve was a fearless leader who made a lot of inventions: Mac, iPod, iPad, iTunes, Apple TV, the mouse etc., and a software interface, all invented within 20 years.

3 Practical Orientation of Industrial Companies for Innovative Leadership

For the empirical survey, industrial enterprises, which are business partners in a sector of the coatings industry, were examined. This industry was chosen as the survey group because the market is dynamic. There is no existence of the market without innovations.

Selected executives, working in the innovation sector in this segment, were interviewed.

3.1 Cross-sectional Analysis

Within the cross-sectional analysis, it is centrally evident that all the industrial companies surveyed recognise a lack of a model of innovative leadership style. All companies want to drive the innovation process, but are hardly able to carry it out with the existing managers. This is because these requirements are not set. It is also the reason why there is always the mood to implement a leadership style in the innovation area by chance that is neither

measurable nor comprehensible. The result is that the key positions of the innovative leader are based on personal relationships with business partners, and can therefore be transferred or continued to a limited extent.

For this reason, there are recommendations for action that these companies can implement at the management level in the area of innovation.

This empirical survey did not find any connection between corporate success and innovative leadership style. None of the managers, who deal with and drive innovations daily, mentioned statements about their leadership style or interrelationships.

Based on the empirical surveys as shown below, three points were considered important in summary. In addition, managers can adopt recommendations for action in the innovative field.

3.1.1 Positioning of the Innovative Company on the Market

Due to the high competition in the industry, it is recommended to focus on the values of the respective company and to position them externally - towards the customer (*What do we stand for?*).

Furthermore, niche products can be included in the product range or anchored and transported (*What makes us special?*).

To become visible to the customer means to implement the innovation and make it visible. Managers in the innovation sector are responsible for this and at the same time overburdened with this expectation.

3.1.2 Communication and Infrastructure

Continuous availability of the contact person of the innovative manager as "single point of contact" or competent representation (information to the customer in advance) is recommended as a success factor for innovative industrial companies. It also includes making the order status accessible to customers. Thus, this allows the customer to participate in the innovation process of the company, as well as mediating via concrete and tailor-made communication instruments from the innovative executive.

3.1.3 Relationship Management

The personal business partner relationship is still essential for the respondents. Without this factor, an innovative leader will not be able to drive the innovation process forward.

Therefore, intensive relationship support, highlighting the company's experience, especially about the innovative area, up to the customer as well as queries, what works well, improvement suggestions, and wishes to the customer are of significant importance.

3.2 Summary of Practical Orientation

In summary, it can be emphasized that in practice, there is a lack of orientation of leadership styles in innovative industrial companies. These executives are expected to have high expectations which are not clearly defined. Therefore, the leadership style is unclear. Regardless of internationality or orientation, the personal business partnership is the critical success factor to drive the innovation process. Numerous quantitative key figures and reports plays an important function in the innovation process.

4 Conclusion

If theoretical findings are considered together with practical results, then there are some approaches in the literature that suggest innovative leadership styles. The innovation process is often described. Innovation has become an increasingly essential topic in the industrial landscape - not only for companies, but for the entire business process chain.

Leadership styles have been highlighted in different ways for several decades, but not with a focus on innovation. What makes an innovative manager special, and how this positively affects the company, is hardly found in literature. The renowned Richard Branson describes it in his book "Like a Virgin: Secrets, they don't teach you at business school". In his approach, he stated that someone who runs a highly innovative company should not be a boss of the old school. Rather, he should be a leader who brings the best into the company and drives the innovation processes. The key to the success of the innovation company is a manager who does not delegate his own topics, but also develops the ideas of others - the employees or business partners - in the field of innovation and ensures their implementation and success.

Together with the outcome of the practical orientation, the personality of the manager is the most crucial factor of the innovation degree in the leadership perspective.

The innovative leader of the successful company, Steve Jobs, was also highlighted in a summary, that the spirit of leadership is decisive for the degree of innovation in the company.

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Ecofeminist Analysis of Environmental Economics

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Abstract

The qualitatively new ecological situation is primarily a consequence of the consumer productive activity, which is based on confidence in the inexhaustible natural resources. But gender stereotypes that cause the interaction between nature and man, also greatly inhibit the solution of environmental and economic problems. In Western philosophy and economics, men's activity in nature is identified with work and productive force, while women's activity is mainly recognized as natural and reproductive activity, subsumed into men's production, and valued only individually and instrumentally. Contemporary environmental economics has to exclude this kind of identification. Acknowledging and valuing of women's work and its absolute necessity should be discussed, like that of inputs from the natural environment, for the continuation of economic processes. We argue that an ecofeminist discourse improves the process of valuing in environmental economics. Ecofeminist analysis of environmental economics helps to overcome the bias of the dualistic methodology in this field of the economic theory.

Keywords: Ecofeminism, environmental economics, gender stereotypes, decision-makers.

Introduction:

In 1997, Julie A. Nelson (1997) emphasized, "Neither feminism nor ecology is a subject of polite conversation within mainstream economics. One might perhaps find talk about women-in-the labor-force or about environmental-and-resource economics to be acceptable, though considered non-central to the discipline" (p.155). How is the situation changed until now? Some aspects of the problem have become clearer. On the one hand, environmental economics was distinguished from ecological economics as a more theoretical component of mainstream economics. Ecological economics

regards the economy as a subsystem of the ecosystem with its focus upon preserving nature. This gives sometimes a reason to criticize it for excessive idealism (Van den Bergh, 2001, p. 14). On the other hand, environmental economics was blamed in approaches the topic in the traditional reductionist manner common in neoclassical literature (Barker, 2013). L. Illge and R. Schwarze (2006) found that ecological and environmental economics are different schools of economic thought (p. 595). This kind of 'scientific competition' has provided the ground for solutions to societal problems of sustainable development.

Main Text:

The purpose of this article is to find the new arguments in favor of deepening the content of environmental economics offered by ecofeminist analysis. The ideas such as that gender might structure economic activities, and that natural constraints might put limits on economic expansion, will be discussed as interconnected.

In our opinion, the most correlative analysis of environmental economics comes from the social version of ecofeminism, insisting that the destruction and exploitation of nature by men is rooted in the dominance of men over women. In this respect, ecofeminist analysis enhances the methodological foundations of environmental economics. Whereas many environmentalists identify industrialization and new technologies as appropriate tools for economic growth, the representatives of the ecofeminist approach believe that the proliferation of technology should be balanced and more attention must be paid to pollution and natural resource preservation. They look forward to self-sufficient, decentralized relations of production, where men and women work together in reciprocity with external nature, no longer alienated or diminished by a gendered division of labor and international accumulation (Bauhardt, 2015; Perkins, 2007; Rifkin, 2014).

To achieve this purpose we will consider ecofeminist and philosophical standpoints of Val Plumwood, Ariel Salleh, Maria Mies and others. Ecofeminist philosophy is dialogical in nature, as a kind of remark, response, reaction or comment on already formulated postulates, axioms, theorems, and conclusions. Despite criticism, it is not just an echo of the views that dominate the patriarchal classical economy. It is this approach that allowed the Australian philosopher V. Plumwood to identify and analyze the five main features of 'the logic of colonization', namely: the backgrounding qualities, radical exclusion, lack of valued traits, homogenization, and instrumentalism (Plumwood, 1993).

We have refracted these ideas into the context of modern environmental economics, which examines in what ways industrialization and new technologies can continue without causing any harm to nature or with the

least damage possible. In strictly economic terms, people – it is a means of production, and gender equality is more effective competition in the labor market.

Women have made huge progress in the workplace, but they still get lower pay and far fewer top jobs than men. Why? Because in the context of traditional backgrounding qualities the monetary value of their jobs is underestimated.

Jane Turner (2019) found the following:

Male-dominated industries could increase their productivity in many countries by up to 25% through improved female workforce participation; better gender equality on boards is proven to lead better share price and financial performance, and more gender-balanced leadership results in better all-around performance. Also, when women are elected to office in countries with internal unrest, these economies can experience a significant boost compared with results under male leaders.

When women have equal opportunities (not formally, but in fact), it increases the number of trained workers in the economy and increasing competition for key positions. Competition in the labor market, in turn, means better value for money and quality of work, and thus gives the employer the opportunity to invest, create jobs, and create further economic growth. In this context, ecofeminist analysis highlights eco-critical concerns towards sustainable development and preserving natural resources and ecosystems. Ecofeminists reject the mainstream assumption that economic growth will automatically bring a reduction in gender inequality

Here, it is important to emphasize once again the attitude to technological development. Maria Mies (1993) indicated that the development of technology in a capitalist patriarchal society is not meant to make human beings happy but to allow continuing accumulation of profit. Industrialization and technological development lead to the exploitation of marginalized classes in society. She also focused on biotechnologies that are designed to manipulate and appropriate women's ability to reproduce, so reducing their human dignity. On her opinion, the merits and demerits of technology depend on its application, its accessibility for all people and its effect on social relations. These findings are still relevant.

Claiming equality as being achieved simply by being allowed membership within the dominant group is methodologically wrong. According to environmental sociologist John Barry (1999), the original form of ecofeminism dates back to "Vindication of the Rights of Women" written by Mary Wollstonecraft and published in 1792 (p. 184). But M. Wollstonecraft advocated that equality could be achieved on the basis that women are no less rational than men, therefore placing women in opposition to animals. Contemporary ecofeminists insist that rather we must seek

emancipation by denying patriarchal dominance. We must question the terms in which emancipation has been framed.

Ecofeminism takes care not to sentimentalize nature. Ecofeminist relationship to nature is the ethics of mutuality, interdependence, and respects of the interests and needs of the 'other'. Besides, we don't need simply reverse dualism, as rationality is bad and nature is good. While revaluing this bond is important, we need to revalue relationships between men and women and between men and nature. An equal potential for men is to adopt nature-friendly practices and values.

As for society as whole gender equality in economic terms is beneficial it needs to invest. For example, through the establishment of equal educational opportunities, promoting equitable distribution of the efforts of childcare between men and women, promoting equal opportunities for career development, including reserved seats in the corporate and public administration. In her economical studies, Irene Van Staveren (2010) has shown, "...gender inequality can be bad for growth because inequality excludes women from production, it demotivates efforts for improvement and hence keeps female productivity low, it may cause social conflict chasing away investment, and it allows for male rent-seeking" (p. 18).

Paul B. Farrell (2014) outlined it in a little bit ironic, yet traditionally dualistic form of radical exclusion: "The end of men is really the end of a manufacturing-based economy". Six million lost jobs since 2000, mostly men, creating a vacuum. As a result, "a new matriarchy is emerging: For the first time in history, the global economy is becoming a place where women are finding more success than men ... run by young, ambitious, capable women ... taking matters into their own hands".

Ecofeminist analysis in the wide societal context should be relevant to such collective approaches to economic issues, which rest on values such as co-operation, empathy and nurture stemming from a relational, nonhierarchical view of the world; a focus on process than end results; the belief that social change begins with personal transformation; and attention to intuition, subjectivity creativity and spontaneity. Numerous modern studies have shown that the higher the level of women's participation, the better the economic results at the level of both the company and the country, and the world. Of course, it is important to understand the cause and effect relationship: the mechanical performance does not improve the women inclusion on boards of directors and simultaneous resolving of the environmental problems. The intelligent policy of human capital management leads to the fact that the posts are appointed by the most worthy candidates. In turn, the presence of women in the governing bodies of companies and states usually means that at least some elements of such a policy in the organization are present.

Through the give-and-take of argument, participants of the ecological discourse on environmental problems can learn from each other, come to recognize their individual and collective misapprehensions and develop new views and policies that can more successfully withstand critical scrutiny. Discourse is not a regular academic discussion. It is not only a limited influence speech act of formal negotiations or domestic dispute that ends with someone's last words. It is of practical importance, as being directly related to human activities and actions.

Ecofeminist discourse does not only provide information on the gender dimension of environmental communication, but it also changes the convictions of the opponents. Public discussion of environmental issues in gender dimension enhances the quality of judgments of participants, provides the free exchange of ideas between men and women, or rather, between advocates of gender and patriarchal approach to environmental communication. Together clarifying the possible consequences and comparing the merits of different choices, subjects of the ecofeminist discourse can come to decisions that were previously envisaged.

Ecofeminist discourse has to be aimed at consensus, but not to compromise, because under these conditions, men have denied patriarchal dictates, and women do not have and may not have the opportunity for unilateral dictates. So, in this light, it (conditionally) accepts the telling of personal stories, rhetoric, humor, ceremonial speech, even gossip, as well as arguments. Threats, lies, abuse, and command have no place. When properly conducted, then, discourse-based methods of ecosystem service valuation would provide a forum of manifest equality among a small group of citizen-stakeholders and involve open deliberation focused on the task of reaching consensus about the social value of an ecosystem good or service. Developing this idea, M. Wilson and R. Howarth (2002) suggested, "While not limited to economic values, we nevertheless believe that value statements derived using discursive methods may be quite meaningfully reported in terms of dollars because these can then be used to complement and compare with results from more traditional valuation methods used in cost-benefit analysis (i.e. contingent valuation)" (p. 436).

Ecofeminist discourse involves increasing the role of women within the framework of a consequential discussion of environmental decisions. "Consequential" means deliberation must have some influence. It asserts that instead of going against or neglecting new technologies, environmental economics might introduce new technology in consonance with nature. Ecofeminist arguments are rarely truly anti-technological. Rather, they place an emphasis on 'appropriate' technology which holds central the relationships between technology and society and the impact of technology on the environment. A. Salleh (2002) in her article "The Dystopia of Technoscience:

"An Ecofeminist Critique of Postmodern Reason" rejects Haraway's cyborg manifesto. She claims that by introducing the concept of the cyborg, Haraway supports "capitalist patriarchal technoscience...[which] presents a dystopia that confuses the political focus of feminism ... and consumes the support system of all life on earth" (p. 201). In contrast to the resource greedy technologies of capitalist patriarchal economics, A. Salleh supports simpler forms of social organization which can sustain human needs while still regenerative of nature.

Nowadays, people are becoming aware that nature is the indivisible overarching community to which we all belong and whose well-being is obligatory to assuring our own well-being as well as our survival. The profound awareness comes with a new logic of responsibility in our lives, business, and communities. This is the way to overcome 'the logic of colonization' of nature and women in V. Plumwood understanding.

Contemporary American economic and social theorist Jeremy Rifkin (2014) connecting the solution of environmental problems with the development of IT, Internet of things, 3D printer, nanotechnologies, at the same time, makes some unexpected assumption, "By reopening the various Commons, humanity begins to think and act as part of a whole. We come to realize that the ultimate creative power is reconnecting with one another and embedding ourselves in ever-larger systems of relationships that ripple out to encompass the entire set of relationships that make up the biosphere Commons" (p. 148-149). Some specialists do not agree with this conclusion. They distinguish two problems with this view: one of false extrapolation and one of political naiveté. Simple livings in peripheral communities today rely on the surplus — and the products and infrastructures — provided by the rest of the industrial economy. Scaling up existing voluntary simplicity experiences to the societal level may entail much more hardship than what members of individual projects experience today. Kallis, G., Kerschner, C., and Martinez-Alier J. (2012) concluded, "Some voluntary downshifters do not mind such hardship. But these are typically people who had a choice between simplicity and meaningless affluence. It does not follow that others, such as those who never had the choice, or those that enjoy their power, will not mind either" [9, p. 3].

But it is a fact of the globalized world, that, in spite of the unprecedented rise in worldwide urbanization, the majority of the world's working women still lives and work in rural areas. The contribution made by rural women to the well-being of the household, the community, and the national economy, is not sufficiently recognized. Rural women are seldom addressed as women workers in their own right. While this statistical and social invisibility is more acute in some traditional, subsistence and family-based farming systems and informal economies; the situation is by no means

confined to particular regions. Ecofeminist analysis rejects homogenization, averaging and instrumentalism as a research methodology. Insufficient understanding of the gender differentials in the rural labor market and the gender blindness of policies have often led to de-facto discrimination against women in the national development agenda. Climate change brings new challenges and deepens old problems. It has serious ramifications in four dimensions of food security: food availability, food accessibility, food utilization, and food systems stability. According to "Women and Climate Change: Prize Winners and Finalists of the European Greens Essay Contest" (2011), "While mitigation of climate change seems a Western, male-dominated realm, adaptation to climate change seems the realm of women in developing countries" (p. 7).

To understand the nature of women's involvement in rural labor market, the definition of employment and work in rural setting, especially when women are concerned, should go beyond the narrowly defined statistical categories, grasping the formal sector wage employment into encompassing a broader conception, which gives due recognition to activities outside agriculture and to domestic care and maintenance. Therefore, women in the rural labor market confront a particular dilemma, as they are in fact over-employed in terms of hours worked, and under-employed in terms of income received to labor.

Women, especially in rural areas, combine multiple activities and therefore may change occupational statuses in one day or over a determined period of the year. Ensuring survival in such conditions, women acquire important social skills that are in demand in the wider social and economic context. It is not uncommon that women may be working partly as wage-employer, partly as own-account manager or unpaid family laborers on their household land, and run a micro-enterprise venture at home, in addition to household and childcare and maintenance roles. However, working long hours and undertaking multiple jobs is not a guarantee of decent remuneration. C. Bauhardt (2015) attributes this situation to the crisis of social reproduction. She rightly argues: "The crisis of capitalism should be analyzed as the finiteness of natural resources as well as the finiteness of women's caring labor" (p. 13). After summarizing the literature on a variety of existing sustainability indicators, feminist economists proposed a way of assessing the sustainability of household quality-of-life improvements. Patricia E. Perkins (2007) concluded, "Their 18 indicators include material use, energy use, water use, waste and emissions, space use, transport, organic products, equity, health, safety/security, comfort, social contacts, empowerment, information/awareness, employment, financial situation, regionality, and profitability" (p. 231).

Starting from a disadvantaged position, women are particularly vulnerable to the effects of external shocks, whether these relate to events in their life-cycle such as family breakdowns; or natural disasters like droughts and crop failures; or adverse effects of economic reform policies. In Ukraine too, women and mostly rural women are bearing the major brunt of economic transition, while they play a crucial role in ensuring the households' well-being and survival. Men raised in cultures with traditional patriarchal values feel even more threatened as women gain equality and power as decision-makers. Deep depression is often the result of this social problem and not vice versa. Typically, under such conditions, women undertake the extra care related to the health of husband or other male family members (in other words, they choose inclusive tactics).

Actually, the only reason that the traditional way of women had fewer opportunities to play a key role in the economic and social life is associated with the birth of a large number of children. It deprives society of incentives to invest in their education. Urbanization, development of medical technology and means of production, including in the most labor-intensive sectors such as agriculture, reduce the need for large numbers of unskilled workers, for which the family has historically struck up many children. Putting forward the requirements for environmental economics, C. Bauhardt (2015) notes, "Hence, the Green New Deal must set itself the objective to better integrate women into technical professions in the energy, transport, and construction sectors. The future will show if this allows for more environmentally sound technical solutions as well as social innovations" (p. 10).

It is also important to mark, that according to "Statistics on the purchasing power of women" (2019), "Women account for 85% of all consumer purchases". The decision to buy was taken by women not only in terms of clothing, food, and cosmetics, but also in technology, real estate, financial services, and cars. The conclusions of the environmental economy about this post-Keynesian policy are not yet clear.

Conclusion:

Therefore, ecofeminist analysis of environmental economics proves that, on the one hand, the gender structures economic activities. On the other hand, natural constraints put limits on economic expansion. In recent decades, such negative features as prejudice, radical isolation, grouping, defined in terms of lack, homogenization, and instrumentalism that impede the solution of environmental problems, have been somewhat overcome. Ecofeminist discourse improves the process of valuing in environmental economics disclosing the bias of the dualistic methodology in this field of economic theory. On this base, the absolute necessity of acknowledging and valuing

women's work, like that of inputs from the natural environment, find their confirmation.

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Cooperation and Conflict: Mothers and Daughters' Negotiation over Sexual Conduct in Morocco

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Abstract

Drawing on capabilities approach and the framework of the family as a system of cooperative conflicts (Sen, 1990), the present study explores how interaction between parents and their adolescent daughters shapes girls' agency in negotiating decision about their sexual conduct. Four areas of negotiation are examined: wearing *hijab*, importance of virginity until marriage, opposite-sex friendships, and dating. This study explores how communication and sexuality of Moroccan girls is mediated through their mothers and socialization. Separate group discussions and individual in-depth interviews were conducted with 76 Moroccan mothers and 93 daughters (age range 14-20) in Rabat city. Analysis revealed that negotiations for a particular group in each area were rarely characterized by conflict, and more often than not by mutual agreement. A firm grasp of religion, a clear understanding of duties and obligations in the family, as well as daughters' need to balance family demands and socialization with peers plays a significant role on daughters' agency in negotiating decisions about wearing *hijab*, virginity until marriage, opposite-sex friendships, dating and marriage. Findings showed that little communication regarding sexuality as a private experience happened between mothers and daughters. This was also confined primarily to the risks of premarital sexual relationships to the social order.

Keywords: Generation, gender, sexuality, mothers, daughters.

Introduction

This paper seeks to explore the issue of negotiation of sexual conduct between mothers and daughters based on a qualitative study of 76 Moroccan mothers and 93 of their daughters in Rabat. The key assumption of the study is that while both mothers and daughters profess Islam as their faith, different agendas may inform their negotiating experiences. For example, mothers may be primarily concerned with raising dutiful daughters and safeguarding them and their family's reputation. On the other hand, daughters may be more concerned with being able to create a space for themselves in the western

culture. The study, thus, proposes the following questions: (1) What is the position of mothers and daughters in the negotiation of girls' sexual conduct? (2) How do religious values and liberal views influence the process of negotiation between mothers and daughters? (3) How do mothers and daughters negotiate decisions about wearing *hijab*, virginity until marriage, opposite-sex friendships, dating and choice of marriage partner? (4) What is the content of communication regarding sexuality between mothers and daughters?

To explore these questions, the study uses the capabilities approach which focuses on an individual's actual opportunities in the current context, given the distribution of resources and institutional constraints (Sen, 1984, 1985, 1993, 1995). Based on this perspective, the study examines mothers and daughters' agency in the negotiation of sexual conduct as constituted both in religion and through the process of resisting western acculturation. This process of negotiation is conceptualized by approaching the family as a system of cooperative conflicts (Sen 1990). According to this framework, based on their perceived and actual interests, contributions, and breakdown response, individuals within the family enter into negotiating activities over distribution of resources. While the negotiating process may sometimes produce conflict, individuals fall short of breaking off the relationship because they want to maintain that relationship. Conceptualized this way, the study offers a fresh perspective to the discussion of intergenerational relationships in families. First, contrary to the common trend in interrogational comparison literature that focuses primarily on youths and how they may be 'victimized' in the negotiation process, the present study explores the dual perspectives of mothers and daughters and considers the interests and contributions at play from each party. This portrays both girls and their mothers as resourceful agents in the process of negotiation. Second, by paying attention to both the influences that religious heritage and acculturation brings to the process of negotiation, the study advances the idea that family rules, values and norms, inspired by religious heritage may not be rejected by youths in the name of assimilation to the western culture. Youths, as active decision-makers, creatively use these influences as a sound foundation upon which they shape their own identity. As such, it is recognizable that they are capable of designing their own patterned quilt.

The objectives of this study are presented in twofold. First, it provides a new approach to intergenerational relationships within Moroccan families. Most of the research on such relationships has evidenced the intergenerational tensions that are derived from the growing cultural schism between the generations and decline in parental power and authority (Kibria, 1993; Portes & Rumbault, 2001). A few studies have concluded that intergenerational conflict within families may be overrated (Rosental, 1984) and that balancing

family values/obligations and demands of liberal stream can slightly result in psychological distress (Fuligni, Yip, & Tseng, 2002). However, little research has focused on how youths negotiate the balance between parents' traditional views and western acculturation. This study will be among the first to focus on the Moroccan family as a negotiation site where members of the same family try to essentially prevail in their own individual pursuits while simultaneously maintaining family bonds.

The second overall objective is to provide qualitative data on how Moroccan youths obtain information about sexuality. Young girls bear the brunt of maintaining family honour, ethics, and religious integrity and learning about sexuality is too often perceived as a threat to social and family order. Parental perceptions that knowledge about sexuality may lead to promiscuous sexual activity put young girls at risk of not obtaining information about reproductive health. Compounding the challenge faced by young girls is the fact that we know little about how they obtain information about sexuality. The study focuses on two resources, namely communication with mothers and socialization. It is worth noting that because mothers are considered responsible for girls' sexual conduct, discussion of issues related to sexuality takes the form of moral interdiction and rejection of outside influences. Therefore, this puts girls at risk for not obtaining comprehensive information. By evidencing the shortcomings of morality-based interdictions against premarital sexual conduct, this study aims to provide suggestions and search for alternatives such as associative initiatives to improve how youths learn about sexuality.

Literature

Much of the literature and research on the field of cooperation and conflict and parents-children communication about sexual behaviour was conducted by American and Asian scholars. It has focused on Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, Vietnamese, and Koreans, while scarce research has been done on Arabs-especially North African populations. There appear to be several reasons for this blatant shortage. First, the lack of empirical research on Moroccan population discourages further research. Second, scholars interested in these fields do not tend, for some reasons, to focus on the Moroccan population. Third, though the literature on other Arab, Muslim or African populations unhurriedly increases, there seems to be a propensity to clump all of them together and ignore the individual and unique attributes of each group. Within this larger context, research has identified that girls' sexual conduct continues to stand for core society and family values while, at the same time, serving as a symbol of integrating new tendencies (Espin, 1999). The phenomenon of striking a balance between family values and integration to liberal attitudes through sexual conduct has produced a burgeoning

literature that examines intergenerational relationships with the family and those in larger context (Espiritu, 2001; Raffaelli & Ontai, 2001; Villarruel, 1998). Although this body of literature offers interesting insights on intergenerational conflict, it says little about how this conflict is negotiated between girls and their parents.

Before considering the data on the management of young women's sexuality within families, a few observations are necessary in regard to the background and wider context of the study. Previous research on children, young people, and sexuality indicates that interaction around sexual issues within families is often problematic. One of the contradictions of western sexual culture is that while sex is valorised as a source of pleasure and a route to self-fulfilment, it still provokes a great deal of anxiety in relation to children (Jackson & Scott, 2004, 2010).

Intergenerational Dissonance

For the past two decades, scholars have shown that socio-cultural value discrepancy between parents and their teenage children is a key feature of intergenerational relationships within families. As a result of these discrepancies, researchers have concluded that parents have to cope with intergenerational conflict (Fuligni, Tseng, & Lam, 1999; Lee & Liu, 2001; Phinney, Ong, & Madden, 2000; Rosenthal, 1984). The most likely areas of disagreement are education, gender roles and responsibilities, and sexual conduct including dating and premarital sex (DeSantis, Thomas, & Sinnett, 1999; Espin, 1999; Espiritu, 2001; Hennink, Diamand & Cooper, 1999; Raffaelli & Ontai, 2001; Zhou & Bankston III, 2001). Furthermore, this study also identifies that intergenerational conflict is gender-based, and young girls experience more restrictions in mobility and peer socialisation.

Although this study has concluded that intergenerational conflict in families may be overblown and conflict between family obligations and socialisation with peers does not significantly cause psychological distress (Fuligni, Yip, & Tseng, 2002; Rosenthal, 1984), scholarship has not yet fully gone beyond its inclination to centre on intergenerational conflict at the expense of other dynamics such as cooperation in families. Thus, this paper focuses on cultural dissonance as a key feature of intergenerational relationships. Intergenerational family conflict generally begins to occur during adolescence over issues of autonomy and independence (Lauren & Collins, 1994). Besides, non-conformity to parental guidance oftentimes is expressed as forming and holding new ideals regarding intergenerational relationships.

Girls' Sexuality

Women's sexuality is at the epicentre of the definition of family honour and traditional values, and young girls may face restrictions on their autonomy, mobility, and decision-making. Girls' virginity until marriage and appropriate sexual conduct are not solely personal concerns, but instead they are concerns of the whole family. For males, especially, who may have lost their sense of importance and their authority (Espin, 1999), controlling women's sexuality becomes a site of showing traditions are not lost. Restricting women's visibility and mobility and pressurizing them for marriage may be instances of this. In a few cases, challenging male authority through "inappropriate" sexual conduct on the part of women may result in "honour killing" (Haddad & Smith, 1996). The idea that girls require more control than boys prevails among Moroccan parents. Application of stricter rules is due to the fact that parents are afraid of "losing their daughters". Sexual activity during teenage years is often associated with unsafe behaviours with young people having more sexual partners than other age groups (Donaldson, 2008). Safe surroundings cannot be taken for granted, and daughters cannot be allowed to "go astray". Many parents respond to these fears by becoming more rigid and trying to adhere more strongly to traditional values (Gim Chung, 2001). In fact, because of these restrictions, girls report that they find it difficult to integrate parents' expectations and modernity (Basit, 1997; Hennink, Diamond & Cooper, 1999; Timmerman, 2000).

These findings suggest that young girls are involved in a lot of strategizing while living under a set of parental restrictions and constraints. To name a few strategies, they subvert, co-opt, acquiesce, and collaborate to make living in the family a plausible option. How young girls negotiate expectations of womanhood and sexuality is best exemplified in the mother-daughter relationship.

Mothers and Daughters

The symbolic relationship of mothers and daughters is a good illustration of how girls' sexual conduct is negotiated intergenerationally within families. While men exert some pressure and control over girls' sexuality, women play a crucial role intergenerationally in how they define family honour and values through their sexual conduct. As girls bear the brunt of bringing to life a new generation that is expected to perpetuate traditional heritage, a struggle to maintain and transmit family values becomes particularly salient in this relationship. Although little research exists on how daughters negotiate their sexual conduct with family which is mediated by mothers, both mothers and daughters have been cast as embracing opponent ideals and practices, with mothers being more traditional and daughters being more open to embracing modernity and challenging mothers' traditionalism.

A significant number of studies have explored the relationship between parenting behaviours and adolescent risk involvement (Griffin et al., 2000; Cottrell et al., 2003). These studies conclude that, in families where parents actively and closely supervise and monitor their children, there are significant associations with lower levels of alcohol and illegal drug consumption, higher rates of condom use, and lower levels of teenage pregnancy (Jacobson & Crockett, 2000; Miller et al., 2001; Borawski et al., 2003). While the parent–child relationship is generally perceived as the most important determinant for effective parental monitoring, a range of socio-economic factors are linked to poor parental monitoring and supervision. These include socio-economic status (Pettit et al., 2001), low educational attainment (Crouter et al., 1999), poor marital relationships (Cottrell et al., 2003), and child maltreatment (Gilbert et al., 2009).

The degree to which there was open discussion about sexual matters between mothers and daughters varied and not all mothers had provided explicit sex education. This was attested to by both mothers and daughters. Curiously, even mothers with very liberal views on sexuality and a relaxed attitude to their daughters' sexual relationships did not necessarily give them much information about sex. In contrast, women from poorer backgrounds or deprived communities are more likely to become teenage mothers and have often experienced low educational attainment, poverty or emotional difficulties, or are the children of teenage mothers (Cater & Coleman, 2006; Harden et al., 2006).

Conceptual Framework

The capabilities approach (Sen, 1984, 1985, 1993, 1995) focuses on an individual's actual opportunities in their current context, given the dissipation of resources and institutional constraints. According to this approach, a person's quality of life is assessed in terms of their capability to achieve valuable functionings. Functionings refer to the various things that an individual manages to do or be in leading a life. They represent actual life conditions of the person. They can include aspects of a person's life such as the level of education, quality of health, and family relations that reflect the present condition of an individual's life. A person's capabilities can be thought of as the set of possible functionings available to that person. A capability set represents alternative combinations of beings and doings that a person can choose and thus this is defined in the space of functionings (Sen, 1993).

Cooperative Conflict Framework

This study assumes that the process of negotiation between mothers and daughters is based on both common interests and areas of conflicting goals. As such, it uses Sen's framework of the family as a system of

cooperative-conflict (CCF) (as opposed to a completely cooperative family) to analyse the factors that influence mother-daughter negotiations regarding sexual conduct (Sen, 1990). While most research based on this framework has focused on the interaction between men and women (Holtzman, 2001; Kusakabe, 1999; Summerfield, 1997), this paper stresses the mother-daughter dyad. Although Sen's model was originally conceptualised to describe the dynamics of bargaining over economic resource production and distribution within the household, the model can be generalised to explain the dynamics of bargaining over social and cultural entitlements.

The central idea of CCF is that "the members of the household face two different types of problems simultaneously. One involves cooperation (adding to total availabilities) while the other involves conflict (dividing the total availabilities among members of the household). Social arrangements regarding who does what, who gets to consume what, and who takes what decisions can be seen as responses to this combined problem of "cooperation and conflict" (Sen, 1990). Bargaining may be carried out to different extent but usually stops as a result of conflict that causes breakdown of the system (Cloud, 1994). The result that increases the benefit to an individual in the family may at times reduce total family availabilities. Family members may also choose to sacrifice their own gains to improve the outcome for the family as a whole.

Methodology

Purposive sampling was used for this study. The total sample comprised of 169 individuals, 76 were mothers and 93 were daughters (age range 14-20). Choice of participants was driven by a concern to gain insight into different variables and capture the mother-daughter cooperation and/or conflict. All the subjects who were involved in this study were Moroccans. They took part in group discussions and were deeply interviewed. However, locating participants for this study was challenging. Four educational institutions were chosen from Rabat, namely Group Atlass high school and scientific high school which are private schools and Moulay Youssef high school and Hassan high school.

Findings

As previously mentioned, women are constituted as the hallmark of family reputation through their sexual and gender-appropriate conduct. This includes guarded sexual conduct as well as restful behaviour towards the elderly and society in general. While it is both in mothers' and daughters' perceived interest to negotiate a guarded sexual conduct and meet society expectations about their duty, there were slight variations regarding what drove mothers and daughters into negotiating. Perceived interests refer to whether daughters perceived their interests in negotiating decisions over

sexual conduct to be the same or different from their mothers. Furthermore, since mothers perceived their duty to include bringing up typical good Moroccan girls, it was very important to them that their daughters were good examples. While all mothers reported that they wanted their daughters to be perceived as “good girls”, some were overprotective and controlling of their girls’ activities. These mothers had rarely allowed their daughters to go anywhere alone because they felt they could not trust the environment. In extreme cases, mothers did not allow girls to even speak on the phone. Few as they might be, other mothers reported that they had enough trust in their daughters to allow them to do a few things on their own including trips for summer internships.

To mothers, it mattered a great deal how their daughters met society expectations of guarded sexual conduct. This is because “people have long memories and unfortunately not usually accurate ones, you give an inch, they take a mile.” Also, most mothers were hoping that their daughters would marry a member of the Moroccan society. Therefore, it was important that she behaved in a certain manner, otherwise “people will label her in a certain way, whether it is true or not.” Thus, it was in the interest of all mothers “to save” their daughters the trouble by being strict with them.

Above all, it was in the perceived interest of mothers to be good by religious standards. This is because in Islam, every individual, regardless of gender, relates to God as a person and is independently responsible for his/her own deeds. Mothers perceived that bringing up and educating a daughter with Islamic principles dwelled in the realm of fulfilling responsibility towards God. As such, they made sure that their daughters adhered to Islamic precepts of behaviour. A mother said:

I have been very clear to tell her that I am not stopping her from going to unchaperoned parties because I do not have any problems with her. I am stopping her because I have a problem with me. I have to answer to God on the day of judgement and I am worried about me, and I am not worried about her.

It was also in perceived interest of daughters to meet society expectations of being good Moroccan girls. They frequently reported that they were scared of gossips and did not want to give any chance to people to speak ill of them. However, for older girls that had removed themselves from the parents’ community, it was more important that their mothers rather than others understood that they were good girls.

Additionally, since they felt they had gained a certain amount of trust with their mothers, girls argued that the double standard of curfew time was

unfair. A few girls complained that their brothers were allowed to stay out late at night and drive alone, but the same freedom was not afforded to the girls. While they put up some resistance, most often, daughters withdrew because it was not in their perceived interest to lose their mothers' trust. Daughters embraced this idea of cooperation as the best alternative. They frequently mentioned that their mothers were powerful decision-makers in the home and if girls wanted to socialise outside the home, they had to cooperate with their mothers. In fact, they had to defer to their mothers and this served as a discouragement for some of the girls.

Usually I walk out, she yells or whatever, there isn't really a winning situation, (pause), yeah she wins, because if I ask to go out she says no, I cannot go out anyway. She wins, it's her house, it's her rules, as much as I try to argue, and talk but, in the end she wins.

Along with perceived interests, there are perceived contributions. They referred to the contributions mothers and daughters made to the family and how those contributions positioned them in the process of negotiation. Both mothers and daughters spoke in terms of their duties and responsibilities and what the realisation of those duties and responsibilities commanded for each party. These perceptions matched both mothers' and daughters' efforts to maintain family reputation through meeting society expectations.

Four Areas of Negotiation

Wearing Hijab

Wearing *hijab* was not one of the areas that mothers and daughters in the interviewed group were in definite conflict. Regardless of whether the girls and the mothers wore *hijab*, most of the daughters and mothers indicated that they did not disagree much over wearing *hijab*. This may be attributed to the fact that both mothers and daughters overwhelmingly agreed that it was important for girls to wear *hijab*. While they valued *hijab*, a good majority of the girls did not think that it was important to their mothers that they wear *hijab*. Wearing *hijab* was largely a personal decision, even though the family and especially the mother would be affected by such decision. This is because Moroccan society associates wearing *hijab* with adherence to and acceptance of religious and traditional values. Mothers and daughters gave several reasons for choosing to wear *hijab*, such as respect toward religion, Muslim identity, modesty, and prevention of temptations. Wearing *hijab* was linked to a thorough understanding of women's obligations toward their religion. Mothers and daughters who wore *hijab* said they did it primarily as a sign of their respect to God. This by no means implied that women who were not

wearing *hijab* were less religious or respectful. Such decisions were also influenced by cultural understandings of *hijab*. Mothers and daughters also overwhelmingly suggested that wearing *hijab* was a sign of modesty. *Hijab* to them was a constant awareness that they had to be modest in their behaviour, lower their gaze, wear clothes that were not very flashy, and speak softly. As part of modesty, according to a few mothers and daughters, *hijab* was ordained as a preventive measure that guarded not only women's sexual conduct, but also subdued men's sexual advances.

Virginity until Marriage

Girls' virginity until marriage was a prerequisite mothers and daughters did not feel the need to negotiate about. Both parties considered virginity until marriage as very important. Deciding to be a virgin until marriage was a question of faith, as one mother said:

Being a virgin before marriage means no physical contact with males except for the social manners. Look, in my perspective, it is like breathing air; there must be no sex before marriage. I have never tried to give excuses about it...

Mothers reported that girls' virginity until marriage was important because it was a prerequisite to marriage. Although they were also aware that Islam mandates men to also retain their virginity until marriage, a few were more lax about it because non-virgin men did not have a community to reckon with. If a girl was not a virgin on the day of her marriage, she would be "kicked out" of the new home, and "turned back" to her family. In a mother's words, "I wish she would die before this happens." In several group discussions and individual interviews, girls discussed the differential treatment they received from the cultural interpretation of purity. Similar to mothers, daughters agreed that Islam required that both males and females should not have premarital sexual relationships. However, the ideal was not equally enforced. According to girls, more males than females were engaged in premarital sexual relationships. In one of the group discussions, girls stated that this differential treatment was particularly upsetting.

If a girl is a virgin, the guy must be a virgin. This is not religion; it is culture. The guy can go clubbing till 03.00 or 4.00, and as a girl I must be home very early.

Contrasting this general tendency, there were a few "success" stories and the daughters proudly received the credit for placing limitations on their own brothers. Using Islamic instructions, mothers' requirements of curfew

time, and limited relationships with the opposite sex, they had successfully pushed for the same limitations to be put on their male siblings.

Opposite Sex Friendships

The prerequisite of virginity until marriage for girls had implications for the kind of friendships girls could establish. Overall, mothers and daughters never or rarely disagreed that daughters should not have male friends. A good majority of mothers also agreed that their daughters' decision to have male friends was important to them. Daughters were more evenly distributed on the item that having male friends was important to them. However, over fifty percent of girls indicated that their decision to have male friends was not at all of little importance to their families. In addition, mothers pointed out that while they did not have a problem with girls interacting with male classmates, they did not endorse the idea that their daughters should have male friends. Basically, their argument was that the girls did not really need male friends, primarily because having male friends could lead to dating. While most of them explained that they trusted their daughters, their biggest fear was that the environment girls were in, especially schools, could compromise their daughters' decisions.

Dating

While virginity until marriage was an affirmative decision, with no negotiating boundaries, dating had more permeable boundaries. Dating as a prerequisite to marriage was highly discouraged by mothers. Only a few mothers agreed that they would allow their girls to be alone with their husbands-to-be after engagement had taken place. Mothers felt that dating was not an effective tool for constructing a healthy marriage. To them, the ideal of dating was that both the daughter and the husband-to-be would be allowed to talk to each other in the presence of other people, or they would go out chaperoned or in a group. Although some of the daughters agreed to the procedure of getting to know their future husband in the chaperoned way, several of them were less reluctant to condemn dating as un-Islamic. However, this depended on how one defined dating. Among older girls, dating was not at all about sex. It was about two people getting together and learning about each other.

I like a guy...I want to marry him. When one is serious about somebody, one does not have sex. We are not at the marriage level yet. We just meet to get closer to each other.

However, for some girls who were not dating, they said that the best way to avoid any confrontation with their mothers was not to talk about dating.

If they started a conversation on dating with their mothers, the latter would be alarmed thinking that their daughters were already seeing someone behind their back. On this account, some mothers avoided talking about dating and pretended it was not a problem.

Conclusion

In the process of integrating modernity, Moroccan girls' sexual conduct is particularly important to their families. While adhering to religious and traditional values of modesty and guarded sexual conduct, mothers and daughters try to resolve issues they face as they construct the identity of who a good Moroccan girl is. By helping their daughters grasp what it means to be a good example and guarding their sexual conduct, mothers fulfil an obligation to God, gain approval from society, and help ascertain good marriages of daughters. Daughters, on the other hand, are able to transcend cultural interpretations of religion and make choices regarding sexual conduct that incorporates not only their desire to follow the religion but also the need to integrate modernity.

The analysis of the interview materials explained the nature of such negotiating positions through cooperative conflicts. Perceived interests, perceived contributions, and breakdown responses conditioned by influences from the traditional values and modernity mediated mothers' and daughters' negotiation of decisions regarding wearing *hijab*, opposite sex friendship, virginity until marriage, and dating. These negotiating instances showed that both mothers and daughters mutually participate in daily managing of intergenerational cooperation and conflict deriving from the construction of women's sexual conduct. The Moroccan family also strives to maintain the religious and social heritage. Research on intergenerational relationships should move beyond stating the evidence that conflicts arise from generational clashes and pay closer attention to what makes living together for generations a plausible reality.

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Socioeconomic Determinants of Women's Choice of Place of Delivery in Cross River State, Nigeria

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Abstract

To increase women's utilisation of skilled attendants during pregnancy and childbirth, the government of Cross River State, Nigeria, in 2009, introduced a cost-free maternal health programme. The project was intended to help reduce the high maternal mortality rate in the state, which occurs mainly because of the utilisation of unskilled attendants by women during pregnancy and childbirth. However, the patronage of unskilled attendants by pregnant women in the state has persisted. This study thus examines the factors that influence women's choices when it comes to where they choose to get care during pregnancy and childbirth. Cross River State, Nigeria, was the study area, and the mixed method was the study design. Women of childbearing age in the state constituted the study population, while a total of 613 respondents were selected purposively to form the subjects for the study. Quantitative data for the study was obtained using a structured questionnaire, while the Focus Group Discussion and interviews were utilised to generate the qualitative data. Two hypotheses were formulated and tested using the Chi-Square and Multiple Regression Analysis as statistical tools. Findings based on the test of the Hypothesis I revealed that delivery demands significantly influence women's choice of place of delivery. The analysis of the second hypothesis using the multiple regression further revealed that religious belief and income level both had statistically significant *p-values* of 0.000, which is less than the 0.05 alpha levels of significance; meaning that both religious belief and income level significantly influence women's choice of place of delivery. Educational status, however, had a *p-value* (0.078) > 0.05 alpha levels of significance. This is not statistically significant, implying that educational status does not significantly influence women's choice of place of delivery. The study recommends that beyond making delivery cost-free, the government of Cross River State should adequately equip hospitals to prevent the demands placed on women at the time of birth, which scares a number of them, forcing some to opt for unskilled attendants. Also, the study recommends increased effort towards the empowerment of women to curb the

difficulties created by income as well as the intensification of awareness campaigns, among other measures.

Keywords: Women, Choice of Place of Delivery, Maternal Health, Healthcare, Socioeconomic Determinants.

Introduction

Maternal health is of utmost importance to the global community, owing to the fact that around the world, women die every day from pregnancy and childbirth-related health problems. In 2015 alone, approximately 303,000 women died around the globe due to pregnancy and childbirth complications (UNPFA, 2016). Although the United Nations Population Fund acknowledges that the world has witnessed a 44 per cent decline in the rate of maternal death since the 1990s, the agency still stresses that about 830 women continue to die every day from pregnancy and childbirth, a figure which narrows down to about one maternal death every two minutes. With statistics such as this, it is certain that maternal mortality contributes significantly to the global death burden.

To safeguard maternal health, as well as ensure that maternal mortality is kept at the barest minimum, the United Nations listed maternal health as the fifth of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), set by all its 191 member states in 2000. The UN further sets the target of reducing the number of women dying as a result of pregnancy and childbirth by three quarters by the year 2015. To achieve this, attention was directed by the United Nations to the usage of skilled birth attendants, among other options during pregnancy and childbirth.

In line with achieving the number five of the UN MDG goals, and in a bid to contribute to the target of significantly reducing by 2015 the global maternal mortality rate, which is particularly high in Nigeria, the Cross River State Government in 2009 implemented a cost-free maternal healthcare programme for pregnant women tagged “PROJECT HOPE.” With this cost-free maternal healthcare programme in place, it was expected that women would adequately utilise healthcare facilities during pregnancy and childbirth and, by so doing, avoid preventable maternal deaths occurring during deliveries handled by unskilled birth attendants outside orthodox healthcare facilities. However, contrary to expectations and despite the laudable effort of the Cross River State Government, as expressed in “PROJECT HOPE,” women in the state continue to patronise unskilled and unorthodox birth attendants during pregnancy and childbirth.

A particularly disturbing trend in Cross River State is the fact that a good number of women register with and attend antenatal clinics in orthodox healthcare facilities, but at the point of delivery, they opt for their preferred

alternative service providers. Etuk (2017) revealed that a staggering 47.8 per cent of women who booked for antenatal care in the teaching hospital located in the State (the University of Calabar Teaching Hospital) had their deliveries outside the hospital, with 43.5 per cent of them delivering in unorthodox facilities where there are no skilled birth attendants. In a separate study of 336 antenatal defaulters, Etuk (2017) found out 44.3 per cent of them had their childbirth in churches, 29.2 per cent in their homes, while 26.5 per cent delivered with traditional birth attendants (TBAs). This corroborates the report of Edu, Agan, Monjok, and Makowiecka (2017) that 59.1 per cent of women in Cross River State deliver at home or with TBAs.

Even with the free maternal health programme in place, in 2013 alone, the maternal mortality rate in Cross River State stood at 250 deaths per 100,000 live births (Edu et al., 2017). Such a maternal mortality rate is not surprising given that a recognisable proportion of women in the state still patronise unskilled birth attendants, even after some of them had already been pre-registered with antenatal clinics. With a scenario such as this, one is left to imagine why women in Cross River State would continue to patronise unskilled and unorthodox birth attendants, even with a free maternal healthcare programme in place. Or better put: why would some of them go as far as receiving antenatal care in orthodox healthcare facilities only to end up patronising unskilled service providers at the point of delivery? Thus, the impetus for this study is the need to unravel some of the social and economic factors that determine women's choices when it comes to choosing where to receive care during pregnancy and delivery. The objective of the study will, therefore, be to examine:

- The extent to which delivery demands and women's socioeconomic characteristics such as religious belief, educational status, and income level influence women's choice of place of delivery in Cross River State, Nigeria.

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Based on a report by Rosenfield, Maine and Freedman (2006), skilled care by trained attendants is of prime importance in achieving a reduction in maternal deaths. For developed countries, as Munsur, Atia and Kawahara (2010) noted, maternal deaths have been reduced to almost insignificant levels as a result of the use of skilled attendants at deliveries (98 per cent), antenatal attendance (97 per cent), and institutionalised deliveries (98 per cent). Thus, based on evidence, trained attendants and skilled care at deliveries produce positive outcomes for the fate and health status of women during pregnancy and delivery.

The maternal mortality rate in Sub-Saharan Africa ranks highest in the world currently constituting about 66 per cent or two-thirds of all maternal deaths worldwide (UNICEF, 2017). In the case of Nigeria, the African Population and Health Research Centre (APHRC) reports that the country alone is the second highest contributor to maternal mortality in the world and until recently, it registers an estimated 40,000 maternal deaths annually, which amount to 14 per cent of global maternal mortality rate. However, between 2010 and 2013, the maternal mortality rate in Nigeria had reduced from 610 to 530 deaths per 100,000 live births (Edu et al., 2017). Notwithstanding, the 530 deaths per 100,000 live births is still relatively high.

The maternal death rate has remained high in Sub-Saharan Africa mainly because, as Edu et al. (2017) observed, the region has low rates of skilled birth attendance; with that of Nigeria standing at 30% as at 2013. Within the same period, as Edu et al. (2017) reported, the South-South geopolitical zone where the study area (Cross River State) is located ranked lowest in compliance with recommended practice. This certainly means that the low rates of skilled birth attendance in Cross River State can be linked to the fact that many women patronise unskilled attendants during pregnancy and childbirth.

Robert K. Merton's Anomie Theory provides insight into the possible rationale for women's choices in terms of where to get care during pregnancy and childbirth. According to Merton (1968) cited in Haralambos and Holborn (2007), society members respond differently to societal values and goals as well as prescribed means of attaining them. Merton argues that some society members' response to social goals and values is that of conformity, in that they strive to achieve societal goals through socially prescribed ways. This is the case with women who choose to get care from skilled attendants in institutionalised healthcare facilities during pregnancy and childbirth. However, there are society members whose response to social values and goals, according to Merton, is that of innovation. Such individuals reject prescribed means of achieving societal goals and attempt to innovate by devising non-institutionalised means of achieving goals. Women who patronise non-institutionalised delivery facilities fall under this category because, based on Merton's argument, by patronising unskilled attendants, such women are in effect deviating to an alternative means in their response to seeking care during pregnancy and childbirth. However, this constitutes a form of deviance on their part.

Merton's Anomie theory further aids the understanding of why women deviate or innovate in issues relating to seeking care during childbirth. According to Merton, society members are placed differently on the social strata. That is to say, people belong to different social classes and as a result have unequal access to education, income, information, and other resources.

Consequently, they often have unequal opportunities to realise shared goals and as such respond differently in how they approach the achievement of societal goals. For those whose response is that of innovation, in that they adopt unconventional means to achieve goals as is the case with women who patronise unskilled birth attendants, the argument from Merton's perspective would be that they turn to these unconventional options because they have limited access to adequate income, proper education, adequate awareness, and other social resources. As a result, often, they are hardly able to make ends meet. Also, they are easily given to holding misconceptions and as such are more susceptible to rejecting conventional methods of achieving goals.

Based on Merton's submission, therefore, women's choice of place of delivery in Cross River State might depend, for instance, on how much income they have, their level of education, and even the type of information they are exposed to. Those with stable employments and businesses would have a more stable income and can afford hospital services. However, those who are outside this class might have less income, which would make it difficult for them to have the capacity to afford some basic health requirements (Archibong & Agan, 2010)—which might include charges in cash or other demands in kind required for childbirth in most health facilities. As such, they might innovate in seeking care during pregnancy and delivery by patronising 'affordable' but unskilled attendants such as TBAs or faith-based delivery centres. This also applies to women who have an inadequate or low level of education. Hence, a study by Ravi and Kulasekaran (2013) found that women who had completed higher education preferred health institutions for their deliveries, while a majority of home deliveries were among illiterate groups, who had less exposure to mass media. Lastly, Merton's argument explains the place of religion in how women seek care during pregnancy and childbirth. Nigeria is not only a highly religious society, ranking fourth alongside Cambodia, Cameroon, Jordan, Malaysia, Philippines, and Senegal in the list of the most religious countries in the world (World Atlas, 2018); also, religion has pervasive effects on various aspects of people's lives, attitude, and behaviours, affecting even how they approach health issues (Fadeyi & Oduwole, 2006). However, Nigerians vary in their religious beliefs, arising from their religious information and teachings. Thus, in the case of women, their health-seeking behaviour during pregnancy and childbirth will depend on the type of religious information to which they are exposed. Those with balanced religious teachings will likely conform by patronising conventional healthcare facilities. On the other hand, those who are religiously misinformed might innovate by seeking care outside institutionalised health institutions, such as TBAs and faith-based birth attendants, due to wrong religious teachings.

Methodology

The setting for this study is Cross River State, one of the coastal states of the Niger Delta region, located in the South-South geopolitical zone of the country. It has three senatorial districts and a total of 18 Local Government Areas with Calabar being its capital city. The state occupies a total of 20,156 square kilometres, with a projected population of 3,737,517 for 2016 and lies within 5^o45'N 8^o30'E coordinates (<https://en.m.wikipedia.org>).

This study, which is essentially a survey, adopts a mixed design as it has both qualitative and quantitative components. Qualitative data for the study were obtained through focus group discussions (FGD) and in-depth interview, using FGD and interview guides, respectively. On the other hand, quantitative data were obtained using a structured questionnaire. The population of the study consisted of women of childbearing age (15-49).

The study utilised a sample size of 613 subjects. This figure was determined using the estimate of the proportion of women aged 15-49 that receive antenatal care in Nigeria which according to World Bank (2018) stood at 62.60 per cent in 2015. However, 60 per cent was chosen as the worst possible. The sample size was therefore determined as follows: $n = \frac{Z^2 \pi(1-\pi)}{E^2}$

Where:

Z - degree of confidence. For this study, it is set at $Z_{0.005} = 2.57$

π - estimate for ante-natal care coverage for Nigeria = 60 per cent (i.e. 0.6)

E - estimate error = 0.05

The sample size therefore:

$$n = \frac{(2.57)^2(0.6)(0.4)}{(0.05)^2} = 612.552. \text{ This is approximately } 613$$

The needed data, qualitative and quantitative alike, were obtained in 12 delivery facilities including hospitals, TBA homes, and faith-based delivery centres. Data analysis and test of the study hypotheses were done using the Chi-square and Multiple Regression statistical techniques.

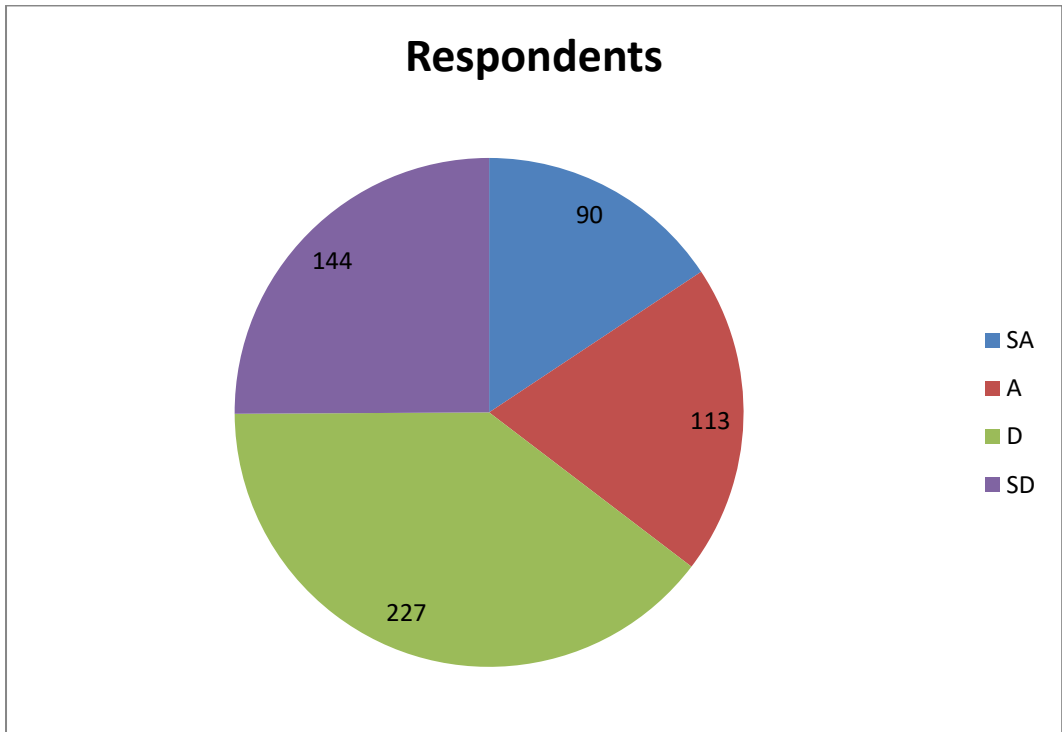
Results and Discussion of Findings

Delivery Demands and Choice of Place of Delivery

Figure 1 is a Pie Chart presentation of subjects' perception of delivery demands as a determinant of choice of place of delivery. The chart shows that the proportion of subjects who would not be influenced by delivery demands appear to be in the majority (altogether, 371 respondents – 64.6 per cent). However, those who consider delivery demands to be a deterrent to delivering in certain places (a total of 203 respondents – 35.4 per cent) still constitute a proportion that cannot be considered negligible as far as the matter of maternal health is concerned. As a matter of fact, the 35.4 per cent figure implies that one out of three women in Cross River State would consider delivery demands

to be a challenge, and within the scope of maternal health, such a statistic is still worrisome. The result of the test of the null Hypothesis I, as displayed in Table 1, provides further insight on this.

Figure 1. Pie Chart Distribution of Subjects' Perception of Delivery Demands as a Determinant of Choice of place of Delivery



Test of Hypothesis I

Ho: Delivery demands do not significantly influence women's Choice of place of delivery in Cross River State.

Table 2. Chi-Square Analysis on Delivery Charges and Women's Choice of Place of Delivery

Variables	Observed N	Expected N	Residual	Df	Cal. X ²	Sig.
SA	90	143.5	-53.5	3	75.017 ^a	.05
A	113	143.5	-30.5			
D	227	143.5	83.5			
SD	144	143.5	.5			
Total	574					

The result in Table 2 reveals that the calculated χ^2 value of 75.017 is greater than the critical chi-square value of 7.82 at 0.05 level of significance. As such, the null hypothesis is rejected, implying that, even if fewer women consider delivery demands to be an influencing factor when it comes to where to have their deliveries, its influence on women's choice of place of delivery is still significant. Thus, the alternate hypothesis of this study is accepted, suggesting that delivery demands significantly influence women's choice of place of delivery in Cross River State, Nigeria.

Delivery demands are used in this study to describe items other than cash, which delivery attendants in both orthodox and unorthodox facilities require pregnant women to present at the time of delivery. Archibong and Agan (2010) reveal that attendants in orthodox health facilities, for instance, usually ask for items often described as 'consumables' such as toilet soap, disinfectants including Dettol and bleach, as well as olive oil, cotton wool, spirit, among others. These items, as noted by Archibong and Agan (2010), place an additional burden on women. Some participants in the FGD and oral interview stated clearly that they considered the cost of these 'consumables' put together as practically amounting to cash equivalents they might find burdensome to cope with. Obviously, women who hold this view fall within the 35.4 per cent of the subjects in this study who consider delivery demands to be a determining factor of where they would have their deliveries. A particular participant in the FGD stated as follows: "the government claims a delivery is free, yet they use other means to still get us to pay, free should mean free." This is, undoubtedly, the principal reason that even with the cost-free delivery service (PROJECT HOPE) in place, some women in Cross River State still choose alternatives such as TBAs, home deliveries or even faith-based delivery centres. In these places, the demands are often negotiable or payable in instalments as Abia, Charles, Ering and Mbotto (2007) observed. Also, for a number of these women, the latter terms of payment are most convenient.

Test of Hypothesis II

Ho: Socio-economic characteristics of women in terms of religious belief, educational status, and income level have no significant influence on choice of place of delivery among women in Cross River State.

Hypothesis II is tested using the Multiple Regression Analysis and presented in Tables 2a, 2b and 2c, and it is tested at .05 levels of significance.

Decision rule: if the p -value is less than or equal to 0.05 Alpha (α) levels of significance for the test, reject null hypothesis (H_0) and retain the alternate hypothesis (H_1).

The summary of the results of the Multiple Regression Analysis for the test of hypothesis two, as presented in Tables 2a, 2b, and 2c reveals as follows:

1. Religious Belief

Based on the Multiple Regression analysis, the *p-value* of religious belief turned out to be 0.000, which is less than (<) the 0.05 alpha levels of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis that socioeconomic characteristic of women, in terms of religious belief, has no significant influence on women's choice of delivery in Cross River State is rejected. This implies that religious belief as a social factor significantly influences women's choice of where to deliver in Cross River State.

Mueller, Plevak, and Rumman (2001) reported that religion and spirituality had been found to be associated with better health, including greater longevity, coping skills, less depression, anxiety, and suicide among other health issues. A report such as this holds in the views of many Nigerians, which makes it that in health matters, including the ones relating to pregnancy and childbirth, religion is often not left out in their options of how to seek care. Moreover, many Nigerians believe in their spiritual leaders, who often advise and issue them with prophecies regarding different aspects of their lives, including issues bordering on pregnancy and childbirth. Also, several Nigerians believe in supernatural intervention in many of their endeavours, including the area of health. As a way of attracting such supernatural interventions during childbirth, many women succumb to religious misinformation presented by some of their religious leaders as 'prophecies' (or *perceived* divine instructions) and then end up delivering outside orthodox health facilities, sometimes in faith-based delivery centres. Hence, in the interviews and focus group discussion (FGDs) of this study, some subjects indicated that delivery in faith-based centres was a preferred option for:

- i. Ensuring spiritual protection and warding off evil;
- ii. Not falling victim to witches and witchcrafts;
- iii. Having a prayer back-up to attract help from God during delivery;
- iv. Obeying prophecy in which 'God' instructed against delivery by a caesarean section which happens in hospitals, and to prevent the loss of their lives.

It is not surprising, therefore, that Etuk's (2017) study of 336 antenatal defaulters found that churches (spiritual churches in particular) alone handled the delivery of as much as 44.3 per cent of these women. Religious belief is, therefore, a major influencing factor in women's choice of place of delivery in Cross River State, Nigeria.

Table 2a. Multiple Regression Model Summary

Model of the estimate	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error
1 .374433	.931 ^a	.876		.866

3 Predictors: (Constant) Religious Belief, Educational Status, Income Level.

Table 2b. ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression .000 ^b	520.746	3	173.582	1238.145	
Residual	79.911	570	.140		
Total	600.657	573			

a. Dependent Variable: Choice of Place of Delivery

b. Predictors: (Constant) Religious Belief, Educational Status, Income Level.

2. Educational Status

The multiple regression analysis further revealed a *p-value* of 0.078 for education as a predictor of choice of place of delivery. Since this *p-value* of 0.078 is greater than (>) the 0.05 alpha levels of significance, it is, therefore, not statistically significant. As such, the null hypothesis as it applies to education is not rejected, implying that educational status does not significantly influence women's choice of place of delivery in Cross River State, Nigeria. This suggests that in the study area, where a woman would deliver is not a function of how highly or poorly educated she is. This means that highly educated women can deliver in hospitals, with TBAs or with faith-based delivery centres, just like their uneducated counterparts. Studies including those of Akinyo (2009), Ravi and Kulasekaran (2013), as well as Pallikadavath, Foss, and Stones (2004) suggest that women with some level of education are likely to receive care in hospitals because of their exposure to knowledge about health issues. One, therefore, wonders why educational status might not influence a woman's choice of place of delivery in Cross River State as found in this study.

In Cross River State, like several other parts of Nigeria and indeed in Africa, there is widespread belief in witchcraft and sorcery. In places where this belief is obtainable, witches and sorcerers are believed by both the educated and uneducated in Cross River State to have powers for destroying

lives, as well as for causing harm or bringing misfortunes to people at will (Akak, 1982). Subjects in the FGDs and interviews confirmed that they nursed fears for witchcraft attack, especially during pregnancy, while some indicated that they believed many maternal deaths were caused by witchcraft attacks and other evil forces known in the primary local language as *Ifot*.

Table 2c. Multiple Regression Coefficient Parameters of Model for Predicting Choice of Place of Delivery from the Socioeconomic Characteristics of Women (Religious Belief, Educational Status, Income Level) in Cross River State.

Model t	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	<i>P-value</i>
Constant .000	.431	.040		10.690
Religious .000 Belief	.450	.034	.516	13.127
Educational .078 Status	.098	.055	.100	1.768
Income 5.651 Level	.331 .000	.059	.337	

a. Dependent Variable: Choice of Place of Delivery

According to Offiong (1991), the fear of witchcraft attack makes people in this area to go any length to take precaution against possible attacks by witches. One of such precautions is to identify with churches, where they are assured that through prayers and other spiritual activities popularly known as ‘assignment’, witches, and other evil forces can be conquered. For many pregnant women, therefore, educated or not, once there is that fear or suspicion of witchcraft attack (the educated ones would only manifest their education by registering for and attending antenatal clinic) at the point of delivery, they opt for mainly spiritual churches or other such places where they have assurance of availability of supernatural powers. These, they believe, would guarantee them protection against evil attack during delivery. Moreover, as pointed out

by some participants in the FGD, pronouncements by a doctor that delivery would be by caesarean section (known in the primary local language as *uman ikwua* –meaning knife delivery) is one way many women and their relatives suspect that witches or other evil forces are manipulating the pregnancy with the intention to harm or even kill the woman and baby. They believe this to be the reason why normal delivery is obstructed. As such, for some of such women, once they are informed by attendants in orthodox health facilities to prepare for caesarean section, irrespective of their level of education, they seek care in other alternatives where delivery will not be by surgery, sometimes to their peril.

3. Income Level

As is the case with religious belief, the *p-value* for income level is also 0.000, which is statistically significant being that it is less than (<) the 0.05 alpha levels of significance. The null hypothesis as it applies to income level is therefore rejected, meaning that income level as a socioeconomic factor significantly influences women's choice of place of delivery.

Karl Marx in his capitalist ideologies argued that in society, the infrastructure, which is the economy, shapes the superstructure, which represents other aspects of society. At the level of the individual, this means that their income level will shape other aspects of their lives, including where and how they seek medical care. In the case of women, since they vary in their income levels, such variations will reflect in how they seek care in the event of health challenges as well as during pregnancy and delivery. Nigeria has a high poverty rate, which stood at 33.1% as of 2014 (<https://en.m.wikipedia.org>). The situation got even direr from 2015, due to the recession that hit the country following the drop in the global price of crude oil. Being that women are more vulnerable to poverty, definitely, there would be a ripple effect in how they seek medical care during pregnancy. Archibong and Agan (2010) stressed that those with stable income would be able to afford hospital services while those outside this group might not be in a position to afford even the most basic of health requirement in healthcare facilities. In line with this view, Anthony (2010) noted that payment for healthcare, among the poor population, is one of the deterrents to women's use of appropriate medical attention.

In the case of Cross River State, although there is a cost-free maternal care programme, which means that income level should not be a problem, the demands in kind or 'consumables' required of women who come for delivery still present a challenge to many women, a sizable proportion of whom live on less than one dollar a day. A woman in one of the FGD sessions stated as follows, "if I had all the cash to buy all the things that those hospital nurses ask for, why would I not deliver in a very good place? I can even pay a pastor

to be praying for me. Who doesn't like good things? I just don't have all the money." Another participant said, "if I spend the little I have completely on delivery alone, what would we survive on afterward? I just need to spend wisely, so I don't steal to survive after my delivery." Little wonder, Etuk (2017) based on her study of 336 women, who attended antenatal clinics but ended up delivering in unorthodox facilities, found that the highest proportion (24. per cent) indicated that hospital charges (whether in cash or kind) were the cause.

To add to this, many women in the state live in very remote rural areas and may not even be able to afford the cost of transportation to the urban centres where the cost-free maternal services are obtainable. Consequently, some of them might opt for delivery at home by themselves or with the help of relatives, in which case no demand will be placed on them. Others may settle for the services of TBAs or Faith-Based Attendants who, in most instances, give room for negotiations in their demands, or allow for payments in instalments.

Summarily, though, it turned out that educational status had a *p-value* (0.078) > 0.05 alpha levels of significance, which is statistically insignificant. Yet, with the multiple regression result indicating $F(3,570) = 1238.145$ and $R^2 = .867$, as well as the *p-values* of the two other socioeconomic variables namely: religious belief and income level being 0.000 which is < 0.05 alpha levels of significance, it can well be concluded that socioeconomic characteristics of women still significantly determine their choice of place of delivery in Cross River State, Nigeria.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The utilisation of skilled attendants is essential for safeguarding women's lives during pregnancy and delivery. It is, therefore, pertinent that women be assisted to both come to terms with this, as well as make the right choices when it comes to place of the delivery. Orthodox healthcare facilities remain the best option since they guarantee the services of skilled attendants. To ensure that women irrespective of their social, economic, or cultural backgrounds make orthodox healthcare facilities their preferred place of delivery and also based on the findings of this study, the following are therefore recommended:

- Religious leaders should be encouraged to make skilled professionals part of their team during the process of providing spiritual services to pregnant women. These skilled professionals would give health talks on pregnancy and childbirth-related issues to women on the days they gather to meet with their religious leaders. These professionals would also use such opportunities to encourage them to seek care from

appropriate healthcare facilities. Some churches in Cross River State are already practising this.

- Many women believe in their religious leaders. The government should therefore work with them to get them to encourage their pregnant members to seek care from appropriate health facilities. If this instruction comes from a religious leader, there would be widespread adherence.
- The government should ensure that the cost-free maternal health programme on ground is cost-free indeed. Efforts should be made to provide delivery materials so that no demand tending to unnecessary expenditure would be placed on women at the time of delivery.
- Women empowerment efforts should be intensified by government. Economic empowerment for women would certainly have a trickling down effect on their health-seeking behaviour, even during pregnancy and childbirth considering that they would be able to afford demands in cash or kind for the care they seek.
- There should be an intensification of public campaigns to enlighten the public to get them to unlearn the myths and misconceptions they hold about issues surrounding pregnancy and delivery, especially as they concern caesarean sections.

The government should make the pay of skilled attendants posted to rural areas attractive enough to make them stay in those places. This is particularly important because rural dwellers are more susceptible to patronising unskilled attendants in that often, there are hardly professional attendants in rural health posts. Most of them prefer providing their services in urban areas. However, if their pay is made irresistible, a number of them would see this as a motivation to stay in those areas and render their services.

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