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Managing Snow Risks: The Case of City Governments and Ski Resorts

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This paper proposes the risk management method using “Snow Derivatives” for local city governments and ski resorts. We define snow derivatives as the weather derivatives whose underlying asset is index related to snowfall. First all this paper studies the impact of snowfall on the financial performance of ski resort and local city government. Our preliminary analysis shows that the relationship between revenue of the ski resorts and snowfall are inverted-u shaped while the snowfall has significantly adverse impact on the revenue of city government. We then design the snow derivatives for the risk exposure and examine their contribution of corporate value of the ski resort and local city governments. In particular, we use Wang Transform model to incorporate the managers’ risk preference in the evaluation of snow derivatives. We would expect to show that our proposed snow derivatives contribute the value of ski resort and local city government. This paper also contributes to the literature providing the comprehensive analysis of weather risk management. Bank and Wiesner (2011) conclude that the reason why the weather derivatives are not frequently used in Australian market is the lack of understanding to the weather derivatives. This paper would expect to provide the insights for weather risk management in international markets as well.

Keywords: Weather Derivatives, Snow Risk, Ski Resorts

Fact-Finding in Judicial and Non-Judicial Approaches: the case of the issue of comfort women

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The main obstacle that has prevented the resolution of the issue of comfort women, particularly between Japan and Korea, is the contested interpretation of forced recruitment of former comfort women. While Japan says there exist no official documents to show forced recruitment, Korea insists on the importance of the survivors’ testimonies. Despite these different stance, beneath the opposing claims of the two camps lies the importance of facts. This research examines and demonstrates the different roles and implications of fact-finding in judicial and non-judicial approaches. Facts investigated from a non-judicial approach, particularly through the work of a truce-and-reconciliation commission, as in South Africa, play a role in healing the victims and fostering social reconciliation. Facts investigated through a judicial and academically rigorous approach, going through public documentation and the confrontation and cross-examination of witnesses, serve to reveal the whole picture of the incident at issue objectively. This paper acknowledges that the latter approach has the possibility of harming the victims and thus preventing reconciliation, since the victims might insist that the objective truth revealed from the latter approach merely underestimates the level of damage done to them. Still, this paper also argues for the effectiveness of the judicial and academic approach in revealing all the facts and the root causes of the incident at issue, which eventually helps to set up preventive measures in the future.

Keywords: Fact-finding, comfort women, reconciliation

To diminish regional gap by developing local potentiality: Japan's First Strategy for Economic Development, Kogyo Iken

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During around 25 years from 1905 to 1930, although Japan showed rapid economic growth, regional economic gap in Japan was diminished rather than widen. During this period, first economic development strategy titled Kogyo Iken was adopted in the latter half of the promotion of industry strategy. Kogyo Iken was led by Masana Maeda.

Since Kogyo Iken was wrote around 130 years ago, it cannot be applied directly in the developing countries at present. However, there are several ways of thinking that include the essence of balanced development. Maeda emphasized on the following points.

1. To emphasize in field visits in order to grasp objective facts
2. To formulate farmers' organizations and network among organizations
3. To build institutions including rules for agricultural production and distribution
4. To improve technologies that fit with local farming conditions
5. To develop agricultural human resources
6. To maintain and improve infrastructure for distribution and exports of products
7. To identify local products and industries which have enough local potentiality and comparative advantages.

Keywords: Kogyo Iken, Local potentiality, Balanced development

1. Introduction

This paper focuses on the balanced growth economic policy, Kogyo Iken, which was adopted in the late 19th century in Japan. During this period of around 25 years from 1905 to 1930, although Japan showed rapid economic growth, regional economic gap in Japan had diminished rather than widen. During this period, the first economic development strategy titled Kogyo Iken was adopted in the latter half of the promotion of industry strategy. Kogyo Iken was led by Masana Maeda who was a government officer of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. He visited France in 1869, where he learned European experiences and knowledge in terms of agriculture and forestry. After he came back to Japan in 1877, he started to write Kogyo Iken.

2. Development theories in terms of economic growth and regional gap

When we review development theories in terms of economic growth and regional gap in the recent 70 years, there seem to be two different ideas. One is the idea that gives more priority on activities by private sector to promote economic growth. This free economic growth approach tends to expand regional gap. Another idea is, giving more priority on government commitment and income redistribution to achieve balanced growth. Development theories have been swinging between these two ideas.

In many developing countries, there is a phenomenon that shows rapid economic growth causes widening regional economic gap. According to Yujiro Hayami, the gap between

agricultural sector and non-agricultural sector are mainly due to the following two reasons.

1. By introducing labor saving technologies and strengthening dual industrial structure, modern sector tends to have weak absorptive capacity for labors.
2. Since the population growth rate is very high, the population pressure per limited land becomes high.

Furthermore, Hayami said “In order to keep or increase productivity of agricultural labor under these conditions, it is needed to improve rapid agricultural technology to save land. In order to realize this, huge investment for research and development, training farmers, infrastructure such as irrigation system, roads network, etc. are needed” (Hayami 2000) In other words, if we conduct research and development for farming and farming products, educational activities for farmers and investing in necessary infrastructures such as irrigation system and roads, then agricultural technologies can be improved; and we might avoid widening the gap between agricultural and non-agricultural sector.

3. Historical background

During the period of around 25 years from 1905 to 1930, the regional gap was not widened in spite of rapid growth in Japan. There are several ways to measure regional economic gap. Genichi Kimura analyzed the regional fiscal power gap by using statistical data in terms of tax revenue under assumption that the fiscal power is reflected by economic power. Although regional fiscal power gap has been influenced by tax system, standard of tax, ways of evaluation, and tax rate, etc., Kimura analyzed the regional tax power gap between around 1880 and 1960's. He concluded that regional gap was narrowed during the period of 25 years mentioned above.

Meiji administration introduced institutions, technologies, knowledge and know-how from Europe and North America. Many capable young people such as Eiichi Shibusawa visited and stayed in Europe and North America. At the same time, many engineers and experts from Europe and North America visited and stayed in Japan and exchanged technologies. From 1876 to 1895, total foreign employees were 3,916 including 1,716 from U.K., 625 from Germany, 583 from U.S.A. and 360 from France. (Inukai, 2003)

Meiji administration developed the following industries.

- (1) Financial loans and establishing Central Bank
- (2) Rail ways, postal services, telecommunication network
- (3) National factories and mining industries
- (4) Loans, lending and sale of equipment and facilities to private companies

4. Kogyo Iken and Mr. Masana Maeda

In 1869, Masana Maeda (1850-1921) visited France and stayed in Paris until 1877. He learned administration and policy, and agricultural economy from Eugene Tisserant who was the Director at the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce in France. After he came back to Japan, he established Mita breeding station, and submitted the Policy of Recommendation to promote direct trade and made reports in terms of Industry and Economy in Europe.

Firstly, Maeda and his team made a thorough investigation of the then prevailing socio-economic condition in Japan. Then, they had to recognize the importance of the people's improvement. The government's objective is merely to promote industries through the strengthening of the people's economic capacity, which is the real base for increased tax revenue. On the other hand, the governmental administrative functions should be widened in order to fulfill this purpose. Therefore, in order to accomplish this goal, the government should

contemplate a development plan for strengthening the people’s economic capacity at national level.

(Inukai 2003)

Figure 1 shows factories of the traditional sector including textile, food, ceramics, and metal which are located mainly in the rural areas. Mobilizing the growth potential capacity of the traditional sector was essential for rural development. “The spread of market economy into rural areas could also have been triggered by the sudden opening-up of foreign markets to traditional rural industries such as raw silk and processed tea. The proportion of agriculturally-related products in all Japanese export receipts was over 70 to 80 percent of the total exports.” (Inukai, 2003)

Figure 1. Distribution of “factories” by urban and rural area, 1884 (%)

Industry	Total “Factories”	Urban	Rural	Unknown
Textile	100 (1,206)	19.1	71.4	9.5
Food	100 (184)	5.4	84.2	10.3
Ceramics	100 (238)	8.8	76.5	14.7
Chemical	100 (91)	56.0	26.4	17.6
Metal	100 (159)	10.1	81.8	8.2
Machinery	100 (38)	47.4	15.8	36.8
Others	100 (65)	52.3	23.6	24.6
Total	100 (1,981)	19.2	62.4	18.4

Ichiro Inukai (2003)

Source: Yamaguchi Kazuo, *Meiji-Zenki Keizai no Bunseki (An Analysis of Early Meiji Economy)*, p93. Requoted from Kikuura Shigeo, *Nihon Kindai Sangyo Keisei-ki no Kenkyu (A Study on the period of the Rise of Modern Industry in Japan)*, Tokyo: Toyo Keizai Shinpo-sha, 1977:31

According to Osamu Soda, Kogyo-Iken has four points of views.

1. Formulating wealth in private sector: To improve people’s lives by learning to live in a wealthy country.
 2. Recognition of historicism or in terms of historical point of view: To insist practical and realistic policy adapting to the situation of the country, not just discuss economic theories.
 3. Reconsideration of introducing technologies directly: In case of agriculture, farming equipment, seeds and seedlings that were directly introduced from foreign countries have not contributed to Japanese agricultural development.
 4. Modernization of local industries: It is important for local industries to have capital.
- (Soda 1995)

5. Specific policies and measures

Maeda proposed of establishing institutions for local and agricultural area, formulating organizations in terms of farming industries and building financial institutions to supply funds to

farmers. He identified two methods: Ko (A) and Otsu (B).

By measure, Ko (A), he proposed establishing concrete legal measures and rules such as tenant ordinance, insect damage prevention, the enactment of rules for prevention of infectious diseases, veterinary license examination, etc. He also proposed building an organization in order to improve agricultural technology such as the gradual promotion of the Komaba Agricultural School to an agricultural college, the state-run veterinary school, the establishment of agricultural experimental station, an agricultural exhibition hall, etc.

By measure, Otsu (B), he proposed establishing industrial Banks to supply funds to local industry. Industrial loans include short and long terms, and the first and the second periods as shown in Figure 2. In case of the short term, the first period focuses on raw silk, tea, and sugar, and the second period focuses on tobacco, paper, Japanese wares, seeds, and marine products that were already produced and had comparative advantage and potentiality. On the other hand, the long term focuses on putting the infrastructure in place to increase agriculture production in mountains and forests; including improvement of roads, drainage, cultivation and soil. Then, it continues by putting in place the infrastructure canals, shipbuilding, harbor construction, building banks for distribution and exports of agricultural products.

Figure 2

Industrial Loans	The first period	The second period
Ko (A) Short term, 6 months~3 years	Raw silk, Tea, Sugar	Tobacco, Paper, Japanese wares, Seeds, Marine products, Animal husbandry, Spinning, Textile, Miscellaneous goods
Otsu(B) Long term 5~15 years	Agricultural production in Mountains and forests, Improvement of Roads, Drainage, Cultivation & soil	Canals, Shipbuilding, Harbor construction, Building banks

“SONZE” AND THE “A PRODUCT FROM EVERY VILLAGE” MOVEMENT

Maeda visited the local areas, and proposed to identify “Sonze” at village, “Gunze” at district, “Kenze” at prefecture. “Sonze” means industries and products that were emphasized at village level. For example, rice, silk, fishery, relay station, hot spring, etc. “Gunze” means industries and products that were emphasized at district level, and “Kenze” means industries and products that were emphasized at prefecture level. These industries and products were recognized to be potentially competitive.

On the other hand, “A Product from Every Village” movement is a campaign to revitalize the countryside by emphasizing the special products of each local area by fostering local specialty, human resources and promoting local development. “A Product from Every Village” has something in common with “Sonze”.

In 1892, Maeda started to go on a tour to several local areas. He started from Shizuoka to Mie, Gifu, Osaka, Kobe and Kyushu to visit and propose establishing tea organization to

promote tea industry, because tea was the main export product, at that time. He visited Hida, Toyama, Ishikawa, Fukui san Tohoku and Hokaido. Then, the tea organizations were established at several local areas, and a national convention by tea organizations was held in 1893. By establishing these organizations, Maeda tried to achieve the following purposes:

1. Improving the quality of products and prevention of producing inferior goods in large quantities.
 2. Modernization of distribution system and promotion of direct exports.
 3. Improving several institutions and facilities by approaching government and congress.
- (Soda 1995)

6. Conclusion

Since Kogyo Iken was wrote around 130 years ago, it cannot be applied directly in the developing countries at present. However, there are several ways of thinking that include the essence of balanced development. Maeda emphasized on the following points.

8. To emphasize in field visits in order to grasp objective facts
9. To formulate farmers' organizations and network among organizations
10. To build institutions including rules for agricultural production and distribution
11. To improve technologies that fit with local farming conditions
12. To develop agricultural human resources
13. To maintain and improve infrastructure for distribution and exports of products
14. To identify local products and industries which have enough local potentiality and comparative advantages.

In terms of concrete policies, Maeda proposed institutional building in local and farming areas, organizational building in terms of farming and establishing financial organization to supply fund to farming organizations and farmers.

When the industrial economy is developing, necessary organizations and institutions are established, technologies are improved, funds are supplied, human resources are developed and demands are increased. However, this can be applied to primary industries such as agriculture, forestry, livestock and fishery. Kogyo-Iken indicates that once a comprehensive innovation has occurred, even the primary industries can show high growths similar to urban areas. Hayami indicated that huge investments to research and development, training farmers, infrastructures such as irrigation system, roads network, etc., are needed to increase productivity of agricultural labor under these conditions. Agricultural and farming village policy by Kogyo-Iken also shows that institutional development, improvement of technology and promoting accessibility to funds. Stimulating demands are not only important for industrial development, but also for agricultural development.

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Impact of Digitization on Japanese Industries

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Digitization started with the invention of computers in the 1940s. Since then, the digital revolution has been moving in increasing speed. The digitization has already toppled long established giants such as Eastman Kodak, the photo film company founded in the US; it had drastically revolutionized the music and movie industries; and it is dynamically challenging many other industries, including electronic and automobile industries, two pillars of Japanese industrial power. This paper explores the vulnerabilities of Japanese industries due to fast moving digitization of processes and products and the competitive position of global players in digitization.

Evaluation of HD 981 incident on US – Vietnam political relation

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After 20 years of normalization political and diplomatic relation, US – Vietnam relation is developing well though the two sides have certain reluctance. The US side is not satisfied with the Vietnamese one party regime which they consider to be undemocratic, additionally, they urged Vietnam to improve human right records. Vietnamese policymakers feel afraid US will seek to change the communist party system into multilateral one, which is unacceptable because the current mechanism serves best for their interests. They can give some concessions on human rights, treatment with political dissidents but there will be a long way to meet the standards given by the US. At the same time, Vietnam feels afraid that the close relations with the US will displease China, the country that Vietnam heavily depends on for political and economic interests. US offers security to Vietnam, while China brings to Vietnam political, economic interests. The Chinese's provocation by dispatching oil rig HD 981 to South China Sea in May 2014 created unprecedented changes inside Vietnam communist party's balance of power and US – Vietnam relation. Pro US side in Vietnamese regime is gaining upper hand; US is giving concession in accepting Vietnam's one party system and human right records to avoid losing influence in Vietnam.

Keywords: US – Vietnam relation, China's provocations, South China Sea

Introduction

11 years have passed since the statement of “peaceful development” given by PRC Premier Wen Jiabao. Since 2004, the political relation between China and Vietnam has seen more down time than the three previous decades since China – Vietnam border war in 1979. The decisive factor behind this change mainly stays in the hands of China because of its superiority in economic and political leverage. For similarities in ideology, economic relations, it is not easy for Vietnam to give up the relation with China, but in the new political environment when China's ambitions are surging, and Vietnam will have to walk a very careful diplomatic line. Khang Vu, an international relation analyst in New London, New Hampshire, pointed out that the old ally of Vietnam like Russia, for its own economic problems and interests closely related with China, has turned its backs against Vietnam. In this context of changing China and Russia, Vietnam's desire to find a strong partner to counter the balance with China comes naturally and US, the country which used to be a war enemy of Vietnam, is the best option.(1)

The question here is how the Vietnam's process of enhancing relations with US will take place, how many years it will take and how strong it will be. Since US normalized its diplomatic relations with Vietnam in 1995, there have been many achievements in the relations, but still many obstacles exist. The US side continuously pressed Vietnamese side regarding human right matters while Vietnam feared US will try to change the regime. Both sides want to be closer but

the above mentioned problems cannot be easily solved, as from the analysis for Murray Hiebert and Gregory B. Poling. In this ongoing struggle of Vietnam to balance the tie with the two powers including China and US, the incident HD 981 served as a decisive incident which pushed for unprecedented changes in US – Vietnam political relation. (2)

In early May 2014, the state owned China National Offshore Oil Corporation (CNOOC) dispatched a large exploratory oil rig into waters that Vietnam stated lie on its continental shelf. This rig was positioned about 120 nautical miles from Vietnam's coast and less than 20 nautical miles from one of the Paracel Islands claimed by both China and Vietnam. China withdrew the oil rig about 2.5 months after that. This action of provocation surprised most international political commentators and Vietnamese politicians themselves because just before the incident, these two countries exchanged many high ranking government official visits and one year before that, the Agreement on Basic Principles Guiding the Settlement of Maritime issues was signed. (3) This incident dramatically changed the political leverage inside Vietnamese regime, in which the pro US side led by Prime Minister Nguyen Tan Dung became stronger than ever before and this helped push for closer ties with the US. But there are many challenges ahead that the two sides need to overcome to build strong enough relation to balance with China's expansion.

Objectives

The purposes of this study are to provide a comprehensive understanding and analysis of US – Vietnam political relation from the normalization of diplomatic relations in 1995 to the HD 981 incident and how this incident changed this relation. This changing relation has huge implications for political relations between Vietnam and other powers because once Vietnam gets closer to US, that also means building stronger relations with US allies in Asia like Japan, Korea, etc.

Methodology

The methodology is mainly based on qualitative approach because from the nature of one party systems in China and Vietnam, all data are strictly censored, thus there is not enough substantial evidence available for analysis. To get diverse perspectives into the changes to US – Vietnam political relations before and after the HD 981 incident, research skills including qualitative research; interviewing; analyzing; summarizing were employed. From my more than six years of working as reporter, I took my advantage of big network relations with political commentators, dissidents, economists, politicians like Pham Chi Lan, Truong Dinh Tuyen to conduct many interviews by emails, Skype calls to get various opinions. I also did careful research with the frequency of exchange of high ranking government visits between US – Vietnam, analyzing their statements and implications before and after HD 981 incident. How the statements from the US and Vietnam high ranking officials changed over time, under which political conditions, were carefully analyzed. I did thorough research with the studies and research papers from international political commentators specializing in Asian Pacific matters, especially US – Vietnam relations like Carl Thayer, Murray Hiebert, Phuong Nguyen, Mark E. Manyin. Last but not least, the statements and research papers by Vietnamese scholars and political commentators like Cu Huy Ha Vu, Pham Chi Dung, Pham Van Hai and many others were closely looked at.

Results

Since 2004, the Chinese economy experienced a new period of growth after many years of lagging behind, together with that is the statement of “peaceful development” by PRC Premier Wen Jiabao. During the same time, US ramped up for enhancing the political relation with Vietnam through many high ranking government official exchange visits, in which most notably was the visit of Prime Minister Phan Van Khai to Washington to meet former president George Bush in 2005 and secretary of defense Donald Rumsfeld, then they moved ahead to establish International Military Education and Training (IMET) agreement with Vietnam that same year. From 2012 to 2014, US and Vietnam kept cooperating in defense and security activities. With the current Prime Minister, since he gained the position in 2006, he and his allies have strongly shown the pro Western policies as well as the stronger stance inside Vietnamese Communist Party (CPV). Right after he came into Office, Vietnam joined many international organizations like WTO, then became non permanent member of UN Security Council in the 2008 – 2009 term. The Vietnamese side kept urging US counterparts to remove the ban on lethal weapons sales but US refused because the Vietnam’s poor improvement in dealing with human rights and political dissidents.

Since 2012 when China started to escalate its presence in the South China Sea by some provoking actions against regional countries like Vietnam or the Philippines, at the same period of time US though still harshly criticized Vietnam for human right records but exchange more high ranking visits with Vietnam, for example the visit by Secretary of State John Kerry, the Secretary of Defense Ashton Carter. US also took the chance when Vietnam chaired ASEAN to discuss actively about defense matters. The relation between US Vietnam was raised up to Comprehensive Partnership in 2013 in the visit of Vietnamese president Truong Tan Sang to the US. Despite that, US still set conditions for Vietnam in terms of human right improvement so that US would relax more on ban on lethal weapon and Vietnam’s entry into TPP.

During all those periods of time, the Prime Minister gave many speeches about democracy, law on demonstration, which are considered to be highly sensitive in Vietnam. It should be noted that the Prime Minister’s family members all get education in US, UK and his family business is closely related to some US billionaires, his daughter got married to one American Vietnamese billionaire, that means the relation between the Prime Minister’s family and the US has been very strong for a long time. However, even when the US – Vietnam relation was closer during those years, the reluctance from both sides was still very high, there were not many high ranking visits as well as no official statement from the US government about their intention with Vietnam’s one party communist regime. And inside Vietnamese government, the pro US side though stronger than before but still when there is dispute with China, the reactions were very weak.

But the incident of HD 981 changed the balance of power between pro China and pro US sides inside Vietnamese’ regime dramatically. It paved the way for the pro US side led by the Prime Minister to raise their positions. Right after the oil rig was dispatched into the South China Sea in May 2014, the Prime Minister gave a very strong speech showing resistance to Chinese actions to the whole Vietnamese people, then he went to Philippines and make harsh criticism against Chinese’s provocations in the South China Sea, denied China as a good neighbor. Thanks to the surging anti Chinese sentiment inside Vietnam, the position of the Prime Minister is strongly hardened despite his poor economic management since late 2006. The Prime Minister’s way of reaction is unprecedented for many decades when normally Vietnamese leaders would

react very softly against China. That happened because he got support from US. From the US side, US government officials stated opinions favorably for Vietnam, invited Vietnamese President Truong Tan Sang, Hanoi Party Committee Pham Quang Nghi, Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister Pham Binh Minh to US in just 4 months then removed partly the embargo on lethal weapon with Vietnam despite Vietnamese low improvement on human rights and plenty of criticism from many US policymakers.

From the analysis of Pham Chi Dung, the political dissident and commentator, Vietnamese policy makers have distanced themselves from the US for a long time, fearing that US would try to change the one party regime. With Vietnamese policymakers, the survival of the regime is of utmost importance because in their view, it is only under the one party regime that they can sustain the political stability. Before the HD 981 incident the US policymakers had never stated officially that they would not try to change the Vietnamese regime but after that, they have continuously stated that changing regime is not their purpose in interfering in Vietnam and China's island dispute. They have done this through many ways, by the statement of US ambassador in Vietnam Ted Odius, by the implicit message of US policymakers like John Kerry or Ashton Carter when they came to Vietnam and in July 2015, they have heightened it to the new level by welcoming Vietnam Communist Party Chief Nguyen Phu Trong to the US. (4) By this trip, they reassured Vietnamese policymakers that they only stepped in the regional dispute to keep necessary maritime stability and they do not carry the risk of changing regime to Vietnamese policymakers. But it is necessary to make clear that before the HD 981 incident, Vietnamese policymakers had never been so enthusiastic towards the US and the US had not made such a historic invitation for Vietnamese government. So it can be said that the HD 981 incident has changed the US – Vietnam relation dramatically.(5)

The US actually wanted to reinforce ties with Vietnam in order to contain Russia and to re-establish a navy base in Central Vietnam but they met much reluctance from the Vietnamese side because they were afraid of regime change. But as from the analysis of John Garnaut, the more provocative China becomes, the more China pushed Vietnam into US's hands. (6) For the future, Murray Hiebert, Phuong Nguyen and Gregory B. Poling believed that under Prime Minister Nguyen Tan Dung's power, Vietnam will give more concession in human rights and democracy in order to get more security protection from US. From inside Vietnam's communist regime, the side of Prime Minister is getting stronger than ever before. After the incident, the rate of Vietnamese in favor of US surged to 78%, this will benefit for the Prime Minister and his pro US side. From both external and internal factors, the political between US – Vietnam has seen unprecedented changes a lot thanks to HD 981.

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The link between inflation and inflation uncertainty: the empirical evidence from the Vietnamese economy

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The objective of this study is to examine the tradeoff between inflation and inflation uncertainty in Vietnam. Our empirical finding indicates that higher inflation leads higher inflation uncertainty. However, there is no empirical evidence in favor of the effect of inflation uncertainty on inflation in Vietnam. In addition, our study also reveals that the US inflation does not impact both the Vietnamese inflation and inflation uncertainty. On other hand, we find the positive effect of the Chinese inflation on the Vietnamese inflation. However, the Chinese inflation has temporarily negative effect on the Vietnamese inflation uncertainty. This finding captures the fact that the Vietnamese economy has closer relation with the Chinese economy than that with the US economy. Our empirical finding could be useful for the policy makers in Vietnam.

Keywords: Inflation, inflation uncertainty, the AR – EGARCH model,

Exploring the Roles of Social Networks Centrality in Indonesian Public Employees: Degree, Betweenness and Closeness

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Employees interact each other within the scope of organizations they belong to. Limited number of studies has identified the influence of employees' social interaction or so-called social networks in employees' work attitudes. Thus, this study is one of the first studies to investigate the relationship between social network properties and organizational behavior. First, this study explores the configurations of social network centrality specializing in degree centrality (in-degree and out-degree), betweenness centrality and closeness centrality (in-closeness and out-closeness) of four different types of ties. By taking one of the groups of networks in this study as the sample, the author digs into employees' informal relationships applying social network analysis, and explicates the structures of employees' relationships. Secondly, by engaging the whole social networks data in this study, the author examines the relationship between social network centrality and organizational commitment. The results of the study show that from twenty social networks centrality dimensions only seven of them that show statistically significant effect in organizational commitment although the influence is not really strong.

Keywords: social networks, network centrality, organizational commitment

The Impact of Remittances and the Tax Policy in Ghana: A Computable General Equilibrium Approach

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This paper presents a computable general equilibrium (CGE) framework to numerically examine the impact of remittances on economic growth, poverty reduction, and income inequality in Ghana. In the standard static CGE model, several different inputs in production such as skilled labor, unskilled labor, capital for agriculture, general capital, and land are explicitly considered, and heterogeneity of households in the rural and urban areas is also taken into account. It is often observed particularly in developing countries that income inequality becomes larger through the process of an economic expansion, and this paper tries to explore the best tax policy to achieve enhanced welfare with minimized income inequality in Ghana with its latest Input-Output table. Several simulation results show that an expansion of remittances would stimulate the Ghanaian economy, thus resulting in poverty being reduced. However, it also widens income inequality, since a relatively larger ratio of remittances is distributed to households in the urban areas, which are relatively richer than those in the rural areas. Then several tax policies are examined in order to reduce poverty (welfare enhancing) and income inequality at the same time in Ghana.

The Role of Mining Industry for Economic Development in Mongolia: An Input-Output Analysis

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This study explains the role of mining industry for economic development in Mongolia in the past decade by analyzing the structural changes in Mongolia and identifying its impact on other domestic industries. Based on input-output analysis, both demand-side and supply-side linkages of the mining sector with other domestic sectors are identified. The non-competitive import type input-output tables in 2000, 2005 and 2010 are used. The result found that its contribution has fallen significantly for the utilities and the accommodation and food service activities. On the other hand, its contribution has increased drastically for the mining related activities such as construction, wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles, transportation and storage. As the mining is a capital intensive industry, its demand from the manufacturing sector has risen dramatically; however its supply to the manufacturing has decreased substantially over the period.

Keywords: Input-Output analysis, structural change, mining

Cross-Cultural Interaction for Enhanced Motivation of Japanese Students: Lessons from a Short-Term Study Program in Sri Lanka

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Universities in Japan have been paying an increasing attention to the issue of “globalization”. The lack of students’ interest on other countries has been a widely-discussed topic. Tokyo Institute of Technology introduced a new program to encourage students for active international exposure by implementing short study visits to various countries, including Sri Lanka. The authors analyzed responses of the students to see how the Sri Lanka program had affected the attitudes of the participants relating to international activities such as studying or working abroad for a longer term. Short study abroad program in Sri Lanka shows a significant impact on the attitudes of students towards international exposure in certain aspects focused in this analysis. Even though the participants visited Sri Lanka for the first time in their life, frequent opportunities for the interaction with the Sri Lankan university students seem to have increased motivation of the students to go for cross-cultural exchange without hesitation. While Japanese students are known for their “shyness” or “the poor ability of English communication” in general, the experience of the Tokyo-Tech program for Sri Lanka shows that, if proper chances are provided for meaningful cross-cultural interaction, the “so-called” weaknesses of the Japanese students can be easily remedied.

Keywords: intercultural exchange, study abroad, global human resources

Effect of Pre-pregnancy Body Mass Index and Gestational Weight Gain on Birth Weight in a Teaching Hospital, Sri Lanka

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Pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) and gestational weight gain are commonly used indicators of maternal nutrition. Inadequate pregnancy weight gain and underweight are major maternal health problems in developing countries. This study aimed to describe the effects of pre-pregnancy BMI and gestational weight gain on neonatal birth weight. This retrospective study was performed in a teaching hospital in Sri Lanka from August to October 2014. The study sample consisted of 135 pregnant mothers and their full-term singleton neonates. Information on maternal weight, birth weight and sex was obtained from the pregnancy cards and bed head tickets. Maternal height was measured using a standard height scale. Inadequate, appropriate and excessive gestational weight gain was defined based on Institution of Medicine's 2009 guidelines. Statistical analysis was performed using Minitab statistical software, version 16. Of the total sample, 20% of the mothers were underweight, 62.2% were of normal weight, 15.6% were overweight, and 2.2% were obese. Only 34.8% of the mothers showed the recommended gestational weight gain at the end of full-term pregnancy. Neonatal birth weight was found to differ significantly among gestational weight gain categories ($p=0.002$) but not among pre-pregnancy BMI categories ($p=0.098$). For a favorable neonatal birth weight, it is important to achieve a desirable weight gain during pregnancy.

Keywords: Body mass index, Gestational weight gain, Birth weight

Introduction

Birth weight has been widely used as an indicator of perinatal health. Considerable differences in mean birth weights exist within populations and also between populations. The factors that determine the differences in birth weight within populations are not necessarily the same as those between populations. Therefore, there is a need to determine the nature of the factors that contribute to fetal growth and development before birth, both within and between populations. The nutritional status of women plays a crucial role in both maternal and fetal well-being. Women who have a good nutritional status at the time that they become pregnant are better able to meet the demands of pregnancy and have more successful pregnancy outcomes.

Two factors, pre-maternal body mass index (BMI) and weight gain during pregnancy, play important roles in determining the outcomes of pregnancy for both the mother and fetus (Choi et al. 2011). According to the international classification, there are four BMI categories: underweight, which is less than or equal to a BMI of 18.5 kg/m^2 ; normal, with a BMI of $18.5 - 24.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$; overweight, with BMI of $25 - 29.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$; and obese, which is greater than or equal to a BMI of 30 kg/m^2 (WHO). It has also been noted that the BMI cutoff points for Asian populations are different. A WHO expert consultation concluded that the proportion of the Asian population at high risk for type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease was substantial at BMIs

less than the existing WHO cutoff points for overweight ($=25 \text{ kg/m}^2$). However, the cutoff points for observed risk vary from 22 kg/m^2 to 25 kg/m^2 in different Asian populations. Therefore, the consultation agreed that the WHO BMI cutoff points should be retained as the international classification (WHO expert consultation, 2004). Short women and women who are thinner or heavier than normal at the time of conception are at increased risk for giving birth to babies of sub-optimal size for their age (WHO, 2003). The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists has recommended a gestational weight gain of 12.5-18 kg for underweight women, 11.5–16 kg for women of normal weight, 7-11 kg for overweight women and 5-9 kg for obese women (Institute of Medicine, 2009). Underweight mothers or those who gain less weight than recommended had a two times greater risk of giving birth to low birth weight (LBW) babies compared to women with a normal BMI (Al-Hinai et al. 2013). The impact of maternal BMI is considerable, and controlling optimal BMI could eliminate the association with LBW to a large extent (Anuranga et al. 2012). Excessive gestational weight gain has also been associated with both maternal and fetal adverse pregnancy outcomes and with delivery complications. Inadequate gestational weight gain is a significant problem in developing countries, while excessive weight gain during pregnancy is a major public health problem in developed countries.

However, the literature available on the association between gestational weight gain, according to the pre-pregnancy BMI, and its effect on the birth weight of Sri Lankan newborns has been scarce. This cross-sectional study aimed to describe the gestational weight gain patterns according to maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and their effects on neonatal birth weight.

Method

This research is the descriptive component of a cross-sectional study conducted at the Kurunegala Teaching Hospital in Sri Lanka from August to October 2014. Ethical approval of the study was obtained from the institutional ethical review committee of the Kurunegala Teaching Hospital, and permission to conduct the study was obtained from the director of the Kurunegala Teaching Hospital and the consultant obstetricians of the respective postnatal wards. Informed written consent was obtained from all of the mothers who participated in the study before starting the data collection. One hundred eighty systematically selected maternal neonatal units were included in the study. Mothers with psychiatric disorders, language barriers, or incomplete pregnancy cards and those who were not willing to participate were excluded from the study.

The maternal weight at the booking visit (usually approximately 8 to 10 weeks of gestation) was directly obtained from the mother's pregnancy card, and it was considered the pre-pregnancy weight. Maternal height was measured using a standard height scale during the mother's stay in the post-natal ward after delivery. BMI was determined based on pre-pregnancy weight and maternal height. The BMI of each mother was calculated using the formula of weight/height^2 . The women were categorized into four BMI categories according to the WHO international classification of BMI. The difference between the pre-pregnancy maternal weight and the weight at the last antenatal clinic visit (between 36 and 40 weeks of gestation) was considered as the gestational weight gain. Maternal weight at the last clinic visit was directly obtained from the pregnancy card of each mother. Inadequate, appropriate and excessive gestational weight gain, based on the BMI categories, was defined separately according to the Institute of Medicine (IOM) standards (Institute of Medicine, 2009). Data on neonatal birth weight and sex were obtained directly from the bed head ticket of each mother.

Statistical Analysis

All of the data were analyzed using Minitab statistical software, version 16. Descriptive statistics were expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation. All of the continuous variables were first assessed using numerical and graphical techniques, including scatter plots, to determine whether they met the distributional assumption of the statistical tests used to analyze them. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine the factors affecting neonatal birth weight. The statistical significance of different effects was tested at $p=0.05$. Tukey's significance different test was performed to determine the differences across the levels of fixed variables. Tukey's significance different effects were tested at $p=0.05$. Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the effects of gestational weight gain and pre-pregnancy BMI on neonatal birth weight.

Results

The total number of maternal-neonatal units recruited for the study was 180. Among them, 17 units were excluded from the analysis due to multiple pregnancies, and 28 units were excluded from the analysis due to preterm deliveries (< 37 weeks of gestation). The final sample consisted of 135 mothers and their full-term singleton neonates. Of the final sample, 27 (20.0%) mothers were underweight, while 84 (62.2%) mothers were normal weight at the time of booking visit. Among the 135 mothers, 17.8% delivered LBW babies at the end of full-term pregnancies.

Gestational weight gain pattern according to the pre-pregnancy BMI category

The mean gestational weight gain of the study sample was 10.92 (\pm 4.44) kg. Only 47 (34.81%) mothers showed the recommended gestational weight gain at the end of pregnancy (Table 1).

Table 1: Gestational weight gain pattern according to the pre-pregnancy BMI category

BMI category ¹	Gestational weight gain category ²			Total
	Within recommend ed level	Less than recommended level	Greater than recommende d level	
Underweight (≤ 18.5 kg/m ²) (n=27, 20.0%)	12 (44.44%)	14 (51.85%)	01 (3.7%)	27 (100.00%)
Normal (18.5-24.9 kg/m ²) (n=84, 62.2%)	28 (33.33%)	47 (55.95%)	09 (10.71%)	84 (100.00%)
Over weight (25-29.9 kg/m ²) (n=21, 15.6%)	06 (28.57%)	06 (28.57%)	09 (42.86%)	21 (100.00%)
Obese (≥ 30 kg/m ²) (n=03, 02.2%)	01 (33.33%)	01 (33.33%)	01 (33.33%)	03 (100.00%)
Total (n=135, 100.00%)	47 (34.81%)	68 (50.37%)	20 (14.81%)	135 (100.00%)

¹ is based on WHO international BMI cutoff points

² is based on IOM 2009 guidelines

Relationship between pre-pregnancy BMI and neonatal birth weight

The mean neonatal birth weight of the study sample was 2939.7 (\pm 532.7) g. Among the normal weight women (BMI 18.5-24.9 kg/m²), 80.9% delivered normal weight newborns at the end of pregnancy, while 77.8% of the underweight (BMI \leq 18.5 kg/m²) women delivered a normal weight newborn. The mean neonatal birth weight of the underweight mothers was significantly lower than that of the overweight mothers (p=0.007). Table 2 shows the frequencies, percentages and mean birth weights of each birth weight categories, based on maternal pre-pregnancy BMI.

Relationship between gestational weight gain and neonatal birth weight

Among the mothers who showed the recommended weight gain, 85.11% delivered a normal weight newborn. The mean birth weight of the babies whose mothers had the recommended weight gain was significantly greater than the mean birth weight of the babies whose mothers showed less than recommended weight gain (p=0.007) (Table 3). No significant difference was detected in gestational weight gain according to the sex of the newborn.

Relationships among pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain and neonatal birth weight

In two way analysis of variance for neonatal birth weight, a significant interaction between pre-pregnancy BMI category and gestational weight gain category was detected (p=0.04). Neonatal birth weight was found to differ significantly among gestational weight gain categories (p=0.002) but not among pre-pregnancy BMI categories (p=0.098). The following significant relationship was found among neonatal birth weight, gestational weight gain and maternal pre-pregnancy BMI in the recommended weight gain group (p=0.000, R² (adj) = 28.8%).

$$\text{Neonatal birth weight} = 1190 + 9.8 (\text{Gestational weight gain}) + 85.1 (\text{Pre-pregnancy BMI})$$

Table 2: Neonatal birth weight according to the pre-pregnancy BMI category

BMI Category ¹	Mean Birth Weight (\pm Standard Deviation) grams	Birth weight category			Total
		Low Birth Weight (<2500 g)	Normal Birth Weight (2500-4000 g)	Macrosomic (\geq 4000 g)	
Underweight (\leq 18.5 kg/m ²)	2713.0 \pm 308.1	06 (22.22%)	21 (77.78%)	00 (0.00%)	27 (100.00%)
Normal (18.5-24.9 kg/m ²)	2936.2 \pm 519.5	14 (16.67%)	68 (80.95%)	02 (2.38%)	84 (100.00%)
Overweight (25-29.9 kg/m ²)	3170.0 \pm 628.0	04 (19.05%)	16 (76.19%)	01 (4.76%)	21 (100.00%)
Obese (\geq 30 kg/m ²)	3467.0 \pm 987.0	00 (0.00%)	02 (66.67%)	01 (33.33%)	03 (100.00%)
Total (n=135, 100.00%)	2939.7 \pm 532.7	24 (17.78%)	107 (79.26%)	04 (2.96%)	135 (100.00%)

Table 3: Neonatal birth weight according to the gestational weight gain category

Gestational weight Gain category ²	Mean Birth Weight (\pm Standard Deviation) grams	Birth weight category			Total
		Low Birth Weight (<2500 g)	Normal Birth Weight (2500-4000 g)	Macroso mic (\geq 4000 g)	
Within recommended level	3093.6 \pm 560.1	04 (8.51%)	40 (85.11%)	03 (6.38%)	47 (100.00%)
Less than recommended level	2798.2 \pm 467.7	16 (23.53%)	51 (75.00%)	01 (1.47%)	68 (100.00%)
Greater than recommended level	3059.0 \pm 571.0	04 (20.00%)	16 (80.00%)	00 (0.00%)	20 (100.00%)
Total	2939.7 \pm 532.7	24 (17.78%)	107 (79.26%)	04 (2.96%)	135 (100.00%)

Discussion

The nutritional status of women plays a vital role in the well-being of both the mother and her developing fetus. Therefore, nutrition prior to, during and after pregnancy is very important for maternal, fetal and neonatal health. Pre-pregnancy BMI and gestational weight gain have been studied and have been found to have important impacts on the birth weight and future health of newborns (Yekta et al. 2006; Yazdanpanahi et al. 2008). These two factors reflect the pre-pregnancy and antenatal nutrition of the women.

This study aimed to examine the relationships among pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain and neonatal birth weight in a large teaching hospital in Sri Lanka. According to the WHO international BMI classification, the current study indicated that the majority had a normal BMI. However, the underweight category was also greater, compared to Western data (Tjepkema, 2005). Overweight and obese women were fewer compared to these data. This result showed better improvement in women's pre-pregnancy BMI than a study performed in Gampaha, Sri Lanka, which was found 30% of pregnant women were underweight, while 54% were of normal weight (Abeyseena and Jayawardana, 2011). Additionally, the current study revealed that the majority of the women (50.37%) gained less than the recommended weight gain during pregnancy. This result also showed little improvement compared to that shown by Abeyseena and Jayawardana (2011). However, it was also noted that Asian BMI cutoff points (unofficial) were different from Western figures (23 and greater for overweight, 27 and greater for obese) (WHO expert consultation, 2004).

The mean gestational weight gain was 10.92 (\pm 4.44) kg, and this figure is within the limits for overweight mothers' weight gain limit. It was 7.78 (\pm 2.72) kg and 12.94 (\pm 2.18) kg for the inadequate weight gain group and normal weight gain group, respectively. The mean gestational weight gain of the inadequate weight gain group was lower than the value observed for Sri Lankan women in general, which is 9.5 kg (Wickramanayake, 1998). Similar to BMI, there might also be differences in weight gain for Asian populations. Nevertheless, official BMI categories and weight gain data indicate that there were women with inadequate weight gain in the present study. This finding showed similarities to the findings in many developing countries, compared to developed countries.

A study performed in Sri Lanka in 2012 revealed that maternal BMI was a critical

determinant of birth weight (Anuranga et al. 2012). Several studies have reported that underweight women, as well as women with less-than-recommended gestational weight gain, were at greater risk of delivering LBW babies (Han et al. 2011; Frederick et al. 2008; Al-Hinai et al. 2013). Choi et al. (2011) revealed that pre-maternal BMI and weight gain during pregnancy played important roles in determining the outcomes of pregnancy for both the mother and fetus. In contrast, the current study revealed that the majority of underweight women and low weight gain women had babies of normal weight. However, among LBW babies, the majority had underweight or overweight mothers, and the mothers gained little weight. This finding might indicate other factors associated with weight gain during pregnancy and LBW deliveries, such as congenital abnormalities, maternal age, stress, etc. Nevertheless, it also revealed that neonatal birth weight was found to differ significantly among gestational weight gain categories ($p=0.002$), with significant interactions between pre-pregnancy BMI categories and gestational weight gain categories ($p=0.04$). As such, if the weight gain and pre-pregnancy BMI are low, there is an indication to predict a high risk of delivering a low birth weight baby.

Conclusion

This study showed a relationship among pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain and birth weight. Despite all of the maternal care interventions currently implemented in Sri Lanka, including the national Thripasha program, the majority of mothers achieved less than the recommended gestational weight gain at the end of full-term pregnancies. However, it was also indicated that Asian standards for cutoff values be used. For a favorable neonatal birth weight, it is important to achieve a desirable weight gain during pregnancy. Thus, we have provided insight into the necessity of the improvement of nutritional status and the need to monitor weight gain during pregnancy to be within recommended level. Further, we provided insight into the associations of other factors with having LBW babies.

Recommendation

The primary health care providers who care for pregnant mothers should consider women's BMI at the very first antenatal clinic visit, and it is important to discuss the appropriate weight gain measures and to conduct nutritional counseling periodically throughout the pregnancy. Individualized care is necessary for the management of underweight women who are gaining less than recommended weight during pregnancy. The possibility of congenital abnormalities, pregnancy complications and other adverse pregnancy outcomes should be understood with abnormal weight gain and BMI categories. This need also necessitates further studies in these directions to achieve better maternal and child health indicators in Sri Lanka.

Limitation

Information bias might have influenced the study due to the gathering of data from pregnancy cards and bed head tickets.

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A Green Solution for Japan from Sri Lanka ~ Lessons from the Pathola (Ceylon Gourd) Project in the Central Japan

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Pathola was introduced to Japan in 2011 from the Suzuka City. Early years of the project focused on conducting basic research to make sure that this vegetable can be successfully grown in Japan and, it can be cooked Japanese way. Pathola (renamed as “Ceylon Gourd”) soon became a study material for primary and secondary schools and, many schools started to grow Pathola in the school premises to be used as a new topic for science subject. During the recent years, Project showed different consequences. Experiments for processed food by using Ceylon Gourd received a higher attention. “Miso Paste”, crackers, ice cream, hamburger, dumpling, pickles etc., are some of the sample products developed by the project. It has received a higher attention recently for the effective use in the “Green-Curtains”. In addition to schools and the general public, leading business enterprises have started to use Ceylon Gourd for Green Curtains. Scientific data reveals that Pathola can be used for reducing sugar value in blood. It is important to note that a new image for Sri Lanka is emerging in Japan as the country of Ceylon Gourd. Lessons from this project can be transferred to Sri Lanka as well in the near future

Bio-ethanol Production from rice Straw for Sri Lanka: Environmental and economic assessment on suitable pre-treatment methods

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Bio-ethanol production from rice straw is an important process for Sri Lanka as a green energy alternative to minimize huge dependency on fossil fuels. High availability of rice straw as a waste in Sri Lanka ensures the stability of ethanol production industry. In this study, environmentally and economically suitable pre-treatment methods for producing bio-ethanol from rice straw for Sri Lanka have been identified. Two main pretreatment methods applied in Japan for ethanol production from rice straw; Hydrothermal Treatment and Alkaline Digestion are considered in this study. Environmental Impact Assessment and Economic assessment have been performed for ethanol production processes with different pre-treatment methods as four scenarios, considering ethanol production plants in Japan that use rice straw as main raw material. Commercially available SimaPro software, CML 2 baseline 2000: 2.05 version is used for the calculations to assess environmental impacts. Among four scenarios considered in this study; scenario four which is ethanol production from rice straw using hydrothermal treatment as pretreatment method with lignin recycling has been identified as the most suitable ethanol production method, considering both environmental and economical favorability for implementing in Sri Lanka. A discussion has been provided about suitability of four scenarios as guidance for decision makers.

Factors Affecting Mobile Internet Usage in Indonesia

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Recently mobile Internet becomes an important tool for Indonesian people. Mobile Internet has been growing rapidly and thereby changing how the way people live. There are some factors affecting mobile Internet usage in Indonesia. The research objective is to examine usage pattern of mobile Internet in Indonesia then interpret them into a data analysis, analyze then come into some conclusions. The data collection technique used in this study is the survey method. The same questionnaire was given to respondents directly. The result shows that mobile Internet application, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet affect satisfaction of Indonesian respondents. The mobile Internet applications, frequency of mobile Internet usage, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet simultaneously affect mobile Internet satisfaction. The result shows that frequency of mobile Internet does not significantly affect satisfaction.

Keywords: mobile Internet, m-commerce, e-business, mobile application, Indonesia

Introduction

Information and technology has been growing rapidly and thereby changing how the way people live. The most influential technologies recently are mobile communication technology and Internet. Access to the Internet via mobile cellular networks has also increasing the availability of 3G networks and enabled devices, including mobile handsets and data cards that allow users to access the Internet over the mobile cellular network using their computers (ITU, 2009).

In 2010 the Buzzcity report showed a significant growth in the mobile Internet, as users took advantage of cheaper data rates and much improved handsets (Buzzcity, 2011). According to Buzzcity (2011), Indonesia is the second biggest audience receiving three billion banners from advertisers. This is a sign that Indonesia is growing in the number of mobile Internet subscribers. The increasing number of mobile market in Indonesia leads to increasing the number ranking of Indonesia in Asia subscriber ranking. During 2008, Indonesia overtook Japan to become the region's third largest market with a total of 140.2m connections (ITU, 2009). The prediction of total number of mobile services subscribers increasing from 220 million in 2010 to 265 million in 2011 (Evans, 2011). From 2009 until June 2011 the subscriber base grew from 150 million to 250 million. The penetration had passed 100%, however the industry view was that there was still considerable potential for further growth in the market (Evans, 2011). People start to use the mobile Internet in their everyday life.

Business people or companies will be more aware of e-business and they have been started doing business by creating applications that enable them to serve consumers. For example some of news companies, such as Metro TV and CNN, provide apps to be used by their consumer. Mobile Internet users frequently use their device to access their favorites link to get information that they need such as news, maps, finance, train ticket, flight information and social networking.

Satisfaction of the mobile Internet users will be measured by overall value of the mobile Internet service as experienced by users and depends on whether the service satisfied users' needs and wants. The important variable that should be examined is the satisfaction because it will lead to understand more about the better service outcomes and higher user satisfaction.

Therefore, it will be interesting to examine factors affecting mobile Internet usage in Indonesia. In order to gain more insight about the mobile Internet usage in Indonesia, it needs to examine some factors affect mobile Internet usage in Indonesia. Some factors that will be examined in this research are mobile Internet apps, frequency of usage, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet.

Research Question

Previous research study is about the factors affecting behavior of Internet utilization by Kristiani (2006). Kristiani (2006) examined the Internet usage in Indonesia. Her study found that satisfaction is one of the significant variable affecting Internet usage behavior. The research examined Internet usage in general, but not specific in mobile Internet usage. At that time mobile Internet usage was not as popular as today. Today mobile Internet are more popular than before then encourage to research into a more specific question about factors affecting the usage satisfaction of mobile Internet usage in Indonesia. This research examines factors affecting the usage satisfaction of mobile Internet usage in Indonesia.

This study builds on the following research question: Do mobile Internet apps, frequency of mobile Internet usage, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet affect mobile Internet satisfaction in Indonesia?

Research Objective

The research objective is to examine usage pattern of mobile Internet in Indonesia then interpret them into a data analysis, analyze then come into some conclusions.

Research Contribution

The research contribution will give more insight about mobile technology usage particularly in mobile Internet usage factors in Indonesia. Contribution for the academic: (1) to develop more knowledge relating to e-business and m-business (2) to understand relation between independent variables relates to mobile Internet and users satisfaction.

This contribution will give information for the mobile Internet stakeholder. For example, mobile Internet provider will take into their consideration about their strategy in order to meet the customers need.

Literature Review

Mobile Internet

The mobile Internet is defined as the use of the Internet and wireless via mobile devices (Tsuja & Matsumoto, 2003). Mobiles are also commonly used to imply that the device has an "always on" connection to the Internet (Kalakota and Robinson, 2002). Mobile phones with the Internet connections are commonly called wireless, thus implying that the experience is based on a real-time live Internet connection via satellite, cellular, or radio transmitters (Kalakota and Robinson, 2002).

Mobile Internet can be used in various contexts, whereas fixed Internet accessed by personal computer (PC) is mostly used in predetermined environments. For example, because of its mobile and intimate connectivity, mobile Internet can be readily used everywhere. In contrast, the fixed Internet accessed has been used mostly in limited contexts such as in an office or home.

Users Satisfaction

Satisfaction is the customer's overall experience to date with a product or service provider (Johnson & Fornell, 1991). The overall satisfaction is the value of the mobile Internet service as experienced by users and depends on whether the service satisfied can fulfill the users' needs and satisfy the users' wants. The final aim should be the achievement of better service outcomes and higher user satisfaction, which on the other hand will be reflected in higher institutional reputation not only for direct users but also for the provider itself.

Mobile Internet Apps

Apps is an abbreviation for application. An app is a piece of software. It can run on the Internet, on computers, or on phones or other electronic devices (Karch, 2012). Recently, people using their mobile Internet devices to easily access to Internet, thus smartphones and tablets are rising in number of users.

Mobile Internet accesses are going beyond communication and entertainment. The growth of the importance of mobile Internet in everyday activities makes the applications are more widely used and more personalized for the users. The examples are online ticketing, maps, and Internet banking.

Hypothesis 1: Mobile Internet apps will positively affect satisfaction.

Frequency of Mobile Internet Usage

The Internet is a low cost standard of mobile Internet fee with fast interactivity that exhibits network externalities, moderate time, has a universal reach, acts as a distribution channel, and reduces information asymmetries between transacting parties (Afuah and Tucci, 2003). These properties impact upon the "5-Cs," that is, coordination, commerce, community, content, and communication (Afuah and Tucci, 2003).

Mobile Internet users also use Internet services to conduct e-commerce and m-commerce. Electronic commerce (e-commerce) can be described as the process of buying, selling, or exchanging products, services, and information via computer networks, including the Internet (Turban and King, 2003). Mobile commerce (m-commerce) is transactions and activities conducted in a wireless environment. M-commerce, also known as m-business, is basically any e-commerce or e-business done in a wireless environment, especially via the Internet. M-commerce not only activities in variation of Internet services and transactions, but it is also natural extension of e-business.

There are some Internet services that are likely preferred or frequently used by mobile Internet users, for example: social networking, downloading, games, e-mail, location, weather, news/sports news, shopping, education, reservation, banking/finance, chatting, community, reading, stock, health, family, and others. By accessing their favorite sites easy and quickly using mobile Internet people will feel satisfy. People will satisfy if they can frequently access Internet through their mobile Internet device.

Hypothesis 2: Frequency of mobile Internet usage will positively affect satisfaction.

Mobile Internet Access

Most Internet access will take place using small, wireless devices, providing “anytime, anywhere” access. More and more people will use mobile phones to access the Internet. Many forecasters, basing their predictions on the uptake of standard mobile telephones, suggest that in the near future most Internet access will take place using small, wireless devices, providing easy access (Buchanan *et al*, 2001). By using mobile Internet devices people will easier to access latest information and they tend to respond quickly trough their mobile devices. Today, mobile Internet providers in Indonesia improving their network infrastructure in order to maintain the quality of their Internet speed access services. Mobile Internet companies build their operation systems that support today consumer need. By building a good support operation system will enable consumer to customize their need through mobile Internet.

Hypothesis 3: Mobile Internet access will positively affect satisfaction.

Mobile Internet Cost

Mobile Internet cost related to monetary value means how satisfactory mobile Internet services are compared to cost, time or effort spent in using the mobile Internet (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Monetary value as an important factor cannot be neglected since users have to pay relatively high usage fee for mobile Internet services, while stationary Internet services often can be accessed free of charge (Lee et al, 2002). Costs of calling using mobile Internet cheaper than costs of using regular phone call communication. For example is by using Skype to communicate abroad will be cheaper than the cost of communication by regular phone and also the cost of regular SMS is more expensive than using email or messenger. Cost of mobile Internet by using cellular phones also cheaper than cost of Internet using personal computer that requires more kilobyte per second.

Hypothesis 4: Mobile Internet cost will positively affect satisfaction.

The growth of the importance of mobile Internet in everyday activities makes the applications are more widely used and more personalized for the users. A large number of applications exist to support mobile Internet users and provide personal service. This make Internet users easier and increasing their frequency of mobile Internet usage. Moreover that mobile Internet access more accessible every day and everywhere. At the same time some mobile Internet and telecommunication providers see this fact as the opportunity to gain more profit by competing with competitors and providing at the low prices. Based on some hypotheses explained above then one integration of four independent factors into one hypothesis as follow:

Hypothesis 5: Mobile Internet apps, frequency of mobile Internet usage, mobile Internet access and mobile Internet cost simultaneously affects users’ satisfaction.

Research Methods

Descriptive statistics will be used in this study. Descriptive statistics present quantitative descriptions and statistical computations describing either the characteristics of a sample or the relationship among variables in a sample (Babbie, 2004). The linear regression analyses will be conducted to identify the relationship between four independent variables and one dependent variable. This technique involves measuring the association/causality between two variables (independent and dependent). This technique provides the information that explains the

relationship between values as independent variable and satisfaction of mobile Internet as a dependent variable.

There is one research objective question that will be tested by the multiple regression analysis and overviewed by general mobile usage. Multiple regression analysis will be used to identify the relationship between value structures and overall satisfaction in each country. The linear regression analyses will be conducted to identify the relationship between four factors of mobile Internet usage and satisfaction. Multiple regressions are used in this study because there are four independent variables in this study.

Data Analysis

This chapter aims to analyze the data in order to find the factors that affecting mobile Internet usage in Indonesia. The data has been collected from the surveys conducted in some areas in Indonesia. 325 questionnaires were spread in Bali, Lombok and Yogyakarta. To purify the data, responses that were inconsistent with the requirements were excluded. After data refining, the number of effective respondents were 307.

Table 1 Multiple Regression Test

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.329	1.133		2.056	0.041
Application	0.088	0.031	0.159	2.870	0.004*
Frequency	-0.021	0.024	-0.050	-0.889	0.375
Access	0.328	0.049	0.357	6.757	0.000*
Cost	0.232	0.030	0.365	7.769	0.000*

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

b. *Sig at the 0.01 level

Table 1 shows signification column will be used to analyze the four hypotheses with 0.05 significant level. If the significant test result is less than 0.05, this means that independent variable is significantly affect dependent variable. If the significant test result is more than 0.05, this means that independent variable is not significantly affect the dependent variable.

Table 2 Anova

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1269.106	4	317.276	49.609	0.000 ^b
Residual	1931.435	302	6.395		
Total	3200.541	306			

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Cost, Application, Access, Frequency

In table 2 Anova output shows that F score is 49.609 and p value close to 0.00. Since p value $0.00 < 0.05$, this means that regression model with Application, Frequency, Access, and Cost as independent variables could predict Satisfaction.

Discussion, Conclusions and Limitations

Discussion

There are five hypotheses in this study that will be discussed. There are four hypotheses to test the mobile Internet usage factors for Indonesian respondents. There is one hypothesis to test the four mobile Internet usage variables simultaneously.

The results of the multiple regression analysis to test hypothesis 1 supported hypothesis 1. Mobile Internet apps will positively affect satisfaction. Consumers start to use applications to form habits that integrate Internet use into most basic everyday activities. Mobile Internet users will use apps directly by easily click and convenience. The most used of mobile Internet device is smartphones. Recently, people tend to use their apps through mobile devices to access quickly to favorites link for example apps for Facebook, Twitter, News, Google Maps, Yahoo Messenger, and Gtalk. Moreover, more and more web based business start to provide their customer by creating applications in order to give best service for their consumer.

The results of the multiple regression analysis to test hypothesis 2 does not support hypothesis 2. The hypothesis 2: Frequency of mobile Internet usage will positively affect satisfaction has been rejected. The result shows that frequency of mobile Internet use does not significantly affect the satisfaction. This result does not support some facts of mobile Internet frequency use. From the construct variable in the validity and reliability test shows significant value of each construct of frequency variable. In the frequency variable question asking about the frequency use which is separately the question about different favorite question preferences. This means that each respondent tends to have their own favorite frequency interest that they access. From nine questions for frequency variable, respondents answer different frequency use based on their favorite access. For example question number 8 and 9 asking about Internet banking and transaction, very little respondents use mobile Internet to make a transaction. In Indonesia there are still small mobile Internet users use their mobile Internet access to make a transaction. Therefore when four of variables regress simultaneously in the multiple regression analysis then frequency variable does not show significantly affect satisfaction compare to other variables.

The results of the multiple regression analysis to test hypothesis 3 supported hypothesis 3. The hypothesis 3 stated that: Mobile Internet access will positively affect satisfaction. The result aligns with Buchanan *et al* (2001) statement that mobile Internet providing easy access, anytime and anywhere access. By easy accessing mobile Internet every time and everywhere affect mobile Internet users' satisfaction. People feel easier to access latest information and they tend to respond quickly through their mobile devices by using mobile Internet devices.

Mobile phone with Internet access or mobile Internet access gives more significant value, not only utilize for communication and entertainment but also become embedding in everyday activities. People tend to use mobile Internet in order to help their activities more easy to access than to control it manually.

The output results to test the hypothesis 4 cost of mobile Internet variable shows that significant value is 0.000 less than 0.05. The hypothesis 4 stated that: Mobile Internet cost will positively affect satisfaction has been supported. From this result could be concluded that mobile Internet variable cost significantly affect the satisfaction of respondents positively. Mobile Internet cost related to monetary value means how satisfactory mobile Internet services are compared to cost, time or effort spent in using the mobile Internet (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Therefore it can be concluded that the cost variable is one of the important thing related to the mobile Internet service and provider.

The result of the ANOVA supported the hypothesis 5. The hypothesis 5 stated that: Mobile Internet apps, frequency of mobile Internet usage, mobile Internet access and mobile Internet cost simultaneously affects users satisfaction is supported.

Conclusions and Implications

This research focus on four factors that affecting mobile Internet usage. Its believe that these four factors affects mobile Internet satisfaction. From four factors variable there is only one factor does not significantly affect mobile Internet satisfaction. This research results give us more insight about mobile Internet usage pattern.

There is one research question to be discuss as follows: Do mobile Internet apps, frequency of mobile Internet usage, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet affect mobile Internet satisfaction in Indonesia?

The result shows that mobile Internet application, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet affect satisfaction of Indonesian respondents. The mobile Internet applications, frequency of mobile Internet usage, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet simultaneously affect mobile Internet satisfaction. The result shows that frequency of mobile Internet does not significantly affect satisfaction.

The results give us new insight that frequently use compare to other variables does not significantly affect the satisfaction of mobile Internet users. This means that three other variables should be getting more attention to be used to predict the satisfaction of mobile Internet used, such as: mobile Internet application, mobile Internet access and cost of mobile Internet.

Limitations

This study represents some limitations as follows. First, although this study verified four factors affecting mobile Internet usage satisfaction, there are other variables need to be analyzed. The other mobile Internet factors also might be affect the mobile Internet satisfaction such as mobile Internet provider companies could be used to predict the satisfaction of mobile Internet users satisfaction. Thus, for the future research necessary to prove causal relationship with other factors such as mobile Internet provider companies. Second, this study limited to only in some areas in Bali, Lombok, and Yogyakarta. Therefore, it would be recommended to extend this study to other geographical area. Third, researcher could use other methods of statistics tools such as SEM, since in this research multiple regression analysis assumes that every independent variable can not affect each other, while in fact it is very possible that each variable for independent variable can affect each others.

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Political impact of Eurasian Economic Union on Kyrgyzstan

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What will be the political impact of Kyrgyzstan's joining the Eurasian Economic Union (EEU)? Since 2011 Kyrgyzstan has declared its willingness to become a part of Eurasian integration project led by Russia. The pros and cons have been widely discussed at academic and public levels in Kyrgyzstan. One could expect that by May 2015 Kyrgyzstan has come prepared to enjoy fully opportunities offered by EEU and manage risks. Kyrgyz authorities have been depicting EEU as the only integration project without alternatives pointing to economic benefits and prospects that it offers. A close look reveals that political and cultural implications of Kyrgyzstan's joining the EEU have been left without extensive consideration and public debate. While the concentration on economic aspects has been needed and timely exercise in the short and medium turn, the paper argues that a further deliberate silencing of political aspects is counter-productive in the long run. Politically and culturally, any integration project impacts the fundamentals of state and society fabric such as sovereignty, governance and identity. Theoretically, the study builds on regionalism and international relations theories. Materials include scholarly articles and policy papers, local newspapers and expert interviews.

Zebrafish embryo as an alternative for laboratory animals in toxicological assays in Sri Lanka: a swot analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats)

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Toxicological Assays are necessary to understand the interaction of chemical substances with biological systems to prevent its harmful exposure levels. In order to evaluate the toxic limits and its impacts on organ systems, testing on live animals has been widely practiced. Based on the 3R concept (refinement, reduction and replacement), fish embryo toxicity testing (FET) is used as an alternative method in many countries. Since it is still a novel technique in Sri Lanka which is only available in Uva Wellassa University at present, a SWOT (strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis was carried out to determine its suitability as an alternative for laboratory animals in toxicity testing. Increase sample number due to high fecundity, transparency of developmental stages, rapid development, smaller size, penetrability to chemicals, vast database and availability of variety of strains are major strengths found in using zebrafish embryo as an alternative model for toxicity. Compared to other mammalian models, zebrafish are taxonomically distant and physiologically different to human. Need of extra care in water quality is also a weakness using zebrafish embryos. Fewer ethical restrictions against fish embryos encourage more research and ability to study gene expression and teratogenicity are some opportunities of using zebrafish embryos. Interference of chemicals due to the presence of chorion, appearance of recessive genes due to inbreeding and difficulty of keeping sterile conditions are considered as threats in this method. Considering the SWOT analysis, zebrafish embryo toxicity test can be applied as an economical and reliable method to replace the use of laboratory animals in toxicological assays in Sri Lanka.

Keywords: Zebrafish, Toxicity, Laboratory animal, SWOT analysis

Introduction

The environmental toxicity (ecotoxicity), food and chemical toxicity are becoming major concerns due to the urbanization and advancement of science. Toxicity tests are frequently carried out to determine the degree of damage which chemical substances can cause on organisms, particularly on human health. Studying the interaction of chemical substances with the animal tissues which alter normal process and to predict safe exposure levels are the fundamentals of toxicology (SOT 1999). Therefore toxicity testing is carried out all over the world to evaluate, chemicals used in household (Rotsidou & Scrimshaw 2015) medicines (Parasuraman 2011), foods (Neltner et al. 2013), environment (Kramer et al. 2009) and nanoparticles (Tiede et al. 2008, Rodriguez et al. 2013).

Implementation of legislations on risk assessment of agro-chemicals (pesticides, biocides) and pharmaceuticals increase the number of animals used in experiments and toxicity testing. According to the study by Taylor and colleagues, the estimate value of laboratory animals killed per year ranges from 28-100 million from 142 countries in 2008; But due to lack

of information on animals sacrificed to obtain tissues, disposal of genetically modified strains and the surplus animals bred in laboratories the above value is lower than the actual number of laboratory animal deaths (Taylor et al. 2008).

The animal ethics committees and welfare organizations urge the practice of 3Rs (Replacement, Reduction and Refinement) concept on animal testing (Balls 2010). According to the 3Rs concept first described by Russel and Burch 1959, finding an alternative for laboratory animals became a major concern and it causes huge impact on toxicity testing protocols. In 2005, Japan has amended the law for the "Humane Treatment and Management" stipulating 3R principle and formulated detailed government guidelines. Their ultimate decision on animals in experiments was to establish animal welfare by self-control rather than legislations (Shoji 2007).

In Sri Lanka the main legislation on animal welfare is called the "Prevention of cruelty to animals ordinance" no 13 of 1907 and the latest amendment was in 1955, act no 22. It has stated the penalties for the animal killing, suffering and pain but lacking information on animals used in scientific research. Therefore many institutes developed their own guidelines for ethics review on research involving animal experiments. The animal ethics committees review research proposals strictly on the pain and discomfort, anaesthesia, animal housing, transportation, post research procedures and euthanasia (Dissanayake et al. 2009).

Many researchers are discouraged to conduct experiment on laboratory animals due to ethical and religious constraints. Therefore scientists are developing alternative methods continuously and embryo testing became popular over decades. In toxicological experiments fish embryos are used as a model resembling the biological cell/s (Strahle et al. 2012). Among fish models, zebrafish became popular particularly in genetic, embryonic, cancer and pharmaceutical research.

Zebrafish have been known widely in molecular genetics and developmental biology (Hill et al 2005). It is considered as a suitable model organism for vertebrate gene expression studies due to the presence of tissue types similar to human except breast, prostate and lung (Spitsbergen et al 2007). However a study by Ali and co-workers found that the prediction of toxicity using zebrafish embryo varies with the individual compounds and their class (Ali et al., 2011).

In Germany, fish embryo toxicity testing is mandatory for surveillance of sewage since 2005. Provision of the fish acute toxicity data is mandatory for certain substances (listed in the annexes to European Union Council Directive 67/548/EEC) to determine environmental risk and classification of the hazard in European Union (Braunbeck and Lammer 2006). The usage of fish embryo toxicity test is increased with the establishment of standard protocols and increase availability of data.

Laboratory animal testing has been continuing for various toxicological studies in Sri Lanka. Mice are the mostly used species in these experiments. Rats, guinea pigs, hamsters, rabbits and sheeps for blood collection are available at Medical Research Institute of Sri Lanka. New Zealand white rabbit and mouse colonies from the Institute of Cancer Research are maintained as out-bred colonies while mouse types such as C57 B1, Balb/C and C3H are maintained as in-bred colonies. According to the current pricing, unused mice, rat, guinea pig and hamster cost about 20, 75, 85 and 75 Sri Lankan rupees (SLR) respectively (www.mri.gov.lk). Therefore in order to do animal experiment, it cost a lot of money for the animals and the infra-structure for animal housing which is a huge burden for the researchers in Sri Lanka.

Comparatively, a pair of zebrafish cost only 35 SLR and they produce around 200 - 300 eggs per day and repeat every 4-5 days time (Hill et al. 2005). This can cause a huge impact on research and drastically reduce the number of laboratory animals used in research. In Sri Lanka, zebrafish research facility was established at Uva Wellassa University belongs to the Department of Animal Science in 2014. It is the only available zebrafish facility at present and contributed many publications in the field of toxicology.

Since zebrafish embryo toxicity test is newly introduced to Sri Lanka, it has a huge capacity of expansion in many fields. Therefore this strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis was carried out to determine the applicability of FET as an alternative for laboratory animal use for toxicity studies in Sri Lanka.

Methodology

A SWOT analysis was performed concerning two sectors. The first one was to determine the suitability of the zebrafish embryo model as an alternative for the use of laboratory animals in toxicity testing. The second sector of consideration was to determine the feasibility of the application of FET in Sri Lanka. In order to achieve the objectives, we have performed a SWOT analysis based on the facts available both in literature and personal communication.

Results and discussion

i) SWOT analysis of using zebrafish embryo as a model for toxicity testing

Strengths: The zebrafish are very small maximum around 2 - 4 cm long. Therefore it needs a small space / tank to keep the breeding pairs. Requirement of smaller space and ability to stock number of fish in a single tank reduce the husbandry costs. Handling zebrafish does not need special training and the ease of handling is strength of using zebrafish as an animal model. Zebrafish can lay a large number of eggs (~ 200) per fish per day and this high fecundity helps to increase the sample number or replicates which ultimately gives high specificity for the experiment results. It is strength of using zebrafish embryo is the need of fewer chemicals for the experiment and reduction of the wastage by preventing the discharge of large amounts of chemicals used in research.

In experiments the time is very limited and the rapid development of zebrafish embryo is a huge strength when compared to other laboratory animals. Zebrafish embryo develops within 72 hours and it is transparent during the embryonic stage. That helps to observe the developmental stages and impacts of the chemicals on embryonic stages. In other mammals it is not possible to observe embryonic changes alive. Therefore zebrafish eggs provide a live demonstration of the teratogenic effects of toxins. Most of the toxicity tests done for human health and the zebrafish have certain genetic similarity with the human. It is easier to manipulate the genes of zebrafish egg and can be used in gene expression studies as well.

Weaknesses: The zebrafish genome is more complex than mammals and due to the gene duplication; it is a disadvantage to be used in gene expression studies. On the other and it is has to be observed very carefully to collect the eggs at the right time because if delayed the initial developmental stages, it can affect the sensitivity of the test. Another weakness in zebrafish model is the phenotypic variability compared to mammalian embryo. When the eggs expose to

toxins or diseases the pathological changes of zebrafish are not well established, which can lead to misinterpretation of results.

Opportunities: The FET method can be applied not only on toxicological studies but also on ecological, drug discovery, cell culture and perhaps stem cell research. The ability to synthesize genetically modified strains can provide more details on toxic effects on zebrafish gene expression. With the development of new technology, more advanced research can be done using FET as a model.

Threats: When the zebrafish embryo hatched and fingerling becomes to feeding stage, ethical approval is necessary. Therefore many research going on to use non-animal models or computational models for research. Certain countries use their own fish species instead of zebrafish for example, Japanese Medaka.

Though there are both advantages and disadvantages over using zebrafish embryo as an alternative to animal model, still it is commonly used for many experiment purposes all over the world.

ii) SWOT analysis on the application of fish embryo toxicity test in Sri Lanka

Strengths: Sri Lanka is a tropical country of which zebrafish is a native species. The optimum environmental conditions for zebrafish breeding and rearing saved the money to be spent on more sophisticated facilities need to be provided for animal houses. Wild type zebrafish is available particularly as an ornamental fish and in-bred fish can be obtained easily from the already established facility at Uva Wellassa University (UWU). It is strength that the research done at local facility showed promising results which indicates its suitability for further studies. Relatively low cost on initial establishment and maintenance makes it possible to establish in other research institutes and universities in Sri Lanka. Since many researchers have to wait long time to get ethical approval, using FET can start research right away saving lot of time.

Weaknesses: Though zebrafish eggs are readily available, lack of advance technology for genetic engineering is a disadvantage. Since many scientists are not aware of the FET, it is important to conduct more seminars and workshops to train researchers in Sri Lanka. The fish embryo multiplies rapidly and it is a weakness when transporting embryos to long distance laboratories and urge the need of developing more breeding units in different parts of the country. The maintenance of water quality is critical for the survival of embryos and adult fish and many scientists are lacking the knowledge of fish management practices.

Opportunities: Since FET is available only in UWU, it is a great opportunity for other institutes and universities to build collaborative research using zebrafish embryo in replacement of laboratory animals. In order to disseminate knowledge more workshops can be organized together with scientific associations and can build up a platform to share experiences. At UWU the heavy metal toxicity levels were determined by using FET and it will be a great opportunity to use it as a cheap method of analyzing water quality. Finally the FET can replace the use of many laboratory animals and use as a suitable model with higher specificity in toxicity studies.

Threats: Most of the researchers in Sri Lanka are not familiar with the FET and it will take time for them to get used to it. Also since it is not a mammalian model, some researchers might doubt the reliability when applying it on human especially for drug toxicity testing. Lack of advanced technology is a threat to develop new strains and perform high standard research in Sri Lanka. Mixing of strains and introducing diseases via water or feed can be a threat to destroy the fish facility. But proper management and training can avoid such incidence.

Table 01: Summary of the SWOT analysis on the application of fish embryo toxicity test in Sri Lanka

Strengths	Weaknesses
Zebrafish is native to Sri Lanka	Lack of technology for advance molecular tests
Favorable environmental conditions	Lack of awareness about FET
Availability of wild type zebrafish	Difficulty of arresting embryonic development during transportation
Already established laboratory facility	Difficulty to use diluted samples directly
Successful local research and publications	Need to pay more attention on water quality and disease prevention
Low cost and ease of constructing a zebrafish facility	
No need to wait for ethical approval	
Opportunities	Threats
Building collaborations with both local and international level	Difficulty to change the mind-set of local researchers
Conduct training programs to disseminate knowledge	Need of advance techniques to develop new strains
Establish standards for water quality testing	Improper management will lead to difficulties of maintaining the zebrafish facility
Use as an alternative for lab animals used in toxicity studies	

Based on the SWOT analysis it was clear that zebrafish embryo test is suitable for the conditions in Sri Lanka but due to lack of awareness it is not yet popular. If the research institutes and universities build more collaboration and resource sharing, the zebrafish research facilities can be build in many institutes allowing many scientists to utilize it. That will reduce the use of large number of laboratory animals in toxicity studies in Sri Lanka.

Conclusion

Zebrafish embryo toxicity test is an economical and reliable method for toxicity testing which is easily applicable to replace laboratory animals on research in Sri Lanka.

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Education-Labour Productivity Nexus in Formal and Informal Sectors in Sri Lanka: An Exploratory Analysis

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This study evaluates the effect of human capital, measured by the level of education, on labour productivity in the Sri Lankan economy, at the national and sectoral levels, using a production function model which relates the level of output to labour, human capital, physical capital and natural capital. The model is estimated for the national economy and the three sectors of agriculture, industry and services, using firm level annual time series data from 1991 to 2009. The estimated results reveal that individuals with general education up to year ten are positively contributing to productivity improvement in all the three formal sectors, except the service sector, and also in the informal sector. The estimated results also show that participation of labour in the informal sector decreases as the level of educational attainment increases. Overall, this study, which is first of its kind for Sri Lanka, finds a quantifiable positive association between education and productivity in the formal sector. The impact of educational attainment on informal sector is different. The estimated results show that higher the level of educational attainment lowers the engagement of workers in the information activities. The inverse relationship between the level of education and informal sector activity may lead to reduce the productivity level in informal sector.

Keywords: Education, Human Capital, Productivity, Formal and Informal sector, Sri Lanka

1. Introduction

Literature on the nexus between education and economic growth is voluminous. Barro and Lee (2001); Nelson and Phelps (1966) have argued that educated individuals happened to be good innovators, and that education accelerates the progression of technological diffusion, which leads to a higher economic growth. The authors emphasize that human capital is mainly gained through education and furthermore, consider health as a key determinant of economic progress too. It is also worthwhile highlighting another link between education and growth by Acemoglu (1988, p.1055), who argues that “A high proportion of skilled workers in the labour force implies a large market size for skill-complementary technologies, and encourages faster upgrading of the productivity of skilled workers. As a result, an increase in the supply of skills reduces the skill premium in the short run, but then it induces skill-biased technical change and increases the skill premium, possibly even above its initial value”. Drawing on the above cited seminal works, there are two main approaches exploring the link between education and economics growth. One approach examines the link between education and economic growth using the earning function, while the other approach concerns using the productivity aspect.

For example, studies with empirical evidence that support the positive link between education and economic growth, arguing that higher educational attainment have higher earnings include Barro (2001) and (2013), Becker (1962), Hanushek and Kimko (2000), Hanushek and

Woessmann (2007), Krueger and Lindahl (2001), Nelson and Phelps (1966), and Yoshida and Hayami (1999). On the other hand, Caselli & Ciccone (2013) have argued that there is a strong positive correlation between higher education and higher labour productivity, as large number of skilled workers would have greater ability to absorb advanced technology to achieve higher economic growth. What is interesting is the study by Brunello & Comi (2004), in which they have combined the two approaches. They have found through empirical evidence that have difference in earnings growth by education higher in countries that have faster labour productivity.

Sri Lanka has achieved comparatively higher social developments such as high life expectancy and literacy (95.8 per cent), with good educational attainment in terms of the level in net primary school enrolment (97.5 per cent) and completion (99.6 per cent) than many other developing countries by 2006 (Aturupane, (2009); and Tilakaratna et al., (2008). The World Bank (2011) has identified Sri Lanka as “one of the better performers among developing countries, with an adult literacy rate above the expected value for its level of per capita income”. These positive developments in the past, together with recent initiatives provide the required groundwork for the knowledge based economic and social development which the country is targeting to reach (CBSL, 2014, p. 95).

Despite all these positive developments in the education sector in Sri Lanka, only an inadequate number of studies have tried to quantify the impact of educational attainment on the country’s economic growth. For example, Aturupane (2008) shows that families with higher educational attainment are in a better position to manage smaller family size paving the way to have higher income share among family members than larger family size; and educated individuals have potentials to manage their assets to yield enabling them to enjoy a steady flow of income over their life-cycle. There are also limited publication at a more disaggregated level of analysis (Tilakaratna et al., 2008, p. 3). Thus, it is difficult to conclude consistently that the sector has really contributed to economic growth of the country. Most importantly, these Sri Lankan studies and most of the above cited studies in the literature have used data from the formal sector to examine the link between education and economic growth. But, as in many developing countries, sixty two per cent of employed population in Sri Lanka is engaged in informal sector activities. Therefore, it is vital for policy makers of Sri Lanka to understand how the level of education affects economic activities of the informal sector.

Further, there are no studies that have empirically examined the link between education and labour productivity in Sri Lanka. Therefore, it is in this context, the objective of this paper is to analyse at the national and sectoral levels how the level of education affects the distribution of formal and informal sector labour productivity.

The paper is organised as follows. Following this introduction, Section 2 offers a literature review on theory and empirical evidence on the nexus between education and productivity. Section 3 provides an overview of education and productivity in Sri Lanka. Section 4 presents a discussion on the data, models and empirical results. In the final section some inferences are drawn as they pertain to the Sri Lankan policy process.

2. Education and Productivity: A Brief Survey of Theory and Empirical Evidence

Growth theory literature suggests that economic growth of a country can be explained by labour, physical capital, human capital, natural capital and technology. The ability to produce can be further enhanced either by increasing productivity which is measured as output per worker (Y/L) or by increasing resources (inputs) endowment. The following production function explains the link between output and inputs:

$$Y = A F(L, K, H, N) \quad (1)$$

Where,

Y = Real GDP or quantity of output produced

A= Level of technology, A multiplies the function F (.), so improvements in technology allow more output (Y) to be produced from any given combination of inputs

F = a function that shows how inputs are combined to produce output

L = Quantity of labour

K= Physical capital

H = Human capital

N = Natural capital

If we multiply each input by $1/L$, then output is multiplied by $1/L$:

$$\frac{Y}{L} = A F \left(1, \frac{K}{L}, \frac{H}{L}, \frac{N}{L} \right) \quad (2)$$

Now the question how does education affect growth? Growth is a vital component of development. Equation (2) shows that productivity or output per worker depends on: (a) the level of technology, (b) physical capital per worker, (c) human capital per worker and (d) natural resources per worker. Education may be through school or university teaching and research or any other means that affect technology and other three inputs variables. With this theoretical understanding, an attempt will be made in the rest of this section, to review some empirical evidence to explore the exact link between education and economic growth.

In an early study Krueger (1968), investigated the contribution of human capital in explaining growth difference between the US and the less-developed countries¹. This empirical study included years of school, age distribution and urban-rural distribution of population as explanatory variables to measure the human capital. Among the three variables, years of school are the best proxy variable which captures the investment in human capital. The study concluded that “the difference in human resources between the United States and the less-developed countries accounts for more of the difference in per capita income than all other factors combined” (p. 658).

Knight and Sabot (1987) have undertaken another study in Kenya and Tanzania taking similar micro level data on the educational attainment of workers and on their cognitive skills and

¹Interest readers may find a good collections of early papers on education and economic development in Anderson, Arold C. and Bowman, Mary Jean, (ed.), *Education and Economic Development* published by Aldine Publishing Company (Chicago) in 1965.

reasoning abilities. Based on the estimates, the authors found “the positive effect of secondary education on cognitive skills and the positive effect of cognitive skills on earnings” (Knight and Sabot, p. 212). The positive link between education and earnings supports that investment in human capital increases the productivity levels of worker.

The OECD (2009) takes great effort in the development and analysis of quantitative, internationally comparable data on education of OECD countries which provides a comparative perspective for policy makers and general public of their own quality of education. The report further highlights the importance of investment on education for the future, for individuals, economies and societies at large. Based on the data for OECD countries, the report argues that “the net public return from an investment in tertiary education exceeds US\$50,000 on average for a student” (p. 13). As the figure for net public return suggests, education can be regarded as one of the key sources of productivity and hence, higher living standards of individuals and societies as well.

A study by Earle (2010) offers evidence on the nexus of tertiary education, skills and productivity in New Zealand. The percentage of employed citizens with a bachelor degree or higher qualification increased to 21 per cent in 2008 from 10 per cent in 1992. This study validates that the high levels of qualifications in the labour force have facilitated to improve the quality of labour and labour productivity growth. It is also important to mention that the country ranks very high for its achievement in higher education among the OECD countries.

Razzak and Timmins (2007) attempt to quantify the effect of educational qualification on GDP per capita taking annual data for the period from 1986 to 2005 for 7 industries in New Zealand. They have considered labour force with four levels of education, i.e. labour with no qualification, high school, vocational and university with an objective to quantify the effect of educational level on GDP per capita income and social rate of return. The estimated model provides information on the short-run and long-run returns of vocational and university level qualifications. The short-run gain to vocational level education is 2.0-2.6 per cent, compared with 26.6-44.3 per cent to a university level education. The long-run yield to vocational level education is 6.0-8.2 per cent, compared with 84.2-137.4 per cent to university level education. The study further finds “that an increase in the share of university-qualified workers in employment is highly positively correlated with average GDP per person, thus the whole economy benefits from increasing the share of university qualified workers” (Razzak and Timmins, p. 4).

Barro and Lee (2001) identify education as a critical determinant of economic growth. Educational attainment, according to them, facilitates the process of generating more and more skilled and productive workers. Educated labour force can absorb advanced technologies and hence can improve productivity and growth of a country. Barro (2001) attempts to quantify the impact of education on growth using a panel data for 100 countries from 1965 to 1995. The author finds a positive link between the growth and the starting level of average years of school attainment of adult males at the secondary and higher levels. However, most of the studies in the literature have examined the link between education and economic growth using data from formal labour market only. Such analyses involving the informal labour markets are very scarce.

3. Education and Productivity in Sri Lanka: An Overview

Sri Lankan governments, since independence, have paid attention to human resource development by making education accessible both geographically and financially by a well-designed “free education system” up to university level with the policy reforms by C. W. W. Kannagara in 1945 (CBSL, 1998). Attempt and agreement to implement compulsory education in Sri Lanka goes back to the recommendations of the ‘Elementary Education Commission in 1905 and subsequent governments which came to power in 1931 and 1936 assumed much more responsibility for provision of education (Alailima, 1997).

Being a welfare state, the elected governments even in the post independent Sri Lanka have invested a considerable amount of government resources on education and health in an attempt to uplift the population in terms of health and education to create a skilled work force in the long run. It is a strategic approach for the long term development of the country. Sri Lankan welfare policy was mainly influenced by the interventionist modifications of Britain during the first half of the nineteenth century as Sri Lankan policy making elites were highly influenced and converted by the British modifications of Fabian Society established in 1884 (Alailima, 1997). As a result of these strong commitments by the elite class and also political parties, the entire education sector showed a drastic expansion in the 1950s and 1960s.

Table I on General Education Data in Sri Lanka is about here

Table I reveals the expansion of the general education system in Sri Lanka from 1948 to 2012. The number of students in government schools increased from 1,349 thousand in 1950 to 4,187 thousand in 2012, showing 1.7 per cent annual growth, while university students increased to 69,879 from 2,036 for the same period, showing 5.7 per cent annual growth. Similarly, the number of school teachers and university faculty members have increased significantly as well. In 1950, the number of teachers were 38,086 and the number elevated to 244,988 in 2012, 2.7 per cent annual (see table 1). Increasing trends of government teachers have reduced the student–teacher ratio from 36 in 1948 to 18 in 2012. This ration is commendable when compared with other developing countries, but bit below the developed countries figure of 10:1, which is the internationally accepted standard level. With regard to the number of government schools and universities, one can see similar development. The number schools have increased by three times during the last six decades or so. In 1950, the country had only 3,091 schools, but the number has gone up to 9,931 in 2012. In recent years some schools which were functioning properly were closed down.

Moreover, several other important policies have been implemented. The landmark events in the evolution of the Sri Lankan education policy reforms include: mid-day meal programme in 1950, compulsory attendance of school of age group of 6-14 years in 1951, scholarship programme for the talented students in 1952, rationalizing the school system in 1962, free provisions of school text books in 1980, college education to provide training qualifications for teachers in 1987, and provision of free uniforms in 1993 (CBSL, 1998). Moreover, in 1972, a new education curricula was introduced aiming to enhance technical skills at an early school age (Aturupane, 2004).

The Sri Lankan education sector has undergone significant improvements during the year 2012 by creating possibilities to meet the demands of the labour market (CBSL, 2012).The

modifications include adjustments in the higher education system and technical and vocational education sectors, transforming 1,000 secondary schools and about 5,000 schools to ensure the achievement under flagship programme, reconstruction of 139 schools, rehabilitation and opening up of the 348 schools in the war torn areas to provide equal opportunity to access free education, and expansion of computer facilities and IT education are noteworthy. Steps have been taken to equip fresh graduate to meet the challenging market requirements by providing innovative strategies and tools of education.

Government expenditure on education and health as a percentage of GDP are given in figure 1. The average expenditure on education and health is 3 per cent and 1.7 per cent for the period 1950-2012, respectively. Governments have allocated more than 3 per cent on education during the period 1956-1973 and the figure peaked at 5.2 per cent in 1972. Even after 1973, respective governments have managed to maintain the allocation between 2-3 per cent (with more than 3 per cent for a few years). This is quite commendable taking into consideration the extensive funds required by the government to wage the prolonged conflict during 1983-2009. The allocation for education and health also show a declining trend since 2006 and the amount for education was 1.8 per cent in 2012, the lowest since 1950 (see Figure 1). The major share of fiscal allocation for education goes to general education rather than higher education. If policy makers need Sri Lanka to be a knowledge hub in Asia, this falling tendency of funds allocation needs to be reversed sooner than later.

Figure 1: Government Expenditure on Education (E) and Health (H) a Percentage of GDP (1950-2012) is about here

A comparative picture of government expenditure on education by selected countries and group of countries is given below in the Figure 2. Sri Lanka allocates the least amount among the listed countries, apart from Bangladesh. Even though the country used to spend relatively higher share in the 1950s and 1960s, funds allocation declined in the later decades due to unfavourable economic conditions. The average figure of 4 per cent for other developing countries, together with Malaysia and Thailand, is well above that of Sri Lanka. It is worth highlighting that “countries such as South Korea, Malaysia and Thailand, which act as policy role models for Sri Lankan decision makers, spend between 15% and 28% of public expenditures on education” (Aturupane, 2009, p. 43).

Figure 2: Education Expenditure as % of GDP: Sri Lanka Compared with Selected Countries Is about here

Main challenges of present education system in Sri Lanka:

Even though there are many positive developments in the education sector, Sri Lanka still faces some challenges. Large numbers of rural schools lack both human and physical resources. There were several attempts to recruit new teachers to rural areas and increase the number of qualified teachers in the areas of English, Mathematics and Science subjects. Another proposal is to recruit at least one qualified teacher in student counselling to treat psychological issues (Tilakaratna et al., 2008).

Formal education is an important factor in transforming society and social changes. In the Sri Lankan context, the plantation sector is given less opportunities for attaining secondary and higher education in comparison to urban and rural sectors during both prior and post-independence eras. (Sandarasegaram & Karunanithy, 2009). It is vital to emphasise the importance of policy amendment to correct the discrimination of the plantation sector in Sri Lanka to attain education. The authors mentioned above critically argue in favour of the positive effects of the expansion of education system into the private sector, as State alone cannot discourse the high demand for higher education system. Furthermore, the authors depict some Asian examples from Malaysia, South Korea, Thailand, Japan and India in which Sri Lanka is lagged far behind in making necessary amendment of policies. Private academic institutions promote a positive approach to education system that is relevant for the development of the above mentioned countries.

Another challenge identified by the World Bank is the lack of institutional autonomy on decision making (World Bank, 2009). In the context of central decision making, assumption of standard solution is the best, since the risk of poor quality decisions is due to the unfamiliarity of some university cultures. The World Bank suggests the promotion of both non-profit and profit making higher education system in line with the demands of modern labour market requirements.

Apart from the above challenges, some emphasize that identification of the techniques to improve the higher education system despite the financial and other constraints faced by the education sector. According to Warnapala, countries that produce talented graduates from the university system, suitable for labour market requirement is a definite factor that “contributes to social and economic development of the country”(Warnapala, 2010, p. 204). Author further argues that new policy reforms and strategies should be acquired based on the best educational practices in the world.

Education, Human Capital, and Productivity:

Aturupane (2015) and the World Bank (2009) has estimated how educational attainment change individual earnings in Sri Lanka². Figure 3 reveals that monthly incomes increase constantly as the level of educational attainment of male and female increases, taking no schooling as the reference point. The highest earnings are recorded among male and female who have completed graduate and post-graduate level education. For example, the monthly earnings of female and male postgraduates in Sri Lanka are 266 and 235 per cent more than that of their uneducated counterparts in 2012. The earnings by female with junior secondary, General Certificate of Education (GCE) Ordinary Level and GCE Advanced Level education are always higher than that of males, while female with post graduate level education show the reverse. Moreover, a male worker with primary education receives 17 per cent more per month than a female with no schooling, and a female worker with primary education receives 1 per cent per month more than a woman with no schooling.

² For more details on the impact of education and agricultural sector productivity see K. P. Kalirajan & R. T. Shand (1985) Types of education and agricultural productivity: A quantitative analysis of Tamil Nadu rice farming, *The Journal of Development Studies*, 21:2, 232-243.

Figure 3: The Impact of Education on Earnings (2012) is about here

The following Figure 4 shows: total labour productivity (LP), agricultural sector labour productivity (PROA), industrial sector labour productivity (PROIN), and service sector labour productivity (PROS) of Sri Lanka. As mentioned earlier, productivity is defined as the output per worker in rupees. It is clear that productivity of all the sectors have increased, even though the agriculture sector growth has shown slow growth during last two decades or so.

Figure 4: Total and Sectoral Productivity of Sri Lanka is about here

It is widely known that the growth of economy, which enhances the welfare of citizens, depends on resources endowment and productivity. In the recent past, productivity has gained renewed emphasis as the important aspect of economic growth among developing countries. Sri Lanka is not an exception to this normal trend. Belorgey, Lecat, & Maury (2006, p. 156) find attainment of human capital, measured by gross enrolment rates in primary and tertiary education are highly significant in explaining the productivity. As the productivity of individuals has a positive impact on their earnings, it is interesting to examine the impact of education on national and sectoral productivity in Sri Lanka.

Another important association that needs our attention is the link between the level of education or human capital and informal sector activities of the country. Table II below shows the distribution of employment by various characteristics and by institutional sector. Sixty two per cent of employed population in Sri Lanka is engaged in informal sector activities. People employed in this sector are highly vulnerable due to the lack of job and income security (Wijebandara & Cooray, 2012). Educational attainment is a very important factor for labour force participation, usually as the level of education increases the overall labour force participation increases. However, it is not the case with the informal sector, the estimated results in Table II clearly show that informal sector labour participation is decreasing as the level of educational attainment increases (Wijebandara & Cooray, 2012, p. 15). These results are consistent with many of the findings. Gërkhani & van de Werfhorst (2013) in their study explain the various roles of education in occupational choices of persons; such as education itself increases the likelihood of getting good jobs with a high income; higher the education higher the moral attitude and usually these persons refuse to enter the informal sector. More importantly, the level of education satisfies the formal sector requirements; hence more formal sector opportunities are for educated persons. In this competitive situation people with lower levels of education are automatically directed to engage in informal sector activities. Now the interesting questions are what about the status of productivity in the informal sector and whether there is a significant relationship between productivity and education level in the informal sector.

Table II: Distribution of Employment by Various Characteristics and by Institutional Sector (2008/2009) is about here

4. Date, models and analysis of results

Data³: Annual time series firm level data has been utilized to estimate the equations for total, agriculture, industrial and service sector productivity. This study uses a logistic regression analysis for measuring informal sector productivity and use Island wide household survey data with 73,217 individual records. This data for firm level were obtained through Annual Survey of Industries (ASI), covering the period from 1991 to 2009. The annual survey is conducted by Department of Census and Statistics under the Ministry of Finance and Planning of Sri Lanka. A comprehensive questionnaire is sent to the industrial establishments of persons engaged in five or more by post with instructions in order to acquire reliable and accurate data. This island wide survey is conducted according to the guidelines of United Nations Statistics Divisions and International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC). Most of the other data were collected from three different sources, (a) Department of Census and Statistics in Sri Lanka; (b) Annual Reports of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka; and (c) World Development Indicator (WDI) database.

Labour productivity has been defined as the ratio of value of output, divided by the number of persons engaged in the sector and takes the following form:

$$\text{labour productivity}_i = \frac{\text{value of output}_i}{\text{number of persons engaged}_i}$$

According to the Industrial Statistics definition of United Nations (2009), the number of persons engaged is defined as number of paid workers directly involved in the production process and the unpaid personnel such as working proprietors, board of directors and family members. Value of output is the value of products shipped out from the establishment during the financial year. This definition is based on OECD manual on measurement of productivity which says that “productivity measure is mainly based on single factor productivity (relating measure of output to a single measure of input) or multifactor productivity (relating measure of output into few categories of inputs” (2001, p. 12).

In another study of productivity for Sri Lanka by Dias (1991), labour productivity has been calculated by dividing value addition from employees. This study takes the same approach, i.e. value of output is divided by the number of persons engaged in the sector. It is also suitable to use quantity of output instead of value of products. However, Sri Lanka does not publish data on that; hence, no attempt is being made to use that approach.

According to Granger and Newbold (1974), non-stationary time series data often lead to spurious results. Therefore, the data series must be stationary to make a meaningful econometric estimation, particularly when using long time series data. In this study, the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test was employed for testing the time series data are stationary. The table below shows the unit root test results for all the variables of the model. The tests were carried out in all three formats, i.e. (a) levels, (b) 1st difference, and (c) 2nd difference. The test results are given in the table below.

³This section is partially drawn from Wijebandara and Cooray (2012); Jayakody and Cooray (2012)

Table III: Unit Root Test - Augmented dickey Fuller Test is about here

Models:

Four separate econometric models were employed to assess the impact of education levels on: (1) Total labour productivity (LTP); (2) Agricultural sector labour productivity (LPA); (3) Industrial sector labour productivity (LPI); and (4) Service sector labour productivity (LPS). And the equations take the following form:

$$LPT = \beta_1 + \beta_2(LEPR) + \beta_3INF) + \beta_4OPEN + \beta_5GFC + \beta_6(PEDUB5) + \beta_7(PEDU610) + \beta_8(PEDUOL) + \beta_9(PEDUAL) + \beta_{10}(EXPR) \quad (1)$$

$$LPA = \beta_1 + \beta_2(LEPR) + \beta_3INF) + \beta_4OPEN + \beta_5GFC + \beta_6(PEDUB5) + \beta_7(PEDU610) + \beta_8(PEDUOL) + \beta_9(PEDUAL) + \beta_{10}(EXPR) \quad (2)$$

$$LPI = \beta_1 + \beta_2(LEPR) + \beta_3INF) + \beta_4OPEN + \beta_5GFC + \beta_6(PEDUB5) + \beta_7(PEDU610) + \beta_8(PEDUOL) + \beta_9(PEDUAL) + \beta_{10}(EXPR) \quad (3)$$

$$LPS = \beta_1 + \beta_2(LEPR) + \beta_3INF) + \beta_4OPEN + \beta_5GFC + \beta_6(PEDUB5) + \beta_7(PEDU610) + \beta_8(PEDUOL) + \beta_9(PEDUAL) + \beta_{10}(EXPR) \quad (4)$$

Where,

EXPR = Export growth rate;

GFC = Gross fixed capital formation;

INF = Inflation;

LEPR = Labour force participation rate;

LPA = Agricultural sector labour productivity;

LPI = Industrial sector labour productivity;

LPS = Service sector labour productivity;

LTP = Total labour productivity;

OPEN = Openness of the economy;

PEDU610 = Level of education between year 6-10;

PEDUAL = Level of education up to Advanced Level;

PEDUB5 = Level of education up to year 5; and

PEDUOL = Level of education up to Ordinary Level.

Table IV: Total and sectoral labour productivity is about here

Analysis of results:

The IV above table reveals the estimated results. We use four different level of educational attainment as explanatory variables in four types of productivity: total, agriculture, industrial and service sector labour productivity. It is interesting to note that individuals with general education up to year ten are positively contributing to productivity improvement in all three sectors, except the service sector. However, a labour force with more year of schooling up to advanced level does not significantly contribute to productivity levels. This implies that general education has caused to improve productivity than higher education, since higher education level has negative relationship with labour productivity. The negative sign for PEDUAL in total productivity equation means kind of mismatch of education; hence; negative contribution. Another possibility is migration of workers with higher educational attainment. Anyway, this should be interpreted with caution as the result is unexpected.

Table V: Informal Sector Labour force Participation and Educational Attainment is about here

Table V shows the impact of education on informal sector labour productivity. In this analysis reference group is no schooling. The coefficient for primary or less (lowest educational attainment) is -0.0892 and -2.4121 for Advanced Level (higher educational attainment). According to the estimated results workers with lower level of education are highly concentrated in the informal sector and when the level of school attainment increases the negative relationship becomes much stronger with informal sector employment. The result implies that with higher level of education, informal sector experiences a lower productivity level, as individual move from informal to formal sector with more education.

5. Conclusion and policy recommendation

Our empirical results reveal that individuals with general education up to year ten are positively contributing to productivity improvement in all three sectors, except the service sector. Educational attainment is a very important factor for labour force participation generally, as the level of education increases the overall labour force participation. However, it is not the case with the informal sector; estimated results clearly show that informal sector labour participation is decreasing as the level of educational attainment increases. Informal sector productivity is highly correlated with the level of general education than with higher level of education. Overall, this study found a quantifiable positive association between education and productivity and earnings in the formal sector. The impact of educational attainment on informal sector is different. The estimated results show that higher the level of educational attainment lower the engagement of workers in the information activities. The inverse relationship between the level of education and informal sector activity may lead to reduce the productivity level in informal sector.

The Sri Lankan education sector has undergone significant modifications over half a century, which include adjustments in the higher education system and technical and vocational education sectors. The average expenditure on education and health is 3 per cent and 1.7 per cent for the period 1950-2012, respectively. Governments have allocated more than 3 per cent on education during the period 1956-1973 and the figure peaked at 5.2 per cent in 1972. Even after 1973, respective governments have managed to maintain the allocation between 2-3 per cent. This is

quite commendable given heavy funds allocation of the government to wage the prolonged conflict during 1983-2009. The allocation for education and also health show a declining trend since 2006 and the amount for education was 1.8 per cent in 2012, the lowest since 1950.

The major share of fiscal allocation for education goes to general education, rather than to higher education. Such an allocation so far has contributed to provide the strong link between education and productivity in informal sector and in all formal sectors, except the services sector. However, in the era of information and communication technology, if policy makers need Sri Lanka to be a “knowledge hub in Asia”, this falling tendency of funds allocation to higher education needs to be reversed sooner than later. Moreover, thousands of students are leaving the country annually for higher studies in abroad spending huge amount of foreign exchange due to lack of local higher educational institutions. This trend too needs to be reversed by allocating more funds to the higher education sector and also making constitutional changes. It is worthy to mention that the current government, by committing a sum of six per cent of GDP allocation for education in 2015, seems to be taking appropriate action in the correct direction. Moreover, given the resource constraint in the public sector, government needs to encourage private sector engagement in education. Empirical evidence from Japan, Malaysia, Thailand, and some other Asian countries including India provide ample evidence to support private sector participation. In the mid-1990s, Cambodia did not have many, if not any, private universities, but now the country seems to have about 40 universities providing education and contributing to human resource development in a significant manner. Therefore, it is important to promote both non-profit and profit making higher education system in line with the demands of modern labour market requirements.

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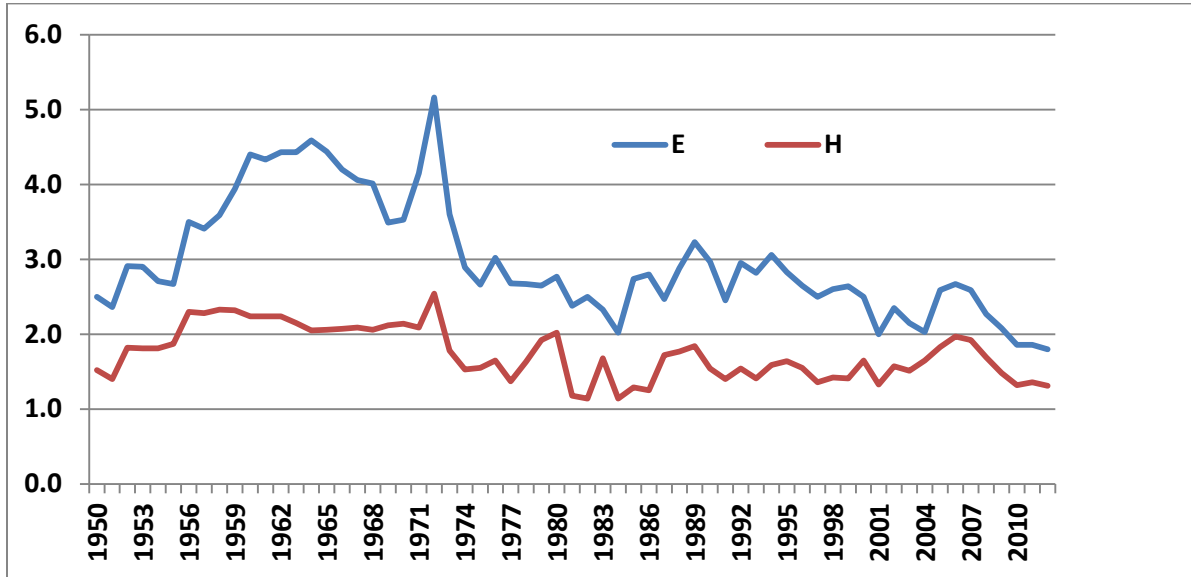
**Table 1: General Education
Data in Sri Lanka**

Category	1948	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010	2011	2012
Government schools	3091	3188	4394	9928	9117	9864	9976	9685	9731	9931
Total school students (000)	1178	1349	2192	2716	3390	4232	4340	4120	4158	4187
Total teachers	32704	38086	69658	96426	141185	184822	194773	224541	228336	244988
Students/Teacher ratio	36			28					18	18
Schools per Sq. Km.	22			7						
University students		2036	2036	11813	17308	29471	48296	70477	74440	69879
University lecturers		157	269	269	1539	2040	3241	4935	4984	5200
Education expenditure / GDP Ratio		2.5	4.4	3.5	2.8	3	2.5	1.9	1.9	1.8

Source: Central Bank of Sri Lanka (1998: p. 68), Annual Report (2003 and 2012)

Notes: Students/teachers ratio is for government schools

Figure 1: Government Expenditure on Education (E) and Health (H) a Percentage of GDP (1950-2012)



Source: Central Bank of Sri Lanka, Annual Report (various issues)

Figure 2: Education Expenditure as % of GDP: Sri Lanka Compared with Selected Countries

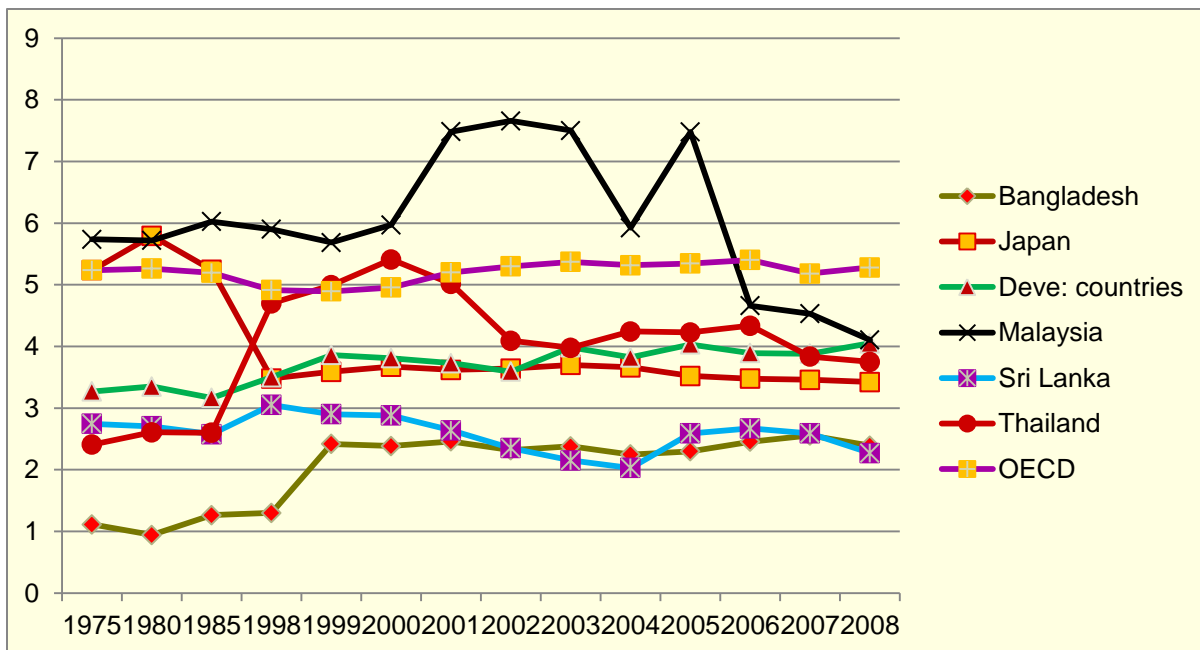
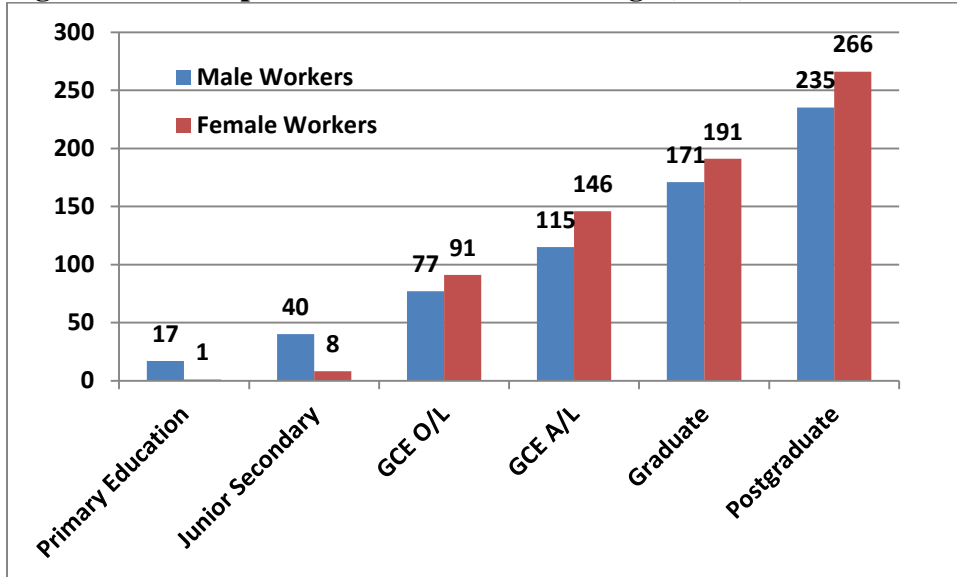
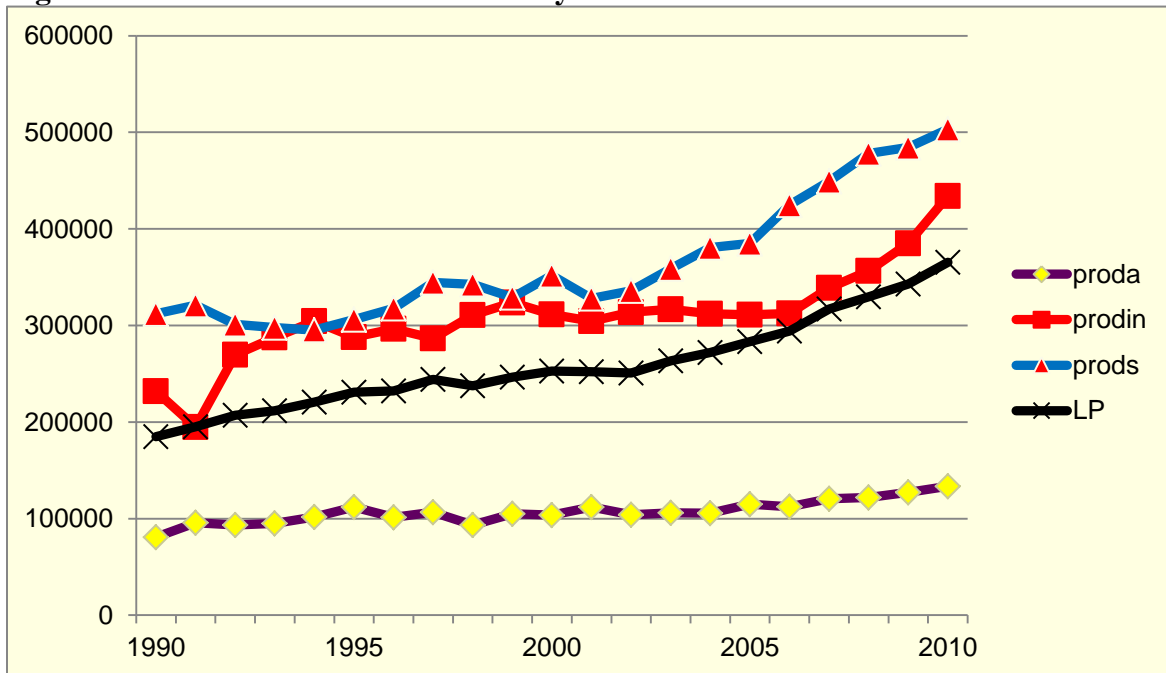


Figure 3: The Impact of Education on Earnings (2012)



Source: Source: Aturupane (2015)

Figure 4: Total and Sectoral Productivity of Sri Lanka



Source: Author's compilation base on the data. See details on data.

Table II Distribution of Employment by Various Characteristics and by Institutional Sector (2008/2009)

Variables	Formal sector (%)	Informal sector (%)	Total
Sex			
Male	35.6	64.3	100
Female	43.9	56.0	100
Level of education			
No schooling	23.8	76.2	100
Primary or less	20.6	79.4	100
Junior secondary	28.7	71.3	100
Pass O/L	51.1	48.9	100
Pass A/L and above	78.9	21.1	100
Ethnicity			
Sinhala	37.4	62.6	100
Sri Lanka Tamil	44.6	55.4	100
Indian Tamil	70.5	29.5	100
Sri Lanka Moor	27.6	72.4	100
other	56.2	43.8	100
Residential Sector			
Urban	53.6	46.4	100
Rural	34.5	65.5	100
Estate	72.4	27.6	100
Industrial Sector			
Agriculture	15.5	84.5	100
Industry	42.9	57.1	100
Services	54.0	46.0	100
Employment status			
Employee	60.5	39.5	100
Employer	44.4	55.6	100
Own Account Worker	5.2	94.8	100
Contributing Family Worker	8.1	91.9	100

Source: (Wijebandara & Cooray, 2012)

Table III: Unit Root Test - Augmented dickey Fuller Test

Variable	Level	First Difference	Second Difference
TLP	-4.0393(0.0065)***	-8.7420(0.0000)***	-4.5796(0.0036)***
LFPR	-3.8811(0.0086)***	-5.6950(0.0002)***	-4.7095(0.0022)***
INF	-4.3595(0.0031)***	-4.7666(0.0016)***	-6.1556(0.0001)***
OPEN	-1.8844(0.3322)	-4.1220(0.0055)***	-5.6781(0.0003)***
GFC	-2.4981(0.1306)	-3.8369(0.0099)***	-3.9455(0.0110)**
PEDUB5	-1.7536(0.3903)	-2.7537(0.0848)*	-3.9415(0.0096)***
PEDU610	-2.5070(0.1287)	-5.3002(0.0005)***	-5.4037(0.0005)***
PEDUOL	-1.3864(0.5916)	-5.1244(0.0007)***	-3.9137(0.0118)**
PEDUAL	-0.1629(0.9282)	-8.3039(0.0000)***	-3.6625(0.0173)**
EXPR	-0.1395(0.9139)	-3.4112(0.0236)**	-6.2402(0.0001)***

Notes: *** Significant at 1% level, ** Significant at 5 % level, * Significant at 10% level
 Values in brackets are p-values

Table IV: Total and sectoral labour productivity

Variable	LPT	LPA	LPI	LPS
Constant (β_1)	76.0561	73.6062	-37.2738	121.9729
LFPR (β_2)	-1.9118**	-3.1107*	1.1962	-2.1055
INF (β_3)	-0.1785	-0.3335	0.2604	-0.2077
OPEN (β_4)	0.2627**	0.4359	-0.4126*	0.3344*
GFC (-1) (β_5)	0.0872	0.4938	-1.8444***	0.7459*
PEDUB5 (β_6)	-0.0614	-2.6416**	-1.3432	2.1108*
PEDU610 (β_7)	1.1322**	2.9299*	3.5552***	-1.8195**
PEDUOL (β_8)	-1.4717**	1.7027	-2.8076*	-1.354
PEDUAL (β_9)	-2.6695*	-3.1527	-1.9112	-2.2989
EXPR (β_{10})	3.4972***	1.7027	3.0914	4.4480**
Adj : R2	0.67	0.67	0.87	0.68
D/W Ratio	2.46	3.1	2.29	2.72

Notes: *** Significant at 1% level, ** Significant at 5 % level, * Significant at 10% level

Table V: Informal Sector Labour force Participation and Educational Attainment

Independent Variables		Logit
		Coefficient (Robu. Std. Err.)
Sex		
	Male (Reference group)	-
	Female	-0.4312 (0.0464)*
Age		0.0182 (0.0016)*
Level of education		
	No schooling (Reference group)	-
	Primary or less	-0.0892 (0.0957)
	Junior secondary	-0.5701 (0.0945)*
	Pass O/L	-1.3919 (0.1001)*
	Pass A/L and above	-2.4121 (0.1058)*
Literacy in English		
	Not literate (Reference group)	-
	Literate	-0.8942 (0.0502)*
Marital Status		
	Never married (Reference group)	-
	Married	-0.1204 (0.0548)**
	Separated/ Widowed	0.1861 (0.0913)**
Currently attend in education		
	Not attending (Reference group)	-
	Attending	1.1156 (0.1254)*
Relationship to head of household		
	Head of household (Reference group)	-
	Spouse	0.4433 (0.0551)*
	Child	0.0206 (0.0554)
	Relative	-0.0626 (0.0613)
	Other	0.4322 (0.2239)***
Ethnicity		
	Sinhala (Reference group)	-
	Sri Lanka Tamil	-0.0484 (0.0809)
	Indian Tamil	-0.5518(0.1328)*
	Sri Lanka Moor	0.6479 (0.0763)*
	Other	-0.2583 (0.2504)
Residential Sector		
	Urban (Reference group)	-
	Rural	0.4495 (0.0568)*
	Estate	-1.3840 (0.1226)*
District unemployment rate		0.0524 (0.0080)*
Constant		0.3395 (0.1455)**

Notes: *** Significant at 1% level, ** Significant at 5 % level, * Significant at 10% level

The Existing Regulation Options for Private Military and Security Industry and Current Efforts on an International Regulation

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In recent years jurists started to discuss the legal consequences of Private Military and Security Companies' (PMSCs) employees misconduct and the international law options of regulation. This discussion was highly motivated by the incidents occurred at the Abu Ghraib Prison, Nissor Square and the killings of Blackwater contractors in Fallujah. The existing law have been inapplicable and inadequate to address the International Humanitarian Law (IHL) and Human Rights Law (HRL) violations committed by private contractors and further debate on the issue is necessary. This paper seeks to discuss the existing regulation options and current efforts on regulating private contractors' activities. Three main issues will be addressed: first, whether or not self-regulation is an alternative; second, national attempts at regulations and; third, the current state of development of regulation on regional and international levels. The conclusion is that only through a multi-layered approach and joint effort (from national, regional and international levels), regulation addressing the industry and any implementation will be able to succeed.

Keywords: private military and security companies, self-regulation, Montreux Document

The role of Online Travel Agents in improving the business value of Small Tourism Enterprises: The case of Sri Lanka

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The emergence of the Internet has changed the traditional relationship between hotels and travel agents. Online travel agents (OTAs) are no longer simply intermediaries but act more as business partners or vendors. For many small hotels they act as the main resource provider for reservations, sales and marketing and promotion. This article reports on case study research which analyzed the role played by OTAs in improving the business performance of Small Tourism Enterprises (STEs) in Sri Lanka. Thirty five STEs who are working with either one or two main OTAs to perform their business activities, were selected from the four main tourist regions in Sri Lanka. The analysis of the cases identified two main areas where STEs can utilize OTAs resources and services to improve their own business performance. Chief among the study's conclusions is that STEs must find ways to make the most effective possible use of the available technology and information resources of OTAs in order to attract more customers while focusing more of their own time on providing the best customer service. This research contributes to understanding the growing role played by OTAs in the tourism industry in the context of Sri Lankan STEs.

Keywords: Small Tourism Enterprises, Sri Lanka, Online Travel Agents, ICTs

Analysing conflict resolution mechanisms fostered by civil society. The case of Pakistan

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Increasingly asymmetric affairs and a sense of injustice as well as accumulated unresolved narratives in the international order have facilitated the emergence of a coincidence of armed conflicts in recent years. A proliferative military framework has assisted additional radicalisation, violence and crises. Therefore, there is an imperative need for an alternative, legitimising approach, which enables nonviolent progress and long-term stability. Civic groups emerged as specialised actors and the empowerment of citizens through their inclusion in the decision-making process is sine qua non for building trust and enabling stabilisation and the advancement of peace. This paper analyses the contribution of civil society to sustainable conflict resolution and peace processes in Pakistan from a comparative perspective. It draws on the theoretical assumption that by providing spaces of interaction and constructive dialogue, civic initiatives may influence conflict transformation and transition processes towards sustainable peace. Actors of the civil society can contribute to different extents to various phases of conflict resolution, depending on their interests and organisational capacity. The paper compares the activities of CSOs working on track II and track III conflict resolution processes. The data were collected by the author during a field research in Pakistan in May-June 2015.

Keywords: Civil society, Pakistan, conflict resolution, international response

1. Introduction

The legislative elections on 11 May 2013 were rated as a success of democracy in Pakistan, but the country is currently undergoing a rather unstable phase of democratisation. Internal conflicts between Tehreek-e-Taliban Pakistan (TTP), the Pakistani Taliban, and the Pakistan state on the one side and between religious groups in the form of sectarian violence against religious minorities as well as external disputes with Afghanistan and India pose the most stringent challenges to the current Nawaz Sharif government. A religious conservative fundament of the state, lack of education, human rights abuses, discrimination of minorities and Islamic extremism – which are very much interrelated and mutually reinforcing – represent some of the main root causes of the current ongoing conflicts. Since its emergence in 1947, Pakistan was challenged by violent conflicts along nationalist, religious and ideological lines. Islamic terrorism emerged as a stringent issue in Pakistan during the American war against the Soviet Union in Afghanistan from 1979 to 1989 and the war on terror after 9/11. The American factor has enabled a particular atmosphere of mistrust and scepticism in Pakistan's foreign policy. The rise of the jihadist network Islamic State (IS) and its particular resonance in Pakistan, where several splinter groups of the TTP pledged allegiance to IS, represent an alarming phenomenon considering the potential for radicalisation in Pakistan as well as IS' propaganda and brutal agenda.

The area located at the border region with Afghanistan comprising the Federally Administrated Tribal Areas (FATA) and parts of the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa is a stronghold of the Taliban and has been the most affected by Islamic militancy so far. TTP and associated groups occasionally conduct attacks beyond their traditional area of operation, including in Islamabad and Karachi. The provinces of Sindh and Baluchistan have been

particularly impacted by sectarian and communal violence, particularly in form of violent attacks against religious minorities. Additionally, armed groups seeking autonomy in the province of Baluchistan fight against the central government. In Azad Jammu and Kashmir, exchange of fire of various intensity and frequency along the Line of Control (LoC), the de facto border with India, has resulted in hundreds of fatalities and tremendous displacement in proximity to the LoC.

Recent governments have failed to solve existing conflicts and eradicate jihadist militancy and terrorism. Low governance quality has created a 'regime vacuum' (United Nations Office of the Special Advisor on Africa 2004: 3), which stimulated the emergence of civil organisations and associations. The number of civic organisations in Pakistan significantly increased during the 90s, as a consequence of the global prominence of the role of civic participation advocated by international non-governmental organisations (INGO). Foreign developing programmes, promoted by the international community, notably the United States (US), the United Kingdom (UK) and the European Union (EU), fostered a major increase in the activism of civil society organisations (CSOs) in South Asia during the last decade. Nonetheless, there has been much critique regarding the autonomy of the financially aided organisations, which are believed to promote the institutionalisation of foreign, particularly Western, interests.

The Pakistani civil society consists mainly of non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community-based organisations, think-tanks, trade unions, cultural groups and informal citizen associations. According to the NGO Law Monitor, there are currently some 45,000 CSOs in Pakistan. Approximately 60 per cent of them are estimated to be funded by foreign governments and organisations, which recently attracted the attention of the government. It is estimated that thousands of associations, mostly madrassas and religious charities, are unregistered, considering the complicated registration process (Bajoria, 2008: 3) under the Societies Registration Act.

The current paper investigates the involvement of civil society in activities conducive to conflict resolution and peacebuilding, analysing the case of Pakistan.

2. Operationalisation of the Variables

Civil Society

The definition of the civil society must begin with the different understandings of civil society in Islamic and Western traditions. In Western establishments, civil society is an essential democratic component and works as influential watchdog, being involved in advocacy and indirectly in policymaking. Unlike the secular liberal conception of civil society in the Western narrative, the meaning of civil society in the Islamic tradition is relatively problematic, as civil society is seen as a modern, Western construct, opposing and challenging the state (Zaidi 2014: 211). This research project works with a definition of civil society in the Western understanding, drawing on the theory of social capital which refers to both formal and informal types of associations within communities and has in centre the value of trust (Putnam 2000, 2006). Reciprocal relations within homogenous groups ('bonding') and interactions between groups with different cultural backgrounds ('bridging') facilitate cooperation and coordination within the society. The establishment of networks and the activation of trust by organised interactions has the potential to prevent antagonist relations and facilitate the resolution of conflicts.

I define civil society as the totality of organised associational or interactional clusters of a tangible type, involving indigenous actors, occurring at different levels and in a peaceful manner. Applying this definition, the current paper focuses on the work of the NGOs and think tanks, –

generically encompassed under the denominator CSOs – both domestic and international, involved in conflict resolution and peacebuilding activities in Pakistan. It is differentiated between the impact of CSOs focusing on track II conflict resolution mechanisms at a high-level and organisations working on track III at grassroots level with local communities

Conflict Resolution and Sustainable Peace

Conflicts stem from divergent positions of actors with certain interests over one or a series of issues, and have a dynamic structure – they may escalate or deescalate (Ramsbotham et al. 2011: 5). Scenarios comprising simultaneously the presence of hostile social relations and the abstinence from conflictive attitudes or behaviours (active expressions) describe latent conflict structures (Galtung 1998, 1972, 1969: 72). This paper focuses on destructive types of conflicts, which may result in direct, structural or cultural violence; the ending of the former describes ‘negative’ peace, while ‘positive’ peace implies the ceasing of all three forms of violence (ibid.).

This research project bases its assumptions on the conflict resolution pattern described by Ramsbotham et al. (2011: 25-26, see Fig. 1). Conflicts have a dynamic structure and display four phases – i.e. prevention, peacekeeping, peacemaking and peacebuilding – which sometimes overlap, their precise identification and delimitation being thus difficult. Civil society is likely to play a role in all these phases of conflict and to a lesser extent in peacekeeping. Peace is understood as process and the multitude of actors involved as well as potential types of interventions is summarised by the multi-track conflict resolution model proposed by Ramsbotham et al. (2011: 29).

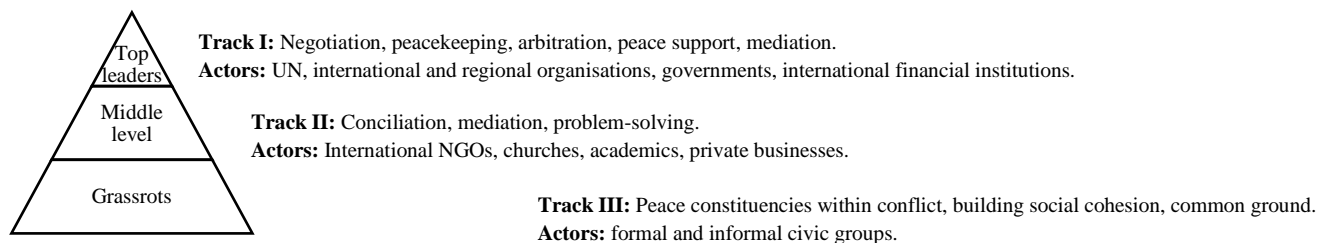


Fig. 1: Multi-Track Conflict Resolution [own representation adapted and completed, based on Ramsbotham et al. 2011: 29]

This model comprises three major types of categories of actors and interactions (track I, II, and III) which can impact the resolution of the conflict to different extents. The proposed research project focuses on track II and track III interactions as alternative diplomatic channels, different of the state-centric classical ones. Both approaches refer to interactive processes between non-state parties promoting particular interests in conflict contexts, which might facilitate the emergence of inputs contributory to conflict resolution.

3. How Can Civil Society Contribute to Peacebuilding? Existing Theoretical Models

Drawing, inter alia, on democracy theory and the development cooperation/third-sector discourse, Thania Paffenholz (2006, 2009) and Catherine Barnes (2005) outline several civil society functions of peacebuilding: protection, monitoring, advocacy and public communication, structural prevention, conflict transformation and peacemaking, social cohesion, political negotiation, intermediation and facilitation and service delivery.

By pursuing the interests of the community, CSOs represent legitimate actors of change, accountable for the values and aspirations of diverse societal constitutive elements. Social

accountability (World Bank 2007) facilitates interaction and cooperation and the settlement of a common ground of understanding by increasing awareness among local communities. Benefiting from local expertise, CSOs are able to identify, address and articulate topics and problems, as well as to appropriately mobilise resources (Barnes 2005: 7). Familiarity with the environment favours their adaptability to the circumstances and their flexibility in the coordinatory activity and work.

4. Research Questions

Adopting an exploratory research design, this research paper examines in particular two inquiry clusters and finally provides answers sustained by empirical evidence:

(1) The impact of the civil society on conflict resolution and transition to sustainable peace

What is the impact of CSOs in various phases of the conflict resolution and in the facilitation of transition to sustainable peace? Are there tangible achievements?

(2) Interaction between track II and track III organisations

NGOs working on track II mechanisms focus on activities at high-level, involving stakeholders relevant to the conflict, while track III organisations work mostly with local communities at grassroots level. What type of interactions can be observed between these two different kinds of organisations? Do they collaborate or compete with each other?

In addition to these main questions, the impact of the following intervening variables is assessed: main challenges in CSOs' work, their relation with the government, the role of the military and the implications of international response.

5. Research Methodology

A multi-method research design using mainly primary research and applying a qualitative approach involving expert interviews and comparative case studies is adopted for pursuing the research questions stated above. The combination of the two methodological procedures in answering the research questions ensures increased robustness for the empirical findings.

Expert Interviews

Expert interviews represent a methodological technique related to the grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967), a main research method in social research using an inductive process and an exploratory design. Expert semi-structured interviews with representatives of CSOs, media, government, academia and other relevant stakeholders were carried out during a field research in Pakistan. The audio material was converted into written text using the method of transcription and the text input conceptualised in theoretical clusters, from which main findings were derived.

Comparative Case Studies

The method of comparative case studies is used for exploring a great variety of causal mechanisms particularly related to the research question number 2. An in-depth comparative analysis of the research cases – using information available on the websites of the selected CSOs and details from the expert interviews' content – is carried out in order to describe the interests, type of activities and the effectiveness of the respective CSO's in performing activities conducive to conflict resolution and peacebuilding.

Data

The data was collected by the author during a field research in Pakistan in May-June 2015. During approximately three weeks of field research in Pakistan, semi-structured interviews were conducted with experts from NGOs, government, media and academia. The centre of the research activity was in Islamabad, but interviews were also carried out in Lahore. In addition, the profile and the activities of the studied NGOs available on the websites were rigorously analysed. Moreover, focused group discussions were conducted with civil society activists, political workers, community activists and experts in the field of conflict resolution.

6. Discussion of the Empirical Findings

Impact of CSOs on Conflict Resolution and Peacebuilding

On the fundament of the data gathered by the author, this section analyses the impact of CSOs on the progress of conflict resolution and peacebuilding in Pakistan. It focuses particularly on the type of activities of the CSOs, their interests and tangible achievements as well as stringent challenges, differentiating between the impact of track II and track III organisations. The following sections assess the CSOs' relation with the government, the role of the military and the international response to conflict resolution and peacebuilding in Pakistan.

Most of the CSOs focusing on track II diplomacy are based in Islamabad and have made significant progress in conflict resolution at political level, particularly between Pakistan and Afghanistan and Pakistan and India. Most of the INGOs and think tanks, such as Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, South Asia Partnership and Asia Democracy Network and several domestic CSOs, such as Jinnah Institute, have a particular impact on track II type of activities. Profiting from their good reputation and stabile relation with the government as well as funding opportunities, this kind of CSOs are more inclined to organise meetings attended by high-level officials and stakeholders relevant in the process of policymaking. They create platforms for discussion and debate at high-level, issue recommendations and policy inputs and participate in regularisation processes, although to a limited extent.

An example of successful achievement in this sense is a joint declaration drafted by dozens of scholars from Pakistan, Afghanistan and other stakeholder countries in the region. The comprehensive document was presented to the governments of the involved countries and other foreign governments as well as to the EU and the UN for accommodating the recommendations on their agendas. Some of the participants in the drafting process became members of the Ashraf Afghani cabinet elected in 2014 and some projects, such as a joint Pakistan-Afghanistan working secretariat, are in course of implementation.

The majority of domestic NGOs conduct mainly grassroots activities, so called track III, addressing issues related to conflict at community level. Domestic NGOs – benefitting from local expertise, including language and accurate understanding of the cultural environment – are apparently more successful in engaging local communities in conflict transformation aspects in a constructive manner. Grassroots organisations have a substantial contribution on creating momentum and keeping salient issues alive, stimulating thus governmental actions on specific issues. Mass movements, awareness campaigns and peace education represent main types of activities of this category of NGOs, which mainly work with representatives of the young generation, in particular adolescents and university students. In this framework, there has been considerable progress in deradicalisation, countering extremism, religious tolerance as well as the promotion of minority and women rights. Due to funding and capacity limitations, grassroots organisations struggle to engage political actors, most particular from the local level, such as

members of political parties, police departments and other representatives of the local administration.

Although there is a natural competition on resources, there is visible collaboration, most common on ideological and programmatic lines. International groups develop partnerships with domestic CSOs, which confer additional legitimacy on them and enable a mutual transfer of expertise. Some cooperation between track II organisations and local NGOs engaging grassroots community is noticeable. In particular, smaller organisations are part of networks and coalitions, which grant the former additional expertise and capacity. However, NGOs operate in an uncertain and sometimes confusing environment and many organisations operating in the field of conflict transformation work in isolation, lacking effective connectivity and networking. Stronger leadership, concertation and coordination could consolidate the NGOs' position in Pakistan, make them less vulnerable and augment their impact on conflict transformation and advancement of peace processes.

Challenges

Repression from both community and state level, a hostile legislative framework, security concerns emerging from both extremist groups and state agencies as well as technical limitations, such as funding and capacity, represent the main challenges of the Pakistani civil society working on conflict resolution and peacebuilding.

Most of the Pakistani middle class is conservative and a report published by the research organisation Gallup Pakistan in January 2014 shows that the religious ulema groups are the most trusted non-state actors. NGOs are mostly perceived as progressive, promoting values that oppose Islam and negatively impacting the traditional culture. As most of them are funded by international donors, there is a general allegation that they promote foreign agendas. The American war against the Soviet Union in Afghanistan and the instrumentalisation of Islam in favour of the US laid down the fundament for distrust and intolerant existence. Suspicion from both community and government towards NGOs was amplified by the support of a Pakistani doctor – allegedly linked to the international NGO Save the Children – in CIA's operation to capture Osama bin Laden in Abbottabad in 2011. This created resentments and mistrust among the state and society in Pakistan, which were rapidly and without discernment generalised for the majority of NGOs. Nonetheless, progressive thinking is on the rise in Pakistan and the community's attitude towards NGOs may change in the medium term. Additionally, there is some support from the community level, as people are aware that the state lacks capacity in democratic development and conflict transformation.

Security issues pose a further challenge to the work of NGOs in Pakistan. Activists in the conflict transformation and peacebuilding sector are recurrently attacked by members or supporters of extremist groups. Workers of NGOs promoting the end of Taliban's terrorist campaign, religious tolerance and human rights are particularly targeted. Despite this threat, most activists and leaders of NGOs ignore this risk and conduct their activities untrammelled. Although the government condemns attacks on activists, there is no standardised compensation programme for the victims of such attacks. They are usually followed by mass protests condemning this type of violent behaviour as a violation of freedom of expression enshrined the Universal Human Rights Declaration to which Pakistan is party. Despite that Pakistan's society should provide space where the plurality of opinion can exist, there is no mechanism for the protection of social activists currently in place.

Cooperation with the Government

Support from both federal and local government is essential for the progress of the CSOs' conflict transformation and peace activities in Pakistan. While CSOs working on track II mechanisms are specialised in organising high-level activities attended by governmental officials, policymakers and representatives of the military, grassroots organisations also registered some success in co-opting members of local state-owned institutions. Even though CSOs successfully participate in the deliberative pre-sessions of the policymaking processes, there is much inefficiency in the implementation processes. Mismanagement, poor governance and corruption exercise negative influence on the proper actualisation of the adopted policies. Preliminary evidence indicates that CSOs lack a standardised comprehensive mechanisms to follow up the implementation of their policy inputs.

There is a common sense that the current Pakistan Muslim League-Nawaz (PMN-L) government is less supportive to promoting an active role of the civil society than the previous Pakistan Peoples' Party (PPP) administration. This trend can be partially explained by the ideological origins of PMN as a centre-right, conservative and not very progressive party. Path dependencies, particularly unsolved issues of the partition in 1947, a discontinued democratic and institutional development, extended military rules, the much contested American policy in the region as well as the geopolitical constellation in Asia, most relevant bilateral relations with China, Afghanistan and India, also exercise a considerable impact on the general political culture and the government's attitude towards NGOs. Moreover, Pakistan's increasing economic cooperation with the Chinese government – which has recently intensified the crackdown on the increasingly active Chinese civil society – may have facilitated the migration of some authoritarian elements on the governing style in Pakistan. Pakistan has developed good relations with some countries, such as China, Turkey, Japan and EU countries, which can facilitate the activity of NGOs and think tanks originating from those countries.

The Role of the Military

In terms of cooperation of the CSOs with the military, there is currently no mechanism in place facilitating a framework for collaboration. The military is suspicious about the NGOs and concerned about their impact on national security. After the US operation in Abbottabad in 2011, the checks and scrutinisation by the military National Intelligence Agency (ISI) on NGOs funded by foreign actors intensified and suspicion against their activities increased substantially. A number of additional restrictions were introduced under the National Action Plan adopted in response to the Taliban attack on the military school in Peshawar in December 2014. For operating in restricted areas, such as Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, FATA and Baluchistan, CSOs require a No Objection Certificate (NOC) from the Ministry of Interior and their activities in those areas are most commonly intensively monitored by ISI agents. This sort of restrictions can be very discouraging and demotivating for the CSOs sector and can impede the progress towards peace processes.

Moreover, there are three main structural factors which impact the relation between CSOs and the military and exclude a collaborative potential. Firstly, there is a strong opposition between the conceptual approaches of the military and that of the CSOs. While the former promotes a militarised approach and countering conflict by violent means, NGOs and think tanks promote conflict resolution by non-violent progress and dialogue. Secondly, both military and CSOs compete for resources of foreign actors. The military perceives itself as being a more justified and legitimated actor to deal with conflicts and counter militancy and thinks that funding should

rather go in the defence sector. Thirdly, in a world environment dominated by liberal democracies, the military probably fear that foreign government could work together in order to destabilise their position in Pakistan. This generates suspicion about NGOs funded by foreign actors that they can be instrumentalised against the military establishment. Nonetheless, it would be an oversimplification to claim that the government and military are willing to stop the activities of NGOs. In this scenario, no substantial progress would have been possible at all.

International Response and Donors

Although Pakistan is particularly suspicious when it comes to third party's role in conflict issues, it needs the support of the international community in order to stabilise the peace process. There is evidence of successful cooperation with foreign governments and organisations in the field of conflict transformation and advancement of peace in Pakistan. At NGOs level, cooperation with countries with which Pakistan has developed trustful relations have potential to be fruitful and sustainable. The international community has the net advantage of being able to put pressure on the government to act. A good example in this sense comes from the neighbouring Afghanistan, where a Women Commission was established by the Ghani government under the pressure of the European Commission.

For enabling progress on conflict transformation and sustainable peace, the international community and donors supporting projects in Pakistan should take into account the following considerations:

- Focus on democratisation processes and good governance, as bad or poor governance have represented a driving factor to all conflicts in Pakistan. Good governance is a complementary function of a democratic establishment and they should progress simultaneously.
- Adopt a rights-based approach, promoting the civic and political rights and freedoms of individuals guaranteed by the Universal Human Rights Convention in order to facilitate conflict transformation and the development of a democratic political culture.
- The humanitarian and development sector should design an integrated approach encompassing conflict transformation dimensions and a rights-component.
- Coordinate more effectively on the priorities and approaches to be implemented in order to avoid unclarity, replication and regress.
- Make efforts on improving trust relations with the government and local communities in order to enhance cooperation.
- Be more committed towards the complex conflict dynamics, local approaches and the particular context in Pakistan, in order not to facilitate the escalation of conflicts and not to endanger the work of local NGOs or partners.
- Monitor and scrutinise more efficiently the impact on the ground of the funded projects in order to get an accurate impression about the concrete achievements. This can avoid mismanagement and critique towards report-based evaluation, which cannot be entirely verified.

Conclusion

The current paper investigates the contribution of CSOs on conflict resolution and peacebuilding in applying Pakistan as case study. The study differentiates between conflict

transformation and peace activities conducted by CSOs focusing on track II and track III mechanisms and discusses intervening dimensions such as the CSOs' relation with the government, the role of the military and the international response.

The main finding is that despite some significant impediments in the form of hostile attitude from both community and government, CSOs, including those sustained by the international community, push their advancement and have a considerable contribution to conflict transformation, peacemaking and peacebuilding processes in Pakistan through advocacy, mediation, deradicalisation programmes and promoting a tolerant democratic culture among the young generation.

Although activities and approaches of track II and track III organisations mainly differ, there are some commonalities and there is collaboration between them. However, a lack of coordination between NGOs and a strong leadership makes them vulnerable and impede them in having a stronger impact. Designing a mechanism for the protection of social activists and NGO workers appears to be one of the current priorities.

International NGOs and think tanks tend to be more successful in facilitating options that the political elite and governmental officials would exercise. They genuinely apply a sort of pressure and actuate advancement at high-level.

The international community should better concert its efforts in Pakistan and define their priorities in a clearer manner. The thematic focus should lay on root causes of the conflict, i.e. lack of good governance and democratisation, and empower local NGOs. Development and humanitarian organisation should adopt an integrated approach and introduce a conflict transformation dimension in their work.

The current project provides comprehensive assessments and insights sustained by robust empirical evidence regarding civil society's impact on conflict resolution and peace processes, which together with previous works may consolidate a relatively new field of research within the academic community and create opportunities for further research.

Additionally, the results of this study may represent a reliable policy guideline for (international) actors interested in promoting conflict resolution and peacebuilding processes in Pakistan.

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Foreign Direct Investment in Developing Sri Lanka's Tourism Industry: Problems and Prospects

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Sri Lanka is one of the major tourist attraction destinations in South Asian region. After the economic reforms in 1977, the successive governments have implemented various attractive policies and programmes to promote tourism in pursuing economic growth and development. Moreover, the government has employed a number of initiatives in order to encourage and attract Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) towards the tourism industry. The aim of this study is to investigate the long-run and the short-run relationship between tourism and Foreign Direct Investment in Sri Lanka. Annual data gathered for the period from 1978 to 2013 were used for the study. Data were analyzed using E-Views while preliminary calculations were done using MS Excel. Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) is used for unit root test, while Engle-Granger is used for co-integration, whereas Granger causality test was employed to find the causal relationships. The empirical evidence shows that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between tourism receipts and Foreign Direct Investment in the long-run and the short run. Granger causality test revealed that there exists two way causality implying that Foreign Direct Investments helped to boost tourism sector while tourism earnings stimulated the Foreign Direct Investment. In addition, this research has identified various problems faced in attracting FDI in the Tourism sector and the appropriate recommendations have been presented in order to realize the major benefits from FDI inflow into the country on tourism industry.

Keywords: Foreign Direct Investment; Tourism; Co-integration; Causality

Introduction

Foreign Direct Investment is defined as foreign investors moving their assets into another country where they have control over the management of assets and profits (Graham & Spaulding, 2005). FDI is considered one of the routes through which developing countries can carry out tourism (UNCTAD, 2008). The development of the tourism industry needs investment in many forms and FDI is on such form. This introduces a causal link from FDI to tourist arrivals as this attracts greater number of visitors due to better amenities. In this backdrop, Sri Lanka is also inviting FDI itself for the reason that FDI plays a major role in contributing to the local resource base available for the investment to obtain sufficient rates of economic growth, which will improve standard of living of the people. In this regard, Sri Lanka offers attractive investment opportunities for foreign companies and has adopted a number of policies to attract foreign direct investment into the country. Hence, Sri Lanka revised its policy extensively in 1977 from one of extensive state controls to one of the far reaching liberalization (Uthayakumar, 2006). The objective of the reform was to attract FDI into the country. As a result, Sri Lanka received Rs.24 Millions of FDI in 1978, and it reached Rs.110,208 Millions of FDI in 2013 (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2014). It attracted USD 3,000 Million as Foreign Direct Investment to the country within 5 years to Sri Lanka Tourism Industry. (Ministry of Economic Development, 2011-2016). Several developments in tourism industry have happened in Sri

Lanka during the last few decades. Especially, tourist arrivals to Sri Lanka have suddenly increased during the post-war period. Since

Sri Lanka has number of potentials for the tourism development, almost 39 tourist attractive places have been identified in the island. Tourists' arrivals were 407511 and 447890 in 1994 and 2009 respectively (Ismail et al, 2012). Tourism has boomed to a new milestone of 1,274,593 arrivals in 2013, transcending all time high hits in the history which is an increase of 26.7 percent over last year's 1,005,605 arrivals. (Tourism Development Authority, 2013). Especially, the development progress in Sri Lanka is happening in almost all sectors in the post war environment. The end of three decades-war facilitated a prosperous future for the people in Sri Lanka and a booming situation in terms of economy and business. It is not exception to the tourism sector. In the post-war scenario, Sri Lankan tourism strategy plans to attract 2.5 million tourists to the country in the next five years (Mahinda Chintana, 2010). Meanwhile, tourism industry led to income received from tourism was Rs. 18,863 million in 2001, 40,133 Million in 2009 and 221,147 Million in 2013 (Tourism Development Authority, 2013). It was expected to increase to \$2.75 billion by 2016 (Ministry of Economic Development, 2011-2016).

Literature review

The growing pace of foreign direct investment flows entering the World's economies since the early 1990s has contributed to an acceleration of globalization and world economic integration. It is an essential factor for the development of a country. Its attraction depends on various factors such as trade, local resources, agriculture, and tourism etc. especially, developing nations like developed nations have been taken number of measures to increase their foreign direct investment. The development and economic policy of these nations also include foreign direct investment features. Many countries make changes to their economic policies in order to attract foreign direct investment and investors. At this backdrop, researches related to FDI have increased worldwide including Sri Lanka. Therefore, this study attempts to review empirical literatures the relationship between tourism and foreign direct investment. This review provides some fundamental ideas to analysis the impact of foreign direct investment on tourism sector. Sandford and Dong (2000) examine the influence of tourism on new FDI in the United States of America. The authors find a positive and significant relationship between tourism and foreign direct investment. They assumed that there exists one-way causality running from tourism to FDI. However, Safakli (2005), carried out a descriptive study titled "Extent of Foreign Direct Investments in the Tourism Sector of Northern Cyprus", which aim to examines the extent of foreign direct investments for the tourism sector of Northern Cyprus and recommends ways to optimize the economic value of such investments. On the other hand, Willem and Nair (2006) in his research on "Foreign Direct Investment, Services Trade Negotiation and Development: The Case of Tourism in the Caribbean", examined whether and how developing countries can use services trade negotiation to increase the amount of inward FDI conducive to development, with the focus on the tourism sector in the Caribbean. The study titled on "Foreign Direct Investment and the Tourism Industry: the Case of China" by Dimitrios et.al (2007), analyzed current state of FDI in China and the impact in tourism sector and identified the FDI inflow in the tourism sector has been supported by the growth of inward tourism and consumption. However, more studies of the relationship between tourism and FDI have been flourishing recently, but they are still scarce. Tang et.al (2007) argued empirically that more tourists would increase the demand for hotels,

and consequently investment would expand. Also, FDI can be positively affected as the large international hotel chains spread their brands to various parts of the world to meet growing tourism demand. They used the Granger causality test under a vector auto-regression framework to analysis causality relationship between FDI and tourism in China. The empirical research suggests that there is one-way causality running from FDI to tourism. And the FDI plays a critical role in expanding the tourist industry in China. The causal relationship between FDI and international tourism is an important implication of development in different tourism marketing and policy decisions, particularly in the developing countries. Srinivas (2008) in his research titled “A study on Foreign Direct Investment in Indian Tourism”, illustrated the impact of FDI on Indian tourism industry and the study highlights the reasons for low FDI rate in the Indian tourism. In this study, the researcher identified one of the most notable features of economic globalization has been the increased importance of foreign direct investment around the world. Moore & Craigwel (2008) on Foreign Direct Investment and Tourism in Small Island Developing States: Evidence from Panel Causality Test. The findings of this study were derived without the use of other explanatory variables in the test question and the study shows that results are robust to the inclusion of exogenous variables that capture the effects of foreign income and relative prices on tourism demand and foreign direct investment inflows in the Indian context, Selvanathan et.al (2009) investigated the casual relationship between foreign investment and the number of foreign tourist arrivals in India. The study titled on “causality between foreign direct investment and tourism: Empirical Evidence from India” revealed that the development of the tourism sector needs investment in many forms and FDI is one such source. Aviral (2011) examined the impact of tourism receipts, exports and foreign direct investment on economic growth on four Asian countries. Ahmed et.al (2013) studied the Relationship between Foreign Direct Investment and Tourism Development in Developing Countries to investigate the existence of Granger causality and co-integrated relationships between tourism related Foreign Direct Investment and tourism development in developing countries. This paper evaluated the causality and long-run relationship existence between foreign direct investment inflow and tourism arrivals. Overall, the most of the empirical findings suggested that there is a positive relationship between FDI and tourism industry. Nevertheless, these empirical studies are not abundant, especially in developing countries. In addition, they are mainly single-country and empirical studies at cross-country levels are scarce. Moreover, previous research did not separated long-run causality from short-run. Many researchers have been done on the relationship between FDI and tourism industry. There are some most recent researches titled on FDI and tourism in foreign context. However, the growing literature in this field focuses traditional role of foreign direct investment and its impact on tourism on the basis of econometrics and descriptive ways. There are no research carried out in the field of foreign direct investment and tourism in Sri Lanka, although different studies were carried out in abroad they have provided different findings and conclusions about determinants of FDI and Tourism Industry, it is not more appropriate to sketch out Sri Lankan context. This has left a gap on the study of Foreign Direct Investment and Tourism Industry to be studied and analyzed in a combined nature, in Sri Lankan context. Hence, it can be mentioned that this study will attempt to fill the research gap between FDI and tourism industry in Sri Lanka. At this backdrop, this research is investigating the relationship between FDI and Tourism Industry in Sri Lanka econometrically and descriptively based on the variables identified in the above reviewed literatures.

Methodology

This study uses annual data for the period from 1978 to 2013. Data for this study have been collected from the Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority – Annual Statistical Report, and Economic and Social Statistics in Sri Lanka. Variables of the study are tourism receipts (TR), as proxy for tourism activity and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), Exchange Rate (EX), Economic Freedom Index (EFI) and Dummy variable (D). All the above indicated variables are falling into the data type of quantitative variables that are measured by multiple regression analyses. Dummy variable has been defined 1 for no war period and 0 for war period. Econometric Methodology - Multiple Regression and Correlation analysis have been used to analyze the data and Ordinary Least Square (OLS) is used to estimate the parameters of the model. Granger type causality test has been used to identify the direction of casual relationship between FDI and tourism industry and Unit root test has been applied to test the stationary properties of each variable. Co-integration analysis has been done to examine the long run (LR) relationship between FDI and tourism industry. The data analysis involves three steps; stationary property of each time series is first tested using Augmented Dickey-Fuller, Co-integration test is performed in the second step to identify the existence of the long run relationship between the variables. In the third step, error correction mechanism and Granger Causality test are performed to find the short run relationship and casual relationship between tourism, Foreign Direct Investment and economic growth. E-views7 Econometrics software was used for the data analysis. The following functions are used for testing the contribution of Foreign Direct Investment to the Tourism sector in Sri Lanka. The model, based on Aviral (2011), and Selvanathan et al. (2009) formulated to examine the impact of foreign direct investment on tourism industry of Sri Lanka. The following analytical function given below is used to test the data on contribution of the performance of FDI to Tourism in Sri Lanka. Using log transformation, model is specified as follows,

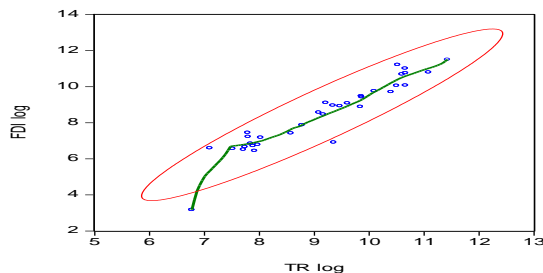
$$\log TR_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log FDI_t + \beta_2 \log EX_t + \beta_3 \log EFI_t + \beta_4 D + \varepsilon$$

Where *TR* is tourism receipts, *FDI* is Foreign Direct Investment, *EX* is exchange rate *EFI* is Economic Freedom Index and *D* is Dummy variable, ε is the error term and $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ and β_4 are parameters.

Results and discussion

These two factors, foreign direct investment and tourism industry are essential in influencing macro economy of a country. This part attempts to use nonparametric and parametric econometric techniques to evaluate the impact of foreign direct investment on tourism industry in Sri Lanka. Nonparametric approach graphical method, Confidence Ellipse, Kernel Fit, Nearest Neighbor fit to explore the relationship. Then, parametric econometric techniques – co-integration analysis, error correction model and causality analysis are employed to investigate the relationship. Figure 01 Graphical presentation of data is very useful to identify the trend and underlying relationship between the variables TR and FDI. The Kernel Fit and Confidence ellipse graphs show that strong positive relationship between LTR and LFDI. And also show LTR and LFDI series are highly correlated.

Ellipse (LTR&LFDI)



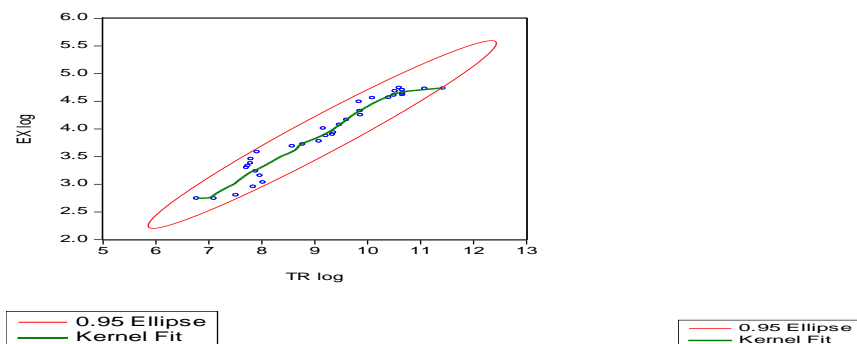


Figure 02 - Kernel Fit and Confidence ellipse (LTR&LEX)

Figure 02 Graphical presentation of data is very useful to identify the trend and underlying relationship between the variables TR and EX. The Kernel Fit and Confidence ellipse graphs show that strong positive relationship between LTR and LEX. And also LTR and LEX series are highly correlated.

Before the long-run relationship it is important to carry out a unit root test to variables. Thus, the first step in researcher’s methodology is to determine whether the variables that researcher used are stationary or non-stationary. If a series is non-stationary, then regression results may mislead the researcher.

Table 01 - Result of Unit Root Test (Variables LTR, LFDI, LEX and LEFI)

Variables	ADF Test	Intercept	Trend & Intercept	Decision
LTR	Level	-0.60	-2.40	Non – Stationary
	First difference	-3.99**	-3.89**	Stationary
LFDI	Level	-0.69	-2.43	Non – Stationary
	First difference	-4.98*	-5.05*	Stationary
LEX	Level	-2.27	0.24	Non – Stationary
	First difference	-4.22*	-5.30*	Stationary
LEFI	Level	-0.75	-3.07	Non – Stationary
	First difference	-6.10*	-6.05*	Stationary

* Significant at 1% Level

**Significant at 5% Level

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) Unit Root Tests are performed on both the levels and the first differences of the variables. The result of the unit root test (Augmented Dickey Fuller) for the variables are presented in the above table. The Augmented Dickey Fuller Test results confirm that the time series data of the variables in the model are non-stationary in their levels. However these variables are stationary in their first difference. Therefore, variables are integrated of order one, I (1). According to the Engle- Granger Co-integration analysis Unit Root Test for Residual of Co-integration Regression Equation was perform by Augmented Dickey-Fuller test. ADF test statistics = -4.994, P value = 0.0003. As it is estimated residual is stationary. Variables LTR, LFDI, LEX, and LEFI are co-integrated.

Table 02 - Co-integration Regression Results for the Model Dependent Variable: LTR

Variable	Coefficient	t Value	Probability (p)
β_0 (Intercept)	9.010802	1.520297	0.1401
ForeignDirect Investment (LFDI)	0.111234	2.312633	0.0286**
Exchange Rate (LEX)	1.515183	7.540122	0.0000*
Economic Freedom Index (LEFI)	-1.626943	-1.278369	0.2120
Dummy variable(D)	0.408901	3.211781	0.0034*
AR(1)	0.531073	3.213576	0.0034*
R-Sq(adj) = 98%, Akaike info criterion -0.550867, Schwarz criterion -0.278775, F-statistic 331.92 , Prob (F-statistic) 0.0000			

*Significant at 1% Level

**Significant at 5% Level

According to the Co-integration regression output presented in the above table such as adjusted is very high, Akaike info criterion, Schwarz criterion, F-statistic, Prob(F-statistic) are appropriate. The coefficient of determination of all the independent variables jointly explains the 98% of total variation of TR, thus validating statistical appropriateness to measure the relationship between economic performance and factors which affect the Tourism receipts performance specially Foreign Direct Investment. The model is overall significant at 1 % level. The sign of coefficient of all the variables are theoretically expected, further, the estimated coefficient of FDI indicates that, 1% increase in FDI will increase TR by 0.111 %. The long run relationship between FDI and TR is positively and statistically significant at 5% level. The estimated coefficient of EX indicates that, 1% increase of EX will increase TR 1.51%. The long run relationship between EX and TR is positively and statistically significant at 1% level. Economic Freedom Index has negative coefficient and statistically insignificant. The influence of dummy variable indicated for war and non war period used in this study is positively and statistically significant at 1% level.

Table 03 - Results of Error Correction Model (ECM) Dependent Variable: D(LTR)

Variable	Coefficient	t Value	Probability (p)
β_0 (Intercept)	-0.000453	-0.005402	0.9957
D(FDI_LOG)	0.095432	2.248664	0.0340**
D(EX_LOG)	0.741006	1.011338	0.3219
D(EFI_LOG)	-2.725704	-2.377750	0.0257**
D01	0.282447	2.329731	0.0286**
RESID01(-1)	-0.682980	-2.995283	0.0063*
AR(1)	0.533878	2.508644	0.0193**
F-Statistics 3.3257, Akaike info criterion -0.586431, Schwarz criterion -0.262628, Prob(F-Stat) 0.0158			

*Significant at 1% Level

**Significant at 5% Level

According to the result of error correction, model shown in table 03 F test statistics 3.32 with p-value 0.0158 indicate model is adequate. The adjustment coefficient -0.682 with p-value 0.0063 it is statistically significant and has expected sign. The negative sign indicates that LTR moves downwardly towards equilibrium path. It implies that 68 percent of the deviation from long run equilibrium is corrected each year. This shows the downward adjustment of LTR towards equilibrium path. However short run effect impact multiplier of LFDI is statistically significant and has the expected sign at 5 percent level. LEX variable is not statistically significant. LEFI, D variables are statistically significant and has the expected sign in the short run.

Table 04 -Results of Pairwise Granger Causality Tests

Null Hypothesis	Lag	F-Statistic	P-Value	Granger Causality
FDI does not Granger Cause TR	2	14.1371	6.E-05	Yes
TR does not Granger Cause FDI	2	15.6739	3.E-05	Yes

According to the results shown in table 04, the causality does run from FDI to TR in Sri Lanka. According to the Granger Causality Tests, FDI statistically (p value = 6E-05) motivated TR. TR statistically (p value = 3E-05) motivated FDI. The results reveal two way causal relationships from FDI to TR and from TR to FDI in Sri Lanka.

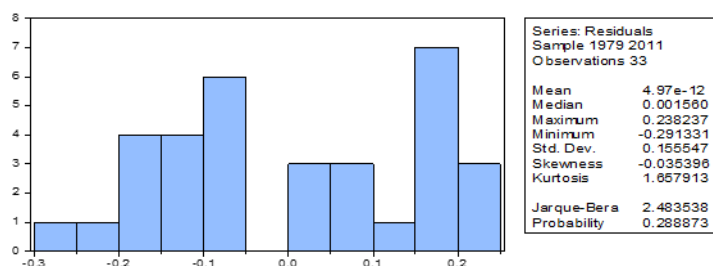


Figure 03 - Residual Distribution for the Model

The JB test shows that residual is normality distributed

Table 05 -The results of diagnostic tests based on the model

Tests	Statistics	Probability
Jarque-Bera (normality test)	2.483538	0.288873
Heteroskedasticity Test: ARCH	F statistics	0.055871
	ObsR-squared	0.059485
Bruesh-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM test:	F statistics	0.394158
	ObsR-squared	0.492807

According to the results shown in 3 figure and table 05, the model in the study has no non normality of errors, no autocorrelation, no heteroskedasticity, have well specified functional form and stable regressions. Therefore it can be concluded that the model applied in the study is robust and the specification of the model is an adequate representation of the data.

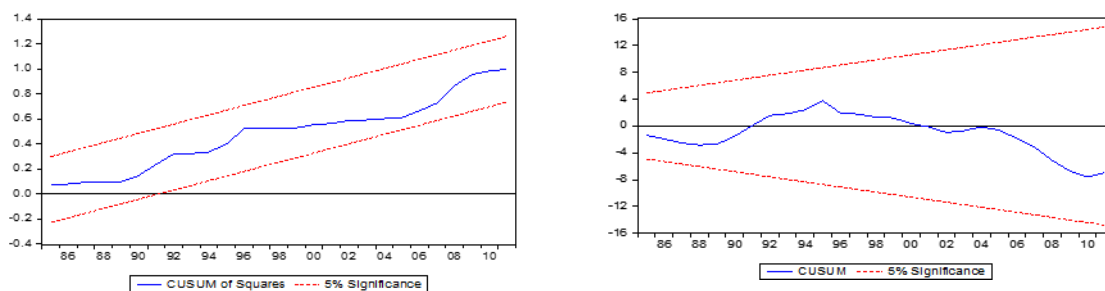


Figure 05 –Stability Test (Cusum of quares)

Cumulative sum and Cumulative sum of squares test using recursive residuals are preformed to examine the stability of the long run parameters. As the plots of the statistics for both tests lie within the critical bounds set for the 5 percent level, the hypothesis the regression equation is correctly specified is not rejected. It proves parameter stability. Residual diagnostics concerning autocorrelation, heteroskedasticity and normality indicate that the results are robust.

Conclusion

FDI plays a significant role in expanding the tourism sector in Sri Lanka. The tourism industry provides tremendous opportunity to Sri Lanka in terms of contribution to tourism receipts. At present, the government policies also focus to increase tourist arrivals in the country and facilitate investments in tourism infrastructure, would lead to significantly higher multiplier effect on the key economic parameters of the Sri Lankan economy. Despite several measures taken by the government, it is still not sufficient for the industry to compete with other international destinations. It is further noted that Sri Lanka has to take actions to improve quality of infrastructure, facilitations services, and product quality and utilize modern marketing and publicity tools for being competitive in the universal tourism industry. Hence, it is imperative for the government to take some strategy to promote the tourism sectors and become the best destination in Asia which is the main goal of Vision for the future. Since this study is a pioneer study, the findings of the study derived from the econometric analysis would be helpful to become wonder of Asia.

Recommendation

This part highlights the recommendations on the basis of the results and the sectors identified for inviting foreign direct investment in the tourism sector in Sri Lanka and the problems of investors who invest in the tourism sector in the country, and consider the motivation to upgrade the tourism sector through foreign direct investment. This shows that appropriate policy to explore tourism resources and plans to develop new tourist venues and facilities may need to be considered in order to meet the increasing demand of tourism in Sri Lanka expected as a result of continued strong foreign direct investment.

- Identified the attractive tourism zones island wide, especially Northern region, Paasikkuda, Kalpitiy, Arugambay and Trincomalee by promoting hotels and resorts facilities.

- The government should initiate many plans through Board of Investment, it can invite many investors globally in order to increase the foreign direct investment in the Sri Lankan tourism industry.
- To attract USD 3,000 Million as Foreign Direct Investment to the country by 2016, it is to be done by the corporation with Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority for tourism related investment projects with the corporation of Board of Investment, Urban Development Authority, the coast Conservation Department and other line agencies which will help to attract FDI to the country.
- The Sri Lankan government can implement a policy framework to support for investors and other industry to increase the tourists' arrival as well as invite more FDI to Sri Lanka. For this task, policies can be formulated in various levels.
- The government can create a plan to open Foreign Direct Investment to develop golf courses, water parks, marinas, entertainment studios, light aircraft services and sea planes, convention and exhibition centers, gaming cities in the special zones, race courses, theme parks, shopping malls, sport adventure, boat manufacturing and boat hiring and taxi services.
- To invite more foreign direct investment, the government should strengthen regional cooperation to increase tourism openness through the relaxation of regulatory barriers. And, international and local air lines can be encouraged to operate in Sri Lanka, and the government can establish the special cultural importance to Asia to attract religious tourists from neighboring countries.
- Government should recognize Strategic Tourism Development Priorities in Sri Lanka and such priorities need to be systematically mobilized into FDI stream.
- The policies and programs for national development should be developed to create multiplier and maximal effects of investments.
- Sri Lanka should consider developing strategies to integrate tourism development with each economic sector creating for TFDI.
- FDI inflows is related to tourism are not separately recognized and recorded in Sri Lanka. So it is recommended to implement a program to systematically track the TFDI inflow into the country and to record them.
- Finally, the study suggests that appropriate policy to explore tourism resources and plans to develop new tourist venues and facilities may need to be considered in order to meet the increasing demand of tourism in Sri Lanka expected as a result of continued strong foreign direct investment.

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Buddha baht: the religion of money in 21st century Thailand

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Background: According to the Buddha's teachings, greed, or desire, is one of the "three poisons" that leads to suffering and is a hindrance to enlightenment. Today, however, many Thais who consider themselves Theravada Buddhist have given in to material cravings and are involved in various practices to attract cold hard cash. Buddha images composed of shredded Thai baht suspended in resin, revered monks famous for bestowing wealth upon their followers, and Buddhist amulets that purportedly bring fortune to the wearer are just a few examples of ways that Thais mix their religion with materialism.

Methods and Conclusions: Over the past decade, the objective of my research has been to document the religious and superstitious beliefs of Thai people. I have done extensive fieldwork related to this subject, including taking thousands of photographs of talismans and other charms that Thais believe bring them prosperity. My research methodology has included interviewing local Thais, as well as experts in the fields of Thai archaeology and art history, and studying books and articles related to the topic. My presentation would include visuals highlighting my own photographs of talismans used to attract money and would be augmented with background information based on my findings about the talismans in the photographs.

Background

Buddhism and money are two areas that often seem incompatible. For many, the topic of finances in the context of religion and spirituality is considered impure. There is also a historical separation associated with monastic traditions. Buddhist monks are supposed to eschew worldly possessions and live in ascetic conditions as they practice meditation while on their dedicated paths to enlightenment. Traditionally, a Buddhist monk is not even supposed to touch money ("Chequebook Buddhism", 2015). In Buddhism, beliefs surrounding materialism stem, in part, from Buddhist teachings that contend that greed and desire are self-destructive and lead to evil, or *akusala*. *Akusala* is considered to be one of the "three poisons", along with anger and foolishness. Desire is also deemed one of the five hindrances to realizing enlightenment according to the Nivarana Sutta in the Pali Canon, the earliest Buddhist scriptures. Furthermore, The Second Noble Truth, from the Buddha's first sermon after his enlightenment, teaches that the cause of suffering is craving or thirst (*tanha*). According to this teaching, we never remain satisfied on our continual search for something outside ourselves to make us happy, and as a result is a cause of stress and suffering known as *dukkha* (Kornfield, 2012).

Modern day economists with ties to Buddhism have also tried to shape today's attitudes surrounding money in Buddhist countries in Asia. Thailand can be included as over 90% of Thais consider themselves to be Theravada Buddhist. In the second half of the 20th Century, the concept of Buddhist Economics was introduced. At this time a generation found themselves dissatisfied with prevailing values and norms, including those related to mainstream economics. In the 1960s, the internationally influential economist E.F. Schumacher, who was greatly influenced by Mahatma Gandhi and who was once an economic consultant in Myanmar (known

as Burma at the time), introduced his slogan “Small is Beautiful” which was at the crux of Buddhist Economics. One of his main arguments is that we cannot consider the problem of technological production solved if it requires that we recklessly erode our finite natural capital and deprive future generations of its benefits (Schumacher, 2010). E.F. Schumacher’s collection of essays, “Small is Beautiful: a Study of Economics as if People Mattered”, received wide acclaim and influenced many scholars, economists, activists, and even Buddhist monks. In Thailand, the Venerable Dhammapitaka, better known internationally as P. A. Payutto, has interpreted Buddhist Economics in his own way. The Thai activist Sulak Sivaraksa has also applied E.F. Schumacher’s theories while advocating Buddhist principles of compassion and nonviolence in economic development.

Although traditional and some contemporary philosophies in Buddhism focus on solutions to the problems of suffering related to greed, there are also Buddhist teachings that offer insight on the topic of finances and wealth for adherents of the religion. The Buddha acknowledged that economic stability is essential for human welfare and happiness. In one of the Buddha’s teachings known as the Dighajanu Sutta which is part of the Anguttaranikaya, he talks about the conditions of welfare, and mentions that there are four kinds of happiness derived from wealth. This includes the happiness of ownership (*Atthisukha*), contentment obtained from wealth earned by the right livelihood (*Anavajjasukha*), satisfaction derived from not being in debt (*Ananasukha*), and the joy of sharing one’s wealth (*Bhogasukha*).

One of the main guiding principles in Buddhism is the Middle Way, the goal of transcendence and reconciliation of the extremes of opposing dualities, and this can also be applied to areas corresponding to money. Related to this concept is the Buddhist term *matannuta* that alludes to the principle of moderation, or knowing the right amount. The “Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy” conceived by Thailand’s King HM Bhumibol Adulyadej also encourages Thai citizens to follow the Middle Way. According to the Chaipattana Foundation, a Thai non-governmental organization established by the King that focuses on social and national development, “Sufficiency Economy is a philosophy based on the fundamental principle of Thai culture. It is a method of development based on moderation, prudence, and social immunity, one that uses knowledge and virtue as guidelines in living. Significantly, there must be intelligence and perseverance which will lead to real happiness in one’s life” (Chaipattana Foundation, n.d.).

Thai Buddhist Commercialism

Despite initiatives to curb materialism, it appears as if Thailand’s consumer culture is spinning out of control. Every year the retail market in Thailand continues to grow exponentially. In 2012 alone, it grew by 10 percent and during that year, 681 thousand square meters of retail space were added in Bangkok (Jones Lang Lasalle, 2012). In 21st Century Thailand, Buddhism has to compete with the religion of money. Today, shopping malls have replaced temples as centers of community activity and there are now more prostitutes in this country than monks (Sivaraksa, 2009, p. 5). Many Thais have misinterpreted Buddhist teachings and have implemented a variety of pseudo religious practices for the pure sake of attracting money. In recent times, a new Thai idiom, *Buddha Panich*, meaning Buddhist Commercialism, has been created to describe this present-day phenomenon.

According to Sulak Sivaraksa, globalization is to blame for the loss of Buddhist virtues in Thailand. In his book, *The Wisdom of Sustainability*, he goes so far to call globalization a demonic religion. He believes that it imposes materialistic values on society while driving individuals to try to earn more to acquire more in a never-ending cycle of greed and insecurity. Sivaraksa also regards globalization as a new form of colonialism where industrialization, the monetary economy, and modernity are presumed to be superior over agrarian lifestyles, subsistence economies, and indigeneity (Sivaraksa, 2009, p. 10-11).

Others point to advertising and maintain that it deliberately promotes a climate of self-centeredness revolving around material desires that foster greed and envy, along with feelings of dissatisfaction and inadequacy. In Thailand, the advertising market continues to expand and influence Thai consumer behavior. According to a recent media forecast by Pricewaterhouse Coopers, the multinational professional services network, spending for TV advertising in Thailand alone is expected to reach 3.13 billion US dollars by 2017 (Pricewaterhouse Coopers, 2013). Not only has the amount of advertising on Thai TV increased, advertisers will now go anywhere and everywhere to sell their products. In Bangkok, even the mass transit system (BTS) runs non-stop ads on monitors in their skytrains. This is in addition to all of the other environmental graphics offering various products and services on the interiors and exteriors of the trains that vie for the attention of consumers.

David R. Loy, The Zen Buddhist author and teacher, on the other hand, attributes materialism to what he calls “the repression of emptiness”. Loy’s explanation revolves around the Buddhist concept of *anatma*, the absence of ego-self, as well as the psychoanalytic concept of repression. He asserts that the money complex is motivated by the religious need to redeem oneself and fill one’s sense of lack. In Buddhist terms, the dilemma involves the psyche trying to objectify itself by grasping the spiritual in this world, and this can only be done unconsciously and symbolically. Money, according to Loy, is the most important symbol today (Loy & Watts, 2002).

Perhaps it should be no surprise then that Thai Buddhist monks in recent times have also become caught up in the world of excess. One of the most infamous scandals involved the revered monk Wiraphol Sukphol taking “selfies” with his smartphone while flying in a private jet. Other monks use social media, play video games, use ATMs, and shop at 7-11. Some believe that Thai monks are more interested in making money these days than making merit. According to Phra Maha Paiwan Warawunno, a young charismatic monk who regularly criticizes the state of Thai Buddhism on his Facebook page, “Buddhism is overwhelmed by capitalism. We have become too obsessed with the idea of getting benefits and money” (“Chequebook Buddhism”, 2015). Even some Buddhist temples have openly embraced commercialism.

One temple in particular, Wat Dhammakaya, one of the richest in Thailand, with over 10 million followers worldwide, has recently come under fire for its questionable practices, including money matters. With its unorthodox “new age” interpretations of Buddhist teachings and architecture that resembles a UFO, many conservative Buddhists question their ideology and also accuse its abbot, Phra Dhammachayo, of encouraging financial donations from its members as a way to buy good karma. Devotees are told that their monetary contributions will help secure a better place for them in their next life and will bring them inner peace. Recently, one

businessman donated nearly 20 million US dollars to the temple to try and gain a favorable position in the future after being reincarnated, however an investigation revealed that the money was embezzled from a credit union (“Chequebook Buddhism”, 2015).

Many average Thai folk employ a variety of methods and techniques to try to attract money, including displaying statuettes known for their money-making capabilities in cars, homes, and businesses, as well as wearing amulets on necklaces. The front of the charms generally contain an iconic relief image while the back typically includes sacred symbols and writing originating from monks and from ancient texts. Amulets are most often created by senior monks and are made from clay mixed with other sacred ingredients, while others are carved from stone, wood, and ivory, or cast in resin or metal. Although Thais refer to the possession of amulets as “renting” them, the value of them can increase dramatically if they have been blessed by important monks, were created at certain temples, or are from a particular era.

Many Thais have long believed that representations of certain Buddhist monks bring them prosperity. Images of Arahant Phra Sivali (Fig. 1) are often collected by Thais trying to attract wealth. Phra Sivali, a disciple of the Buddha, is known for his ability to provide an abundance of food and necessities for himself and for his retinue of five hundred monks during his lifetime. Depicted with his umbrella, alms bowl, walking stick, and prayer beads, small charms of Phra Sivali are in high demand among those involved in various forms of business. Images of the venerable Thai monk, Luang Phor Koon (Fig. 2), are also popular among Thai Buddhists who are looking to make a fortune. Superstitious Thais believe that his name “Koon”, which means multiply in Thai, refers directly to the notion of increasing financial gain. This monk is famous for having raised millions of baht for his temple in Nakhon Ratchasima and for the poor, and as a result, his admirers believe that he had special money making powers. During his lifetime, the monk often tried to bestow fortune on his followers, and when devotees visited him, they were usually blessed with a stack of bills being tapped on their heads. The highly esteemed monk recently passed away in May 2015, and on his deathbed, greedy opportunists rubbed his hand with amulets that had his own image on them.

The last amulets that came into contact with him will undoubtedly be worth millions of Thai baht. Depictions of “fat and happy Buddhas”, including the potbellied monk from Chinese folklore called Budai (Fig. 3), and the Thai version known as Phra Sangkachai (Fig. 4), are commonly worn or displayed in hopes of attracting riches. Both represent contentment and plentitude with their smiles and rotund physiques. The two of them are also frequently depicted with moneybags, especially Budai whose name means “cloth sack”. While Budai is believed to be a version of Maitreya, the future Buddha who was alive in the 10th Century CE, Sangkachai lived during the time of Siddhartha Gautama, and similar to Phra Sivali, was an arahant, or enlightened being. According to legend, he transformed himself into a less-than attractive male with a portly figure to avoid being compared to the Buddha who was considered to be a good-looking man with a radiant complexion.

Thais also believe that money attracts more money, and as a result, it is common to see banknotes and coins displayed in businesses throughout Thailand. One method of collecting currency involves “money trees” where those who contribute add more baht to branches in order

to literally help the trees grow (Fig. 5). In Bangkok taxis, coins affixed to various surfaces invite passengers to add to the collection (Fig. 6), and in local shops, “lucky” paper bills from important transactions are sometimes framed or attached to walls. It is also common to see Thai baht in large denominations photoshopped with images of revered monks (Fig. 7). Even certain images of the Buddha are believed to attract money. Small statues of the Buddha are sometimes made out of clear resin with torn banknotes inside to represent the idea of assets being multiplied (Fig. 8).

Certain characters from classic Thai literature, mythology, and folk stories are also utilized in the pursuit of prosperity. One of the most popular Thai goddesses is Nang Gwak who lures in money with her gesturing hand (Fig. 9). Her name literally means "madame beckons" and she is the Thai version of Maneki Neko, the Japanese lucky cat. You can find small statues and printed images of Nang Gwak sitting Thai style and waving to potential customers in many local shops, restaurants, and taxis. Kumanthong is another Thai character believed to bring good fortune, as well as provide protection from evil spirits (Fig. 10). The occult Thai tradition of the Kumanthong originated in Sunthon Phu's classic 19th-century epic poem *Khun Chang, Khun Phaen*. In the story, Khun Phaen, a soldier, is involved in black magic and conjures up spirits, including Kumanthong, the stillborn fetus of his own son, to look after him. Today, small figures of the ghost child dressed in traditional Thai clothing with a topknot are very popular throughout Thailand. Images of Hanuman, the monkey god from the Indian epic the Ramayana, known as the Ramakien in Thai, can also be found holding moneybags (Fig. 11).

Small fetishes and larger sculptures of phalluses known as *palad khik* are also sometimes utilized as a way to attract wealth (Fig. 12). *Palad khik* originate in India and represent the Hindu god Shiva in the form of Linga, but it is the Khmer who brought them to Thailand from Cambodia hundreds of years ago. Symbolizing fertility, virility, and the “reproduction” of money, *palad khik* talismans are traditionally worn by men around their waists, although today some women carry them for protection and to help generate money, as well. Other charms in Thailand that represent prosperity relate to fishing. For Thais, fish are a symbol of wealth, as food from the sea and inland waterways is a staple in the Thai diet, and as fishing has long been one of the main industries here. In fact, the tradition of displaying talismans in modes of transportation originates in boats.

In addition, water is an important symbol in Buddhism, and in this case, represents the flow of abundance. One device used to attract wealth is made with Thai baht folded into the shape of fish (Fig. 13). Constructed from out-of-circulation notes creased with elaborate accordion pleats that compose the body and the fins, they are usually decorated with ribbons, beads, sequins, and plastic eyes. Another nautical charm is in the form of fish traps (Fig. 14) displayed in businesses to symbolically trap money (Aphichatkriangkrai, 2008). They look like elongated hand-woven baskets that hang horizontally and are adorned with decorative elements, including sacred cloth and bells, and sometimes, money has already been “caught” inside the traps.

For Thais with superstitious beliefs, almost anything can be relegated to the purpose of attracting wealth. Even if particular talismans are considered sacred and even when objects and

images seem to hold no religious significance at all, some Thais still use them to conjure up riches. Everything from natural materials such as rocks, sticks, and leaves, to cloth that has been blessed by monks, to traditional Thai *sak yant* tattoos, are sometimes linked to beliefs regarding prosperity. Talismans from other cultures and even other religions are also utilized in the quest for money. Some Thais have no qualms about using Chinese, Indian, Japanese, Khmer, and even Christian icons to attract money.

Conclusion

While it seems that many Thais Buddhists have forgotten or misinterpreted the teachings of the Buddha, especially those focusing on greed and desire, the majority of Thais still practice conventional principles of the religion in their daily lives. In addition, certain Thais denounce Buddhist Commercialism altogether. Those who associate themselves with the Dhammayuttika Nikaya, or Dhammayut order, a smaller branch of Theravada Buddhism that was established in 1833 by H.R.H. Prince Mongkut, for example, are more strict and steer clear of non-Buddhist and superstitious beliefs that have become a part of Buddhism over time. Furthermore, practitioners of Dhutanga Kammattana, who live and meditate in the forest or sparsely populated areas, avoid coming into contact with money and emphasize ethical observance and strict adherence to monastic code. In the words of Thanissaro Bhikku, an American Theravada Buddhist monk of the Dhammayut order known for his translations of the Pali Canon, "Kammattana monks have come to represent, in the eyes of many monastics and lay people, a solid and reliable expression of the Dhamma in a world of fast and furious modernization" (Bhikku, 2010).

While the avoidance of financial matters is possible for some Thais, and is a requirement for those in the monastic community, it is unrealistic for most. Money is the main form of exchange in our world and anyway, the Buddha never intended for laymen to live in poverty. Donations, including forms of currency, have long been an important aspect of Thai Buddhism as it relates to the belief of making merit. Furthermore, the utilization of talismans is deeply entrenched in Thai culture, and although some use them inappropriately to attract money, it is highly unlikely that these practices will end anytime soon. The problem revolves around Thais who unscrupulously harm their society in the name of greed and corruption, as well as those in the lower income bracket who turn to desperate measures such as gambling and prostitution to try and survive. As Thailand continues to develop, and as materialism and other social problems mushroom, sensible policies and a plan of action that takes into consideration the unique characteristics of this country and its people should be considered. Globalization and modernization should not necessitate the abandonment of traditional Thai beliefs and ways of life. The teachings of the Buddha, as well as guiding doctrines from other religions in Thailand, including Islam, should also be taken into account in the strategy for building a better future. Thailand will never be free from greed and desire, but perhaps it is truly time for this nation to focus on the Middle Way.



Fig. 1



Fig. 2



Fig. 3



Fig. 4



Fig. 5



Fig. 6



Fig. 7



Fig. 8



Fig. 9



Fig. 10



Fig. 11

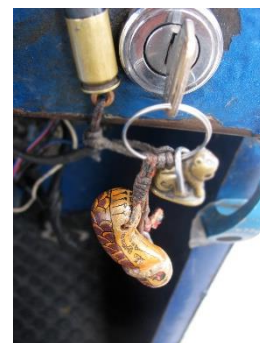


Fig. 12



Fig. 13



Fig. 14

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Comparing Mindfulness in a College Sample of non-Buddhist and Nichiren Buddhist Women

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Research shows that the transition to the university presents women with both multiple opportunities and challenges. Women are faced with changing expectations and increased demands in the academic and social spheres which may lead to stress. Research has shown that life satisfaction and access to various life skills impact stress. This study is grounded in the emotional regulation model. The purpose of this study is to investigate transition stress and mindfulness. This study will include at least 100 college women non-Buddhists and Nichiren Buddhists women using the Kentucky Inventory Mindfulness Skills survey. The KIMS has been successfully used to measure pre and posttest levels of mindfulness in small group intervention. A quantitative quasi-experimental design will be conducted and a t-test used to test the study hypothesis.

Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain: a pioneer voice to deplore patriarchy for Muslim women in colonial Bengal of the 19th century

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The nineteenth century was a period of darkness, gloom and despair for the Muslim women of Bengal together with the Muslim women of the whole Indian subcontinent. They were suffering from decadence, ignorance and frustration. Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain, the pioneer Bengali Muslim feminist, was a prominent writer on women's issues, the lady with the lamp in the rights, education and modernization of women in Colonial Bengal. A woman far advanced in her progressive ideas among the contemporaries of her society. Begum Rokeya played the role of a pioneer and her place in the history of the Bengali Muslim women's struggle for emancipation from age-old social bond is unforgettable. In her society she was the herald of a new age when Muslim women would be fully vindicated as human beings. She found misinterpretation of Islam and social backwardness to cling to patriarchal tradition to be the root causes behind women's unspeakable misery. Now women are looking forward to shaping their own lives, households, communities, and nations despite the restrictive gender ideologies and practices.

Keywords: Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain, Muslim women, Colonial Bengal, Patriarchy

Introduction :

Colonial Muslim South Asia had two leading cultural centres: Bengal and North India. As part of the far-reaching reformist movement during the colonial period and beyond, intellectual work from these two places included a powerful segment of feminist writing which has remained the harbinger of the women's rights movement among Muslims of this region. It is important to give research attention to South Asian Muslim writers, many of whom have been marginalised mainly because of the dominance of, and sometimes overriding and disproportionate focus on, their Hindu counterparts. Against this background, this article discusses the life, incredible commitment, sacrifice and feminist accomplishments of Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain (1880-1932). It will also contextualise her ideas in the broader South Asian Muslim feminist tradition.

The whole world knows that England has her Mary Wollstonecraft and France has her Simone de Beauvoir as feminists, but the world knows a very little that Bengal also has her Rokeya Shakhawat Hossain, an intrepid feminist, who struggled till the last day of her life for the perfectly right assessment of the neglected Indian women, was born in 1880, in Pairaband, a small village in British India which now lies in the north-western part of present-day Bangladesh. She pioneered women's advancement and led the way to enlightening and empowering women breaking all the traditional social barriers. When the whole women folk were utterly distressed, deprived, and drowned under the dirt of illiteracy, fanaticism, superstitions, and prejudices and could not think of equal rights and freedom, she raised her voice through her writings and worked to uplift the fortune of women, instilled a sense of renaissance in them and led them to tasting the flavor of freedom opposed to the current of patriarchal social views. Based on this bold attitude toward female emancipation, Rokeya can easily be acclaimed as a feminist whereas some critics have viewed her as a Muslim or Islamic

feminist which is nothing but an immature attempt to underestimate her genius. This paper, therefore, aims at exploring Rokeya's *Istrijatir Abanati (Woman's Downfall)* (1903) with a view to showing her firm determination, endeavors, and voice to emancipate women, and advocating her as a concerned feminist.

In 1905, a Madras-based English periodical, *The Indian Ladies' Magazine* carried a story titled *Sultana's Dream* written by Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain. It was a "utopian fantasy" (Tharu and Lalita 340) – the first known example of such a work by a woman in India – in which Rokeya imagines a world where cooking is a pleasure, horticulture is an important activity and science is used only for humanitarian ends. It is a woman's world – peaceful and ordered – where men are "shut indoors" in the *murdana*.⁴ As Rokeya's husband remarked on reading the story, it is indeed a "terrible revenge" on men (Jahan 2).

Rokeya was undoubtedly a remarkable writer and thinker whose contributions to the rich intellectual discourse of late colonial Bengal has begun to receive the attention, it has always deserved, in recent years. Thanks to efforts by feminist scholars, Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain's name has now found its way into the list of "exceptional," "early feminist" women writers from colonial India circulating in critical academic circles within the Anglo-American academy. What has remained less noticed are the works of the other dozen-odd Muslim women – such as Masuda Rahman, Khaerunnessa Khatun, Razia Khatun Choudhurani, Mahmuda Khatun Siddiqua, Ayesha Ahmed and Faziltunnessa to name a few – who were also writing on a wide range of issues pertinent to women's lives in the first half of the twentieth century.⁵ A few others such as Sufia Kamal and Samsun Nahar Mahmud may have gained recognition for their writing and/or their activism over time, but few readers outside Bangladesh and West Bengal would recognise their names, even in the subcontinent. As historical sources, the work of all these early women writers is important. They were also seminal in gaining the attention and eventual confidence of readers who were by and large averse to the idea of the emancipation of women at that time. And yet such efforts are rarely acknowledged, leaving one with the impression that Rokeya was a thinker "out of time and place" (Sarkar, "Looking for Feminism" 325-27).

A glimpse into her life as a daughter

Though born in an aristocratic Muslim family in the village of Pairaband, Rangpur, located in the British Bengal Presidency, which now lies in the present day Bangladesh in 1880, Begum Rokeya herself had the firsthand experience of gender discrimination meted out to her and her other sisters by her father Zahiruddin Muhammad Abu Ali Hyder Saber. As daughters of an elite conservative Muslim family, Rokeya and her sisters had to observe strict *purdah* (veiling or covering of body from head to toe); even they were not allowed to speak and mix with any male persons beyond close family members. Recounts of many sad incidents of her childhood life with great sorrow and bitterness are found on various points of her writing. Because of her father's loath and insular mentality regarding women's education, she along with her sisters was barred from attending schools for studying Bengali, English and pursuing any other forms of knowledge except learning the skill to read the Qur'an in parrot-like manner to become a future ideal wife and mother. Her father's opposition to and disapproval of Rokeya's learning Bengali was mainly because of the existing ethos of upper class Muslim families almost all over India. They considered Urdu as the *lingua franca* of royal Muslims and so made it the medium of instruction in almost all Muslim-dominated schools in greater Bengal region. Although majority of people in Bengal region were speakers of Bengali, this language was looked down upon as the

commoner's language, and therefore, considered to be inappropriate for the high cultured Muslim family members to master this language. Moreover, he imposed restriction on his daughters believing that girls' exposure to education at school might contaminate their minds with non-Muslim ideas.

But he did the opposite to his sons by encouraging and even patronizing them to learn English so that they could enter civil service holding respectable positions. Therefore, his son Ibrahim Saber was sent to the prestigious St. Xavier's College in Calcutta and later to England for higher studies. This exposure to modern education and society gave Ibrahim Saber an opportunity to get acquainted with a relatively liberal societal attitude towards women, which made him progressive and supportive of female education. Later returning home from abroad, he began to give Rokeya a covert education on English secretly at night and continued doing so even under the most scornfully taunting remarks of their relatives. Prior to it, Rokeya already learnt the Bengali language under her elder sister Karimunnesa Khatun's benevolent grooming from childhood. Her childhood biography tells the story of her unbending craving for education under unfavorable circumstances. Another person who could perceive her dormant talents as a writer was her husband, Khan Bahadur Syed Sakhawat Hossain, an Urdu speaking district magistrate in Bhagalpur, presently situated in the Indian state of Bihar, who married the sixteen-year old Rokeya in 1896. Not provincial but progressive in outlook as an England-returned educated man like his brother in law Ibrahim Saber, Sakhawat Hossain actively helped in fructifying and flourishing Rokeya's nascent multifaceted genius. His support to his wife's literary activities during his lifetime extended beyond when he bequeathed her a handsome amount of money to start a school for Muslim girls. She was a promising writer when her husband was alive, but came in the spotlight as a feminist author, educationist and women's right activist after his demise in 1909. Since then, her mission to emancipate the voiceless women of Bengal never faltered, and continued with the most vigorous spirit of earnestness, sincerity and dedication.

Methodology

This paper is developed based on the analysis of both the primary and the secondary sources. Primary source refers to the author's own writings. Most of her writings are in Bengali but a few works of her are written in English. This article explores the world of women in South Asia, especially in Bangladesh, in light of Begum Rokeya's utopias *Sultana's Dream* and *Padmarag*. The article studies the utopias to seek the emancipation of women from the shackles of patriarchy and thereafter their empowerment through education and economic freedom. The secondary source refers to the works done on the author. The secondary information were collected from published books, journals and research papers, most of which were published during the period of 1937 – 2011. The study concludes that education and economic freedom form the foundation for women's empowerment. This paper also investigates the nature and extent of women's empowerment and emancipation through education and economic freedom in the form of self reliance as Rokeya delves into in her utopias: *Sultana's Dream* and *Padmarag*. The book named *Life of Rokeya* (1937) written by Samsun Nahar is the first book written on Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain, helped me a lot to get information about her.

Result

This paper is expected to establish Begum Rokeya as one of the leading 20th century feminist writers.

Status of Women and the Idea of Female Emancipation in Colonial Bengal

When the sufferings of women reached its culmination, a lot of writers, social reformers, private organizations, and print media came forward to uplift the status of women through their reform activities which actually show the cruel adversity of women in Indian sub-continent. “The main purpose of all reform-attempts was to tear the fetters of womanhood and establish their rights restraining Sati, forbidding polygamy, allowing widow-marriage, resisting the practice of aristocracy and spreading female-education” (Alam, 2009, p. 40).

Another observation in this regard is:

Bengali reformers, Brahmo and otherwise, still held the nation first propagated widely in 1855 by Akhoy Kumar Dutt and Vidyasagar, that Hindu social reform in Bengal must start with the emancipation of women. Because women played such a crucial role in shaping the character and thought of children, it was essential that they be educated properly. (Kopf, 1975, p. 46)

In connection with this, “Keshab Chandra always believed that no substantial progress in society was possible without first emancipating women from the fetters of ignorance, superstition and inhibiting customs...a solid education should be given to women if their miseries were to be alleviated” (Sinha, 1968, p. 251). Infact, starting with Ram Mohan to Rabindranath Tagore,

Almost all the writers and social activists thought over women’s right and the main characteristics of their writings were raising awareness of female distress and wishing for its remedy throughout 18th and 19th century. Though they used the term “female emancipation” in some or other places, it was completely absent from their writings if it means the acknowledgement of female independent personality. (Hasan, 2008, p. 121)

That is why Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, despite his being a great social reformer, but at the same time due to the existing social norm for not to introduce girls on stage in any theatrical performance, did not yield to the proposal made by Michael Modhushudhon Dutt to use female characters in the stage performance of his “Sharmishtha” even though they were taken from brothel. Consequently, he left the theatre when Michael Modhushudhon Dutt wanted to introduce girls to play the role of woman on the stage. When Keshab Chandra Sen, another social activist, allowed his daughter’s early-marriage, all his endeavors to emancipate women ended in smoke. Robindranath Tagore also married a girl who was 11 years old and he gave his daughters in marriage around 10. Actually, they did not dare to assert the ideal of female emancipation breaking the prevailing social taboo against women. Besides social activists, some Christian Missionaries established *The Female Juvenile Society for Establishment for Bengali Female School, Bengal Christian School Society, and Ladies Society for Native Female Education in Calcutta and It’s Vicinity* with a view to educating Bengali girls in the first half of the 19th century. But their endeavors ended in smoke when their motif of converting the girls into Christianity was exposed. Toward the end of the 19th century, some women reformists from the Brahmin society came forward and established *Bama Hitoishini Shova* (1871), *Bharot Asroy* (1872), *Arzo Nari Shomaj* (1879), and *Shokhi Somiti* (1886) in order to help poor women, educate girls, and establish female rights. In the mean time, some newspapers and magazines like

Bango Mahila (1870), *Onathini* (1875), *Antapur* (1898), *Kohinur* (1898), *Nobonur* (1903), and *Sougat* (1918) covered arguments and counter-arguments regarding female education and their emancipation. All these activities, in fact, centered round uplifting only Hindu women and led them clearly ahead whereas the Muslim community, being influenced by the Bengali Renaissance, understood the importance of female education late and at the same time could not help questioning the female emancipation raising the issue of seclusion in the name of purdah.

So, the Indian womanhood and the general fate of women remind us what Nora said her husband in *A Doll's House*: "Our house has been nothing but a playroom. Here I have been your doll-wife, just as at home I used to be papa's doll-child" (Ibsen, 2006, p. 164). In such a state:

When the entire nation was suffering from suspicion, hesitation and bewilderment from all around, Mrs. R. S. Hussein came down to earth from the Heaven with the message of belief and life wherein our all destroyed strayed society found an enlightened path. (Kha, 1339, p. 267)

As a representative of female voice, "Begum Rokeya tried to repel the age-old social prejudices regarding women preaching progressive trend of thoughts through her writing" (Hossain, 1384, p. 226) in the beginning of the 20th century. In her *Istrijatir Abanati*, which has recently been translated as *Woman's Downfall* by Mohammad A. Quayum and published in Transnational Literature by Flinders Institute for Research in the Humanities, Adelaide, Australia, Rokeya has made an attempt to unsheathe the enslaved women and get them dependent on their own with a view to taking a swipe at men for their oppression against women and emancipating them from the vicious circle of ignorance, indolence, and subjugation physically, psychologically, intellectually, socially, and economically.

Reasons behind the Degradation of Women

In *Woman's Downfall*, first published in 1903 as *Alankar na Badge of Slavery (Jewellery, or Badge of Slavery)* in *Mahila*, a monthly magazine edited by Girish Chandra Sen, Rokeya categorically reviews the downfall of women as slaves and the reasons behind it, the ways to come over their bondage and the assertion of their independent self-identity. In fact, her own experience of secluded life at home, her great affection and stern responsibility for the destitute women of the society and, afterwards, her passion for equal rights of European people encourages Rokeya to raise her voice to the principle of female emancipation. Therefore, she invites the female readers to think of their misfortunes in the beginning of the essay: "What are we in this civilized world of the twentieth century? Slaves! I hear slavery as a trade has disappeared from this world, but has our servitude ended? No. There are reasons why we are still in bondage" (Quayum, 2011, p. 6).

To talk about the adversity of women, she boldly expresses her grievance over men who deprive them from receiving education, do not give them opportunity to show their "efficiency", consider them as "weak", "incompetent", and "inferior", and extend their helping hand leading them to "become slaves of indolence and, by extension, of men". Because of the lack of education women lose their "ability to differentiate between freedom and captivity, progress and stagnation, slowly, from being landlords and master of the house, men, in stages, have ended up being our lord and proprietor" (Quayum, 2011, pp. 6-7). They gradually make woman like one of their "domesticated animals, or some kind of a prized property". Rokeya here simply resembles what Wollstonecraft believed (2007) "that all the writers who have written on the subject of female education and manners, from Rousseau to Dr. Gregory, have contributed to render

women more artificial, weak characters, than they would otherwise have been; and consequently, more useless members of society” (p. 18).

Rokeya also considers the careful and earnest attention of men and their shielding of women with the armor of love and affection, which women are swinging along, heaving, bobbing, and dissolving to, responsible for the world-wide degradation of women: “In fact, their compassion is the source of our ruin.

By cooping us up in their emotional cage, men have deprived us from the light of knowledge and unadulterated air, which is causing our slow death” (Quayum, 2011, p. 9). Being constantly protected from the dangers and difficulties of the society, women lose their courage, confidence, and will altogether. They become totally dependent on their husband renouncing self-reliance. When they face the slightest of difficulties, they rush into the house and start wailing at the highest pitch. Therefore, Rokeya humbly pleads to the honorable brothers: “Do us this favour, do not do any favour to us” (Quayum, 2011, p. 9).

Begum Rokeya is equally critical of the women for colluding in the victimization of men through submission to tradition and excessive love for ignorance and indolence. Very often, in all ages, women cling to tradition out of their simplicity which may degrade their self-dignity. Simone De Beauvoir in her *The SecondSex* exposed this tendency thus:

When man makes of woman the *other*, he may, then, expect her to manifest deep-seated tendencies toward complicity. Thus, woman may fail to lay claim to the status of subject because she lacks definite resources, because she feels the necessary bond that ties her to man regardless of reciprocity, and because she is often very well pleased with her role as the *other*. (Parshley, 1976, p. xxi)

Such a tendency, which women were now accustomed to gradually enslaves them all around leading them to the emotional cage of men. In this regard, Rokeya considers the most cherished jewelries of women, one of the favors of man, as the badges of slavery and shows them, who wear fetters of gold or silver as an object of affection, like the prisoners who wear shackles of iron. She is wondered to see the eagerness of women for this jewelry as if the happiness and prosperity of the whole life depend on it. Bearing the marks of slavery on their body, they feel proud of themselves and swell with self-esteem and delight. She satirizes this tendency of women and urges them to think that jewelry is nothing but an insignia of slavery.

Rokeya’s Idea of Female Freedom

Rokeya tries to electrify the feeble women to rise and assert their freedom disregarding the affliction, strife, and capital punishment given by the Muslims and Hindus of Indian society. By freedom, she means a successful life like men. She says that nothing meaningful can be achieved without efforts and enduring hardships. In this context, she gives the example of Parsi women who can now ride around in a carriage without covering their face, speak freely with other men, run their own business, and renounce purdah which they could not do before. When a few men allowed their wives to step out of purdah, there was an outcry everywhere that doomsday was looming. But the world has not destructed yet. Rokeya, therefore, invites women: “Let’s all move forward collectively to attain our freedom; the dust of anger will settle with time” (Quayum, 2011, p. 14). This invocation resembles what Simone De Beauvoir urges women: If we are to gain understanding, we must get out of these ruts; we must discard the vague notion of superiority, inferiority, equality which have hitherto corrupted every discussion of the subject and start afresh (Parshley, 1976, p. xxvii). However, to attain freedom, Rokeya emphasises on equal education and economic independence for women first.

Literary, Political and Educational Activism

Rokeya had to work on three fronts simultaneously: literary, political and educational. The publication of the essay “Pipasha” in the Calcutta-based *Nabaprabha* in 1902 marked the inauguration of her literary career. Despite her tremendous creative talents, insights and energies, we notice a gap in her literary production from 1909 to 1914. During this period, she could not focus on writing, presumably because of multiple griefs caused by the deaths of her parents, children and husband. Her life was full of trials and tribulations. During her short-lived married life, she had to look after her much older, ailing husband and bear the demise of her “two baby daughters” at their early age, “one at the age of five months and the other at four months old” (Quayum xxiii). The following lines she wrote to a certain Mr. Yasin sharply describe the suffering of her life:

You need not feel so keenly about me, I do not repent for leaving Bhagalpur, but at times I feel some sort of yearning to see the grave of my husband and the tiny graves of my babies. But never mind. I am brave enough to bear my grief. (“Letter to Md. Yasin” 504)

Such agony in personal life was compounded by the misconducts she received from her step-daughter and step-son-in-law owing to family disputes over inheritance. Moreover, she had to employ utmost efforts to establish her school. These may have been the reasons why Rokeya could not produce works between 1909 and 1914. However, apart from this break of continuity in literary production, we find Rokeya relentlessly writing for a whole period of three decades beginning in 1902 and ending with her death, and producing foundational literary works of different genres and subject matters, predominantly women’s issues. Her last essay “Narir Adhikar” (Women’s Rights) was left unfinished on her table on the night she died of heart attack, and it was posthumously published in the magazine *Mahe-nau* in 1957 (25 years after her death).

In British India at that time, Muslims had some political and educational organisations like the All India Muslim League, the Central Mohammedan Association and the All India Educational Conference. All of these were chiefly run by and for men. There was no platform from which Muslim women could raise their voices and become engaged in the public spheres of power and influence. The central Indian Muslim women’s organisation, Anjuman-i-Khawatin-i-Islam founded in 1914 was based in Aligarh, about 800 miles away from Rokeya’s Calcutta. With Rokeya’s initiative and tireless work, Anjuman’s Calcutta branch was launched in 1916.

Rokeya’s tenacious work made Muslim women aware and brought them from the darkness of their domestic prison to Anjuman meetings. Consequently, later the All India Muslim Educational Conference opened its Bengal chapter – the Bengal Women’s Education Conference – of which Rokeya was an important member. She was elected the President of one of its sessions in its 1926 conference and gave a valuable speech.⁷ Rokeya’s dream about the Anjuman finds a fictional representation in *Padmarag* in which she depicts the Tarini Bhaban (the House of the Rescuer), a refuge centre for the oppressed women that houses the Nari-Klesh Nibarani Samiti (Society for the Prevention of Women’s Sufferings). Tarini Bhaban gives shelter to a group of female social outcasts who make a world of their own on its premises.

The focus of Rokeya’s activism was the promotion of female education. In British India, the social setting was so hostile to female education that even the giant Sayyid Ahmad Khan (1817-98) did not dare to include it in his powerful movement for Muslims’ education, thinking that such a move would frustrate the ultimate objective of their advancement. But Rokeya did not

give in; she waged a persistent battle for female education, braving the social norms and barriers that stood between women and the prevailing intellectual culture.

It is important to note that Rokeya raised the issue of female education at a turning point in the history of Muslim Bengal. After a long period of colonial oppression, Muslims realised its economic, political and cultural detriments. Under the leadership of Sayyid Ahmad Khan, they began to work to end this deplorable situation. But Rokeya detects a serious flaw in the social therapy, as Muslims were all busy setting up different organisations and launching different movements, while the most important programme – female education – was missing. She makes an unconventional, pathological analysis of Muslim society's backwardness and questions, "Can a community, that has locked half of its population in the prison of ignorance and seclusion, keep pace with the progress of other communities that have advanced female education on a full par with men?" (Rokeya, "Bongio Nari-Shikhwa" 225).⁸ She draws the attention of the Muslim community to a historical fact that there was a time when Muslim religious leaders were opposed to English education, the bitter harvest of which they were currently reaping (Rokeya, "God Gives" 477). That imprudent stance of the Muslims denied them access to a vast treasure of knowledge and the resultant prosperity.

Upon starting her school, she became extremely preoccupied with it mentally and physically. Towards the end of life, that hard work had a telling effect on her health. She walked around from door to door in order to collect students and persuade the guardians to send their daughters to the school. She assured them that she would personally take full responsibility of looking after and tutoring them and, what is more, they would not have to pay school fees or travel costs. In order to convince the parents and guardians, Rokeya ensured that the school carriage was fully covered, which made it look like a moving tent.

Reasons behind Rokeya's harsh language of protest

The harsh tone and flavour of her writings was directed to both Muslim or Hindu patriarchs who treated women in the most unlawful manner. While invoking all women to rise against the injustice done to them, she even risked an infuriatingly violent response from the whole male section of the Indian society. She wrote, "I know that Indian Muslim will be inclined to 'slaughter' us (i.e. condemn us to capital punishment) and Hindus will drag us to the funeral pyre or to a fire of eternal affliction." (Hossain R. S., 2011, p. 13) Biographically speaking, in order to translate her philanthropic vision into realistic and gritty action, she had to confront with many odds and challenges from the tradition-bound segment of the society with parochial attitudes. Because of her relentless effort in favour of women, she became the target of tremendous hostility and scolding remarks from the conservatives. Their opposing outcry in the society went so far that she was even titled "a shameless woman, a misanthrope, a radical misguided by the proselytizing propaganda of Christian missionaries, and a sexist." (Jahan, Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain, *Sultana's Dream, A Feminist Utopia and Selections from The Secluded Ones*, 1988, p. 53) Some called her fellow activists as 'prostitutes', 'the scum of society', and even branded Rokeya 'a woman of loose morals'. But nothing could stop Rokeya from her vision and mission.

The question of why Begum Rokeya's used bitter language to speak and work for establishing the rights of women needs to be explained so far as the slow pace, and in some cases, failure of the male initiated reform efforts are concerned. She felt furious because of the then Muslim community's little interest to let their daughters step outside of home for whatever

reasons there might be. She knew how Maulvi Abdul Hakim of the Calcutta Madrassah disagreed and summarily dismissed the idea of educating Muslim girls in an academic setting maintaining that the education provided at home was sufficient when the issue first raised at an assembly of the Bengal Social Science Association in 1867. Among many other semi-religious or semi-behavioral manuals advocating ideal role models for women that were written and published during the first three decades of the 20th century, Maulana Ashraf Ali Thanawi's exemplary book *Bihishti Zawar* or **Heavenly Ornaments** (1905) in Urdu provided basic egalitarian principles for both men and women and a detailed guide for respectable Muslim women. This book got much appreciation and applause from both Bengali and non-Bengali Muslims on the ground, as Barbara Metcalf (1990) says: "it sought to do nothing less than bringing women into the high standard of Islamic conformity that has been the purview of educated religious men." (Metcalf, 1990, p. 7) But Maulana Thanwi was questioned and criticized because of his duality in the book who, on one hand, proposed an egalitarian Islamic sanction for men and women, and on the other, propagated highly problematic patriarchal value systems. Throughout the book, he never questioned the disparity and imbalance between men and women's social role and power dynamics. Thanawi was not radical as a Muslim theologian who, according to Seema Kazi (1999),

"Acknowledged equal mental and intellectual potential of men and women, but delineated domestic roles for women in great detail, restricted women's participation in public life and extolled the virtue of the family." (Kazi, 1999, p. 7)

A similar type of duality and ideological split towards women is found in Sir Sayyid Ahmad Khan (1817-1898), the paramount figure of Muslim modern education of the time who had a great influence on other Muslim reformers in Greater Bengal regions for his views of modern secular education. But surprisingly, he too did not support formal schooling and western type of education for women, and adamantly opposed to bring women out of veiling. Almost all Islamic scholars so far supported female education, but certainly within the jurisdiction of the Qur'an and its interpretations. They agreed upon and opined for only home education for women to calm down the conservative section of the Muslim community that was completely unwilling to send their daughters to school as it would be a violation of Islamic sanction. To talk about the Islamists' puritanical views about women, Rachana Chakraborty (2011) states:

"Their consideration of women's position in the family and plans for women's education included discussion of household customs and rituals, of purdah, and of Islamic law as it pertained to women." (Chakraborty, 2011, pp. 77-78)

Conclusion

Begum Rokeya's unfaltering language of protest against the wrongdoings of the patriarchal society to women stirred the very root of it, and led to a growing demand for change. Her voice of disagreement never retired even under great public debates and scrutiny often posing great challenge as well as dilemma for ongoing women's movements. Rather she moved forward with renewed spirit and reached the vantage point of feminist radicalism. Her voice to free women and her feminist doctrine of social enlightenment lived on and will live on for indefinite times to come. Along with many other women holding respectably important government and corporate positions, the present day Bangladesh has already seen women as its democratically elected leaders and the West Bengal of India has voted for a woman Chief Minister. Her legacy remains

as countless women of different casts, creed and customs are now occupying a sizable portion in the total workforce in Bangladesh and West Bengal. Now, women in general have got legal and constitutional safeguard against any form of discrimination. The trail of the language of protest she blazed years ago still finds its way among the people in this part of the world.

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Four Potential Legal Challenges to Indonesia's Death Penalty Regime

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Indonesia's President, Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono, stepped down on 20 October 2014 after two five-year terms in office. Under Joko Widodo, his successor, outright abolition is considered unlikely, as Indonesia's public, government and religious institutions still favour the retention of the death penalty. By the date of his departure from office, President Yudhoyono faced around 40 clemency petitions, which he did not rule on, preferring instead to pass them to his successor. Other than hoping that the new President reconsiders his opposition to clemency grants, or alternatively the courts proceeding to overturn the death sentence in judicial appeals for those prisoners who still retain the option, abolitionists and defence advocates must consider other legal possibilities for the roughly 140 prisoners currently held under sentence of death in Indonesia. Accordingly, within the context of a significant political moment for the country, I outline four potential constitutional challenges to Indonesia's death penalty, capable of being employed on behalf of those prisoners who remain on death row. In this paper, I outline the legal arguments in favour of each challenge, the categories of prisoners who would stand to benefit, together with foreseeable legal and political hurdles that would need to be overcome for the petitioners.

Keywords: Indonesia, Death Penalty, Clemency, Constitutional Law

Paul T.K. Lin and his "Contribution" to Sino-Canadian Friendship (1964-2004)

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My paper explores the 17-year experience of Paul T.K. Lin as the founding Director of East Asian Studies at McGill University. With the release of his memoir *In the Eye of the China Storm* (2011), Paul Lin illuminates his life as a prodigal son of a Chinese Canadian Methodist pastor to his abandonment of his Harvard doctoral studies in 1949 and migration to Communist China. In next 15 years, Lin would eventually rise to become Premier Zhou Enlai's English press secretary but abruptly returned to Canada in 1964 along with his family. His memoir boasts his effort to forge Sino-Canadian friendship as a "McGill Professor" but only scratches the surface on his daily work to build up the East Asian field in one of Canada's prime postsecondary institutions. What prompted McGill to have a sudden desire to offer courses on China and Japan? Why would it accept a figure with Chinese Communist connection on its payroll in light of the Cold War? If Lin was the "leading figure in the development of Chinese Canadian relations", what specific contributions he had made during his lifetime? In this paper, I will argue that Paul Lin's McGill recruitment in 1965 was accidental and his contribution to Sino-Canadian relations was perhaps overrated.

Keywords: academic; Sino-Canadian relations; East Asian Studies

The Emergence of Muslim Communities in Ilocandia

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People move from one place to another for countless factors. This widely illustrates the typical Filipino wherein movement is spontaneous. Ilocandia deemed to be the "Baluarte" of the widely known nomadic Ilocanos composed of the provinces of Abra, Ilocos Sur, Ilocos Norte, and La Union. Lately and unexpected, Ilocandia has been settled by group of very enterprising Filipinos from down south - the Muslims. The Muslims migration to the north is labelled as "counter stream" or "reversal" of the flight of the Ilocanos down south many decades ago and the Muslim venture to the extreme north of Ilocandia is surprising. This study looks into the flight of the Muslims in the northern most region of the country, the Ilocandia. The study used descriptive survey method with three identified locations, namely Ilocos Sur, Ilocos Norte, and La Union. Research findings showed that poverty, violence, better opportunities, and other conditions were just few reasons why these Muslim migrants left their home place. Useful insights were provided in mainstreaming the Muslims in the non- Muslim community and eventually became instrumental in making our Muslim brothers and sisters live in harmony with their new found home and make them as productive partners in development.

Keywords: counter stream, migration, Ilocandi

Communication and Organizational Crisis: The Case of Haiyan Disaster in Tacloban

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This paper probes into the Philippine Government's response on the Super Typhoon Haiyan disaster in Tacloban City. It delves into the disaster administration, communication, and coordinating scheme of the government in terms of addressing the needs of the people as well as the crisis, in general. Using informal interviews from selected individual-survivors from Tacloban and news coverage of broadsheets newspapers in the Philippines and abroad, this study finds that the government's communication and management response on the Haiyan disaster was highly politicized. Emergency managers from the government made the crisis controversial, bigoted, and divisive. Initial evaluation of the news coverage support such claim by informants that indisputably the government fell short of their responsibility to supervise the crisis in Tacloban. International and non-government organizations, which provided considerable support and help, have a better place in the sentiments of distraughtdwellers of Tacloban. This study, then, recommends that with a crisis like this, politics should not play a role in the disaster management. The President should also be a pro-active and compassionate leader especially to devastated residents. Communication should be a key element for a successful disaster management plan.

Keywords: Haiyan Disaster, Leadership, Crisis Communication

Globalization has globalized terrorism in multifarious dimensions as its worst byproduct

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The last biggest phenomenon that the twentieth century experienced was the success of globalization. Simultaneously, the world has entered into the twenty first century under the threat of a dangerous most byproduct of globalization which is terrorism. The idea of globalization was brought to popular mind as an innocent ideology but the hidden agendas of its possessors were not as honest as it appeared to be. To materialize those agendas they instigated terrorism. Terrorism was prevailing in the past too. But with the help of globalization process, it spread very fast and got vast space in the world. Within a very short period, the interest of the stakeholders of globalization and terrorism began to be loosened. By and by the stakeholders of globalization lost their control over the terrorism. They rightly felt threatened but wrongly attempted to abolish them which are next to impossible. Rather, terrorism spread more than ever using the opportunities created by globalization. The international terrorism has established relationship with the regional terrorists all over the world and strengthened their network to threaten the whole world. We know, with the collapse of Soviet Union, the balance of power in the world disappeared. Terrorism has filled up this vacuum in a different manner.

Key words: Terrorism, globalization, regional terrorism, balance of power

Introduction:

This article contributes, first, to broadening the theoretical discussion on possible relationships between globalization and (mainly international) terrorism. In an elaborate causal model, globalization is conceived as influencing international terrorist strategies via more than a dozen causal paths. The second aim is to elaborate on methodological and theoretical shortcomings found in the literature, in particular with respect to the levels of analysis issue. In the conclusions section, the opportunity costs argument as well as notions of public goods production are used for conditional assessments of future chances of international terrorism.

Method:

The article has been written on the basis of secondary information. The secondary information was collected from published books, journals, research papers, and official statistical documents.

The Concept of Globalization

In theory, the concept of globalization is explained in its name. In my opinion, globalization has a central discourse of 'global', which comprises mainly economy, society, culture and politics. In this discourse of 'global', people from different countries with different cultural backgrounds are connected with each other economically, socially and politically where they form a standard homogenous culture and thus become globalized. In globalization, the restrictions of national boundaries are attenuated. Giddens states, 'globalization is about the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are

shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa' (Giddens 1990: 64). Simultaneously, globalization adhere a tendency of fragmentation within itself. Clark asserts:

Globalization denotes movements in both the intensity and the extent of international interactions; in the former sense, globalization overlaps to some degree with related ideas of integration, interdependence, multilateralism, openness and interpenetration; in the latter, it points to the geographical spread of these tendencies and is cognate with globalism, spatial compression, universalization, and homogeneity (Clark 1997: 1).

Clark's theory argues that this process of intensification has tension of disintegration or fragmentation within itself. Bauman (2000) explains: '...[globalization] tends towards disaggregation, autarchy and isolation as well as ethnic or nationalistic separatism and regional integration'. Therefore, theoretically, it is globalization's nature that it will create difference and disturbance parallel to its homogenous tendency. According to Hall, Held and McGrew (1992: 217), nature of this tendency has no 'fixed political inscription it can be either progressive or regressive and fundamentalist'. Based on these theoretical arguments, I contend that while globalization integrates people, culture, economy, societies around the world within its 'global' discourse, simultaneously it produces an alternative discourse of 'local' which tends to resist its integration process. The nature of this resistance has no fixed political set-up.

Conceptualizing, Defining, and Understanding Terrorism

Terrorism is not a natural hazard outside the range of corporate decision-making. Simple micro-economic analysis shows how globalization changed the supply of terrorist attacks and the costs for tolerating terrorist hazard. Approaches developed in organizational strategy help to single out three strategic decisions directly affecting the vulnerability of firms in a globalised world: exposure, geographical spread, and organizational form. The analysis suggests that the gains from ubiquity, leanness in production, and long-term commitment need to be adjusted for the terrorist hazard involved.

Terrorism is a contested concept due to the failure of scholars of terrorism studies in establishing a commonly accepted definition because of their self- and group-centeredness or limited perspectives. Despite the fact that the scholars of terrorism studies agree that terrorism primarily involves the unleashing of lethal violence primarily on civilians in order to influence an audience, they do not agree on who and what the agencies of all forms of terrorism are. Referring to the case of contemporary sub-state terrorism, for instance, Omar Lizardo (2008: 102) attempts to provide a definition: "*Modern terrorism refers to a type of violent interaction initiated by a non-state actor, which is not formally recognized as a legitimate wielder of the means of violence or a valid initiator of violent interactions, directed against the representatives (human, material or symbolic) of a formally recognized state actor in the international system, which does not follow the institutionalized rules and conventions of military engagement*" [author's emphasis]. Since Lizardo's definition focuses only on bottom-up terrorism, he is not addressing all forms of terrorism. For Martha Crenshaw (1981: 379), terrorism is "the premeditated use or threat of symbolic, low-level violence by conspiratorial organizations." For scholars such as Lizardo and Crenshaw, terrorism is defined as premeditated or intentional violence carried out by non-state actors in order to impose fear on a target population and to achieve certain political objectives. And according to Walter Enders and Todd Sandler (2006: 3), states do not perpetrate terrorism;

only individuals or sub-national groups commit terrorism. Many other scholars define terrorism without identifying whether states or non-state actors commit it (Oots, 1986; Cooper, 2001: 881-893; Tilly, 1985: 169-191). Explaining the challenges of conceptualizing terrorism, Leonard Weinberg, Ami Pendahzur, and Sivan Hirsch-Hoefler (2004: 786) define terrorism as follows: “*Terrorism is a politically motivated tactic involving the threat or use of force or violence in which the pursuit of publicity plays a significant role,*” [author’s emphasis]. Overall, most scholars do not address how many states do engage in terrorist activities, but do not publicize their illegal activities due to the fear of repercussion from the international system. For instance, states that openly engage in terrorist activities and gross human rights violations could be indicted by the International Criminal Court. Yet, there are scholars who acknowledge that state terrorism begets non-state terrorism: “When terrorism is theoretically examined as a form of social control, fundamental controlling apparatuses of the state may be viewed as terroristic. Organizations, groups, and individuals who legitimate the use of violence to achieve their goals may be viewed as products, extensions, or models of the essential structure of a state when its purpose is to regulate behavior via various forms of repression, domination, and terror” (Oliverio, 1998: 7). Furthermore, as Eqbal Ahmad (1998: 5) argues, “state terror very often breeds collective terror.”

Linkages between Globalization and Terrorism:

During last few decades of the twentieth century the world as a whole focused on democracy, humanity, peace, law and science. In this process the countries of the world experienced political and social leaps for the establishment of free trade and movement by international and regional organizations to improve the overall condition of their communities. This process is termed ‘globalization’ which means trade, capital movement and investment through interconnectedness. The process of globalization has been accelerated by the strong technological foundation. In fact, globalization is now only what technology makes possible. The use of technology cannot be checked. So, terrorism, being patronized by western countries first, has been able to utilize all the available opportunities of globalization. At one point globalization has loosened the relation with terrorism for the conflict aroused on a few fundamental issues and for mistrust regarding own interest. But it is an irony that along with the success of globalization the terrorism has also been enjoying success. It seems that globalization and terrorism are forwarding to an unknown destination with the same speed by keeping themselves a bit away like two lines of a rail line. Terrorism has been globalized by globalization process in a multifarious ways and threatening the world for its peaceful existence.

One of the most significant centuries of the world history is the twentieth century which bears testimony of hundreds of events that are important from different considerations and those events have embellished and enriched human life. The twentieth century began with industrial revolution and capitalism came as its inevitable aftereffect. As the opponent force of capitalism, Socialism stirred the twentieth century for at least eighty years. It kept a generation hypnotized but could not complete its journey as it was dreamt. Along with the successful and unsuccessful march of Communism this century witnessed a large number of big events which threw away great influence on the flow of world history in different periods. This century experienced two biggest wars of human history – World War I and World War II. It has seen the independence of many former European colonies in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The struggle for democracy in different parts of the world was also a very big event. It saw the division of German and its subsequent reunification as well. The presence of extreme cold war in

every event of world politics was present in view of this century. The century has seen the Vietnam War, the Gulf War, the war in Lebanon, and war in many parts of Africa causing widespread death and destruction. It has also observed the end of cold war and the emergence of United States as the only superpower. In fact, United States succeeded to prove them as the guardian of the planet earth. But the last two major events of the last century will be deciding factor in writing the future history of the world – the onward movement of globalization and the successful existence of Terrorism.

The last biggest event of twentieth century, globalization, offers an idea which is really pleasing to the ear and mind. Ideologically opposite to communism but oratorical presentation of globalization was same – alleviation of poverty through expanding trade and business all over the world. For the quantitative aspect, globalization means trade, capital movement and investment, which sometimes perceived as transnationalism or interconnectedness. For the qualitative part, it includes political, economic and social processes. Technological developments and the deregulations established inter-state networks of production, trade and finance, which eventually leads to a ‘borderless world of economy’ (Eskinat, 1998:6). With the developments in the last few decades in the fields of communication and transportation, the political and economic barriers between states started to become less important; making anyone be able to be effective on the other side of the world, either negatively or positively.

The interesting things to observe in this new environment include how national cultures started to get through the other side of their national barriers, how the notion of nation-state started to lose importance, how economies started to get intertwined, how borders are about to be abolished, how the polarization of the Cold War disappeared and how liberal tendencies strengthened everywhere. Globalization is also consisted of the political developments, scattered to a global sphere and happened in the face of the world wide widening of communication and the growing inequity of incomes. It is also considered as supra-discipline concept for containing not only social sciences, but also natural sciences, humanities, architecture, law, medicine, technology, ecology, cinema, health, fast food and so on.

Although there are some groups opposed to globalization, all citizens in the world has to live in accordance with it for the sake of their future. According to Faruk Orgun, globalization is an undeniable truth of life, as was the industrialization. As globalization gets faster, the opposition increases. In this sense, the success of terrorism is based on its power in communication, transportation, intelligence and finance. The main thing that contributed to the developments in these fields was globalization.

It was not for globalization, everything would be the same as it was before 1960s. If there was no globalization, kidnapping, bombing and so forth would remain either way, but they would not be this effective, without the possibilities of today. Globalization instigated the evolution of terrorism. Despite every positive thing of it, globalization might have made the cooperation between pro-terrorist group increases, through the internet in particular.

Today, the world of the rich at arm’s length to that of the poor through television, but in reality, it is far away. The world has not seen such a scene before, and to fix it has not this difficult (Orgun, 2001: 46). Globalization has been generally perceived as the emancipation of investment and movement of goods and as a technical revolution respective to this acceleration and grows. In fact, it is a multi-sphered and complicated concept. In theory, it cannot promise more than its geographical features offer. They are getting more and more intertwined as a result of the supranational flow of all the capital, goods, ideas, information and people all over the world (Kalb, 2001:1). Thus globalization is a historical fact that indicates the disappearing of all the

political and economic institutions of the Cold War. According to those who accept this definition, globalization means that the balance of power is changed in favor of the United States.

The United States of America, the most powerful capitalist country of the world, and the other big capitalist countries of Europe are the expounder of this globalization. So we can say that globalization sprout from the heart of capitalism. It focused on borderless market for business so that any country or any entrepreneur can expand business anywhere in the world. It really sounds sweet. But they had hidden agendas to appear as unparalleled power of the earth. To materialize it, they had few evil schemes. One of those evils was the expansion of terrorism in some parts of the world, especially in the Middle East countries. The Islamic terrorists which were the creation of capitalist countries became their effective tools for this purpose.

There arose the conflict between the terrorists and their guardians. The conflict of interest leads to strife or rivalry. The capitalist countries rightly realized that these terrorists would be their worst enemies in future in achieving their goal of controlling the world. They decided to abolish them through military power. They started to attack them continuously. But the Islamic terrorists proved their power of resisting the attacks or to fight against them bravely. They have utilized the facilities of business created by globalization and also the use of technology to create monetary sources for their actions and activities. They formed religious NGOs all over the world through which they could reach general Muslims and motivate them to help them directly or indirectly. The conflict and strife between these two rival groups became the most concerning factor of the world. Thus we entered the 21st century under the threat of strife between terrorists and the advocates of globalization. 21st century started its journey escorting the worst byproduct of globalization – the terrorism.

The stake-holders of globalization gave prevalence on arms business to materialize their inner motive of expanding capital. To make immense profit from this business they aggressively started to widen their market dishonestly. They needed to spread war as much as possible. It was not possible to set war between two states under the legal format of state organism after the collapse of communism. This made them provoke religious and regional extremists. First they patronized them to take position on any particular policy of a government that goes against so called religious belief. They used to make them able to take military action against state power. At the same time they used to provoke the state power to take necessary action against anti-state activities. Both parties had to collect arms for showing strength. The capitalist countries used to deliver arms to the extremists as loan. As time flowed the extremists had to increase drug business, or arms business with other extremist groups of same ideology to pay the lending amount. They became desperate to collect money. They realized the necessity of talented persons to explore avenue for income. The capitalist countries supported them providing that talented manpower. Many of those talented expertises became follower of extremist leaders. The extremists started to recruit people necessary for their mission. They explored different ways to create source of money. Even in the guise of social activities they formed different NGOs in different countries and created a permanent source of earning as subscription from general people having religious faith. Thus the religious fundamentalist groups became powerful from all respects. And their terrorist activities spread significantly in Asia, Africa and even in many parts of Europe. On the other hand, the capitalist countries could not understand properly how the extremists became so powerful getting patronization from different sources. The extremists realized that they could be able to spread their activities more effectively if they could capture few countries, and it would be inspirational for their thousands of active and inactive followers. They even became successful in capturing a sovereign country Afghanistan. The United States

and their alliance felt the danger in real point view from that incident. In the meantime, some Arab countries also became enemies of the USA which coincidentally played vital role in favor of the Islamic activists.

In the above circumstances, the USA and its alliance planned to terminate the extremists by all out efforts. They started attacking the regions controlled by extremists all over the world. But their attacks caused lives of unarmed Muslims more than real extremists. The world media, a blessing of globalization, published the facts and people all around the world learned how the innocent common people were being killed by the so called democratic capitalist countries. It created sympathy for the oppressed Muslims and the misdeeds of extremists got a kind of support from the large number of unarmed general Muslims. The extremists proclaimed their strong deadly position against the oppression and demanded help and association from every Muslims of the world. It naturally attracted the Muslim community and most people offered support from heart. The religious educational institutions like Madrasa and Moktob became a safe place to circulate religious hatred to the non-Muslims as the killer of their native religious brothers and sisters. The Iraq events and the immoral position of USA and its alliance proved them as fatal enemy of Muslims. All these events went in favor of terrorists activities. Religious meetings called 'Mahfil' and prayers after pray in mosques became a source of spreading mental terrorism. The more USA attacked Muslims countries charging their association with Al Qaida, the more people felt oneness of spirit with Al Qaida or other terrorist groups. The general Muslims felt insecure at the actions of USA and started supporting the terrorists for their strong position against USA. The 9/11 episode proved the mental and military strength of Islamic terrorists as well as it helped Muslim community as a whole to think of Muslims' success over USA alliance. But for this inhuman act, the terrorists lost world support and USA got chance to utilize this evident to get support from all governments of the world. Before 9/11, many people irrespective of Muslims and non Muslims had sympathy for the extremists as they thought their activities were more or less justified. The 9/11 destruction turned their identity as brutal terrorists or extremists. The western world successfully attempted to prove Muslim terrorists as only terrorists and motivated the world to take all out action against them. The Global World united against Islamic terrorists.

In this circumstances the USA and its alliance has taken a decision to make some Middle East countries powerless. They think that these oil rich stable countries are the true patron of the terrorists. Every individual country has its own national crisis or problems. The USA and its supporters started pouring oil on those problematic issues and create internal crisis. Peace hampered and some terrorist activities were arranged to show violence and thus branded them as terrorist countries. They also demanded that those countries kept close association with Islamic terrorists. Branding the countries as true patron of terrorism, the USA and its followers received legal authorization from their subservient United Nations to command attack against those countries to depose the ruling government and to confirm a government of their obedient. Earlier they succeeded to remove Saddam Hossain and his government from Iraq. In this process in June 2002 a multiparty republic replaced an interim government that had been established in December 2001, following the fall of the Islamic Taliban government in Afghanistan. Colonel Muammar Gaddafi of Libya was murdered on 20 October 2011 which was welcomed with almost sadistic relish by western politicians. Syria and Egypt also sink into Civil War.

But even in the midst of such oppressive activities the extremists have been successful in spreading their activities throughout the world. To make proper reply against The USA policy, the extremists also have taken a few strategies which are based on the advantages created by

globalization. The terrorists have widened their past policy of creating sympathy for them in the heart and mind of general Muslims in the world or to create hostility for the USA alliance. Their success in this mission is the out come of utilizing opportunities found from global technology created by globalization. They utilize internet, social networks, print and electronic media and other contemporary modern technologies to spread the role of USA alliance as the enemy of religion, especially of Islam. They broadcast the unjust and anti-humane participation of US Army in different parts of the world in the name of peace. They have ready made supporters to believe in them in religious institutions like mosques and madrasas. The general pious Muslims quite rightly felt that the USA and its alliance were attacking different Islamic groups as a part of their anti-Islamic sentiment or intention. The Muslim world as a whole turned into a fertile field for spreading terrorism. The terrorist groups, either in spiritual interpretation or by enticing, have been able to receive necessary supports from common Muslims everywhere in the world.

By utilizing technology the terrorists could easily communicate with the regional moderate Islamic political parties and supported them in achieving their interest, thus created an opportunity to utilize them. For this interconnection, these parties are also branded as the supporters of terrorism by the western world. In this situation they came under the umbrella of terrorists' activities to survive.

With the supports created by globalization for expanding trade and commerce, the followers of terrorism developed a strong trade foundation all over the world. In different fields like medical sector, education sector, banking sector and in many other business sector they have achieved highest success. A large part of profits from these businesses are being used in performing terrorist activities or achieving their goal of creating unrest.

As the network of terrorists is well spread all over the world they succeeded in establishing a good network for their illegal businesses also. They established relation with local and international dons and mafias to make business and for interconnection in common interest. They got it and subsequently they have been able to take association from them in performing their terrorist activities.

One of the most significant achievements of the terrorists by the globalization process is finding the intellectual property in favor of their activities. In different Islamic or non-Islamic countries there are lots of intellectuals who have strong intellectual opposition with the activities of capitalist countries which they publish in different local and international media. Many of them are supporter of terrorism for their strong position against capitalist world. The globalization process helps terrorists get them at their side. The strategies offered by these intellectuals help the terrorists in performing their actions. In reality the dangerous most problem for the USA alliance is this intellectual community who are not directly involved in terrorism but whose intellectual investigations and evaluations rightly go against the US policies, thus benefits terrorism.

In point of fact, it can be said that fighting against USA in every sector, the terrorist have essentially become the biggest enemy of them. They have a vast amount of capital, arsenal and shelter. The USA and its alliance are consciously drawing their former enemies of cold war age close to them and making them global partner, yet they can not remain free from apprehension. The military and monetary power of terrorists has reached such a position that it is next to impossible to control it. Even the countries that consider the USA as their enemy for various political and economical reasons are getting interested to keep connection with the terrorists for their support to threat the USA. Some states select terrorism as a way of disseminating their ideologies and revolutionary ideas. Consequently the terrorists can use state organs of few

countries in some context to utilize in favor of their purpose. We can say that with the collapse of Socialism and the end of the cold war have eased the major powers into a unipolar position, the balance of power in the world disappeared and the USA became the center of all power without facing any true rivalry. Terrorism has filled up this vacuum in a different manner.

Conclusion

In conclusion, I would like to summarize what I have argued so far. I have examined the concept of globalization and its integration and localization process to show that the concept of globalization adhere a tension within itself. In view of a more differentiated analysis globalization can be understood as a background factor for international terrorism. Finally, there is the need to distinguish between various forms of political terrorism (Zimmermann 2009) with international political terrorism often being a hybrid of some of these forms. This has consequences for both, successful theory development and for government reactions. They should differ in response to ethno-culturally driven terrorism which is usually is based on a much broader oppositional base than, e.g., ideological terrorism. The persistence and resilience of these various forms of terrorism differ just as much.

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Invisible wall in sino-japanese relations: cross-cultural comparison of mutual perceptions and biases of Chinese and Japanese nationals

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This study explores mutual perceptions and biases of Japanese and Chinese nationals. Participants (n=610) in each country were asked about: a) their opinions and attitudes, b) the average opinions and attitudes in their country and c) their assumptions of the opinions of nationals of the other country. The results indicate individual self-reported perception was positively correlated with assumed group perception in both the Japanese and Chinese sample populations, demonstrating a false consensus effect. The results further suggest significant construal differences, with Japanese overestimating the negative portrayal of Japan in China and Chinese underestimating the negative image of China in Japan. Both Japanese and Chinese respondents reported being exposed to predominantly negative input about each other's countries. One of the biggest misperceptions of both groups was the assumption that they are viewed as peaceful, and in a hypothetical scenario task, there was a higher level of confidence in the validity of scenarios in which the other was construed negatively.

Overall, the results of the analyses show a general inadequacy to take the perspective of the other. An increased awareness of biases may improve communication and diffuse potential conflicts. As tensions have escalated, improving Sino-Japanese relations is imperative for continued international stability.

Keywords – Sino-Japanese Relations, Biases, Perceptions

Introduction

In 2014, Sino-Japanese relations reached a critical level since the joint communiqué was signed in 1972. In Japan, over 90% of the population harbor negative feelings toward China (The 10th Japan-China Public Opinion Poll, 2014), which is a drastic change from 40 years ago when over 70% of the population felt an affinity toward China (Feelings of closeness to China, 2013). Moreover, in 2013, over 90% of the Chinese population felt negatively toward Japan, the main cause being military conflict in the past and the lack of remorse (The 9th Japan-China Public Opinion Poll, 2013). Current mutual acrimony is demonstrated not only in survey responses, but also through protests, destruction of property and mutual criticism on the internet (He, 2007). However, biases and construal differences are less visible than mass protests or even directly reported opinions. They act as an invisible and subtle force that pressures people from within and shape attitudes and behavior. In particular, the concept of construal can play a role of the self-fulfilling prophecy, when the negative expectation one side has of the other might come true based on expectations and not reality.

This research focuses on measuring and identifying biases and misperceptions of both populations toward each other, and pertains to cross-cultural comparisons between the differences in the deviations from rationality in the consciousness of Japanese and Chinese populace. Going beyond the mutual attitudes, this study explores the amount of negative and positive information they report being exposed to, and their perceptions about each other. Negative information or attributes have more weight when people make judgments,

and less negative information is needed compared to positive information for people to make a decision (Devine, Hamilton, & Ostrom, 1994, p. 45). The importance of studying biases lies in the consequences of certain misperceptions continuing over time. It has been argued by scholars that World War I may have been precipitated in part by inaccurate self-perceptions and construal (Levy, 1983). The objective of this study is to explore the socio-psychological factors influencing the opinions of Chinese and Japanese nationals in relation to each other's countries. This is achieved by answering the following questions: 1) What are the effects of attitude on subjective interpretations of Chinese and Japanese nationals on various topics related to each other's countries and people? 2) How frequently are Chinese and Japanese nationals exposed to positive and negative information about each other? 3) What socio-cognitive biases affect the consciousness of the Chinese and Japanese nationals? The main argument of this thesis is that different socio-psychological constraints are affecting each population. It is hypothesized that both are under a false consensus effect, however, there is a difference in construal. It is proposed that the Japanese are overestimating the negative image of Japan in China, while the Chinese are overestimating the positive image of China in Japan.

Research Body

There have been several proposed explanations to the current mutual aversion, and there are some discrepancy in the proposed reasons of the Japanese political move to the right and a heightened state of emotional reactions (Sato & Hirata, 2008). Several studies mention an old conflict of the war between Japan and China that has always existed and has never settled (He Y., 2008; Fisher, 2013 ;). He Yinan explains the fragility of current Sino-Japanese relations due to war memories and touches upon the manipulation of public opinion. He focuses on the emotional and perceptual power of the war memories to explain the current state of affairs between Japan and China (He Y. , 2008). This approach partially supports the argument of this research. When there is a difference in perception, according to the naïve realism, the two opposing groups will start viewing each other in a biased way, while considering themselves correct. As the Chinese and Japanese are not in agreement in their views on history, this creates a condition for the effects of naïve realism. He points out the emotion in China as being victimized and feelings of injustice and contempt, while in Japan feelings of disgust and frustration surface due to national shame. He points out that it is not guilt; it is the shame over something that the nation wishes to forget, but is not allowed to do so (He Y., 2007). Fisher, who examined the problem through the constructivist point of view and argues that the real root of the issue is explained by the social identity theory (Fisher, 2013), and Japan is being used as China's "other" to promote nationalism.

Nationalism in China is not new; since the opening up of China, it became evident that the government was replacing Maoism with nationalism (Choi, 2010). During the China-Japan honeymoon period, when the relationship was amicable, people in China were nationalistic, protesting in 1985, due to the visit of the Japanese prime minister to the Yasukuni shrine (Weiss, 2010). Therefore, the social identity theory explaining Chinese nationalism does not explain the worsening of the Sino-Japanese relations in its entirety. In the last seven years, the Chinese public opinion about Japan changed far less than the public opinion in Japan about China. Choi Jiyoung gives the reader a fresh perspective on how Chinese nationalism is giving negative effect on Sino-Japanese relations. Choi argues that China's implementation of the open-up policy caused a class gap to widen and the socialistic ideology became less effective, as demonstrated by Tiananmen Square (Choi, 2010). Consequently China resorted to nationalistic ideology, or the

state top-down nationalism policy which resulted in populist nationalism, leading to negative effects on China-Japan diplomatic relations (Choi, 2010). Further, Choi states that the nationalism as an ideology can be very dangerous and even ignite an uncontrollable conflict (Choi, 2010), also mentioning Tiananmen Square as an example of the Chinese government inability to control the population, which further demonstrates the power of negative information and the role it plays on collective consciousness. Another scholar on China, Yong Deng, in 1997, correctly predicting the future of China-Japan relations. In Yong's article, he devoted a whole section to lack of rationale and rampant emotions of Chinese people which was titled: "*The 'EMOTIONALISM' in Bilateral Relations.*" (Yong, 1997). There are many theories, but very few were able to predict Japan's move to the right and rise of nationalism in Japan, therefore a socio-psychological approach provides another perspective on the current Sino-Japanese relations.

Theoretical Framework of Naïve Realism

Naïve realism, is a theory that states that people believe themselves to be objective, and other rational people will see reality as we do, and those who do not are either uninformed, lazy, irrational or biased, it is further argued to cause numerous social cognitive biases (Ross & Ward, 1996). The comparative studies that did use naïve realism consist mainly of in-group divided opinion on emotional topics, such as differences in the views of pro-life and pro-choice individuals, and liberals and democrats (Robinson et al., 1995). The conflict between Palestine and Israel has also been explored in the theoretical framework of naïve realism proposed by Lee Ross. However, naïve realism and the concept of construal differences has not yet been sufficiently tested in Asian cultures.

The theory of naïve realism is implemented in the Sino-Japanese paradigm, and according to the tenets of naïve realism, each group would believe themselves to be less biased than the other group and believe themselves to be less effected by biased information. At the same time, they would believe that the other group must have been exposed to more negative information than themselves. Furthermore, the effect of self-consensus will lead both groups to overestimate the consensus of their own group with individual attitudes leading to a false consciousness, a false belief that members of their own group are more hostile toward the other group than they themselves are. Consequently, in collective cultures which are highly contextual, group opinion plays a large role on the expressed sentiments of individuals and puts further pressure on conformity. This pressure, however, acts as an invisible wall, which is a constructed reality that is different from the actual reality. The belief that the majority of the group not only has a negative opinion of the other group, but also feels strongly hostile against the other group can lead individuals to reinforce their own beliefs, or feel pressured to conform to the ideas of the group. The other implication of overestimating the strength of the opinion of the outer group consists of a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Methodology

The original survey design was based on the studies done by Lee Ross in the context of naïve realism and group conflict (Ross & Ward, 1996). An exploratory survey was conducted in China to confirm their feelings toward Japan and test for false-consensus. In 2014, the survey was designed based on the exploratory study. It was first designed in English and then translated into Japanese and Chinese. Two professors fluent in all three languages verified the translation of the survey.

The survey was divided into three parts. The first part asked the participant to identify their attitudes, feelings, and views on a number of topics pertaining to the other country. A seven-point Likert scale was used with a neutral option for most questions. The second part consisted of three hypothetical scenarios: one neutral, one positive, and one negative scenario pertaining to the other country. Participants were asked to identify (1) if the scenario matched their constructed image of the country and (2) the likelihood of the scenarios being factual. The third part of the survey was identical to the first part with the exception that the participants were asked to take the perspective of an individual from the other country in formulating their responses. Chinese and Japanese affiliates with whom the author had a primary or secondary connection. The process the affiliates went through was giving a number of surveys to their acquaintances for distribution among their acquaintances, thus thrice removing the sample population from the researcher and getting access to a diverse sample population. In Japan the data was gathered from Ibaraki, Kanagawa and Kyushu, while in China data gathering occurred in Nantong, Suzhou, Xuzhou, Dalian and Xi'an. In the Chinese sample, out of 305 participants, 144 respondents were male (47.2%) 157 were female (51.5%), and four participants did not specify their gender (1.3%). In the Japanese sample, 136 respondents were male (44.6%), 168 (55.1%) were female, and 1 (0.3%) did not specify their gender. Age distribution is as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1

Age Groups		Japan Frequency (%)	China Frequency (%)
Valid	18-29	135 (44.3)	210 (68.8)
	30-49	54 (16.7)	65 (21.3)
	50 and over	114 (37.4)	30 (9.8)
Invalid	99	2 (0.7)	0 (0.0)
Total		305 (100.0)	305 (100.0)

Results

The question probed by this study was the effect of attitude on the judgment and credibility of various information about each other's countries. It was hypothesized that the more negative the attitude toward the other country is, the more believable the negative information will be deemed. Conversely the information that does not match with the current attitude or the subjective image that the respondents hold will be deemed as less likely to be true. It is often argued that the image of Japan in China is strongly influenced by the Chinese nationalist propaganda (Fisher, 2013). Though, from a socio-psychological perspective, the influence of exposure to negative portrayal of the country will lead to negative association, even on an unconscious level (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). Previous studies have shown that while displaying the name of different countries and flashing negative or positive images for milliseconds will later cause the participants to have the corresponding attitude (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). As described by Greenwald & Banaji (1995), "considerable evidence now supports the view that social behavior often operates in an implicit or unconscious fashion. The identifying feature of implicit cognition is that past experience influences judgment in a fashion not introspectively known by the actor." This suggests that people might not consciously realize the reason behind their opinions if they are primed, and heavy exposure to negative information about the other group at a conscious level is extremely likely to affect the attitudes of the primed

population. To measure the frequency of negative and positive information to which the respondents are consciously exposed to, the survey questions requested the participants to imagine a scenario where they happened to see a national from the other country on a television screen. Then the participants were asked to describe the clothing worn by the Japanese national and any objects in his or her hands. The purpose of this question was to assess the raw image that Chinese people imagine when they think about modern Japan and Japanese people and vice versa. The results suggest that the majority of the Chinese sample population did not associate Japan with military or authority, but instead imagined a Japanese person wearing a western suit with an electronic device in hands or someone in casual clothing with a daily use object in the hands. A pattern in the responses with regards to age difference was observed: the average age of participants who imagined Japanese person in a suit was younger than the average age of the whole population, while the participants, who selected military objects, were comprised of older Chinese participants. When asked to specify if the image that they imagined coincided with what they see in newspapers or on television, 33.4% replied that the image they construed coincides with what they see in newspapers and on television, and 42.1% replied that the image is not consistent with what they see on the news. Close to a quarter (23.5%) could not say either way. Overall, the image that was construed by participants involved modern Japan, suits or casual clothing and electronics.

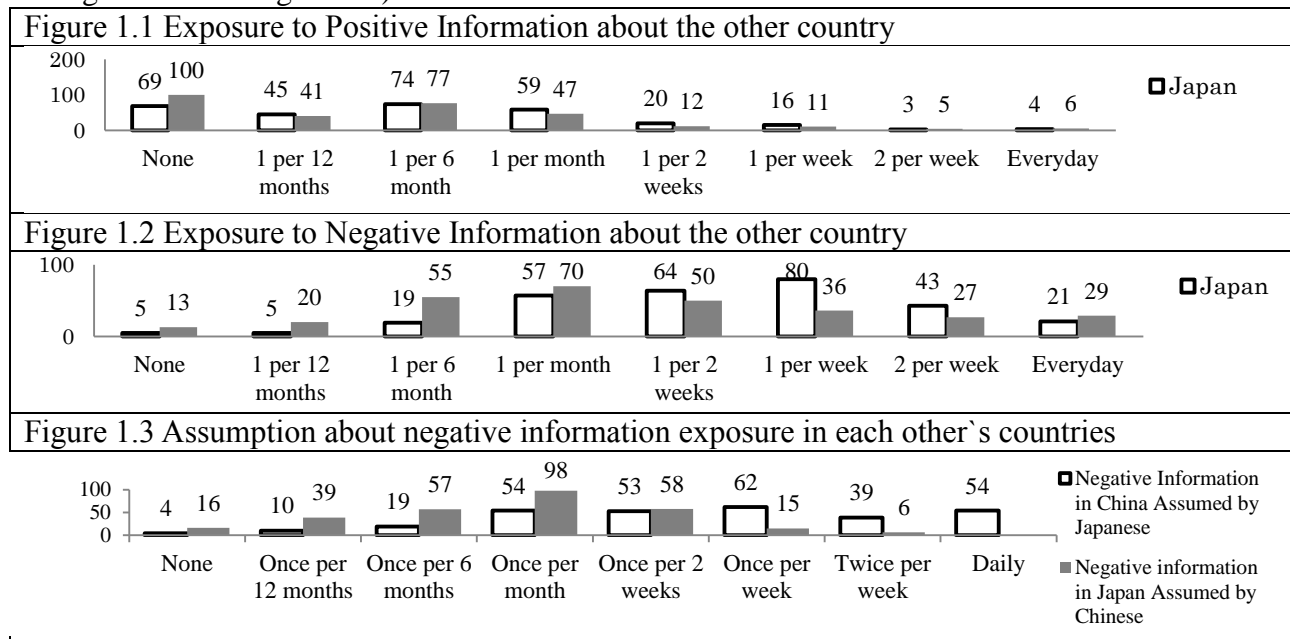
Conversely, 60% of the Japanese participants imagined the Chinese national in casual clothing, and the most commonly held objects were demonstration/protest related objects and daily objects. The number of people who imagined a Chinese national in rags was far more common (10%) than imagining a Chinese person in a suit (1%). In regard to whether the image matched what is seen in newspapers or television, the majority of responses indicated that they could not say either way (40%), followed by 35.7% replying the image coincides with what is reported in the news, while 23% responded that the images did not coincide. Compared with China, where the conjured images reportedly did not coincide with the common portrayal of Japanese on TV, the majority of Japanese participants indicated they thought their images likely to be in the media. This suggests that the image of Japan in China is much more complicated and might be less dependent on the national newsfeeds than in Japan and warrants further research. Possible contradictions in the images of Japan and China were further explored through two hypothetical scenarios, one being negative and the other being positive. The data from the scenarios indicated that topics unrelated to politics, such as the success of students or discrimination of women, are influenced by a negative bias and both Japanese and Chinese rated negative information about the other country as more likely to be true than vice versa. Furthermore, the pattern of accepting negative information of the out-group more readily suggests the possibility of ultimate attribution error. To explore this possibility, the survey included the four questions regarding positive and negative information that is perceived to be reported in the in-group (within their national representative group) versus the out-group environment.

Frequency of Positive and Negative Information Exposure

Respondents in both countries were asked about frequency of exposure to positive and negative information about each other's countries and to estimate how often the populace of the other country was exposed to positive and negative information about their own country. Both populaces estimated that they are being exposed to less negative information than the other group. These results indicate that both groups believe that the out-group is being exposed to

more negative information that they themselves, which in turn suggest ultimate attribution error, which occurs when the group judges out-group behavior more harshly than they would in-group behavior. The idea of participants judging that their own country is exposing them to less negative information than the other country at least partially demonstrates this double-standard in judgment. Recent research by Coleman (2013) suggests that emotion has a strong effect in this kind of bias. In terms of this research such emotional effects could enhance the attribution error in Sino-Japanese relations. Looking at the data concerning exposure to positive information, for respondents in China the average answer was between once or twice per year (n=299) (see Figure 1.1). Overall 69 (23.8%) of Japanese and 100 (33.4%) Chinese respondents indicated having no exposure to positive information about each other's countries. The subjective unbalance in exposure to negative and positive information is clear in both Chinese and Japanese responses

Figure 1.1 and Figure 1.2)



Results show that though both sample population indicated being exposed to much more negative information than positive, they estimated that the exposure to negative information about their own country in more frequent in each other's countries than in their native country. The Chinese respondents on average self-reported being exposed to negative information around once or twice a month, while the Japanese estimated this to be at a frequency of at least once a month but closer to a weekly basis. The overestimation of Japanese participants of negative information and the underestimation by the Chinese suggests construal differences.

These results are also supported by the 9th Japan-China Public Opinion Poll and the responses of Japanese elite to the survey report (Why have the Japanese and Chinese public sentiments towards one another deteriorated so much?, 2013). In the interviews of the Japanese academics and the NHK commentator regarding their opinion of the results of the opinion poll conducted by Genron-NPO, they placed the blame on the Chinese media's anti-Japanese campaign. The poll also indicates that the Chinese view the Japanese media as biased in reporting on Sino-Japanese relations (The 9th Japan-China Public Opinion Poll, 2013).

Biases, Stereotypes and Misperceptions

False consensus effect consists of individual attitudes and the assumed attitudes of the group. The false consensus was explored by implementing the methods of Lee Ross in his previous research (Ross & Ward, 1996), by asking the personal opinions of participants (referred to as “self”) concerning certain subjects and comparing such as opinions with what they assumed to be the opinions of an average member of their group (referred to as “average”). In the responses to “What is your impression of China?” and “In your opinion what impression does the average Japanese national have of China?”, there was a positive correlations for the Japanese group ($r = .453, p = \leq .01$). Furthermore, a clear distinction can be seen supporting the hypothesis of a false consensus effect if the responses for each group are divided into positive and negative attitudes. The respondents indicated themselves to have a more positive image of China than that of an average Japanese, demonstrating the attitude, “I might have a negative impression of China, however others also think negatively of China.” The false-consensus effect was apparent in both studies through the correlation of the participant’s opinions with the opinions of the average group member. The differences in construal were not consistent in the Chinese participants, with participants at times overestimating and underestimating the construal differences. The Japanese participants consistently overestimated. Looking at the reported knowledge of China by Japanese nationals, there is a moderate correlation between the self and Average Japanese knowledge ($r = .495, p = \leq .01$). The attitude of “average Japanese people are less knowledgeable” continues regardless of whether the individuals believe themselves to be knowledgeable or unknowledgeable about China. The self-reported distribution is bimodal, with the most common answer being slightly knowledgeable about China, while the most common answer chosen for average Japanese being slightly unknowledgeable. In the Chinese data the same pattern emerges between the attitude toward Japan of the average Chinese ($r = .653, p = \leq .01$), but the correlation in the Chinese population is stronger than that of the Japanese. There is a moderate correlation ($r = .446, p = \leq .01$) between the knowledge level of the respondents and their estimated of the knowledge level of average Chinese nationals. The pattern of the self being more knowledgeable than the average Chinese continues, however the correlation is weaker than of the Japanese sample.

The data clearly demonstrates a correlation between the individual attitudes and their assumptions about group attitude. In particular, in collective cultures this can be one of the driving forces of attitude formation as shown by the data provided both the Chinese and Japanese group members. Furthermore, both the Chinese and the Japanese population samples overestimated the average negative attitude toward each other. This indicates that the constructed reality of both groups does not reflect the actual phenomenon that is taking place.

Stereotypes and Construal

Stereotypes play a major role in communication; they are often used as shortcuts in cognition and are a way of generalizing groups into a single image. Both Japanese and Chinese respondents were asked to select two words that best describe a Chinese or a Japanese person, and then the respondents were asked to predict how the outer group would describe an individual from their in-group. The top five adjectives used by the Japanese respondents to describe a Chinese were “unpredictable” ($n=70$), “undependable” ($n=57$), “aggressive” ($n=52$), “arrogant” ($n=50$) “impolite” ($n=48$). Out of equal number of positive and negative adjectives the most frequent adjectives selected were all negative. When the Japanese respondents were asked how

they think they are viewed by Chinese the top five responses were “polite”, “undependable”, “aggressive”, “group minded” and “peaceful”. Out of the five responses for the assumed stereotype of their own group, two positive adjectives were used. When comparing the construal of Japanese group with the actual perception of Japanese reported by the Chinese respondents, there is a clear misperception of the peaceful image, as 16.5% of Japanese respondents assumed that Chinese people see Japanese as peaceful, while in reality 1.0% of the Chinese respondents indicated a belief that Japanese people were peaceful, while 40.0% used the word “aggressive” to describe Japanese people and 15.0% of Chinese respondents used the word “violent.” However this misperception is not just on the Japanese side.

The Chinese respondents also believed that Japanese people view them as “peaceful,” and the top five adjectives that the Chinese respondents thought that the Japanese would use to describe Chinese people were impolite, intelligent, friendly, peaceful, and unpredictable. In reality, few Japanese respondents used positive adjectives to describe Chinese people, and while 16.5% of Chinese respondents thought that the Japanese people would view Chinese people as “peaceful,” only 1.7% of Japanese respondents shared this view. The results on stereotypes and construal of the respondents can be summarized as having a mutual dislike between the Japanese and Chinese, but they are both interested in each other. Furthermore Japanese are overestimating how much they are disliked, while the Chinese are overly optimistic about the image of China in Japan.

Conclusion

First, the results of this research shows the Japanese and Chinese perceived opinion the average national of their country does not reflect the reality of the situation. In both countries the assumed negativity in their own countries toward the other country is overestimated. Furthermore, the topic of construals has not been researched in East Asia, and unlike in previous Western studies where both groups overestimate the construal differences, in Sino-Japanese relations Japanese participants tend to overestimate while Chinese participants tend to underestimate in the context of the Chinese image in Japan. The Japanese are not only overestimating the negativity from China, but are assuming that negative information that is being presented to Chinese is at a higher frequency than the negative information about China in Japan. Conversely, Chinese are overestimating the positive image of China and the amount of positive information about China exposed to the Japanese.

One of the biggest misperceptions of both groups was the assumption of being viewed as peaceful by the other. While both sides realized that there is mutual dislike and negative and both are exposed to negative information about each other, it is unclear why the respondents assumed they were being viewed as peaceful. The reality of both sides viewing each other as aggressive clearly shows a misunderstanding. Overall, the results of the analyses of false consensus, construal differences and misperceptions shows an inability of both sides to take the perspective of the other and hinders communication. Further studies are needed in the cognitive biases in Asia on topics that are highly emotional. Construal differences also need to be explored on a variety of subjects and need to be compared between Asian countries, while exploring the influences and its consequences in collective cultures. As suggested by naïve realism, it is at least a partial cause of these biases, and the implication for peace building and negotiations make this a promising research area. The awareness of biases by individuals subjected to them can assist in taking a more objective look at the other nation and mutual attitudes. It is highly desirable for both groups to look at the conflicting issues from the others perspective, and

through analyzing this view it is suggested that currently both sides are unable to correctly predict each other's responses. Exploring the effect of biases on cognition in cross-cultural conflicts can facilitate more conflict resolution strategies and understanding of deviation from logic among cultures.

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Ilocaneness in its present realities

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The cultural heritage associated with the Ilocano people is the third largest ethnic group in the Philippines. With the massive exodus of the hardworking Ilocano, it populated almost the whole spot of the country extending globally bringing with them their unique culture. This study was conducted to determine the influence of the Ilocano way of life of the present Ilocanos. It is a descriptive research of qualitative design using documentary analysis, survey and focus group discussion. The place of study is the coastal- lowland areas of Ilocos Sur where residents of various societal affiliations were reached out. Findings stated that there is great influence of the Ilocano culture on the lives of the people. Knowingly, there had been a continuous decline and eventual deterioration of “Iloko” culture. The Ilocano way of life evidently lost its uniqueness as it is influenced and undermined by foreign ethnicity. The foreign impact and sporadic cultural interaction is obvious in almost all aspect of their culture that it is almost impossible to trace the traits. Preservation of culture and languages should be of primordial concern among the Ilocano people to uphold its sustainability.

Keywords: culture and arts, Ilocaneness, Philippines

China’s Naval Build-up and India’s Response

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Since the 90’s, the rise of China has become realized. China has shown dramatic economic and military growth, and expanded its political influences at both regional and international levels. More importantly, it has accelerated its military modernization in general, naval build-up in particular. In response to China’s strengthening military power, India, one of the most potential competitors for regional hegemony, is at a crossroads. How has India perceived China’s naval build-up? And, based on India’s perception, how has it responded? In order to find answers to these questions, traditional international relations theories – neorealism and neoliberalism – are reviewed. This article argues that, unlike neoliberalist expectations, mutual economic cooperation between these two countries has failed to reduce their security concerns and mutual military cooperation is still far-off. Rather, throughout the neorealist lens, it insists that India has seen China’s military build-up as a significant threat to its national security. After exploring India’s strategies in response to China’s strengthening naval power, empirical analysis reveals that, facing a threat from China’s naval power, India’s response could be characterized as internal (India’s naval mobilization) and external balancing (India’s efforts to establish bilateral/multilateral relationships with other regional countries) against China.

Keywords: the rise of China, Sino-India relationship, balancing strategy

Promoting lifelong learning: what marketers can learn from social capital theory

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Social Capital (SC) refers to the nature and extent of one's participation in informal networks and formal civic organizations. It includes network access and forms of participation, namely: "bonding" and "bridging" social capital (Putnam, 2000). This research shares insights on how higher education institutions promote lifelong learning (LLL) through the SC theory. This study adapts Putnam's definition of SC. The research proceeded by gathering demographics about students; measuring strength of bonding and bridging SC among post-baccalaureate students and teachers; and, correlating demographic data and SC strength in motivating students to complete the post-baccalaureate degree. We adapted the Social Capital Questionnaire of World Bank. We surveyed 151 respondents from De La Salle-College of Saint Benilde (DLS-CSB). Research findings are: rank and file and supervisory employees have higher motivation to pursue LLL than business owners and managers; cooperation among students increases the motivation of students to pursue LLL; and, there is a direct relationship between number of modules finished and motivation to pursue LLL. The implications are: using marketing campaigns related to work promotion targeted at rank and file employees stimulates enrollment and, activities that support interaction among students lead to completion of more courses, encouraging students to finish the entire diploma program.

Keywords: *Lifelong learning Social Capital (SC), bonding SC, bridging SC,.*

Introduction

The term "social capital" initially appeared in community studies, highlighting the central importance—for the survival and functioning of city neighborhoods—of the networks of strong, cross cutting personal relationships developed over time that provide the basis for trust, cooperation, and collective action in such communities (Jacobs,1965). Early usage also indicated the significance of social capital for the individual: the set of resources inherent in family relations and in community social organizations useful for the development of the young child (Loury, 1977). The concept has been used since its introduction to illuminate a wide range of social phenomena, although researchers increasingly have focused attention on the role of social capital as an influence not only on the development of human capital (Coleman, 1988; Loury, 1977, 1987) but on the economic performance of firms (Baker, 1990), geographic regions (Putnam, 1993, 1995) and nations (Fukuyama, 1995).

The most common definition of social capital regards it as a feature of social organization, such as networks, norms and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit (Putnam, 1995). Although there are many different descriptions of social capital, the major three central elements are social network, norm, and trust. Another fundamental distinction is often made between the components of its concept, which include the bonding, bridging, and linking

social capital (Woolcock, 2001). Some authors (Winter, 2000) provided a point of consensus among various perspectives by emphasizing on a concept of networks of quality relations which operate as a resource to collective action on different scales (individual, communities and nations).

Putnam (2000) argues that social capital has forceful, even quantifiable, effects on many different aspects of our lives and it is more than warm, cuddly feelings, or frissons of community pride. These quantifiable effects include lower crime rates (Putnam, 2000 and Hardoy et. al., 1999), better health (Wilkinson, 1996), improved longevity (Putnam, 2000), better educational achievement (Coleman, 1988), greater levels of income equality (Krishnan, 2008 and Wilkinson, 1996), improved child welfare and lower rates of child Abuse (Cote & Healy, 2001), more effective government (Putnam, 1995), and enhanced economic achievement through increased trust and lower transaction costs (Fukuyama, 1995).

Social capital is multifunctional as it embraces essential factors of economic production, provides a basis for collective action within society, and is in itself an essential input factor of social capital accumulation, including health care. Moreover, social capital is a valuable asset as such. In particular, human health, literacy and life expectancy, cultural and social integrity, and social cohesion are components of human well-being (Atkinson, et. al., 1997).

Some researchers recognized that social capital has been located at the level of the individual, the informal social group, the formal organization, the community, the ethnic group, and even the nation (Coleman, 1988 and Putnam, 1995). There are different views in the literature; some authors posit social capital at the individual level, some the community level, while others have a more dynamic view. Putnam (1995) states that social capital sources lay in the social structure within which the actor is located. Thus, social capital can be thought of as having an individual and an aggregate component; that is, social capital belongs to the group and can be used by the group or individuals within the group. Coleman (1988) stated that social capital exists within levels or scales as one feels belonging to family, community, profession, country, etc, simultaneously. Adler and Kwon (2002) stated that although social capital was originally conceived as a community-wide concept, it should be observable at the individual level. Bourdieu identified it at the individual level while Putnam saw it at the community level. The general consensus in the literature is that social capital is identifiable from the individual level to the level of the nation; however, it is clear that social capital is evident at any level where there is identification and belonging.

Learning is a central process in social capital formation and application. From primary socialization across the life span, learning is the incidental mechanism that converts experience into understanding. Incidental and informal processes of learning inform future behavior, so that we heed the lessons of the past for a more advantageous, stable, and fulfilling future. It is through formally organized and regulated learning experiences, however, that citizenship and other statuses, including entry to different occupations and the labor market, are accorded. These formal experiences ensure understanding of the processes of acquiring, storing, and applying forms of knowledge deemed essential by those in positions of influence, in government, commercially, and in other arenas, locally, nationally, and beyond. At this point, learning for social cohesion and civic responsibility and learning for economic participation and productivity merge in national and other systems of education, from early childhood and increasingly into advanced adult years. For some, in the post-employment age, learning to consume has replaced the learning for production imperative.

At first glance, the term 'lifelong learning' holistically embraces all modes of educational experience, at all stages of life in all spheres of activity. Worldwide moves to place infants in day care centers include the intention to start beyond-the-home education very early in life. Similarly, as the proportion of older people increases, they learn to manage their changing social and economic affairs along with their increasing frailty, until death. Their wish to remain active may lead them to delay retirement and then to participate in increasingly diverse community activities, among which those designated as learning may have a high profile. Lifelong learning, then, is promoted as an unassailable individual and public good.

This proposition, however, needs examining. Those apparently oriented towards social capital formation have strong economic interests which are not always transparent. First, those targeted usually pay for these educational services themselves. Plans to increase participation in such activities increase their market share. It is clear that in most parts of the world, lifelong learning policy is narrowly concerned with labor market effectiveness on the part of population groups designated as economically active or actively seeking work if they are temporarily unemployed (Preston, 1999). For those in core organizational positions and selling expertise as flexible freelance workers, lifelong learning is about increasingly continuing professional development to remain eligible to work. For those currently unpaid, it is about providing them with the generic and locally specific skills that employers want. For those less immediately employable, organized learning opportunities seek to provide prerequisite basic skills (e.g. literacy and language). In contrast, funding controls means that sponsorship of uncertificated programs of adult and community learning diminishes. They are deemed irrelevant to a competitive labor market, along with those which continue year after year without achieving time-bound, specified objectives. Maybe this is no wonder. In different parts of the world, the social and political capital functions of adult education have often led to their summary termination in fear of their capacity to inspire popular resistance movements.

What does all this mean for human and social capital as country after country adopts lifelong learning policies? In the model just described, they are primarily committed to the greater efficiency of increasingly flexible labor and keeping its skills up to date with changes in technology, marketing and consumption. Often, however, such policies are communicated through narratives of civic responsibility. To compensate for the declining ability of states to meet social support expenses, these discursive strategies direct those with resources and skills to learn to contribute to the well-being of those less fortunate, through corporate citizenship and community action programs. They urge the marginalized poor to enroll on courses to learn how to enhance their capacities, so as to increase their levels of participation, economically and otherwise. Those in either category who are reluctant to contribute time and other resources as providers or consumers of these services may be seen as non-participants who avoid their civic responsibilities. In most countries, those in even more marginal social positions, among them the mentally disturbed, asylum seekers, and refugees, are being offered decreasing self-development opportunities. The ability of such groups to threaten local stability is slight, and in the latter case minimized still further by dispersal policies that keep them in isolation from one another, so preventing those who would otherwise be capable of doing so from forming networks of social support and creating unrest (Preston, 1999).

Invisible to all is the way involvement at whatever level in any of these processes expects learning of the popular and pervasive neo-liberal, outcomes-based organizational management skills of self-appraisal and regulation within narratives of learning enabling the new conceptualizations. Management theorists have seized human resource development as the

mechanism for facilitating the accumulation of human and social capital within organizations, integrated within processes of organizational learning. These go beyond the contributions of individual actors, in public, voluntary and private sectors, at sub-state, state and supranational levels. Such thinking explicitly seeks to harness the quality of social interaction to efficiencies and profitability within and between organizations working as partners, in the workplace, and elsewhere. The extent to which these processes achieve the ultimate objective of a continuously learning society remains open to doubt, certainly as long as they are primarily inspired by economic expectations.

Methodology

The study covers the students from the School of Professional and Continuing Education (SPaCE) of DLS-CSB. Primary data were collected from students, new and old, enrolled in the various programs under SPaCE which was conducted last January, 2014. The researchers visited the respective classes and explained to the respondents the objectives of the study before they asked the students to accomplish the questionnaires.

The researchers adopted the World Bank Social Capital Integrated Questionnaire which has been tested for validity and reliability through past researches. The questionnaire consisted of three parts divided into demographic data, social groups and networks, and trust and solidarity. To examine the associations among multiple variables related to social groups and networks and trust and solidarity, frequency tables were generated as well as correlation and T-tests were performed.

Findings and Results

The population considered in this study is well within the working age of 15 to 64 years for the Philippines (World Bank, 2011). Of these, 37% fall within the age bracket 20-29 years old which is consistent with the number of students who are in the rank and file position (42 or 28%). Majority of the respondents (35%) are already occupying supervisory or managerial positions. Majority of the students are male (64%).

SPaCE accepts into its programs only those who have finished their college education. SPaCE students are either employed (89%) or self-employed (11%). Students enroll in the programs to learn new skills (16%), for self-advancement (21%) and eventually promotion (8%) within their organization. Five per cent of the respondents have taken more than six modules indicating that they were interested in more than one program even if they have to finance their education themselves (23%) following the intellectual stream that the social contract view that actors act as wholly self-interested (Coleman, 1988). The survey also shows that 91% of the respondents are determined to finish the programs they are enrolled in.

Filipinos are famous for *bayanihan* or spirit of kinship and camaraderie (Department of Tourism, 2014). Filipinos also love to work in small groups and sharing and helping out in the spirit of solidarity. SPaCE's students (61%) will share their materials with their classmates whenever they miss a class or if a classmate asks for it and 66% will help out their classmates always or most of the time since many among them (61%) have more than one friend in the class.

The study tested eight predictors related to the students' enrollment in SPaCE's programs – number of modules taken, number of friends in class, number of classmates to share class materials with, level of trust to DLS-CSB personnel, level of trust to SPaCE personnel, level of

trust to classmates, level of trust in the last 4 months prior to the survey, and the number of classmates helping out in class activities and requirements.

A form of social capital states that “people are always doing things for each other” and as such, this would require some degree of trustworthiness of the social environment (Coleman, 1988). This reciprocity of action and trustworthiness is indicated in the survey where trust on DLS-CSB personnel registered 55% and on their fellow students at 53%. The same shows that the students have had this level of trust even before they enrolled in SPaCEs programs.

Multiple regression analysis was used to test if the eight predictors significantly predicted intention to finish the diploma course. The results of the regression indicated that the eight predictors explained 16% of the variance ($r^2=0.16$, $F=3.37$, $p<.01$) of intention of 91% of the students to finish a diploma course. It was found that the number of modules taken significantly predicted an intention to finish diploma course as did perception on classmates to share materials when absent.

More female students intend to finish the diploma program than their male counterpart; however, the difference is not significant ($t=1.04$, $p=>.05$).

The likelihood of the intention to finish diploma course is not statistically significant between company-sponsored and self-financed students ($t=0.12$, $p=>.05$). Forty percent of the respondents are sponsored by their respective companies while 23% are self-financed. Thirty-six percent of those surveyed did not declare their source of tuition and other fees.

Educational attainment does not affect the likelihood to finish a diploma program ($F=0.06$, $p=>0.05$) nor it was one of the reasons for enrolling ($F=1.16$, $p=>0.05$). However, the participant’s current position in the company affects the likelihood to finish diploma course ($F=4.28$, $p=<0.05$). Employed students expressed a higher intention to complete the program than their self-employed counterpart.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study addressed the significant elements of the intention to finish a diploma course, source of funding for tuition, educational attainment, position in their organizations, and their reasons for enrolling.

SPaCE has a young population composed mostly of supervisors that are actively managing their careers and preparing for a promotion by learning new skills for self-advancement. They wanted to finish their course since majority of them are funded by the companies that employ them and have the intention to promote them or move them to a position that would require the skills they have just learned.

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn which can be helpful for the SPaCE administration and students:

- Review and evaluate its courses and programs’ learner-centeredness since lifelong learners would like to work in groups and collaborate
- Review and evaluate the conduct of classes to check if the pedagogy (or andragogy) applied suits the student population
- Conduct a study that will determine what the industry needs and develop programs that will address them
- Develop a marketing plan and program directed at its publics based on the results of the survey

It was also necessary to conduct this study in order to determine if the current program offerings of SPaCE, a form of informal learning as defined in this study, still address the needs and demands of the industries and its target market. It is also necessary to determine the proper marketing strategy that will be used as well as what courses need be and can be offered to its target market.

The relationship between social capital and learning is not as linear or as simple as the example Coleman (1988) used initially in “Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital.” This study both confirms and challenges some of Coleman’s findings and the contributions of scholars over the last 15 years. The operative elements of social capital in this analysis are networks characterized by density and size and indicators of shared discourses. Like Coleman’s study of dropping out, social capital indicators are the most powerful predictors of engagement in learning for adults.

Formal learning goes through the rigors of curriculum development conducted by instructional designers and trainers (Cournoyer, 2012) and is “structured by a teacher”, didactic and more pedagogic (Hodkinson, Colley, & Malcom, 2003). According to Cournoyer (2012), formal learning conducted either in a university setting or on site in the premises of the organization to which the participant belongs is still the preferred choice of employers since they want “to have more control over the learning experience of their employees”. This is evidenced by the fact that 40% of the students of SPaCE were sent and financed by their offices.

In informal learning, the responsibility of designing and developing the training program is shared by many subject matter experts (SMEs). In informal learning, “learners control the means but not the objectives” (Mocker & Spear, 1982); (Hodkinson, Colley, & Malcom, 2003). “An individual other than the learner decides what is to be learned while the learner decides how it is to be learned” (Mocker & Spear, 1982). This being the case, SPaCE’s students evaluate the course, the faculty, the facilities and other logistical requirements after each module of the program. The results of these evaluations become the basis for calibrating the delivery of the programs.

Informal, self-directed, and situated adult learning is beginning to get more attention in the adult education field (Engestrom, 1996; Field and Schuller, 1998; Foley, 1999). This study reinforces the need to understand strategies for learning other than those offered through educational organizations and institutions. The SCILL (social capital influences on lifelong learning) Model shows two distinctly different patterns of predictors for formal and informal learning. Some of the differences may be attributable to differences in available resources and expected benefits. Those with higher prestige jobs may not have the necessary time to invest in participating in a GED (general educational development) class, but they may have more intellectual and material resources for independent learning. People with children may not have the personal circumstances conducive to self-directed learning but are motivated to get formal certification from programs to meet their goals. Some populations, such as speakers of English as a second language, may have established relationships with educational institutions but may confront language or cultural barriers when attempting self-directed learning.

While many authors consider them interchangeable, the most dramatic difference between formal and informal learning is in how networks predict participation. Social capital theory led us to expect more social connections to predict more formal participation, the assumption being that social capital represents available information, encouragement, and resources to support schooling. However, the results of the current research were not consistent with the previous

findings. These inconsistencies show that social capital theory has boundaries, making it imperative for future inquiries to supplement SCT with other theories.

Why are more socially connected people less likely than isolated people to participate in formal learning? Why are they much more likely to engage in informal learning than isolated people? More inquiry into the social nature of formal and informal learning strategies would be rewarding. Participating in formal education is a much more public endeavor than reading alone to learn about something or practicing on one's own to get a GED. As a public endeavor, it is more vulnerable to the approval or sanctions of community. This is demonstrated in the SCILL Model by the interaction effect.

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Resiliency of students of higher education institutions in ilocos sur

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This study is conducted to investigate if students' resiliency is influenced by their profile, school climate and accessibility, and their protective factors; likewise into the influence of students' resiliency on their development and academic achievement. The respondents were the college students of higher education institutions in the province of Ilocos Sur. Descriptive-correlational type of research was used in this study utilizing the triangulation method. Data collected were analyzed using various statistical treatments. Results show that profile of the students did not yield a significant influence on their resiliency. Yet, number of risk factors or misfortune events emerged as significant predictor. Further, school climate and accessibility significantly influenced resiliency of students. Among the variables, individual and school dimensions registered to be the significant predictors in the resiliency of students. However, there is no significant influence of resiliency of students on their academic achievement. Implication stated that most of them have experienced at least one risk factor or misfortune event. It is recommended that in order for the students to survive college life and make their stay in the organization fruitful, they are encouraged to join organizations of their interest.

Keywords: resiliency, school climate, student's development

A study on the use of gender stereotyping in advertising

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The purpose of this study is to evaluate the level of consciousness on the phenomenon of gender stereotypes as promoted in television commercials. Advertisements constantly deliver messages in television commercials to the Filipino audience to influence them to purchase a product that they sometimes do not need. Advertisers use famous male and/or female celebrities to endorse their product to capture the attention of their audience within the limited but expensive air time. These celebrities will feature a beautiful and elegant woman or a strong and muscular man. Consumers will most likely recall the celebrity singing or dancing to a catchy tune, but will not realize that these advertisements are laden with stereotypes, particularly ones targeted to gender.

Qualitative method was used to determine the awareness of future media practitioners at the Saint Paul University Manila about gender constructions in advertising. The attributes of a real man are examined and discussed to better understand the role of male gender stereotypes. Aside from this, the use of memes in an interactive meme show provided the data for this study.

The results established the level of consciousness of the respondents towards gender stereotypes that can influence the perception of gender identity.

Keywords: gender stereotyping, advertising, media

Introduction

Advertising makes everything look good. The audience forgets to read between the lines and digest the real message being relayed. They do not take time to study and analyze these advertisements. They do not question the use of stereotypes and end up merely absorbing these ideas. They unconsciously imitate the actions presented in the advertisement, behaving the way stereotypes tell them to act. Are consumers even aware that these advertisements only give us instant gratification and consumerism? If we are, do we challenge them?

This research was inspired by the 2008 TV beer commercial of Colt 45 where male gender stereotypes were used. The following pages discussed how advertising influences society and why advertisers resort to using gender stereotypes. The rest of the paper is organized as follows: the effects of gender stereotypes in beer commercials, the functional and dysfunctional stereotypes used in commercials. The study used theories on gender stereotypes, like Gender Performativity and Queer Theory, in order to further explain the misconceptions brought about by using gender stereotypes in advertisements. It also looks at how several factors affect the behavior and perception of advertising and mass communication students of St. Paul University Manila before and after they learn about the stereotypes in the recently conducted interactive meme show.

Advertising, its influences, and role in Society

Why do consumers buy the things that are advertised on television? Why do consumers still watch commercials that they have already seen so many times? Why does advertising work at all? All these questions make us reflect and realize that advertising actually works through

repetition and persuasion. The answers to these questions show the sudden sales increase in the purchase of a new product introduced in TV commercials.

In the book entitled *Advertising & Integrated Brand Promotion*, O'Guinn, Allen and Semenik wrote, "We need to examine the explicit psychological consequences of advertising." They said that advertising is largely designed to ensure credit and create favorable biases toward a brand so that as consumers explore answers to their concerns, they will think of the brand immediately. Advertisers intend to convince consumers to believe that their brands are important and persuade them to think of their brands as frequently as possible.

The Effects of Gender Stereotypes in Beer Commercials

Kristen W, a senior communication major and a sociology and psychology minor from Villanova University, wrote an article entitled *Gender and Media: Breaking Down Beer Commercials* last May 29, 2012. According to the article, people have different opinions about commercials – some find it entertaining, others find them annoying. Despite opposing feelings about them, everyone agrees that commercials are everywhere and are here to stay. He affirmed that beer commercials are by far, the most popular, most comedic, and sexist commercials. In his blog, he mentions four current trends in beer commercials: the *loser type*, *buddies*, *hotties*, and *committed females*. The *loser type* is mocked and considered a failure because he does not meet the standards of the ideal, dominant male. On the other hand, *beer buddies* talk about numbers; the presence of male peers reinforces the male's dominance. Women are the central figure of the *hotties* type; here, they are portrayed as the object of the male sexual fantasy. Lastly, Kristen calls the wives and girls, whom men scorn and despise because they limit their freedom, the real and *committed females*. These types of commercials use gender stereotypes to entertain their audience. Advertisers forget that commercials are also cultural transmitters of social norms, stereotypes, and values.

Commercials use persuasive tools in making and shaping people's thoughts and ideas. They use simple and easily understood ways in presenting these ideas to the audience. Consumers are aware that commercials create memorable messages that influence the way they perceive things. Their values are transformed just by mere recognition of the commercial. The consumer is reminded about a commercial or a product through repetition. These reminders influence the behavior of the consumer. Persuasion is therefore used in commercials subliminally and, more often than not, stereotyping roles is one of their topics.

Functional and Dysfunctional Stereotypes

Marie Hardin, Dean of the College of Communications of Penn State University, believes that "Stereotypes are the best way to give consumers a quick understanding of the creative impact of the message". When the advertiser is pressed for time to create a memorable and appealing message, the practical strategy is to use one that its viewers can easily understand, i.e. stereotypes. Unfortunately, some of them have negative connotations due to how they are formed and used.

Stereotypes can be used in functional and dysfunctional ways. They are functional when they are accepted as a natural way to guide our expectations. On the other hand, they are dysfunctional when they are used to judge individuals. The dysfunctional use of stereotypes causes abnormal interpersonal behavior when it justifies the mistreatment of certain groups. Advertisers can achieve a good standing when they use functional stereotypes. They should avoid using stereotypes in dysfunctional ways because doing so would result to bad publicity and outright rejection from consumers.

The 2008 Colt 45 advertisement in the Philippines is an example of the use of dysfunctional stereotypes. The commercial featured a group of men in four different situations. The ad campaign's intention to reintroduce Colt 45 as the "the Strong Beer for Real Men" contained a strongly insensitive gender stereotype. The catchphrase "Men should act like Men" in the commercial demands that all men should act according to the socially established rules of conduct in terms of gender showcased in the commercials. Men who do not observe the standards of heterosexuality are regarded as "*hindi tunay na lalaki*" (not real men) and are labeled as "effeminates", "gays", or "metrosexual".

Queer Theory and Gender Performativity Theory

According to David Gauntlett, a Professor in the Faculty of Media, Art and Design in the University of Westminster, UK, Queer Theory suggests that the identities of men and women are not fixed and cannot be determined. Identities consist of so many elements that to assume that people whose characters are identified according to what are collectively seen is wrong. He claims that in Queer Theory, we deliberately challenge all notions of fixed identity, in varied and non-predictable ways.

Queer Theory only informs us that fixed identities are given to people even though they do not share the same characteristics. This is because people are all different from one another. On the other hand, according to Judith Butler, Gender Performativity, talks about how similar-looking people perform gender in different ways. Appearance does not determine a person's identity. From the perspective of performativity, gender is a ritual act and everyday gender performances are regulated. Judith Butler, an American continental philosopher and gender theorist whose work has influenced political philosophy, ethics and the fields of feminist, queer and literary theory, said, "Gender is the repeated stylization of the body, a set of repeated acts within a highly rigid regulatory frame that congeal over time to produce the appearance of substance, of a natural sort of being." In short, gender is performed even in the way one occupies a seat in the bus or in a park bench.

Advertisements have unconsciously created a deep effect on society's perception of the male identity. These ads have multiplied in unconceivable ways and have created a strong force to flee from reality. Judith Butler articulated that the male identity is now acted out as a performance in these beer commercials. It is through this male performance that beer commercials have contributed to what establishes an ideal male behavior. According to Butler, "gender is a performance; it's what you do at particular times, rather than a universal who you are.

The Colt 45 beer commercials' slogan "Men should act like men" showed that there are fixed gender identities. However, Queer Theory argues the contrary. Identities are merely performed as supported by Butler's Theory of Gender Performativity.

In the series of Colt 45 television commercials, four men were obliterated by a giant Colt45 beer bottle as a result for not acting according to what society expected of them. A mockery and/or a parody of the act made these men look like fools.

Research Objective

The challenge of commercials is to create messages that will catch people's attention and motivate them to action. These commercials are designed to create meaning in the minds of its audience. They do not need to explicitly state their meaning; they merely need to imply it,

depending on the audience to fill in the missing pieces. In beer commercials, men are constructed according to the message that the advertisers want to send. The Colt 45 commercial did not only change the personality of the male drinkers but also constructed men as weak. The message in the beer commercial is carried across and assumptions about gender conventions have created an impression to its audience. In order to find out the perception of the young generation towards these commercials, an interactive meme show was created and performed. The reflections of the students from the interactive meme show showed that awareness about male stereotyping was achieved.

This study aimed to examine the perception of thirty-five (35) advertising and mass communication students of St. Paul University Manila about gender stereotyping in TV ads. It looked into how the use of memes in the Interactive Meme Show created awareness towards the students about gender stereotyping in Filipino beer television commercials.

Methodology

The qualitative method was used in the study to effectively create awareness about the effects of gender stereotyping in Filipino beer TV commercials.

One way to capture my audience is with the use of social media. Social media is liken to advertising. It is able to reach people and sell its ideas to people. With the use of social media, a Meme is a good way of transmitting social memories. A meme refers to a discrete “Package of Culture” that travels via word of mouth. It can be a dramatic story, a fable, a joke or an expression. Memes have tools for visual expression and can trigger a lot of engagement. These memes reach people more quickly and effectively. With this in mind, an Interactive Meme Show was conducted to determine how the students perceived the videos about being male that were presented in advertisements. Aside from that, the show was able to gauge the level of awareness of the students in terms of gender stereotypes in advertising.

Discussions

The Execution

I came up with the hashtag “#TunayNaLalaki (#Real men)” as the meme handle. The meme posed as the challenge to “Caption Me” or to complete the message. An Interactive Meme Show was held in St. Paul University Manila. Male students performed the “Captions” that were added by the male audience. The female audience took photographs of the entire performance. When the male audience stepped inside, they had no idea what they were supposed to do until they were asked “SINO SA IYO AND TUNAY NA LALAKI?” (What is a real man for you?)

The result was fresh, eye-opening answers from the male audience. In the *first part* of the show, the consciousness of the issue was established. In the *second part* of the show the performers acted out the issue of stereotyping when put in the context of performance. It presented the interaction of the male respondents to the meme, the performance of the male actors and the reaction of the female photographers while taking pictures of the performance. Right after the performance, the reflections of the audience towards their experience with the memes in the show were submitted.

Out of the thirty-five (35) captions given, I have chosen five captions just to illustrate how the young male students reacted towards the memes.

1. *Hindi nangongolekta ng babae (Is not a two-timer)*

The performer pretended to be talking to his girlfriend and promised to bring her flowers when they meet later on. He also said that he only had eyes for her and no one else. He ended the performance by telling her that he loved her. Through the actor's words and gestures, he was able to show how sincere he was and how much he loved his girlfriend. Words create deeper impact to people with conviction.

2. *Hindi maarte. (He is not fussy)*

The actor simply crossed his arms in front of his chest and smiled. The actor for this part looked like he had no qualms about whatever would be presented to him. He portrayed a man who did not complicate things by fussing over everything and trying to impress everyone else.

3. *Takot sa Nanay. (He respects his mother)*

The word "takot", when translated literally, means "fear". The actor, however, showed that "takot" could also mean "respect". In his performance, he called his mother to ask permission to go out with his friends. Despite not getting her approval, he still told her that he loved her and respected her decision. Respect for a mother is one of the best traits that a man can possess. The actor projected that his love for his mother does not come from fear but from respect.

4. *Mataas ang pangarap. (He is ambitious)*

In this scene, the actor pretended to talk to his partner and inquired about the status of his investments. He also talked about his dreams and aspirations in the networking business. The actor showed that while it is important to dream of and want great things, it is also important to plan for it.

5. *Hindi tinatago ang emosyon. (He does not mask his emotions)*

After the caption was posted beside the frame, the actor started to pretend to sob. Men grow up with the idea that crying makes them less of a man. The caption, however, shows that men should not be afraid of expressing their feelings. Doing so does not make them weak.

The actors' interpretation towards the meme captions were spontaneous and gave the audience different ideas about gender constructions of a real man. The answers given by the males were true to form. Men, in other words, are real people who are sensitive, loving, and honest people. Their core parts are strength and reliability. They are always set for action.

The performers did a good job of making the show light-hearted, fun, but interesting. The performances gave everyone something to reflect on.

Final Analysis

When the meme was replicated in the show, it created awareness about how men think and react to certain situations. Gauging from the responses of the audience, they enjoyed the meme experience. Although there were some apprehensions when the show started, it quickly disappeared once the memes were presented and performed.

Oddly enough, the female photographers' reaction towards the memes presented that day was that of respect. Although they had a good laugh, they also realized that men were indeed

misunderstood and misjudged. The message is clear and this realization stage is a big step in preparation for the student's future interaction in the advertising industry.

I asked the female students to write their analysis and reflection about what had just transpired. "Respect for Men" was the favorite answer. According to Thea Katig, a third year mass communication student, it is a major "turn on" and a necessity for a man to be very respectful, not just on [sic] her woman but to everyone especially his family, friends, elderly, children and even strangers. She added, "Love a man who knows how to love his mother because a man who loves his mother knows how to treat a woman right."

"People should not only focus on feminism, but should also focus on empowering men as well." Mae Ria believes that we are all human beings and that we should propagate equality. Women are not only the ones being stereotyped, but men as well. Kristen added that there must also be an empowerment campaign for men. There are lots of ads for women empowerment but none for men. According to Taphia Dula, "Women empowerment is prevalent in our age today, but in order to uplift equality and maintain harmony within general and specific communities, men must also be duly recognized".

Maria Kalle Reyna and the rest of the students agreed that the show was an eye-opener for them. One said that the show has presented what men truly are and what men should really be. Based on the reactions of the students, the show gave them a clear vision of a man's true nature. It gave them a new perspective about the opposite sex. According to Ikay Saponong, one of the female students in the show, "Manliness is usually measured by how tough you look. They are always expected to put up a strong front. A little vulnerability shows weakness. Men are dominant over women because they are always expected to protect them and make them happy."

She added that derogatory words are intended to belittle men. These have the tendency to degrade, demean, and debase their basic intrinsic value, thereby limiting their interactions, reactions, and emotions to an extent accepted by society. Society has set standards that serve as a basis of how men and women should act. Men should be able to act as they will, without the fear of being judged by society. Though people are correct that women are still seen as the inferior gender, most people are not aware about the abuse and pain that men also experience.

In conclusion, the entire show helped the female audience realize how women and society should perceive men. Men are, by nature, boys who need to be loved and taken care of. They are just like women; they can also be sensitive and emotional. The only difference is that most men are not in touch with their emotional side because of all the social barriers that prevent them from doing so.

With the reflection of the respondents, these only show that men are ordinary people just like you and me who should not be judged and misconstrued.

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Social Movements in Japan after 2000: Ways to Re-think Civic Participation?

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After the demonstrations against nuclear power have mobilized thousands of Japanese in 2011, some commentators claim that civil society as a whole has been transforming towards more activity in light of these events. My paper aims to show however, that long before Fukushima, innovative forms of political and social engagement have been developing: while the social vicissitudes of post-bubble Japan left many young Japanese faced with new economic risks, they also helped inaugurate new opportunities for civic participation. In particular after 2000, we see the emergence of a number of smaller activist networks in the realm of the so-called Freeter-movement that is concerned with working conditions of irregular employees in Japan. These young urban activists engage mostly in non-institutionalized and non-conventional forms of social and political participation, where cultural expression and entrepreneurship are intertwined with political and social activism. This paper will present the emergence and development of less visible groups of activists in urban Japan after 2000, and their impact on recent protest movements after Fukushima. Furthermore, it will be discussed how these forms of activism can shape the prevailing conceptualizations of civic participation in Japan.

Keywords: Japan, Social Movement, Fukushima

Strategic orientation and performance among Small Business Firms in Ampara district

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Small businesses are vital for people in the Ampara district in terms of employment generation and this, in turn, contributes to the Gross Domestic Production to the development of the country. It is, therefore, paramount to study the small business sectors in the region and to figure out the problems faced by these small businesses. The major objective of the study is to find the association between strategic orientation of small businesses in Ampara District and its performance. This study helps to identify factors that constitute the strategic orientations in small businesses in the Ampara District of Sri Lanka. This helps to figure out the problems in adopting the strategic orientation by small businesses. Data were collected by utilizing questionnaires. A model was tested using collected data that was analysed using multivariate techniques. Small businesses in the Ampara District are struggling to achieve its profitability with lucrative performance. Hence, there should be proper guidance by way of formulating strategies so that they will be devising strategies by adopting marketing orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, technological orientation and marketing capabilities.

Keywords: Small Business, Strategic Orientation, marketing capabilities

1. Background of the Study

Small businesses are the agents for industrial change and innovation and vital for generation of employments (Brich et al.1993). Small ventures are also source of wealth creation and economic growth (Storey 1994).

In Sri Lanka, many industries are under the preview of small and medium scale industries and they are identified as vital strategic growing sector and contribute to the development of the country in terms of generating employment, income and poverty alleviation.

Although Sri Lanka has diversity of enterprises, it is estimated that 16,000 manufacturing enterprises operating in urban areas and over 600,000 are still operating in rural areas. These are engaged in production and created over 1,500,000 employments in the Island (Ministry of Finance Planning 2010).

After the prolong civil war in Sri Lanka, many small businesses are emerging and it requires a proper guidance in marketing and management to further improve in their businesses. Therefore, it is important to explore the strategic orientation of small businesses in the Ampara district. This is because of the fact that strategic orientation is a significant indicator of company's performance (Day 1990) that includes management's perception of the success of new product (Cooper 1994; Narver and Slater 1990).

Many researchers have studied strategic orientations and its components and its impact on firm performance. For example Mohmood & Herath (2013) studied about strategic orientation and SMEs performance in developing countries with entrepreneurial orientation, market orientation

and learning orientations as elements of the strategic orientation. In this study, it was found that entrepreneurial orientation, market orientation and learning orientation contribute to the performance of SMEs in developing countries.

Although many researchers have given various definitions for the strategic orientation, the ultimate goal of the strategic orientation was to improve or to achieve superior performance. Zhou et al. (2005) states that strategic orientation is a direction in order to create behavior which assist the organization to achieve superior performance. It is also worthwhile to note here that strategic orientation of the firm leads to at least in part superior performance due to the innovation an organization brings to the market (Gatignon & Xuereb 1997).

There are many researches carried out in the world with regard to strategic orientation and firm performance. There are very few studies conducted in Sri Lanka except this paper which focused in this area of study. For instant, Pretheeba (2013) studied about creating a conducive environment for SMEs in Sri Lanka and attempted to find challenges and offer a few suggestions. Sri Chandraguptha & Premaratne (2013) conducted research on government support policies and incentives for SME development in Sri Lanka. Researchers found that there is a vast prospect for Sri Lanka to grow with the development of the SME sector and for that there is a necessity for changing the policy for enhancing the role of SMEs.

Strategic orientation and firm performance has not been studied in Ampara district. Therefore, this study focuses on the strategic orientation which consists of market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, technological orientation and marketing capabilities. This study definitely helps the small and medium enterprises in the Ampara district to improve their business performance. Therefore, the objective of this study is to explore the strategic orientation of small businesses and to provide suggestion for improving the performance. Thus, this paper is in the following line. Theoretical framework is addressed. Secondly, the methodology is discussed. Thirdly the discussion of the results and finally the conclusion is derived.

2. Theoretical Framework

Strategic orientation of an organization is guiding principle (Noble et al. 2002) that create superior performance by implementing proper behavior (Gatignon & Xuereb 1997). Many researchers identified strategic orientation such as innovative orientation, technology orientation, entrepreneurial orientation and marketing orientation (Gatignon & Xuereb 1997; Hurley & Hult 1998; Marinova et al. 2008; Voss & Voss 2000; Zhou et al. 2005; Narver & Slater 1990).

According to many researches, strategic orientation plays major role in the creation of innovativeness of an organization that will be a key driver of competitiveness and performance of the organization (Kumar et al. 2012).

For SMEs in the Ampara districts, Entrepreneurial orientation, market orientation, technological orientation and marketing capabilities are taken into considerations and are related to firm performance. The relationship between independent variables and dependent variables are explained below.

2.1 Business performance (BP)

Business performance of any organization consists of marketing performance and financial performance. Many researchers explain that measuring performance is extremely difficult task and it could be measured subjectively and objectively with financial and marketing performance (Ruekert and Walker 1987; Day and Wensley 1988). Sin et al. (2005) emphasize that subjective method of measurement of BP is most suitable for research. The marketing performance will include service quality, loyalty and reducing marketing costs (Sin et al. 2005; Day and Wensley 1988). The financial measures include sales performance.

2.2 Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO)

Entrepreneurial Orientation is recognized as the most vital factor for growth and profitability of the firm (Zainol & Ayadura 2011). Many researches carried out in this field of study correlates high growth with firm's entrepreneurial orientation (Stevenson & Jarillo 1990). According to Stevenson & Jarillo (1990), growth of firms can be associated with dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation namely innovativeness, proactiveness and risk taking behaviour of the firm.

From previous studies (Eg. Lumpkin & Dess 1996; Miller, 1983), entrepreneurial orientation can be measured with five dimensions: innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness, competitive aggressiveness, and autonomy. Innovativeness refers to readiness providing support to creativity, novelty, technological leadership and research and development in business. Entrepreneur risk taking means that he has to take bold actions while venturing into new market and putting many resources to the business with uncertainty. Proactiveness means that firm should be proactive towards market opportunities. Competitive aggressiveness refers to how firms react to competitive trends and demands that already exist in the marketplace. Autonomy is defined as independent action by an individual or team aimed at bringing forth a business concept or vision and carrying it through to completion.

The relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance was widely discussed by many researchers. For instant, Lumpkin & Dess (2001) which demonstrates that dimension of entrepreneurial orientation such as proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness are related to performance. Further, entrepreneurial orientation is also critical to business ventures (Li et al. 2008) and Wiklund & Shepherd (2005) suggested that in small business firms entrepreneurial orientation is positively influencing small business performance. Thus, researcher hypothesize that

H1: Entrepreneurial orientation is positively contributing to the small business performance.

2.3 Market orientation

In relation to small and medium enterprises, Charles and Julian (2005) revealed that the market orientation consists of four dimensions Brendan et al. (1998) found that market orientation is multi-dimensional construct consisting of five sub dimensions. This can be used to measure the market orientation of a company. These five sub dimensions are customer orientation, competitor orientation, inter-functional co-ordination, and responsiveness and profit emphasis. Further, Brendan et al. (1998) support the instruments developed by Jaworski and Kholi (1993) scales to measure the market orientation. The implication of his research is that successful implementation of marketing concept produce concrete customers and organizational benefit and if the attention

is paid by managers towards these five dimension help improve company performance and assist in identifying the area of weakness and taking remedial action for diagnosed weaknesses.

Market orientation is also defined as an organizational culture that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviour for the creation of superior value for buyers and thus constituted superior performance for the business (Narver and Slater 1990, p. 21). Many studies have been conducted to find the positive relationship between market orientation and business performance (For example, Kirca et al. 2005; Hilal& Mubarak 2013; Sin et al. 2003). Market orientation is implementation of marketing concept. Pulendran et al. (2003) found that the organization adopted market orientation achieve better outcomes than less market oriented companies. This has been confirmed that adoption of marketing concept is an indication of successful performance of the business (Nwokah 2008). Further, Kirca et al. (2005) and Cano et al. (2004) emphasized that market orientation has a healthier positive influence on firm performance. Thus, Literatures evidenced that market orientation will positively impact on firm performance. Hence, small businesses in Ampara district may enhance the performance by adopting market orientation. Therefore, researcher hypothesize that

H2: Market orientation adaptation at small businesses will positively impact on the firm performances of small businesses.

2.4 Technological Orientation

Hatignon and Xuereb (1997) included technological orientation in the strategic orientation. Technically oriented companies are proactive in gaining new technologies which can be used to meet customer requirements easily by way of new product development. If an organization adopts new technologies, it can enjoy competitive advantage and its performance will be enhanced. Hence, small businesses should also be technological oriented and subsequently the performance will be increased. Thus, the researcher hypothesizes that

H3: Technological orientation will positively impact on small business performance in the Ampara district.

2.5 Marketing Capabilities

Capabilities play critical roles in an organization. Day (1994) explains that capabilities help achieve competitive advantage and superior performance. Resource based view of the capabilities refers that resources drive the ability of organization in designing, producing, marketing, and distributing its products and services. This ability and possession of the resources will lead to competitive advantage and superior performance due to valuable, rare and non-substitutable resources (Barney 1991; Hult et al. 2005).

Vorhies et al. (2009) categorize marketing capabilities as specialized and architectural. Specialized marketing capabilities include specific marketing tasks comprising marketing communications, personal selling, pricing, product development. However, architectural capabilities guide the planning and coordination mechanism ensuring the effective deployment of marketing activities. These capabilities are significant drivers of market effectiveness (Vorhies et al. 2009). Research on specific capabilities consisting of market sensing capabilities, relational capabilities, brand management capabilities and innovation capabilities suggest that

marketing capabilities contribute to the higher business performance and helps implementation of strategy (Day, 1994; Menguc & Auh 2010; Morgan et al. 2003; Smirnova et al. 2011). Theodosiou (2012) noted that firms with high levels of marketing capabilities are capable of responding to customer needs and will lead to the creation of long term profitable customer relationship. Further, Hult & Ketchum (2001) note that the potential impact of strategic orientation on firm performance should be reckoned with firm capabilities. Therefore, researcher hypothesize that

H4: Marketing capabilities positively impact on business performance.

Having explained the variables and its relationships, the research model is given as under.

Strategic Orientations

3. Methodology

This study was quantitative in nature. The research was conducted among small business firms in the Ampara district of Sri Lanka. Primary data was used for this study. 217 small business managers or proprietors were issued questionnaire consisting of personal information and items on entrepreneurial orientation, market orientation, technological orientation and marketing capabilities. The small businesses include small restaurants, retail shops, eatables manufacturers, curd producers, handloom owners and spice producers etc.

The questionnaire was prepared adopting scale for entrepreneurial orientation developed by Naman & Slevin (1993), for market orientation scales developed by Narver & Slater (1998). Items for technological orientation were adopted developed by Gatignon & Xuereb (1997). Measurements for marketing capabilities were adopted from Morgan et al., (2005). Firm performance is also measured subjectively using items developed by Morgan et al., (2003).

Factor analysis was carried out and found items in the communalities have more than 0.5 extraction value and items which had less than 0.5 value of communalities were removed and re factorized. Researcher had more than one rotated components and hence, in order to reduce the data, were grouped using computation method in SPSS. Multiple regressions were used as multivariate technique for data analysis.

3.1 Reliability Study

Pilot study was conducted with 30 respondents of retailers in the region. Reliability analysis was carried out in order to test the internal consistency of the questionnaire. Reliability statistics show that it had internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha value of 0.949 which is more than 0.70. The alpha value if item deleted for each items in the questionnaire were also more than 0.70.

4. Results and Discussion

It is important here to notify that 40% of the responded small businesses have more than five years of experience in their business. It is also noted that 60.3% of the respondents were less than GCE ordinary level qualifications. 30.2% and 9.5% are with A/L qualification and degree holders respectively. In the case of number of years existence of small businesses 32% of the small business are in operation for less than one year. 40% of the small businesses are in

operation for more than 5 years and 28% of the small businesses are operating within 1 to 5 years.

Factor analysis was carried out using principle component analysis. Sixth item of the items in the market orientation was removed since it had less than 0.5 values of communalities. The communalities of all variables are given in Table I. In the entrepreneurial orientation, eighth item was removed due to lower communalities. Due to the same reason of having less than 0.5 values of communalities, third and sixth items of technological orientation were removed.

Table I: Variances

Variables	Variance
Market orientation	98.24
Entrepreneurial orientation	89.51
Technological orientation	96.63
Marketing capabilities	98.17
Business performance	78.94

The cumulative variances for each variable for Market orientation, Entrepreneurial orientation, Technological orientation, marketing capabilities and business performance were 98.2%, 89.5%, 96.6%, 98% and 78.9% respectively. This indicates that the data collected from the respondents well represented in the study.

Regression analysis was performed with the intension of testing the contribution of the independent variables such as Market orientation (MO), Entrepreneurial orientation (EO), Marketing capabilities (MC) and Technological orientation (TO) to the dependent variable Business Performance. Summary of the regression output of the SPSS is given in Table II.

Table II: Regression Results

Predictable variable	Beta	p	t	IVF
Market orientation (MO)	0.303	0.008	2.686	3.270
Entrepreneurial orientation (EO)	-0.162	0.027	-2.226	1.358
Technological orientation (TO)	-0.063	0.555	-0.592	2.920
Marketing capabilities (MC)	-0.312	.000	-4.859	1.061

Note: $F_{4, 212} = 11.212$, $p < 0.05$, $R\text{-Square} = 0.175$, $\text{Adjusted } R\text{-Square} = 0.159$, $n=217$

This shows that R-square value is 0.175 which is significant at 5% level. p-value of this model is 0.000 ($p < 0.05$). This explains that 17.5% of the variation business performance of these small businesses are explained by the independent variables namely MO, EO, TO and MC. Adjusted R-square of 0.159 reveals that model has accounted for 15.9% of the variance in the criterion variable. IVF values are less than five and therefore, there is no serious multicollinearity problem. p-value of the TO is 0.555 which is greater than 0.05 and the model is significant since multiple regressions takes combination of variables into consideration.

The adequacy of the model also tested using histogram which adheres to the normality assumption (Mean = $-3.92E-17$, Std. Dev. = 0.991, N=217).

The performance of small businesses in the Ampara district depends on the market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, technological orientation and on marketing capabilities.

The most influencing variable on the business performance of small businesses in the Ampara district is marketing capabilities ($t = -4.859$, $p = 0.000$). This suggests that small business firms may focus on pricing, product, distribution, marketing communication, selling and marketing planning activities and marketing implementation capabilities. In the case of pricing, small business firms have to monitor or observe changes in the pricing strategies of competitors and accordingly small business firms responds to it. In product strategies, small firms should take steps to launch new product in line with the requirements of consumers investing on the research and development. Under distribution strategy, small firms need to make sure that sustain relationship with distributors is built and thereby small firms should retain the best distributors. As far as marketing communication capabilities are concerned, even if it is a small firm need to engage in advertising with creativity skills of employees in marketing division. Small firms can also do public relation activities. Although they are small firms with lesser amount of employees in the firm, they need sales management practices. Giving salespeople training and providing motivational supports to the sales staff of the small firms are important to improve the selling capabilities. Marketing planning skills is also vital for small firms in the Ampara districts. Small firms should be able to effectively segment and target the markets and need to develop marketing strategies that has to be implemented through marketing planning process and by executing it efficiently.

The second factor that influence on the small firm performance is market orientation ($t = 2.686$, $p = 0.008$). In market orientation customers play vital role and therefore, firm should focus on customer needs and strive to satisfy them. Small firms should continuously monitor customers and small firms' commitment towards customers. By understanding customers, small firms need devise strategies based on the customer needs. Further, if small firms need to improve the business performance, these small firms also continuously measure customer satisfaction and get feedback from customers. Many small firms failed to respond competitive actions that threatened them. This should be rectified by scanning regularly competitors' strengths and weakness. Thus, market research is emphasized here to understand the customers and incorporate it in their marketing planning process.

The third factor influence on business performance of small firms in the Ampara district is that entrepreneurial orientation ($t = -2.226$, $p = 0.027$). Under this factor, small firms should attempt to engage in research and development, technological leadership and innovation. These firms should try to introduce new product, administrative techniques and operating technology at the first instance. Top management of small firms has to give corporation in undertaking risk projects which generates high return. Hence, small firms should adopt a bold, aggressive position to exploit potential opportunities for becoming lucrative business.

The variable technological orientation does not have significant association with business performance of small business in the Ampara district ($t = -0.592$, $p > 0.000$). However, regression

model is significant with this variables suggesting that it might be possible for these small business firms to adopt technological orientation in their business process.

5. Conclusion, Managerial Implication and Limitations

In the Ampara district of Sri Lanka various small businesses are operating and new small businesses are emerging after the prolong war and was settled in the country. The objective of this study was to find the factors that will enhance the business performance of these small firms in the region. It is found from this study that marketing capabilities, market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation and technological orientation are contributing to the enhancement of business performance of small business firms in the Ampara district. This study guides struggling small businesses in the Ampara District to attain its profitability with lucrative performance by guiding to formulate and devise strategies by adopting marketing orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, technological orientation and marketing capabilities.

This study also reveals that irrespective of firm size, adaptation of strategic orientation will definitely provide efficient guidance to improve business performance and small businesses can sustain in the dynamic business environment with profitability. Therefore, it is highly recommended that small businesses may adopt strategic orientation to improve their business performance. For this, educating the proprietor or top management with regard to strategic orientation of these small firms may be beneficial to flourish successfully in the competitive business environment.

Limitation of this study is that research was conducted only in Ampara district of Sri Lanka. This could be extended to the other part of the Island where many small businesses are in existence. Therefore, future studies can also be focused on the other district as well. The respondents of this study were proprietor or top management of the small firms who are unaware of the concept of strategic orientation and hence, there may be bias in the results of this study.

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Challenges and issues faced by dalit women in higher education in India

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Always the lamp of education needs the oil of finance. Which is always a cause of concern for Asian women, in today's globalization and competitive world to sustain and succeed. Unlike western nations, "Indian women are denied equal opportunities in many spheres and their right to education." Caste system approves social discrimination at large and excludes dalit women from society. Women in India are pressured, oppressed, suppressed, and forced to mental torches in many of the higher educational institutions due to evil caste system. The quota system has provided a means for some dalit females to higher education. However, little or no attention to impediments that continues to hinder dalit women's access to higher education. Dalit females at various levels face inequality in numerous forms. Dalit females in universities, claims that "men and women academics are predominantly from the upper castes", and tend to neglect female dalit students. They have been ignored by them on many levels. They are deprived opportunities for further development. This cause of concern deters county's economy and needs to be addressed and given immediate attention of the world towards this issue.

Political Economy of the bitcoin in Asian Context: The Case of the bitcoin Adoption Opportunities in Asia

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Since its inception in 2009, the bitcoin surge, not only affected the global financial paradigm but also the social, economic and political regime worldwide. The Bitcoin is unique for being a stateless, non-regulated and a decentralized system of trust with anonymous currency, and urges the need of an ecosystem for it to be fully operative within a political, economic and technological environment. Asia for its development prospects and an emerging largest middleclass size, stands out as a lucrative market for the bitcoin startups. This research demonstrates applicability of Bitcoin Market Potential Index (BMPI) model in Asia context. The BMPI is helpful for investors, entrepreneurs, policy makers and development agencies to gauge bitcoin traction in a country under given circumstances and demands a continuous calibration in both the lateral and longitudinal dimensions. This research is meant to modify the index by incorporating more Asia relevant variables and furnishes a basic model for ranking of bitcoin infrastructure investment opportunities within Asia. The results of the study would be of equal interest (i) for investors and technology innovators who are interested in bitcoin startups in Asia and (ii) for lawmakers to measure the effectiveness of a given policy framework in subsequent region.

Introduction

The bitcoin is a digital, decentralized, partially anonymous non-fiat currency, whose generation and distribution makes use of advanced elliptic curve mathematics and cryptography, as well as a globally replicated public ledger called “Blockchain” to maintain its integrity. Because of its unique characteristics, the bitcoin qualifies as an ideal currency for mainstream consumers and merchants (Jerry Brito, 2014). The Bitcoin Market Potential Index BMPI (Hileman, 2014), is an index to gauge the appropriateness of a particular region to accommodate bitcoin. The BMPI have been recently developed and applied in USA and Europe (Hileman, 2014). Asia being characterized by its unique population, information infrastructure and monetary regulatory attributes, hence applying BMPI in Asian region needs corresponding modification. This research is meant to modify, calibrate and validate BMPI in Asian context, the newly evolved index is termed as Asia Bitcoin Index ABI.

Since its inception in January 2009, the bitcoin has been exchanged at US\$0.00076 (July 2009) to US\$ 1242 (November 2013) and is currently being traded at US\$230 range with a trading volume of 180,000 BTC (1.36 million US\$) and a market capitalization at US\$ 3.25billion. Merchants generally welcome bitcoin adoption, however lack of consumer interest is the fundamental problem as the consumers need compelling reasons to adopt a volatile and hard to acquire bitcoin over available alternatives.

Sector	Q1 2015	Q4 2014	% Change
Payment Processes	55.4	54.3	2%
Infrastructure	55.7	49.6	12%
Exchanges	65.8	62.0	6%
Financial Services	48.5	43.5	12%
Mining	96.5	75.5	26%
Wallets	91.6	89.6	2%
Universals	262.6	71.6	267%
	676.1		

Table 1: Comparison of latest fiscal quarter venture capital investments in bitcoin ecosystem

(Source: Coindesk; www.coindesk.com/bitcoin-venture-capital)

Bitcoin, works similar to email and no authority in charge. It is a global peer to peer protocol for sending and receiving digital money (William J. Luther, 2014). Transaction costs are a tiny fraction of the current bank transaction and services charges. The irreversible nature of transactions lowers costs since merchants have zero risk of reverse or fraudulent payments. The bitcoin has an ecosystem which includes exchanges, transaction services, market information providers, joint mining operations but it still excludes futures markets and entities such as fractional reserve banks etc. A major part of bitcoin ecosystem is comprised of private entity investments initialized by venture capitals at its base (Kocherlakota, 1981). The bitcoin venture capital is estimated at US\$790 million from US\$ 2.13 million in 2012 and ahead seems to have a huge boost in bitcoin infrastructure investments¹. With such a favoring environment of venture capital investments in bitcoin startups to date it would be helpful for entrepreneurs understand which markets may prove most fertile for bitcoin before going ahead.

On parallel, policymakers are also inclined to better understand likelihood that the use of bitcoin will not harm the existing monetary system and increased fraudulent activities respective jurisdictions. The bitcoin startup ecosystem could be divided in Infrastructure, wallets, payment processes, mining, financial services, exchanges and universals (Luther, 2014). Following table illustrates capital venture investment in different sectors of bitcoin ecosystem. The Asia Bitcoin Index ABI is a new composite indicator that ranks bitcoin's potential utility across Asia and has been developed following Bitcoin Market Potential Index (BMPI) for global use. It would be an attempt to look in where in the Asia, bitcoin has maximum and the minimum potential to be adopted. The index in question could be used by anyone who seeks a better understanding of the factors influencing bitcoin adoption on lateral and the longitudinal scale.

The bitcoin adoption Parameters

The term adoption, herein, is used to reflect utilization of bitcoin and block chain technology for a variety of monetary and non-monetary parameters. The bitcoin adoption can be measured through certain statistics like, the number of wallets, number of bitcoin accepting businesses, number of transactions, exchange volume, and others. The term market potential, however refers to evaluate future of bitcoin absorption potential in different countries (Asian

countries in our case). In contrast to national currencies, the bitcoin needs to be resistive enough in relation to three broad areas naming technological innovations, regulations and insufficient demand (Luther, 2013).

Technological innovation can impacts bitcoin in a supportive way as to facilitate the consumer adoptability in micropayments and, at the same time poses a continuous threat of uprising of other competing virtual currencies. Governments have periodically sought to eliminate or restricted the use of bitcoin throughout the time horizon since its inception. There might be a bundle of arguments to ban it, however, the governments at this point in time also understand the negative implications of such policies rather prefer a smoother integration in the system. Insufficient demand for the novice currency can occur for many reasons, including limited acceptance, altered economic conditions, low institutional support, low social motivation, fraud, and other factors (Kahn, 2005). Many of the aforementioned played a role in the demise of the hundreds of short-lived U.S. scrip currencies introduced during the 1930s Great Depression. Table 2 shows a list of available bitcoin ATM by continent.

Continent	Number of ATM	% Share
Europe	125	30.7%
North America	210	51.5%
Asia and Middle east	43	10.5%
Oceania	24	5.8%
Latin America	4	0.9%
Africa	1	0.2%
	420	

Table 2: Number of operational bitcoin ATMs by continent
(Source: <http://coinatmradar.com/chart/bitcoin-atm-location-growth/>)

The study of the bitcoin potential adoption is an interdisciplinary subject involving technology, policy and economics. The adoption parameters in wider sense, includes variables that relate to bitcoin's function as both a store of value and medium of exchange, as well as the block chain's potential to serve as a technology platform for non-monetary uses. However, as bitcoin is primarily utilized as an alternative means to store and transfer value the index features more variables and weightages that focus on bitcoin's currency and payment features.

Asia and the bitcoin

Over half the world population residing in Asia with fastest growing economies and financial centers. For the purpose of funding and business activity, the Asian bitcoin is dominated by its most advanced countries including Hong Kong, China, Japan, South Korea and Singapore. More prominent economies like Indonesia, Malaysia and India are also looking bitcoin to proceed ahead. Asia is home to more than 50 national jurisdictions with diverse social, economic and political cultures and financial needs. In theory, this area should be the future of bitcoin expansion, However, Asia's economic and political diversity seems to be a challenge for region's cumulative talent and potential.

According to the region’s prominent bitcoin companies, there are three major uses of the bitcoin in Asia, namely investment, remittance, and currency (Jerry Brito, 2014).

Investments are referred to mining groups or firms using high powered computers to secure bitcoin. This is done on individual basis or through pooling of resources. The earned bitcoins are then traded on exchanges for profits. Another investment strategy is to buy bitcoin in anticipation of future profits. Bitcoin is gaining familiarity and legitimacy in many countries around Asia too, that there are now ATMs specifically designed to allow for the purchase and withdrawal of the bitcoin into the “fiat” currency of choice.

The second major use of bitcoin is the remittances from abroad. This is particularly prevalent in countries with a significant labor force working abroad. The key parameter is the ease and cost of fund transfer. The third major function of bitcoin is its usage as a currency (Hileman, 2014). This has not been widely accepted as the region has yet to introduce more payment and withdrawal methods for micro level payments. In Asia, bitcoin usage is completely segregated depending on a particular function. Only a few countries possess all the three basic usages while many have not even experienced a single one. (<http://www.newsbtc.com/2015/04/22/3-major-uses-of-bitcoin-in-asia/>).

(Source: <http://coinatmradar.com/chart/bitcoin-atm-location-growth/>)

Country	Number of ATMs	% Share
Hong Kong	13	30%
China	9	20%
Japan	6	14%
South Korea	3	7%
Indonesia, Thailand, Singapore, Philippines	2 each	4% each
Kyrgyzstan, Saudi Arabia	1 each	0.2% each

Table 3: Number of operational bitcoin ATMs in Asia

Asia includes high growth nations like Malaysia, Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam, Singapore in Southeast, Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, China in South and Japan, South Korea and China in east. Central Asia houses mineral rich nations such as Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan and middle east contains oil rich Iran, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain and Oman. The scope of the study is not only limited to these countries but extends over Asia as whole. East and south-east Asia is familiar for its manufacturing sectors particularly China, Japan, South Korea and India. Japan and South Korea dominate in multinational corporations, However the PRC and India are moving in significantly. Current Bitcoin adoption is low in Asia and mainly driven by speculation in small amounts. Many exchanges in the region do not operate open order books due to the low trading volume rather functions as a brokers. Southeast Asia houses a population twice as large as that of the US, a limited number of merchants accepting Bitcoin. Nonetheless, the regional landscape is evolving rapidly, like an Indonesian exchange switched to an open order book system while the second most visited ecommerce site in the Philippines recently announced acceptance of Bitcoin as payment.

Methodology and Data Structure

Having been said, the bitcoin exists at the juncture of multiple social, economic and political forces, maximum number of significant variables were included in analysis as to make the outcomes as reflective of reality as possible. Data from a wide variety of reliable sources have been collected and compared from the available resources before being immersed in program. The data sources include governments, multinational bodies, private enterprises and educational research institutions.

The most prominently ABI variables have a strong interrelationship which is self-explanatory in most of the cases. The bitcoin basically a technology and the level of technological advancement in different spheres of life is the prime factor in evaluation of future of bitcoin inclusion in that particular region. Hence variables like internet use, smartphone device penetration will have impact on bitcoin adoption. A step further, the bitcoin adoption is uplifted with greater exposure to bitcoin knowledge base, also countries with more venture capital startups, bitcoin network nodes, and google search words are given appropriate weightage to reflect knowledge base phenomenon.

International remittances constitutes the most compelling cases for bitcoin because of the lowest transaction costs and transfer time. Countries with relatively large remittance markets and higher average remittance fees given higher weightage in the index. A use case for bitcoin that has already received considerable attention are informal markets or black markets and is treated accordingly. Due to the anonymity, efficiencies and other conveniences afforded by crypto currencies illegal transactions were one of the first economic activities where bitcoin gained use as an alternative currency. A country with a relatively large informal market presents more opportunity for bitcoin use and therefore ranked higher.

Bitcoin can also be utilized for outsmart capital controls, restrictions on asset ownership and foreign currency, and similar sort of financial repression. The ambiguity of the nature of bitcoin make it strong enough to resist the effect if any the restrictions have had given that the decentralized and semi-anonymous nature of bitcoin allows users to continue to hold, transact and transfer bitcoins into and out of countries with restrictions. The bitcoin hence, still remains a viable means to bypass financial restrictions those could otherwise be enforced via traditional banking channels. Therefore the countries with higher degree of financial repression would have higher potential to adopt bitcoin and will rank higher. I times of financial crises, particularly hyperinflation or a currency crisis, those seeking an alternative currencies and store of value, would like to pursue bitcoin. The higher the frequency and size of financial crises for a particular country, then the higher that country will rank in the ABI. The ABI is comprised of 25 variables deemed important to bitcoin's potential for adoption, and are grouped into five equally-weighted sub-indices to calculate ABI's rankings.

Variable weightage

Some of the variables will have a greater influence over bitcoin adoption than others and these variables therefore hold additional weight in the index. The different variable to capture a particular function of the bitcoin ecosystem are listed and detailed in Table 4. Some of the variables are further dependent on sub-variables also listed in corresponding columns in order to allocate certain subjective weightage according to the dependency level. For example, the Financial Crises variable has three stand-alone variable (Hyperinflation, Currency crisis, and Inflation crisis) and three sub variables deemed to be less relevant to bitcoin adoption (External default, Domestic default, and Banking crisis). The three sub variables (External default,

Domestic default, and Banking crisis) comprise 33% each of the score for corresponding first-tier variable, ‘Other crisis episodes’.

A variety of factors considered to allocate representative weighting of variables, depending on the availability and strength of data, its distribution and statistical fitness. Additional more subjective weighting determinations were also made such as, the ABI weighs individual measures of financial repression more strongly than institutional to reflect institutional to explore the use of bitcoin. The inability of larger institutions to adopt bitcoin results in relatively smaller market capitalization and limited liquidity and hence makes bitcoin more attractive for non-institutional bodies.

Index ranking

The data for all functional variables was first checked for its possible distributions and then is standardized using Z-Scores and rescaled using data normalization techniques.

Standardization	$z = (x - \bar{x}) / s$	With z is standardized data S is standard deviation x is data point \bar{x} is data mean
Re-Scaling	$= \frac{x - x_{min}}{x_{max} - x_{min}}$	With x_{min} is minimum data point x_{max} is maximum data point x_0 to 1 is normalized data point x is data point

Function	Measuring Variable(s)	Sub Variable	Data Sources
Inflation (1)	Consumer Price Index CPI		World Bank
Black Market (2)	Informal Economy (%)		Elgin/ Oztunali 2012
Remittances (3)	Average remittance fee, Personal remittances	Personal remittances, (US\$) Personal remittances, (%GDP)	World Bank
Technology (4)	Internet users/ 100 people Mobile subscriptions / 100 people Broadband Internet / 100 people		World Bank

Financial Crises (4)	Hyperinflation (times since 1980) Currency crises (times since 1980) Inflation crises (times since 1980) Other crisis episodes	External default Domestic default Banking crisis	Reinhart/Rogoff 2010
Financial Repression (6)	Controls on the use of domestic currency Control on the use of foreign exchange Controls on trade in gold Multiple currency accounts Controls on exports and imports of banknotes Exports and Export Surrender requirements Controls on capital transactions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repatriation requirements • Surrender requirements • Real estate transactions • Purchase abroad by residents • No. transactions • Transfer of assets abroad • Transfer of assets into <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial sector 	Borrowing abroad Maintenance of accounts abroad Lending locally in foreign exchange Purchase of securities Insurance companies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Limits on investment portfolio - Pension funds - Investment firms and collective investment funds - Limits (max.) on investment portfolio held abroad 	IMF
Bitcoin Penetration (7)	Global Bitcoin nodes Bitcoin software client downloads Google 'bitcoin' search ranking Bitcoin VC investment	a) Total nodes b) Nodes per capita a) Total client downloads b) Client downloads per capita	Coindesk Sourceforge Google Blockchain info

Courtesy (Hileman, 2013)

Table 4: Asia Bitcoin Index (ABI), functions, variables and extended variables

Results

The top 20 countries with the highest relative potential for bitcoin adoption according to the Asia Bitcoin Index for Market Potential in Asia region are listed in Table 5 along with prominent impact factors in each case. Impact factors are important to decide on the kind of investment decisions.

ABI Rank	Country	Top Three Impact Factors	ABI Score
1	Russia	Financial Crises, Bitcoin Penetration, Technology	2
2	Iran	Inflation, Financial Crises, Financial repression	3
3	Syria	Inflation, Financial repression, remittances	5
4	India	Remittances, Financial Repression, Inflation	6
5	China	Bitcoin Penetration, Remittances, Financial repression	8
6	Macao	Black market, Financial repression, Financial crises	8
7	Turkey	Financial crises, Inflation, Financial repression	9
8	Sri Lanka	Financial repression, Inflation, Black Market	12
9	Nepal	Financial repression, Inflation, Remittances	13
10	Tajikistan	Remittances, Black Market, Inflation	13
11	Philippines	Remittances, Black Market, Financial crises	13
12	Thailand	Black Market, Financial repression, Bitcoin penetration	18
13	Uzbekistan	Inflation, Financial repression, Black market	18
14	Bangladesh	Financial repression, Inflation, Bitcoin penetration	20
15	Taiwan	Financial repression, Inflation, Bitcoin penetration	20
16	Israel	Bitcoin penetration, Financial crises, Technology	21
17	South Korea	Technology, Remittances, Bitcoin penetration	22
18	Hong Kong	Technology, Bitcoin penetration, Remittances	23
19	Kazakhstan	Technology, Inflation, Bitcoin penetration	23
20	Myanmar	Financial crises, Financial repression, Inflation	24

Table 5: Top 20 most favorable countries in Asia with potential to adopt bitcoin

ABI Rank	Country	ABI Score	ABI Rank	Country	ABI Score	ABI Rank	Country	ABI Score
1	Russia	2	1	Sri Lanka	7	1	Hong Kong	8
2	Iran	2	2	Thailand	9	2	South Korea	9
3	Syria	3	3	Tajikistan	11	3	Israel	9
4	India	5	4	Nepal	11	4	China	10
5	China	6	5	Uzbekistan	12	5	Singapore	10
6	Turkey	8	6	Bangladesh	12	6	Japan	11
7	Sri Lanka	8	7	Philippines	14	7	Taiwan	13
8	Nepal	9	8	Cambodia	16	8	UAE	13
9	Tajikistan	12	9	Myanmar	17	9	Qatar	13
10	Philippines	13	10	Pakistan	17	10	Russia	15

ABI Top 10 Ranking Overall

ABI Top 10 Ranking Black Market & Financial Repression

ABI Top 10 Ranking Remittance, Technology and Bitcoin penetration

Table 6: ABI Index Ranking based on Functional Parameters

ABI Index ranking results are almost the same with re-scaling and standardizing of data. Table 5, shows a list of three most prominent impact factors in their influence order for each ranking. For example, the top three impact factors for Russia to be at ABI rank-1 are financial crises, bitcoin penetration and the technology penetration. These ordered set of factors gives a clearer indication of investment type. For instance, in case of Russia, it will be best to consider devices to use bitcoin as a store of value. ABI index rank is the value returned through standardization and scaling of data whereas, ABI score is a weighted average of the corresponding impact rank points. Having different ABI rank with similar ABI score suggests equal preferential region as for as investment strategy is in line with the set of impact factor.

Discussions

The bitcoin is a fascinating phenomenon which may prove a mile stone for the future form of currency. The bitcoin serves as a store of value, means of count, transfer of value and anonymity all at same time. It needs a specific ecosystem to operate at its maximum potential. Asia Bitcoin Index ABI provides an indication of the best possible investment strategy in a particular region, specifically in Asia. While the ABI provides a useful conceptual base for better

understanding of the factors influencing bitcoin ecosystem, it is important to acknowledge some of its limitations and how those limitations can be addressed in future research.

Lack of required data hampered inclusion of certain relevant variables into the analysis. To keep the global allowance to adoptability, many of the sub-variables were as well excluded because of insufficient data available for few countries. It could also be interesting to extend the analysis to certain cities rather than countries, it may prompt towards faster adoption strategies. ABI country ranks, as listed in this report, may further be broken down into cities or prefectural levels to see if friendly bitcoin adoption exists.

One important aspect intentionally excluded from the index, is the intended collaboration between public offices and the private investor. It is fully realized the softer this relation is, better would be the chances for bitcoin ecosystem to work. There are two primary reasons for this exclusion; first is of course the unavailability of the data on such partnerships, and secondly the matter comes strictly under regulatory jurisdiction, which profoundly varies according to regional makeup. The proposed solution might be a simulation modeling of such conditions with few hypothetical event distribution. Because of the complexity involved, the matter was excluded from the ABI Index.

Finally, measuring applicability potential of the index poses a long list of challenges, including lack of local data, restriction on data supply, and a continuous calibration of the index itself.

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Gender difference in disability and active life expectancy among Thai elderly in 2011

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Background: The purposes of this study were to examine the proportion of active life expectancy to life expectancy and to observe the proportion of disabilities at age 60 and over.

Methods: This was a cross-sectional study by using secondary data which included disability data. The life table was based on United Nation estimation. The disability data were derived from Survey of Elderly in 2011. Active life expectancies were calculated by using the Sullivan Method. Moreover, disability data on basic activities of daily living (ADL) such as eating, dressing, toilette and bathing were calculated and descriptively analyzed for both sexes.

Results and conclusions: Results show declining the proportion of active life expectancy to life expectancy at age 60 and over. The elderly women were worse than that of elderly men which the problematic was eating, bathing/toileting disability. In conclusion, Thai population may not only live longer, but also live with morbidity and disability. Important policy recommendations are to promote healthy life style, to prepare the nation for aging population. Specific policy attention needs to be paid to gender differences in health status.

Keywords: Active Life Expectancy, Disability, Gender

Introduction

Life expectancy (LE) continues to increase in Thailand as a result of declining infant and age-specific mortality. Life expectancy at birth for males increased from 53.6 (Jitapunkul & Bunnag, 1997) to 68 years (Population Reference Bureau). For females, the corresponding increase was from 58.74 (Jitapunkul & Bunnag, 1997) to 75 years (Population Reference Bureau, 2012). By 2050 life expectancies are expected to be 74.9 years for male and 81.1 years for females (Population Reference Bureau, 2012). The expectation of life at age 60 and over has also increased, which represents a decline in death rates for every age group (Human Resources Planning Division, 1995; Ministry of Public Health, 1994, 2000, 2006, 2007, 2011).

In Thailand, there have been few studies of active life expectancy. Previous studies (Jitapunkul & Bunnag, 1997; Jiawiwatkul et al., 2012) have found that elderly women live longer than elderly men; women also spent more years with disabilities. The proportional time of disability for both men and women increases with age (Jitapunkul et al., 1999, Jiawiwatkul, U., Aekplakorn, W., Vapattanawong, P., Prasartkul, P., & Porapakkham, Y., 2012). Jiawiwatkul and his colleagues also found that active life expectancy (ALE) increased from 16.5 years in 1997 to 17.6 years in 2004 for Thai males aged 60 and from 17.9 years to 19.9 years for Thai females aged 60 over the same period (Jiawiwatkul et al., 2012), while LE increased from 16.0 years to 20.3 years for Thai males and from 19.1 years to 23.9 years for Thai females (Saito, Qiao, & Jitapunkul, 2003). However, the proportion of ALE decreased for both sexes between 1989 and 2004 (Saito, Qiao, & Jitapunkul, 2003, Jiawiwatkul, U., Aekplakorn, W., Vapattanawong, P., Prasartkul, P., & Porapakkham, Y., 2012). Therefore, whether longer life expectancy will be accompanied by better health and difference in disability and active life expectancy in both sexes among Thai Elderly.

Thai populations are also estimated to have more health problems than in the past because the process of population aging of Thailand is changing more rapidly than that in the West (Jitapunkul, 1999). Jitapunkul and colleagues suggest that with urbanization occurring very rapidly, morbidity-disability may be on the rise in Thailand (Saito, Qiao, & Jitapunkul, 2003). Life expectancy in women shows a relatively small gap between men and women. It will affect the estimated problems and needs of the Thai population in the future. Health policies will need to provide for gender differences in the health dimensions that are examined in the study. Hence, consequences of rising morbidity and disability are of crucial policy importance because they affect health and long-term care needs of Thai population.

Objectives

To examine the proportion of active life expectancy to life expectancy
To investigate the proportion of disabilities at age 60 and over

Methods

This analysis used data from Survey of Elderly in Thailand (SET) in 2011 conducted by National Statistical Office (NSO). The SET is a cross-sectional survey and nationally representative survey of elderly population. The population in the survey covered persons aged 60 years over in 2011.

The survey was conducted on the basis of two stages stratified random sampling which included regions and Bangkok metropolitan as the stratum; block (in municipal area) and villages (in similar areas and non-municipal-sanitary areas) as the first stage sample, and the household members as the second stage sample. There were about 16,666,389 persons in 2011. The survey obtained data on basic activities of daily living (eating, dressing, and bathing and toileting) was assessed by reports of participants. Disability status in this study is defined according to ability to perform four activities of daily living (ADL): eating, dressing, bathing and toileting. Participants were asked to indicate whether they were capable of doing these tasks independently.

Data from SET 2011 was adjusted and weight by package of NSO. The descriptive statistics such as percentage, used to describe prevalence of ADL disabilities which was calculated by frequency counting ADLs disabled. The prevalence of ADL disabilities was estimated for each sex and age groups. Age was categorized by 5 years group (60-64, 65-69, 70-74, 75-79, and 80+ years). The analysis was performed for each age group in men and women separately.

Active Life Expectancy

The descriptive statistic—percentage used to describe health status in each age-sex group. Prevalence of disabilities (ADLs) was calculated by frequency counting non-disabled, and ADLs disabled. The prevalence of disabilities (ADLs) in each state was estimated for each sex and age groups. The analysis was performed for each age group in men and women separately. Missing data were dropped out from the analysis.

Life table technique and the Sullivan Method were used to calculate the number of years expected to life in each health states for specific age-sex-group. The life table for population in the year 2011 were constructed using the life expectancy at birth by sex (years) medium variant from world population prospects: the 2012 revision population database (Population Division of

the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat) in the same year. The West model life tables were based on mortality experience recorded in populations known to have relatively good statistics. Thereafter, to estimate ALE, the first step was the calculation of the person-years of life spent in active or without disability for each age. The formula of all above calculation was as follows:

$$ALE = \frac{\sum (1 - {}_n\pi_x) {}_nL_x}{l_x}$$

Where

${}_n\pi_x$ is the prevalence rate of disability (ADL) in the age interval (x, xn)

${}_nL_x$ is the total number of person-years lived in the age interval(x, xn)

l_x is the number of persons surviving to exact age x

The number of years without disability was obtained by subtracting the number of year with disability from life expectancy. The ratio between ALE and LE were calculated and presented as percentages.

Results

Prevalence of ADL Disabilities among the Elderly in Thailand in 2011

The overall prevalence of specific ADL disabilities is around 2% among age 60+ years in 2011. The prevalence of ADL restrictions was highest in bathing (2.70%) and dressing (2.7%), follows by eating (2.2%) for both sexes (Figure1). It was also found that the prevalence of ADL disabilities in all types increased with age in both sexes. For each year, disability rates increased with age and peaked at age-group 80 years and over for males and females. Elderly women had higher prevalence rates of ADL disabilities in nearly all age groups compared to elderly men. ADL disability prevalence also increased with age both sexes (Figure 1).

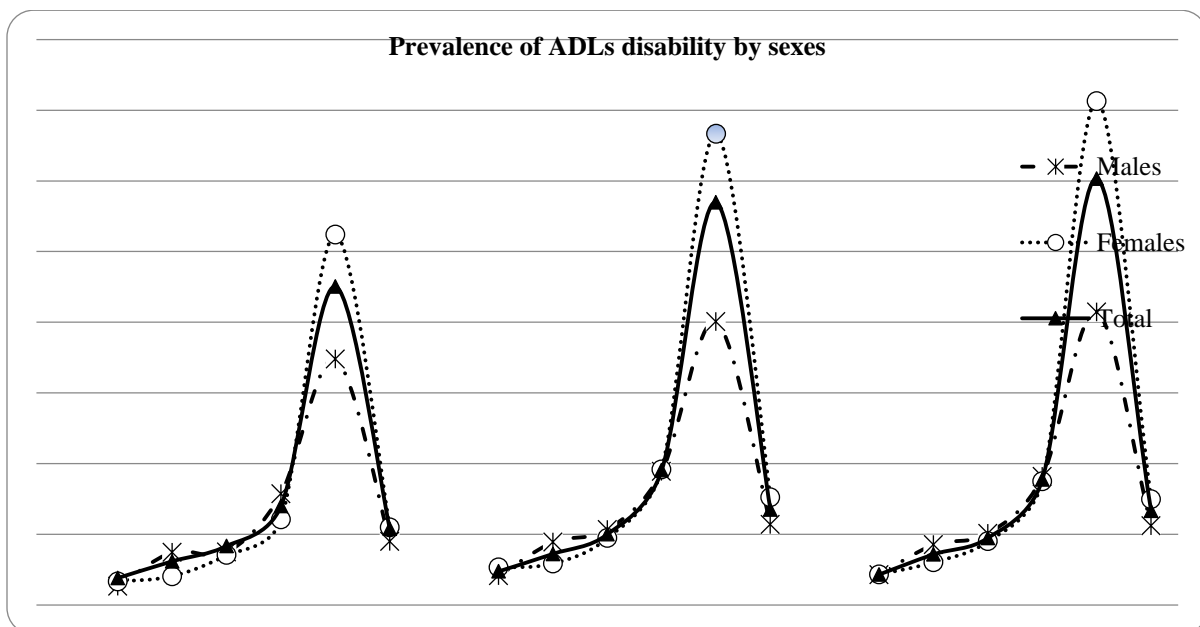


Figure 1 Prevalence of ADL Disabilities among the Elderly in Thailand in 2011

Proportion of Active Life Expectancy to Life Expectancy in Thailand in 2011

The life table results for the year 2011 showed that elderly woman at all age had longer life expectancies than elderly men (Table1). Active life expectancy of females was also longer than that for males, although this excess decreased with age. The proportion of the remaining years spent without disability, estimated from the proportion of active life expectancy to the total life expectancy, was higher among men compared to women at ages 60 and over. The proportion of active life expectancy in both sexes also decreased with increasing age (Table1).

In 2011 for males and females the LE at 60 and over was 16.85 and 21.07 year of which 0.34 and 0.67 years respectively would be disability (Table 1)

Table 1 Proportion of Active Life Expectancy to Life Expectancy in Thailand in 2011

	Males					Female					
	LE	Disability (%)	AL E	ALE/LE	DLE *	LE	Disability (%)	AL E	ALE/LE	DLE *	
60-	16.8		16.5			60-	21.0				
64	5	0.53	1	98.00	0.34	64	7	0.67	20.4	96.80	0.67
65-	13.4		13.0			65-	17.4		16.7		
69	1	1.49	8	97.60	0.33	69	0	0.82	3	96.20	0.67
70-	10.3		10.0			70-	14.0		13.3		
74	8	1.50	5	96.80	0.33	74	9	1.42	9	95.10	0.70
75-						75-	11.2		10.4		
79	7.81	3.15	7.43	95.10	0.38	79	1	2.42	4	93.10	0.77
80 ⁺	5.72	6.96	5.32	93.00	0.40	80 ⁺	8.80	10.48	7.92	90.00	0.88

*DLE =Disability life expectancy

Discussion and conclusion

Elderly women had higher prevalence rates of ADL disabilities in nearly all age groups compared to elderly men (Figure 1). Table 1 also showed as age increased, prevalence of disability also becomes greater. Possible explanations are (a) older people have greater risks of becoming disabled because they were more likely to have more chronic conditions (Porapakkham & Bunyarataphan, 2004, Jiawiwatkul, U., Aekplakorn, W., Vapattanawong, P., Prasartkul, P., & Porapakkham, Y., 2012) (b) activity limitations often first appear later in life, but risk factors for such limitations and underlying chronic conditions and impairments may be traced to behaviors and exposures earlier in life (Freedman, Martin, Schoeni, & Cornman, 2008).

Obviously, results from the first to the fourth National Health Examination Surveys indicated upward trends of chronic diseases and health parameters among Thai population age 40 and above over this time. For example: among the prevalence of diabetes, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, overweight, and obesity have increased, during 1992 to 2011 (Chuprapawan, 1991; Porapakkham & Bunyarataphan, 2004, Jiawiwatkul et al, 2012).

Moreover, cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, cerebrovascular disease, diabetes mellitus and cancers in-patients rates which admitted in MOPH hospital in Thailand (Ministry of Public Health, 2000, 2006, 2007, 2011), it was found that the increase rates by each year of illness rates in chronic diseases sharply increased from 1998 to 2011 and the rates tend to decrease in later years. Similarly, mortality data showed the rising prevalence of ischemic heart disease, cancer among age 60 and over but the speed and mortality rate occurred in older and level off in later years. This is also surprising because mortality rate of DM, HT have decrease since 2000 (Ministry of Public Health, 2000, 2006, 2007, 2011). It would mean there has been increased survival of those with limitations since the mortality decline was attributable to lower death rates from chronic diseases, made the view popular in some groups that increased longevity had led to increased frailty in the surviving elderly population (Gruenberg, 1977; Olshansky & Ault, 1986). These results agree with the previous finding that the prevalence of disability has increased over 5 year (Jiawiwatkul, U., and Aekplakorn, W., Vapattanawong, P., Prasartkul, P., & Porapakkham, Y., 2012). Moreover, the present findings show that bathing and toileting disability are most problematic. The environment can be adapted to enable persons with limitations to participate in society.

As expected, ALE in both sexes decreased with advancing age but remained substantially high; ALE was also lower among women than among men, which reflects the superior longevity of women and the higher mortality of men at all ages. Among men a clear in the percentage of life expectancy free of disability was observed. Women almost universally live longer than men but spend a greater number of absolute years and a greater proportion of their life with disability and ill-health. This difference is partly due to an inherent biological advantage for the female (World Health Organization, 2009). But it also reflects behavioural differences between men and women (World Health Organization, 2009). Reduction or increase in disability at late life may have imperative direct and indirect effects on future health care expenditures. Policy steps are needed to adequately prepare for the growing number of disabled elderly. Particularly, populations throughout the world are growing older and the number of people aged 60 years and over are expected to nearly triple by 2050 (United Nations, 2002).

Besides, these findings have important implications for health and long-term care programs and could be used to project the proportion of the disabled population in the coming decades. Particularly, establishing healthy habits at younger ages can help women to live active and healthy lives until well into old age (World Health Organization, 2009). Therefore, the study concludes that gender aspects of aging have large importance in Thailand. The majority of older persons will be women due to the longer life expectancy of females. Older females are often disadvantaged socially and economically as a result of gender discrimination throughout the life course in many Asian societies.

However, there is no agreement on the definition and measurement of disability, the definition of disability in this study was the restriction in ADL, which included only four activities, ignoring other dimensions of functional limitations. Including these data was that they did not include the people living in institutions so the underestimation of number of disability should consider.

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Funding a Startup Enterprise: Problems Faced and Solutions

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Funding options available for startup Enterprises (SE's) are limited in Sri Lankan context that act as the main obstruction to the growth of SE's. This paper is based on quantitative and qualitative research methods to examine the factors of funding issues faced by a start up enterprise in meeting their capital requirements. Moreover this paper provides recommendations for the issues outlined at the research.

More than 125 questionnaires were distributed and 80 of them have responded and the findings show that there are 3 main factors for SE's to consider in facing funding issues namely, Institutional barriers, weakness in the company, and personal barriers to raise capital.

Some of the changes proposed as solutions are national policy changes, however, without doing so startups could never be nurtured to grow up to greater heights. Also, some of the current banking practices are not in favor of SE's and hence directions from governing authorities needs to be re-evaluated for betterment of SE's.

This paper explains the problems faced by SE's and proposes the corrective measures to be adopted to overcome the above mentioned funding issues faced by SE's.

Key words: SE's, Start up, Barriers, Funding

Introduction

Growth rate in the Sri Lankan economic has been one of the fastest among the Asian developing economies in the recent years. The country's recent economic performance has been better than expected with an average GDP growth rate stabilizing around 7%. Fueling high growth rates requires support from the industrial sector particularly the startup enterprises which will be a part of the overall industry sector in the time to come.

Startup enterprises (SE's) tend to be the key to sustain economic growth due to various reasons and this segment of business has been in the focus of the attention of the world economy as well. SE's are essential for their innovative potential and job creation possibilities. Double digit unemployment rate is a crucial factor for developing economies. SE's can be provided a partial solution for unemployment and can be a part and parcel of economic development. Enterprises are not only suppliers, but also consumers henceforth large companies tend to outsource their activities to small enterprises as it is cheaper, efficient and fast thus the growth of the large companies depends on how the SE's perform their task.

There is no clear single definition to define a startup, various criteria's like number of employees, annual turnover, or net profit are some of the dimensions that could help to differentiate between the definition for large and small startup firms. "Where an individual who thinks, reasons and acts to convert the ideas into commercial opportunities and to create value" (Leach & Melicher, 2012). In general, startup business mean newly started business and those are yet to reach scalable markets.

The related literature for this study is mainly taken from the public sources such as research publications. Previous studies of businesses in various countries have identified a large number of difficulties affecting startups. The most important difficulty is the formal barriers such as

challenges from business environment for instance lack of financing (Pissarides et al., 2000; Hashi, 2001; Bartlett and Bukvic, 2001) that critically affect the growth of startups.

Objectives

1. To identify types of barriers SE's facing.
2. To identifying the how the above barriers will create funding issues for SE's.
3. To recognize personal barriers which are affecting to fund startup companies.
4. To identify the ways and means of overcoming the above problems.

Based on objectives of the study to develop a theory to explain the funding problems a startup company is facing & to draw recommendations with supporting business models from developed economies.

METHODOLOGY

The eligibility for participation was decided at the pre screening conducted at before the questionnaire was given and this is strictly opens only to those who had funding issues in starting a business.

The data for this study were categorized under three main topics.

- Institutional barriers
- Weakness of the company
- Personal barriers

Finally the response gathered was discussed with a senior bank official and possible solution was drafted. Data was collected through owner's questionnaire method.

Analysis is carried by descriptive statistical methods and non parametric tests such as (1) Mann-Whitney U, (2) McNemar's test, (3) Fisher's exact test, (4) chi-square test

ANALYSIS

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Mean	Std. Deviation
How long in business	80	3.00	2.8375	1.04873
Educational Qualification	80	4.00	4.6750	1.43001
Age of the owner	76	31.00	34.7368	9.25976

Table 1: Sample characteristic

The researcher has selected a sample of 80 according to the data the business is 2.8 years old. Having given reference to the questionnaire the average educational qualification is either qualified in a professional qualification or Diploma or Graduate degree holder. Average age of the business owner is 35 years on the sample collected by the researcher.

Summary of the analysis carried out

Test	Statistical method	P value	Conclusion
Comparing time taken to process a loan with time duration taken to convince shareholders.	Mann-Whitney Test	$0.680 > 0.05$	$0.680 > 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is accepted. There is no difference between time durations of the two groups.
Comparing the significance between having a legal bond (loan) vs. demanding major share holders (equity).	Fisher's Exact Test	$.006 < 0.05$	$0.006 < 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is rejected. The proportions having legal bonds differ for demanding major holders.
Comparing the cost of funds (loan vs equity)	T test	$0.000 < 0.05$	$0.000 < 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is accepted. There is a difference between dividend payout ratio and loan interest rate.
Analyzing whether there is a significance between preferred methods (loan and equity) vs maintaining proper accounts for recording transaction	Fisher's Exact Test	$.344 > 0.05$	$0.344 > 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is Accepted. The proportions maintaining proper accounts for recording transaction do not differ for the two preferred methods.
Analyzing whether there is an occurrence certifying accounts by an auditor.	Fisher's Exact Test	$.038 < 0.05$	$0.038 < 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is rejected. The proportions of accounts certified by an auditor differ for the two preferred methods.

Analyzing whether there is an occurrence between preferred method (loan and equity) vs. maintain proper control methods.	Fisher's exact test	$1.00 > 0.05$	$1.00 > 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is Accepted. The proportions maintaining proper control methods do not differ for the two preferred methods.
Relationship between obtaining new capital to the company vs having a bad experience.	McNemar Test	$0.832 > 0.05$	$0.832 > 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is accepted. The proportions obtain new capital do not differ for having a bad experience.
Assessing relationship between obtaining new capital vs considering new shareholder/partner is a burden.	Fisher's exact test	$0.614 > 0.05$	$0.614 > 0.05$ Null Hypothesis is accepted. The proportions obtaining new capital do not differ considering new shareholder/partner is a burden

Table 2: Summary of the analysis carried out

CONCLUSIONS

As per the research observations there is no difference between the time taken to process a loan vs. the time taken to convince shareholders. This means that though the loans are less riskier, the time taken to obtain the loan is equally long as much as the time taken to convince shareholders. Hence, the various documentation requirements of the banks act as a barrier for meeting funding requirements of a company (particularly SE).

The researcher test the significance of having a Legal Bond Vs. having major shareholders in a company and it reveals that having demanding shareholders is more beneficial than legal bonds. The clarification for the above was made at the focus group discussion where the business owners explained that shareholders demands are a higher profit which is for the betterment of the business. Where as a legal bond is taking charge of company asset or guarantee from a director that is to mitigate the risk of the bank on the loans issued from the bank.

SE's considers this fact when it comes to obtaining the loan finance from banks. In other words equity is preferred as it exerts pressure on the business to grow where as the loans are not so.

The researcher compares the cost of funds of two methods of financing. i.e. Loan Vs. Equity and the findings say that loans are of low cost than equity. However it contradicts with the preferred method of financing where the 82% have confirmed that they prefer the expensive equity over loans.

This finding was verified at the focus group where it was revealed that the equity is preferred over loans as it does not form a burden on the business and the company is not suppressed by means of on time loan installment payments and bonds and so on. Hence forth the cost is not a concern in a startup where the dividends are paid only if the company makes substantial profits

else directors can opt to refrain from declaring dividends whereas the loan installments need to be settled to the bank despite the amount of profits made by the SE.

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Species richness and abundance of soil seed bank in *Austro eupatorium inulifolium* invaded grasslands

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Austro eupatorium inulifolium is aggressively invading many landscapes in the Knuckles Conservation Area (KCA) in Sri Lanka. The grasslands, which are the most vulnerable, are often demarcated by native forests. The soil seed bank can provide information to introduce restoration strategies to these highly invaded grasslands. Here, we quantified the soil seed bank of the highly invaded grasslands at KCA. Three composite soil samples were taken from four replicate sites at different distances away from the forest-grassland edge (FGE); 0 m, 10 m and 30 m. Soil samples were laid on a layer of sand and seedling emergence was recorded for 14 weeks. 3825 individual seedlings were counted belonging to 61 species and 22 families. Shrubs dominated the soil seed bank at FGE (68%) while herbs at 10 m (43%). Tree seeds showed the least abundance. Shrubs and trees showed decreasing trends towards the grassland. *Austro eupatorium* seeds too demonstrated a decreasing trend towards the grassland (60, 37 and 37%, respectively). *Austro eupatorium* seeds dominate the soil seed bank (47%) followed by *Osbeckia octandra* (an endemic). The composition of the seed bank was dominated by indigenous species (80%) followed by exotics (12%) and endemics (7%). The results conclude that *Austro eupatorium* dominates the soil seed bank in these degraded grasslands thereby influencing the regeneration process of these grasslands. Furthermore, the tree seeds showed very low abundance in the soil seed bank despite the fact that these grasslands are bordered by native forests.

Keywords: *Austro eupatorium inulifolium*, seed bank, degraded grasslands

Culture, structure, and migrant entrepreneurship: the Indonesians of Taiwan

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This paper examines how the symbiotic relations between migrants and their socio-cultural conditions shape the patterns of entrepreneurship, especially within Indonesian communities in Taiwan. Migrant entrepreneurship prompts a series of fascinating research questions on the nature, culture, and interconnectedness of migrant situations within host settlements. The rise of migrant entrepreneurship is the outcome of the integration of these cultural-structural elements in order to mobilize resources to fulfill the demands of entrepreneurship and to obtain competitive advantages in business. Research results show a tendency on the part of migrant entrepreneurs to utilize an interactive model, by creating a combination of a one-stop home and business place (neighborhood shop, restaurant) to provide services to fulfill migrants' basic needs, such as gathering socially, networking, or practicing their religion. The migrant entrepreneurs use social and cultural resources within the logic of economic rationality. Entrepreneurship activities shape Indonesian migrants' economic patterns within Taiwan's urban society, and become manifestations of migrants' involvement in the process of negotiating identities and bridging themselves with the broader world. The data on which this paper is based was collected in Taiwan from June to December 2014 using participation observation and in-depth interviews as the basic research methods.

Keyword: migrant entrepreneurship, culture-structure, Indonesian-Taiwan

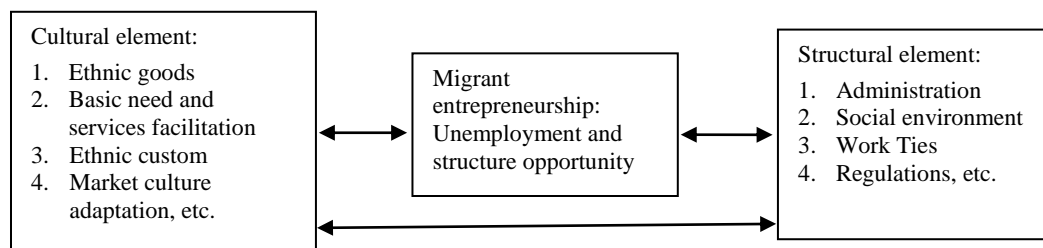
Introduction

Migrant self-employment, or entrepreneurship (I use these terms interchangeably), in Taiwan is no longer considered as a "sideline," "transitional," or "traditional" economic activity, but has come to be seen as a key, long-term economic activity, source of income, and response to labor market conditions. Besides contributing to the interactive development of the modern urban landscape, immigrant entrepreneurship in Taiwan is a significant element in combating unemployment and welfare drain through proactive job creation. A large proportion of migrants are concentrated in the Taiwanese urban environment, where they create a sense of immigrant community, economy enclave and group identity. Migrant entrepreneurship is a key element of this overall phenomenon, and raises many socio-economic and cultural issues for potential study. In this paper, I focus my analysis on the socio-cultural aspects of entrepreneurial activity and the ways that migrants adapt and survive both socially and economically, operating within the internal/external constraints of their host society while still managing to connect their home custom with their host situation. This socio-economic interconnectedness can bridge both the macro- and micro-phenomena of Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship.

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Two accepted theoretical models, cultural and structural, which predominate in explanations of why immigrants turn to entrepreneurship, therefore I used as practical analyses in this article. Portes and his colleagues (Wilson and Portes 1980; Portes and Bach 1985; Portes and Manning 1986; Portes and Zhou 1992) theorize that “*the enclave had a structural and a cultural component.*” The structural approach suggests/refers that external factors in the host environment push migrant into or adapted with self-employment. In any case, to open a business, the entrepreneur has to mobilize all the resources available to him, from the startup of certain ethnic strategies and design of the economic project within the opportunity structure and group characteristics. The entrepreneur combined individual resources with external opportunity in entrepreneurial practices. This is stimulate entrepreneurs to maximized opportunity where they have. Portes and his colleagues characterize the cultural component of migrant enclaves in the following ways. Economic activities within the enclave are governed by bounded solidarity and enforceable trust. These are mechanisms of support and control necessary for economic life within the community. A “*modes of incorporation*” typology is used to explain and unify the causes and consequences of entrepreneurship development and transformation (see detail in Zhou 2004; Schiller and Caglar 2013; Aldrich and Zimmer 1986; Portes 1995). The crucial ability to enter broader social networks also remains vital to an understanding of immigrants’ economic mobility. To apply this concept, Brettell (2003) suggests that approaches to migration and entrepreneurship should emphasize both structure and culture dichotomies. For this purpose, in the chart below I draw the framework of thinking on Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship in Taiwan according to the conceptual considerations given above.

Figure 1 Culture- Structure Indonesian entrepreneurships in Taiwan



Data Collection

I used a qualitative method, having gathered the primary data through in-depth interviews and participation observation on daily activities. Fieldwork was conducted from June through December of 2014, with Taipei City and Taoyuan County as the particular research locations. I stayed two months at one informant’s house so that I would have the opportunity get involved in entrepreneurial activities. Most interviews were conducted on weekdays, since many migrant workers tend to go out on the weekend. Secondary data was also collected from the Internet and an academic library. I grouped the collected data into three themes: first, general characteristics of entrepreneurship; second, the specific cultural and structural characteristics of Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship; and third, brief analyses and conclusions. In this paper, I analyze descriptively to yield comprehensive socio-cultural results.

Snapshots of Migrant Entrepreneurship in Taiwan

On weekend days, it is easy to observe migrant activities in the cluster of Indonesian, Thai, and Vietnamese shops surrounding the Taipei, Taoyuan, or Taichung railway stations, which are the locations of the main industries where Southeast Asian migrants work. Especially on the weekends, these places are “migrant villages” where Southeast Asian migrants cluster and socialize. On any given weekend, people heading toward those cities are likely to see Indonesian, Vietnamese, or Thai people gather outside lively shops. The Thais or Vietnamese are cheerful and joke with each other while watching local news or sport programs on a large television, while some of the Indonesians eat and talk and others sing in a small karaoke room. These shops typically serve co-ethnic migrant customers and provide ethnic products such as instant food, national beer, snacks, and dried foods, but a few Taiwanese do buy imported goods from the shops. A major part of the store is usually devoted to cultural goods: CDs and cassettes of local pop music, videos, newspapers, magazines, and novels. The stores also sell clothes, underwear, jewelry, cosmetics, luggage, bedsheets, smartphones, tablets, and even used computers. When migrant workers gather in the shop, they usually group themselves on the floor, where they chat, nap, share snacks, take photographs, or make free Internet calls from their smartphones. When hungry, they feed their homesick stomachs at the hometown delicatessens. If feeling bored, they go shopping at the mall, or hang out in small dancing clubs and karaoke bars run by ethnic entrepreneurs on nearby streets. Ethno-consumptive space in Taiwan has created a cultural landscape for migrant workers, forming an “ethnoscape” of Southeast Asian workers in general, and migrant workers from specific countries in particular (for detail, see Ho Thi 2010; Lan 2003).

Brenda Yeoh (2004) proposed the term “weekend enclave migrant” to describe the situation. The presence of migrant self-employment enlivens city and regional landscapes (Sahin et al. 2007). The migrant community publicly demonstrates its identity, and there is also intermingling between locals and migrants. Of course, not all the migrants are similarly situated; they represent different ethnic, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds, not a monolithic entity within the city or society. Because their economic function can bring them into contact with a broad range of local society, self-employed migrants play a key role in introducing ideas and knowledge about cultural diversity into that society (Sahin 2012). The ethnic neighborhood shop has become the first choice for gathering and social exchange for migrant workers in Taiwan. Hence the migrant economy of “the multiethnic urban areas create particular opportunities for small migrant businesses to compete: first by forming fragmented patterns of demand that reduce economies of scale in serving the local population; and second, by offering large niches that serve central city minority slums that attract neither mainstream firms nor the native middle-class population” (Razin 1993).

Indonesian Migrant Entrepreneurship

Indonesians make up the majority of South East Asian foreign workers in Taiwan. A record number of 225,139 Indonesians workers, more than 30 per cent of the total of 636,048 contract migrant workers, was reported in February 2015 (CLA 2015). Between 2000 and 2009 there

have been 55 instances of inter-university cooperation between Indonesia and Taiwan that provide opportunities for Indonesian students to obtain their master's or doctorate degrees. The number of Indonesian students in Taiwan increased to 1,923 students with diverse professional interests such as academician, government official, and businessman (Rangga 2013). Since 1980-2010 there are 26,980 Indonesians, mostly female, immigrated to Taiwan through international marriage, and some became naturalized ROC citizens (CLA 2011). The estimated number of Indonesian migrant entrepreneurs in Taiwan reached more than 600 by 2014, consisting of owners of neighborhood stores and restaurants, outlets, shipping and remittance services, etc. Indonesian entrepreneurs in Taiwan employ approximately 1,500 – 2,000 local helpers (Yuniarto 2014). Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship enjoys an advantage over a number of potential competitors, taking advantage of co-ethnicity to carve out economic niches. In order to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurship and relation with migrant consumers, I observed the practice of Indonesian migrant businesses to learn about their daily activities. The results are given in the next explanation.

Cultural component

First, local products. Developing “from below,” the pattern of Indonesian entrepreneurship often evolves from the traditional food sector to varied products in music, electronics, religious materials, and other commodities and services. Offering electronic services such as Internet banking, online shops, and money remittances has also helped Indonesian migrant business become more highly developed and aggressive. Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship enjoys an advantage over potential competitors outside the group because of the relation and closeness that exist within the co-ethnic community. Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship not only offers ethnic/local products, but also develops migrant capacity-building and empowerment activities through the offer of information sources, informal training programs, and sponsorship of religious activities. Migrant entrepreneurs may face, in principle, the choice between targeting economic benefits *directly* through commercial and financial activities, or *indirectly* through educationally and socially-oriented activities that are not ostensibly related to “business” (i.e., that may not involve a “sale”). The model in practice is almost always mixed, representing both value chains in parallel, direct sales of ethnic products and needed services on the one hand, and the fostering of indirect “empowerment” markets on the other. It is understood by all that Indonesian migrants still face a difficult situation while working in Taiwan, and that the co-ethnic solidarity represented by empowerment activities broadly benefits the migrant community.

Second, - home memories and behavior Home custom activities conducted by Indonesians basically derive from a famous philosophical idiom in the context of social connections, known as “merawat hubungan,” or the maintaining of relationships, which preserves and extends the soul of fraternity. Sometimes Indonesians refer to an old Javanese idiom, “mangan ora mangan kumpul,” which can be interpreted as: “With or without food, people gather with each other, to show the spirit of mutual cooperation and social solidarity.” In this sense, the entrepreneurs import local custom values into the host society, thus (re)producing knowledge about migrant home village habitual while continuing to foster social relations. They do expect to make a profit from their customers, but without losing a fraternal sense of social interaction. In other words, business is always personal, using custom value. Besides related with home custom activities, there are others religion activities celebrations such as Eid al-Fitr, national celebration like the

Indonesian Independence Day, or the Chinese New Year. Thanks to the entrepreneurs who facilitate communal activities so that most migrants can relax and enjoy their vacation, these events usually attract hundreds of migrant workers and can get very crowded.

Third, socialization. Besides celebrating local events, some companies invite their customers to take a tour and travel around Taiwan. The social networks between migrant entrepreneurs and customers keep them in continuous contact. The same business location may serve as a one-stop neighborhood store, a mini-market, a restaurant, and a travel agency, and customers thus have many reasons to make multiple visits. The creative combinations of different products and services offered are quite striking. It is common to find karaoke rooms, Internet facilities and computers for private learning, Mandarin lessons, group association meetings, and other social activities in their business place.

Based on explanation above, the entrepreneurial practices that I call “migrant cultural entrepreneurship” have a functions as part of a broader process of socialization in the host country, and is internalized within many business activities. Understanding migrant experiences is a crucial advantage for migrant entrepreneurs, and gives them a better chance of succeeding in their business ventures. Business actually is a part of the struggle for life and without capital accumulation. Entrepreneurs engage in cross-national activities as part of their business interests. Inevitably, Indonesian migrant entrepreneurs are positioned within the wider “social field” of the Indonesian migrant population in Taiwan. They face all the familiar issues of such a migrant (workers) community: looking socio-economic articulation, religious solidarity and group articulation, struggling against marginality, working pressures, family orientation, the “stylization” of particular transnational products (e.g. trend product and promotion, etc.), making new identities as a result of their own current transnational experiences, and migrant bonds of solidarity. In sum, (Indonesian) migrant cultural entrepreneurship is necessarily multidimensional, and an entrepreneur can be multifunctional in various ways that are inherent in their overall structure of opportunities: religion or migrant association, investing in the local market with various entry modes, mobilizing resources across borders of nation-states, or developing economic resources through their fellow migrants.

Structural component

First, administrative policy. Many Indonesian entrepreneurs marry Taiwanese nationals, or obtain Taiwanese citizenship, in order to facilitate their being issued business licenses (and their navigation of the bureaucracy in general). According to my informants, Indonesian entrepreneurs have needed to change their visa status in order to continue staying in Taiwan. Marrying a Taiwanese national is one open option for them to regularize their status and realize their business aspirations in Taiwan. Many of the Taiwanese nationals that Indonesian entrepreneurs marry come from a lower-level socio-economic background themselves, and because of social prejudices, educational shortfalls, etc., have been blocked from entry into well-paid professions, or even the mainstream labor market altogether. For Indonesians, blocked mobility can force them to fall back on their community and seek self-employment as the most effective way to gain income in their host society; for their Taiwanese spouses, marrying into the migrant community can paradoxically represent a way to realize some of their own thwarted economic aspirations. Indonesian migrant entrepreneurs must follow standard procedures required of foreign businesses. An Indonesian national starting a business in Taiwan faces a complicated

administrative process. He must first apply for a business visa and register the name of his company with the Economic and Trade Office (TETO) in Taipei and Jakarta.

Second, budget adaptation- The entrepreneurs most concern usually regarding this issue. If start from zero, the costs involved in opening a business such as a neighborhood shop normally reach N.T. \$1 million, which can be divided into N.T. \$750,000 (U.S. \$24,000) for buying and renting restaurant equipment, and N.T. \$250,000 (U.S. \$8,000) for buying food supplies, and other expenses. Typically, an entrepreneur needs one to two years to recover initial costs. I use one example monthly budgeting/operational cost from my informant in Zhongli city. For instance, the monthly operational costs of a restaurant/shop consist of the following: 1) Rental building cost, N.T. \$35,000 (U.S. \$1,116); 2) Electrical cost, approximately N.T. \$10,000 (U.S. \$319) per two months; 3) 3 Water cost, N.T. \$4,000 (U.S. \$127) per two months; 4) Buying materials, N.T. \$7,000 per three days (U.S. \$223); and 5) Gas costs, an average of N.T. \$800 (U.S. \$25) per week. Weekday income from a restaurant/shop averages N.T. \$2,000 – 3,000 (U.S. \$63 – 95) per day, while weekend income averages N.T. \$8,000 – 10,000 (U.S. \$255 – 319) per day. Average gross monthly income for such a restaurant/shop would typically fall in the N.T. \$100,000 range (U.S. \$3,200). Based on these figures, we can imagine how entrepreneur have to manage the business well, and how much it would appear that a reasonable profit can be realized from such a business.

Third, structural opportunities- Becoming an entrepreneur, or creating any kind of self-employment, often becomes a motivation after a long time spent working for others. The opportunity to be one's own boss and not depend upon a company salary exerts a considerable attraction for would-be entrepreneurs. Demand from migrant customers operates as a "pull factor" and opportunity for entrepreneurship. An entrepreneur's instinct is to catch an economic opportunity and open a restaurant or other business, even though many other Indonesian restaurants and shops may already exist. There are a number of potential economic and social advantages to opening a restaurant: the migrant worker market is still expanding and the opportunities it presents are still open; migrants always like and need their traditional foods; they actively look for opportunities; one business opportunity can and often does lead to another. My interviews on migrant spending behavior suggest that Indonesians in Taiwan spend one third of their salaries for food, while the rest is split between general living costs, gadgets, sightseeing, leisure expenses, savings, and money remittances to Indonesia. When an entrepreneur's economic instincts meet the migrant community's economic behavior in an equilibrium of supply and demand, a structural opportunity for profit-taking exists. Migrant entrepreneurs tend to seize opportunities with whatever capital they have (or can raise), and with whatever other advantages they possess. Structural opportunities, ethnic (migrant) strategies, and group characteristics combine to form an interactive model of ethnic business development.

Fourth, post-entrepreneurial opportunities. Typically, established migrant entrepreneurs diversify into other business activities, such as becoming a "broker" who connects migrants with employers or employment agencies. A broker might receive N.T. \$3,000 – 4,000 (U.S. \$95 – 127) as a commission for each placed worker. While running their restaurant business, entrepreneurs can also receive a good commission from selling local snack products in their shops. They can act as informal money changers, and can offer cargo services both to and from

Indonesia. The range of possible ventures that migrant entrepreneurs can expand into is quite broad.

Fifth, networking - Indonesian migrant entrepreneurs maintain various networking relationships for the benefit of their businesses. They develop their own approaches for obtaining information, capital, or employees. Research indicates two basic compositions to these networks: first, a relatively personal one of family, clan, relatives, colleagues, and classmates; and second, a somewhat broader array of hometown people, co-ethnics, and miscellaneous connections such as vendors, customers, investors, group association members, and government officials. In practice, these networks often overlap. For example, social networking based upon vertical kinship relationships can also involve horizontal neighborhood connections. All these types of networking—family, friend, and community—combine in the characteristic Indonesian migrant entrepreneur’s strategy network. The entrepreneur as an actor maintains many specific kinds of relations and utilizes all of them with purpose.

The Effects

Positive social effects can result from migrant entrepreneurship practices. As observed, the stereotyped perception of Indonesians in Taiwan still sees them as “the other”—uneducated, class positional inferior, potentially violent, dangerous, and criminal. Due to its stereotype in Taiwanese society, the Indonesian community is often portrayed as a “community in trouble,” requiring special treatment in education and other social contexts. This status as a second-class immigrant community, the virtue value of entrepreneurship practices, and combination with structural opportunities become three important factors that contributing to the development of Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship practices in Taiwan.

To some extent case, Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship serves a cross-social, mediating function between the migrant community and local Taiwan’s (i.e., the immigration office or police), and between the migrant community and the larger society. One role of Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship in Taiwan is to occupy a middleman position that may be characterized as “the bridge.” I also believe that entrepreneurs are analogous to “headmen,” owing to their social function and commercial activity in society. If an entrepreneur’s company succeeds and makes a social contribution to the community, the entrepreneur may begin to be perceived as a headman. Indonesian entrepreneurs can also become spokesmen in order to transmit information about migrant needs and problems to the government or to other stakeholders. For example, through magazines/tabloids, they may publish news or write opinion pieces regarding migrant issues.

In my thought, a marginal position within a larger society, no matter what it is based on—ethnicity, religion, occupation, socio-economic status, educational status, etc.—besides prompting entrepreneurship (because conventional routes to income may be closed off), can also create community solidarity. Consuming halal food, fasting, collective prayer and ritual performance, collective charity, group activities, and community organizations—all of these activities within the Indonesian migrant community in Taiwan represent more than purely socio-cultural activism; they are mechanisms to bring people together and enhance their social bonds.

Since entrepreneurs are considered to be an engine of economic growth, they represent positive benefits to the entire migrant community; and it is noticeable that successful entrepreneurial outcomes and socio-cultural organization within the community are mutually reinforcing. This becomes the foundation for an emergent solidarity, social cohesion, and in-group feeling. As one might put it, “If people from the same ethnicity and background do not help and support each other, who else would do so?”

Indonesian migrant entrepreneurship is a result of the embeddedness of the economy in the wider migrant social living context; it is an excellent example of the “social economy” in practice. It could be said that entrepreneurs stand straddling two worlds: one foot is planted within the economy (i.e., gaining profit), while the other is planted in the society, in its moral obligations to the migrant community. There is a continuous mutual exchange between these two positions. Since the entrepreneurs function as “brokers” or “middlemen” between economy and society against a backdrop of profit-making, their entrepreneurship strongly manifests of adaptation and solidarity motives within the community. Indonesian entrepreneurs in Taiwan, to some extent, become “the bridge” and function as agents of change within their societies.

Limitedness

In general, most Indonesian entrepreneurs start and develop their firm or business using their own effort. They build their own style and method of entrepreneurship depending on the route they took to becoming an entrepreneur. They may need to locate sources of capital resources due to the limitations that they face as immigrants. Initially, many Indonesian entrepreneurs come to Taiwan to work for wages with Taiwanese or foreign employers. They perform many sorts of jobs, such as restaurant worker, handyman, factory operator, home construction, home-based industries, or nursing home worker, and they are often willing to work at 3 D jobs (dirty, dangerous, and difficult). Many Indonesians working in Taiwan try to stay longer than they had originally planned. Their motivation for staying is usually based on a rational assessment that the conditions for making money in Taiwan are superior to the ones they left behind in Indonesia. Some continue their work under Taiwanese or foreign employers, while others make the shift into self-employment or entrepreneurship. This shift is always a milestone in a worker’s life, and is a key moment looking toward his or her future.

But the process of becoming self-employed or an entrepreneur is beset by limitations of various kinds. It is not easy. I note some cases here. Mr. Amy (36) is the owner of an Indonesian restaurant, karaoke, and mini-market established in Danshui, Taipei City, in 2007. One of the obstacles he faced related to legal contracts. There are conditions that need to be fulfilled in order to obtain a business visa, such as capital adequacy, location of business, workers, and others. In Mr. Amy’s case, he married a Taiwanese national in part as a way of obtaining his business visa. This practice of cross-national marriage opens up an “opportunity space” for the entrepreneur, who gains citizenship status, experiences improved living conditions and social status, and reduces his legal and regulatory difficulties as a business owner. Another problem that Mr. Amy faced was lack of capital. He started his own shop with help from colleagues and his wife’s family. His father-in-law loaned the couple N.T. \$500,000 (U.S. \$16,000) to help them establish the shop. Rather than applying formal procedures, Mr. Amy sought informal ways to solve his problems (despite eventually being forced to divorce). Another example of informal

networking in action is provided by Mr. Andy (35). He experienced on-the-job training for entrepreneurship, and gained information and a guarantee from his Taiwanese employer. He was able to open his store ten years after his initial arrival in Taiwan as a student and migrant agency. Without venture capital, he borrowed from various sources of social capital including family, friends, and relatives. He began his self-employment doing catering and pick-up and delivery of goods to Indonesian customers working at factories. Mrs. Emy (30) from West Java began her self-employment in typical fashion, involving herself in informal activities in the “street economy,” selling food, cloth, etc. door-to-door and also finding customers at a park where Indonesian domestic workers usually gathered in the mornings and afternoons. She suffered from a perceived lack of educational qualifications, insufficient access to relevant social networks that could direct her to opportunities, and a lack of credit and financial resources exacerbated by financial discrimination (for example, an inability to get a bank loan).

The Taiwanese government and society’s perception of migrant entrepreneurship is about the same as their perception of migrant workers in general—in my term, “Tweedledum and Tweedledee.” Taiwanese may be “disgusted” or have a “bad” feeling about the noise and mess made by migrant workers gathering around shops (Lan 2003). Looking at the ethnic economy enclave, Taiwanese perceive the influence of the social structure of specific ethnicities, an unsettling “foreignness,” and this pushes migrant entrepreneurs back toward their local communities and their inner orientation. This patriarchal structure forces Indonesian migrant entrepreneurs to “demarcate the border” rather than “cross the border.” Although the operators of Indonesian eateries around the train stations in Taipei or Taoyuan County tried to adopt a “local cultural economy” model to cross this ethnic border, they had to settle for the ethnic economy’s typical operational model of “demarcating the border,” due to the fact that the areas where their eating houses were located had already become a consumption space for specific ethnic communities (for details, see Hui-lin Huang 2011).

Closing remark

In brief narratives, this paper has demonstrated the salience of the interrelationship between cultural and structural element, structural opportunities, and entrepreneurship among Indonesian migrants in Taiwan. The spirit of Indonesian entrepreneurial activity in Taiwan goes hand in hand with the increasing number of migrants, some of whom will eventually always start to run their own businesses. The position of the Indonesian entrepreneur still depends on the migrant consumer. The business values and practices in play can be characterized as “of the migrant, by the migrant, and for the migrant.” Although Indonesian migrants still suffer discrimination from the Taiwanese, their entrepreneurship activities demonstrate the existence of regular migrant economic patterns in Taiwan’s urban society. Entrepreneurs’ social roles involve them in the process of constructing and negotiating social identities, in fulfilling migrants’ basic needs, and in bridging them with the host society.

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Origin and Development of Sanskrit Letters With the special reference to Grantha Letters – A Study

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Sanskrit is an one of the ancient Language, It is in the member of Indo-European Language family. This Language divided by two, one is Vedic Language other is Classical Language. Panini's *Astadyayi* is a Grammar book of this Language. Panini called as a father of the Sanskrit Language, According to the phonology of Panini's *Astadyayi* thr fourteen sutras of the Sanskrit language had their origin in the sounds of lord *Nadaraja's damaruka*. The *Samjna Praharana* of *Astadyayi* mentions the birth of vowels and consonants in particular, their phonology. The letter of Sanskrit are called *Akshara* and *lipi*. The script is not mentioned. In the Indian tradition two scripts are mentioned. One is karosti and the other Brahmi. The Brahmi scripts developed because of its regional popularity. In this context, Grantha evolved as the script for Sanskrit in South India. This research will trace the origin and Development of the Grantha script. This script was widely used in South Asia, particularly in Sri Lanka, in inscriptions coins, manuscripts and copper plates. Now the script has been organized and saved in software. This research says about the originality and development of Grantha Scripts in Sanskrit Language by the discretional method as methodology.

Key Words: Sanskrit, Phonetics, Akshara, Lipi, Bhahmi, Ach, Hal, Grantha.

Introduction

The term "*Bharatavarsha*" denotes ancient India. Those who used the oral (Vedic) language were called *Aryas*. The Indo-European language family had its origins in central Asia. It spread in south Asia and in countries like Iran. Vedic Language and Prakrit developed from oral tradition. The literatures of the times are known as Vedic literature they were called as "*Sruti*" (Meant to be heard) and protected by special instructional method. Inevitably some such works fell into disuse. They are recognized as markers of Vedic language. The *Vedargas* appeared with the sole purpose of protecting the Vedic language. Prakrit the spoken language is the off shoot of this trend. It was Panini grammarian who codified this form. He lived in the 4th century B.C his *Astadyayi* became the grammar for Sanskrit Panini as there fare called the father of Sanskrit language.

Astadyayi

Panini's *Astadyayi* is also called *pannineeyam*. It consists of 4000 sutras. It is called *Astadyayi* because it contains eight (Asta = eight) chapters and eight chapters.

Panini called as *sutradara*, vararachi called as *vachyackara*, Parjali called a *Bhashyakara*, There were develop ted and understand this pannini's Grammatical sutra tradition, as commentary tradition , This comment ration traditional developed to "*siddhantakoumuthi*" tradition had special stand for scientific approached.

अथ संज्ञाप्रकरणम्

अइउण् १ । ऋलृक् २ । एओङ् ३ । ऐऔच् ४ । हयवरट्
 ५ । लण् ६ । जमङ्गणनम् ७ । झभञ् ८ । घढधष् ९ ।
 जबगडदश् १० । खफछठथचटतव् ११ । कपय् १२ । शषसर्
 १३ । हल् १४ ॥

Maheswara sutras established form Nadaraja's damaraka's sound , there were fourteen These described on *samjna praharana* vowels fourteen and cansenents Thirty-three, all together forty seven letters mentioned specially vowels called *a,i,u,ir,il* connected with long letters. Vowels pointed out a steps there were short (), long (demerge), and too long (plots), altogether eighteen.

* वर्णोद्भवस्थानकोष्ठकम् —

अ	इ	ऋ	लृ	उ	ज	ए	ओ	व	२क	वर्णाः	
क	च	ट	त	प	म	ऐ	औ	ख	२ख		
ख	छ	ठ	थ	फ	ङ						
ग	ज	ड	द	ब	ण						
घ	झ	ढ	ध	भ	न						
ङ	ञ	ण	न	म	न्						
ह	य	र	ल	२प							
:	श	ष	स	२फ							
कण्ठः	तालु	मूर्धा	दन्ताः	ओष्ठौ	नासिका	कं.ता.	कं.ओ.	दं.ओ.	जि.मू.		स्थानानि

There letters where from established by sound described by sutra that detail on the table.

Sanskrit letters

In Sanskrit Grammar pointed out the Sanskrit language especially pone tic forms, this portent oral tradition the word “*Bhahusruta*” represent the knowledge an oral Educational knowledge in language. As the tradition called “*sruiti*” a Vedas a reason now, the littering tradition here so many textual changes state to state.

Mainly the reason and traces from the oral to writing step. In the practical writing stage in Sanskrit pointed out some any words. There are *lipi*, *Akshara*, *lipikara*, *kanda*, *patala*, *Granta*, *lekana*, and *lekaka* but hot to mentioned the particular stretched the letter.

Beginning of the Sanskrit writing form in Inscription they hard *prackrit* language tradition and *karosti* Group letters on 3rd century .B.C

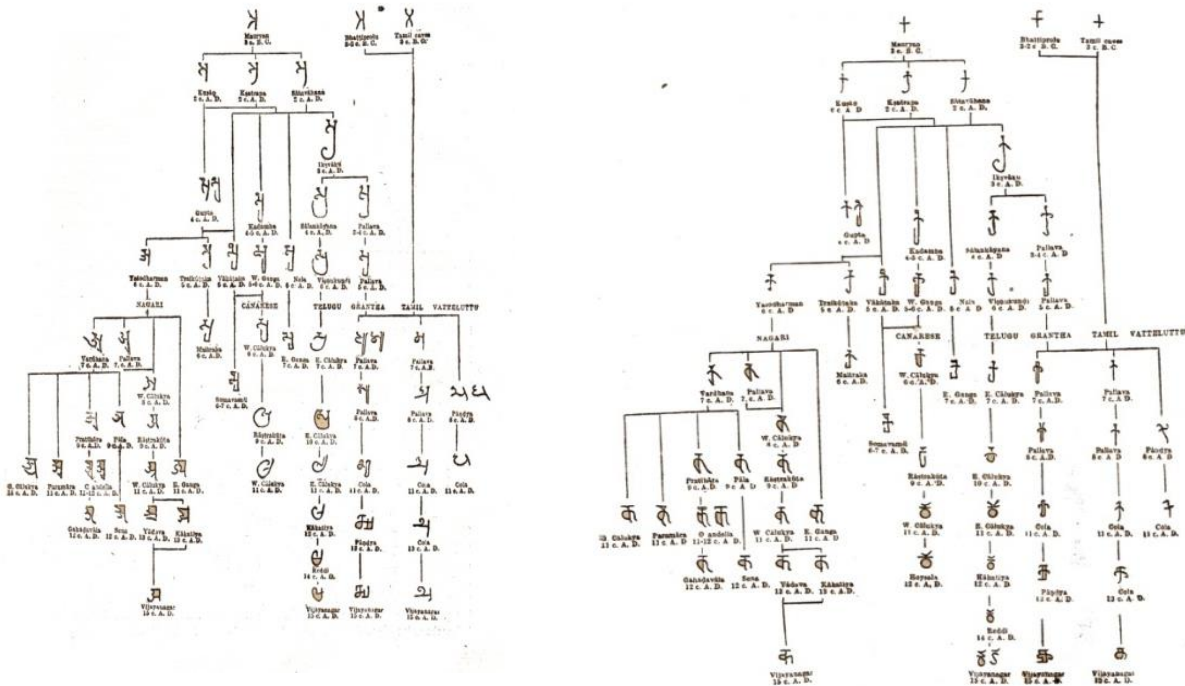
Karosti letters to write and the tradition right this letter like lips of donkey this letter formed A atria and south Asian reason.

Ancient Indian writings as Brahmi left to right. This script has independent of the Sanskrit language structure an Grammar and regional styles. The structural principals of North India have *Devanagari* an kasmir saratha, Bangali,Orisa, telungu and Malayalam also represents the script for Sanskrit language in regional style North Indian script Brahmi developed and organized the *Devanagari* or *Nagari* script represent on the language , Sanskrit , Bhagtham, Hindi and Marati, Uniform of writing with mother line . This *Devanagari* Script regagnized and accepted script as a Sanskrit language in printing letter also.

Grantha Script

In Indian region as lines and symbols recorded an brachmi script and a begging of Gran the script in tangle or circle shape.

Grantha called ‘knot’ the meaning this represents tread. This letter preserved in palm leaves especially in Tamil tradition an ‘manipiravala’ Developed the organize circle shape of Gran the script spared all over the south Asian regions an established structural script.



This letter/Script established Pallara kings and a reason called “pallava Grantha” This letter development of scrip logy can trace by the Inscription these are divided by four.

1. Pallava Grantha
2. Transitional Grantha

3. Medieval Grantha
4. Modern Grantha

This important of Gran the script usage to represented of the usage Sanskrit representation there are,

க	கூ	இ	ஈ	உ	ஊ				
a	ā	i	ī	u	ū				
ஊ	ஊ	ஊ	ஊ	ஊ	ஊ				
r	e	ai	o	au					
க	வ	ஔ	வ	ஐ	வ	வ	ஐ	ஐ	ஐ
ka	kha	ga	gha	ña	ca	cha	ja	jha	ñā
ட	஠	஡	஢	ண	த	த	த	த	த
ta	ṭha	ḍa	ḍha	ṇa	ta	tha	da	dha	ṇa
வ	வ	வ	வ	ம	ய	ர	ல	வ	
pa	pha	ba	bha	ma	ya	ra	la	va	
ஸ	ஷ	ஸ	ஹ	ள	ந்	ந்	ஊ		
śa	ṣa	sa	ha	ḷa	nta	ñca	ddha		

LIPIKAAR Key Strokes	DEV	PNJ	GJR	ORI	BNG	ASM	TLG	KND	MLM	TML
k	क	क	क	क	क	क	क	क	क	क
K or kk	ख	ख	ख	ख	ख	ख	ख	ख	ख	-
g	ग	ग	ग	ग	ग	ग	ग	ग	ग	-
G or gg	घ	घ	घ	घ	घ	घ	घ	घ	घ	-
c	च	च	च	च	च	च	च	च	च	च
C or cc	छ	छ	छ	छ	छ	छ	छ	छ	छ	-
j	ज	ज	ज	ज	ज	ज	ज	ज	ज	ज
J or jj	झ	झ	झ	झ	झ	झ	झ	झ	झ	-
t	त	त	त	त	त	त	त	त	त	त
tt	थ	थ	थ	थ	थ	थ	थ	थ	थ	-
d	द	द	द	द	द	द	द	द	द	-
dd	ध	ध	ध	ध	ध	ध	ध	ध	ध	-
n	न	न	न	न	न	न	न	न	न	न
N or nn	ण	ण	ण	ण	ण	ण	ण	ण	ण	ण
ttt or T	ट	ट	ट	ट	ट	ट	ट	ट	ट	ट

Grantha	ക	ഖ	ഗ	ഘ	ങ	ച	ഛ	ജ	ഝ	ഞ
Malayālam	ക	ഖ	ഗ	ഘ	ങ	ച	ഛ	ജ	ഝ	ഞ
Sinhalese	ක	ඛ	ග	ඝ	ඞ	ච	ඡ	ජ	ඣ	ඤ
Tamiḷ	ക	-	-	-	ങ	ച	-	ജ	-	ഞ
Latin	ka	kha	ga	gha	ṅa	ca	cha	ja	jha	ṅa
Grantha	ട	ഠ	ഡ	ഢ	ണ	ത	ഥ	ദ	ധ	ന
Malayālam	ട	ഠ	ഡ	ഢ	ണ	ത	ഥ	ദ	ധ	ന
Sinhalese	ට	ඨ	ඳ	ඬ	ඹ	ත	ථ	ද	ඪ	න
Tamiḷ	ട	-	-	-	ണ	ത	-	-	-	ന
Latin	ṭa	ṭha	ḍa	ḍha	ṇa	ta	tha	da	dha	na
Grantha	പ	ഫ	ബ	ഭ	മ	യ	ര	ല	വ	ഞ
Malayālam	പ	ഫ	ബ	ഭ	മ	യ	ര	ല	വ	ഞ
Sinhalese	ප	ඵ	බ	භ	ම	ය	ර	ල	ව	ඞ
Tamiḷ	പ	-	-	-	മ	യ	ര	ല	വ	ഞ
Latin	pa	pha	ba	bha	ma	ya	ra	la	va	ṅa
Grantha	ശ	ഷ	സ	ഹ	ഘ	റ	ണ			
Malayālam	ശ	ഷ	സ	ഹ	ഘ	റ	ണ			
Sinhalese	ශ	ෂ	ස	හ	-	-	-			
Tamiḷ	ശ	ഷ	സ	ഹ	ഘ	റ	ണ			
Latin	śa	ṣa	sa	ha	ḡa	ra	ṅa			

1. Pallava Grantha -

Pallava Grantha created by pallava kings for the inscription in there south Indian kingdoms. This tradition got the time called ‘Grantha’ This script can show Memaleparam, Thiruchchirapalli cave inscription. This tradition established after changes called, Grantha Language family.

2. Tansitional Grantia –

Tulu, Malayalam both called as another form of Grantha, Brami’s squire and types established Grantha script Identified an a type of malayala letters. After the pallava kingdom used cholas in the period 650 to 950 after that can show pandian neduncheliyan’s documents.

3. Medieval Grantha –

The Imperial thanjor cholas Inscriptions developed the medieval grantha this category was in form 950 A.D to 1250 AD

4. Modern Grantha –

The modern form of Grantha is similar to Malayalam and Tamil script in the period of letter pandiyas and vijayanagar rules.

Now

Grantha script in user for represent of Sanskrit language in printing materials and computerized too. This Grantha script are using uni cord forms also. Some of the Grantha script are using Tamil language and a Sanskrit letters. As E.g. Ja, sa, sha, se, ksha,& r.etc.

Now preserve the palm leaves Grantha documents are the traditional way on sivagama ritual traditions, Medical traditions and more the Grantha letters are the using form 6th century A.D. to present , This script is using only represent the Sanskrit language.

Conclusion

Pannin's Astadyayi in a Grammar book of Sanskrit language, in described vowels letters called on ach, consonant letters called an hal. In addition.

Letters particulate pointed. Indian creation of important this sound of Sanskrit literature tradition was preserve oral tradition from Vedic literature preservation of the north Indian tradition used devenagarai letters. At the same time Grantha letters in south India westerners used women letters forms, Srilankens in Sinhala letter forms an exam files.

Sanskrit language don't have any own script not mentioned any Grammatical book. The connection of verbs in *sandhi* an join the sounds in Sanskrit language.

There for one of Grantha script represent the Sanskrit language and phonetic forms and established the script by south Indian pallavas, continually using form today.

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Website - Grantha alphabets

Classification of food among the Chakhesang - Kuzhami of Phek District, Nagaland, India

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Anthropologically food classification has mostly been studied from perspectives such as ying-yang, hot-cold and caste-class. Though present, it has never been explicitly stated that culture, along with ecology of people, played a vital part in influencing their classification of food. This paper attempts to bring out classification of food among the Chakhesang - Kuzhami of Phek district, Nagaland, attempting to point to the influence of cultural, ecological and temporal factors upon food classification. Rapid changes have taken place in Phek district which has also affected people's outlook on their traditions. They do not follow all traditions, or neglect some of it which were essential for maintaining their ecological balance. This paper also examines and brings out how these factors have affected their original cultural classification of food. Thereby, arguing that any attempt to understand food in a particular culture would be incomplete without an understanding of how it is culturally classified, and consideration of the ecological and temporal factors underlying it. This paper also attempts to make a positive contribution to a broader Anthropological understanding of food classification studies.

Keywords: Food classification, ecology, culture change.

1. Introduction.

Classification gives order and meaning to the human world (Brown 1991, Eastman and Carter 1994, Lampman 2010). It prevents chaos and helps to carry out their activities most effectively (Lampman 2010, Ellen 2010, Ing 2011), as it will be based on known principles and characteristics (Berlin et al., 1966, Bourdieu 1979, Hunn 1982, Eastman and Carter 1994). However, these classifications do not exist independently. As it helps to make sense of the world it is also logically interrelated with other factors (Levis-Strauss 1966, Berlin *et al.*, 1974, Messer 1981, Hunn 1982, Ellen 1993).

2. Anthropological Food Classification.

The early anthropological studies were structural-functional in approach because of which inevitably, the first food classification studies were also approached from this perspective. The classifications of food, that came up were based on 'grains' and 'relish' contrast (Richards 1939), status and rank of the subjects (Codere 1957), etc. With the broadening of anthropological horizons (Messer 1984, Mintz and DuBois 2002), food classification studies also branched into other fields such as, medical anthropology, nutritional anthropology, and symbolism. Out of all these fields, medical anthropology field retained the maximum number of studies on food classification.

In 1954, Conklin proposed the concept of understanding environment from the native point of view which he termed as 'ethno-ecology'. His idea became a success and many studies, debates and talks centred around it. Later, this field of ethno-ecology branched into two levels of enquiry (Bulmer 1974, Hidayati *et al.*, 2015). One of which tried to understand environment solely from the perspective of the natives (Conklin 1954, 1961), whereas the other tried to combine Western scientific categories with the native categories for an in-depth understanding of both aspects (Berlin et al., 1974). The former had an impact on folk classification studies,

whereas the latter had implications at higher levels such as taxonomy, comparison, adaptation, biology, etc. (Bulmer 1974, Nazarae 2006). This study will adopt the approach proposed by Conklin (1954, 1961). Moreover, classification of food purely from the native view point seems to be a relatively lesser known aspect of Anthropological food studies (Messer 1984, Waddy 1986).

3. Conceptual Definitions.

This study adopts an ecological approach to the study of classification especially food, albeit the “native’s ecology” also known as ethno-ecological approach (Conklin 1961, Cāsino *n.a*). However, human-environment interactions are dependent upon thought, knowledge and language (Brosuis *et al.*, 1986). Therefore, food classification in this study will be understood through three components – *kosmos* (belief system), *corpus* (knowledge) and *praxis* (practice) (WinklerPrins *et al.*, 2005).

4. Methods Employed for the study.

This study is based on fieldwork carried out for PhD, which lasted for a period of 8 months, from March - November 2011, and forms part of a chapter on food and ecology. Out of the total 390 households in the village, a sample of 100 households were selected and the members interviewed intensively. For getting an idea of the foods they consume, free-listing method⁵ was first employed. Then for the data pertained to food classification, seasons, local names, etc., mainly observation and GD (Group Discussion) were utilised to learn about the characteristics of the plants and animals used as food.

5. The Kuzhami - Chakhesang Nagas of Phek district, Nagaland, India.

The state of Nagaland, inhabited by the Nagas, is situated in the extreme North-eastern part of India. It consists of 11 districts and 16 major tribes, each with its own unique traditions, customs, customary laws, polity, organisation, folklore, folk tales, attires and language. The Chakhesang Nagas form one of the major tribe of Nagaland. This tribe consists of three sub-tribes - *Chokri*, *Khezhami/Kuzhami*⁶, *Sapoumi* - inhabiting Phek District. Leshemi village, the study village, comes under the jurisdiction of the *Kuzhami* sub-tribe and lies to the south of Phek district. This district has been mainly impacted by change of religion from the traditional one to Christianity (Dozo 1978).

6. The Kuzhami – Chakhesang Classification of food.

The Kuzhami mainly depend on agriculture. They do not classify food into hot-cold, *ying-yang* or caste-class, as common in most available anthropological food classification studies. Their food items are broadly classified based on three criteria - utility, territory, season - which will be subsequently elaborated.

6.1 Classification of food with reference to utility of food items.

⁵ Bernard (2006; 301) states, ‘Free listing is ...a technique... where you ask the informants to list all the X you know about’ or ‘what kinds of X are there?’ ...the object is to get informants to list as many items as they can in a domain, so you need to probe and not just settle for whatever people say.’

⁶ The Kuzhami are referred by their neighboring tribe the Angamis as ‘Khezha/Khezhami’, and most other tribes too identify them by this name. However, the people themselves prefer to be identified as ‘Kuzhami’.

The first and foremost classification is into plant and flesh food items, beverages and tabooed foods. This classification is based on the utility of the organisms, which also determine their usage as food items. It is the most important one as it encompasses both plant and animal food items, and inter-relates the natives with their culture and ecology to a great extent.

6.1.1 Plant food items

The Kuzhami depend both on domesticated and wild plants for survival. However, since they possess both agricultural fields and kitchen gardens, their dependence on wild or forest plants is less and takes place mostly during the lean months. Their plant food items are thus roughly classified along the lines of cultivated and wild categories. The plant food items are classified into the following categories:

a) *Mecitemü*: *Mecitemü* refers to those items which bear seeds (*meci*), are cultivated and consumed for sustenance. It is the broadest category of food classification and comprises of all cultivated plant items. Under *mecitemü* the following categories are found:

*Samü*⁷ – This category consists of three important crops paddy⁸, millet⁹ and job's tears¹⁰, which are cultivated by the people as staples. This sub-category is divided into two sub-categories - *samü-müdie*¹¹ and *samu-meci*¹². *Samü-müdie* sub-category includes only paddy (*rübe*). It is categorised separately, as paddy is considered the most important food item, as people cannot survive without it. Paddy was alternatively called as '*kamonie-ü*' meaning 'pacifier' as after consuming it people become *kamo* (satisfied and calm). It is divided into two main varieties, *fürübe* (non-glutinous) and *metrürübe* (glutinous). Initially both the varieties consisted of one type of paddy, but at present it consists of around 30 different types. The different types of paddies are named based on its specific characteristics (colour, shape, size, season, agricultural characteristics, etc.) or history behind its origin. Under *samu-meci* category another two major food items *chübe* (millet) and *tochebe* (job's tears) are included. These are in a separate category as they are less essential for survival compared to paddy. *Chübe* (millet) was a staple food item in the past, and was also alternatively called as *takhochü-ü* (sustainer). As during the lean season, it became the staple food item helping to sustain life and body. It was found to consist of nine varieties, classified based on their colour, shape and agricultural characteristics. *Tochebe* (Job's tears) was also alternatively known as *zunie-ü* meaning 'rice beer item' as earlier it was used only for making rice beer (*hazu*). Nowadays, it is added into drinking water, as it is believed to have medicinal properties or mixed with water and consumed as a cereal. It consist only of two varieties based on their sizes.

b) *Lechiemena* - *Lechiemena* literally means 'fruit and its kind' but this category also includes vegetables. There is no clear division into vegetable and fruit items, as these categories overlap. The items in this category are mainly characterised by the presence of fruits (*chie*) i.e., not leafy in its characteristics. However, it also includes some vegetables grown in the kitchen-garden. Most vegetables which have leafy characteristic fall into the category of *yeprü-yere*.

c) *Yeprü-yere* – The word *re* derive its meaning from the word *tare/tari* which means 'ritual taboo' (in Kuzhami language). Traditionally most wild vegetables were collected, when the people are observing ritual taboos and cannot go to their fields. It is also a category for leafy-vegetables. It is of two varieties the *malöye* (field vegetables) and *wuye/reba* (forest vegetables).

⁷ *Samii* means 'crops required for survival'.

⁸ *Oryza sativa*.

⁹ *Panicum miliaceum*.

¹⁰ *Coix Lachryma-Jobi*

¹¹ *Samii-miidie* means 'main crop required for survival'.

¹² *Samii-meci* means 'smaller crop required for survival'.

The *malöye* are those sown and harvested by the people in jhum fields such as cabbage, potato, etc. The *wuye/rebaye* are those that grow wild. It consists of wild leafy vegetables such as *letroye, lejoye, letsu, burho, lejosoye, maye, meriye*,¹³ etc.

6.1.2 Beverages

Most beverages are made with plant products. The common beverages taken by the people are *hazu* (rice beer), *chaha* or *dziulou* (tea/black tea), *metrita chaha* (maize tea), *thudzüba* (powdered rice drink), *lechiedzu* (fruit juices), *tochebedzü* (millet drink) and *lakhudzüba* (rice beer dreg soup). Their favourite drink is rice beer or *hazu* which has great cultural and nutritional value (Hutton 1921). It is prepared by fermenting rice (by using paddy as yeast). Different types of rice beer are prepared for different occasions. However, its sale on commercial basis is strictly forbidden by the church and women organisations, strong penalties are levied on those violating it in the present. Though some Christian people do relish it in secret. Rice beer has been replaced by tea and fruit juices to a large extent.

6.1.3 Animal food items

Tshü is the holistic term referring to the flesh¹⁴ foods consumed by the people. Flesh foods are considered the most special food item in the diet of the villagers and without it no celebration or ritual is ever considered complete. The demand for flesh food increases most during harvesting, transplanting and festive seasons. The flesh of all domesticated animals are consumed. The suffix *tshü* is added to the name of the domesticated animals to signify its flesh. For example, *votshü* (pig flesh) = *vo* (pig) + *tshü* (flesh). The water organisms are classified into three sub-categories – *khou*, *khuhneh*, *toichi-toieche*. Under *khöu* category comes all types of *kerikhu* (fish) and catfish (*kochichiso*). All the other smaller organisms such as water scorpion (*kolophazie*), dragonfly nymph (*ziekho*), great diving beetle (*khujo*), frog (*keniwü*), *lebo* (snail), etc., are grouped under *khuhneh* category. *Toichi-toiechi* (trumpet snail) is categorised into a different category as it produces nausea when taken in large quantity, and is not consumed frequently by the people. Another category is that of *retshü-rero/tshüro*¹⁵, which also consists of three sub-categories - *tshü*, *rocü* and *rekhunu*. *Tshü* category includes all the four footed animals of the jungle such as wild boar (*menyi*), bear (*wu*), deer (*thra*), antelope (*the*), etc. *Rocü* category includes all birds, such as owl (*kudodo*), eagle (*wano*), etc. *Rekhunu* category includes all the wingless small wild animals found in the jungle such as squirrel (*kele*), field mouse (*so*), etc.

6.1.4 Tabooed Foods

There were also taboos with regard to food called as *tokenyü-sokenyü*¹⁶. The taboos originate out of fear that the characteristics of the organism consumed will be passed on to its consumer or fear of evil befalling them (*also see* Hutton 1921). There were taboos on consumption of goat meat, genitals of animals, birds and animals with peculiar characteristics and fermented foods. Some taboos were also based on phases of life such as natural calamities, death, birth of a child, etc. For example, the women were in charge of the food production, so many taboos were maintained by them during different stages of their life for long lasting of

¹³ Their scientific names are not ascertained yet.

¹⁴ The word 'flesh food' is used here to refer all meat items.

¹⁵ Here *re* again means 'forest' or 'wild' and *tshü* means 'flesh', therefore *retshü* means 'forest (animal) flesh'; *rero* in the same way comes from the word 'ro' from *rochü* meaning 'bird', hence it is a word meaning 'forest birds'. Therefore *retshü-rero* or *tshüro* category includes all forest animals under it.

¹⁶ *Tokenyü-sokenyü* literally means 'not to be eaten, not to be drunk'.

paddy, meat, rice beer, etc. If anyone violated these taboos (even inadvertently) curses are said to befall not only them but also the whole village. Hence, all food taboos were strictly observed. At present, these food taboos are no longer followed by those who have converted to Christianity, however the *rolenyü*¹⁷ faith followers still observe them.

6.2 Classification with reference to territories.

Johnson and Hunn (2010) state that landscapes¹⁸ are not what they simply appear to be, but they also form an important factor of ethno-ecological interactions. Being mainly an agricultural society, the Kuzhami also divide their subsistence products into cultivated and non-cultivated products, based on which they use three distinct territorial references. When describing these areas from which their subsistence products are obtained, *keba* (home area), *reba/woba*¹⁹ (forest area) and *kechieba*²⁰ (agricultural area). The *keba* are the areas near their homes. The *keba* and *kechieba* areas are considered the warmer areas, whereas the *reba/woba* is considered the colder areas. The *kechieba* are considered by the people as those regions which lie behind the village, whereas the *woba* region towards the front side. The *kechieba* region contains both jhum and agricultural fields, whereas the *woba* region has only a few jhum fields. In suffixing the words *wo* or *re* to animals (*khunu*), the word *rekhunu* is formed which is used to refer to all the small wild animals found in the forest. The bees (*zho*) are also included under *rekhunu* category. Organisms which are collected from water bodies come under *khöu* and *khuhneh* category.

All fruits, vegetables and organisms from the wild (*reba/woba*) are considered tastier, juicier and distinctly differ in size and colour from those in domesticated ones (*keba* and *kechieba*). They carry more prestige and monetary value. They are sold at higher rates. An exception are paddy, millets, potato and shallots, which are not considered conducive for growth in the cold/forest environment and are cultivated in warmer regions.

6.3 Classification of food with regard to seasons

Another smaller category of division of food, especially vegetables is based on season – *takaiü* and *terhü*. Roughly, *taka* can be considered as wild and *terhü* as domesticated items. The *terhü* season is from June to November. It is identified as the season when most of the domesticated vegetables are harvested and most vegetables are at their choicest. The vegetables which season during this season are called as *terhü ye*. Hence, the surplus domesticated vegetables during this season are collected, dried and stored as *ye takie* (dried vegetables) for consumption during the other season. The most common item is taro or *dzü* (*collocasia esculenta*), it is sliced and dried in the sun during *terhü* season and early part of *takaiü* season. The *takaiü* season begins from December to May. During this period, most of the domesticated vegetables are sown and the domesticated vegetables stock declines during this period. The vegetables that are consumed during this period are called as *takaiü ye*. The people mostly depend on the wild vegetables (*rebayie/woyie*) and dried vegetables (*yetakie*), kept aside during the *terhü* season. Though some *takaiü/terhü* vegetables are found throughout the year, but are best consumed during a particular season only. There are only a handful of vegetables which

¹⁷The faith followed by the people other than the Christians.

¹⁸The cultural perspective of lands and homelands.

¹⁹The terms *woba* and *reba* are used interchangeably, because both the words *wo* and *re* can be used to refer to the wild and *ba* denotes location. Thus, in general the prefixes *re/reba* or *wo/woba* is prefixed to refer to those products/items that are not domesticated.

²⁰Literally in Kuzhami language it means 'back side (of the village)'

can be consumed in both the seasons. Domestic animal consumption fluctuates, and increases more during periods of hard labour such as harvesting, sowing or festivals. However, wild animal hunting and consumption takes place mostly during *takaii* period when, the season is dry and food is scarce.

7. Conclusion.

Among the Kuzhami, ethno-ecology play a major role in classifying the categories of food. The traditional food classification studied from this aspect, is not impacted much by the change in culture and customs. Thus, approaching food classification in Anthropology from this aspect can contribute to a more holistic understanding of classification. It might also encompass the studies of food from hot-cold, *ying-yang* and caste-class classifications, as it can include all stages of people's life, not only during illness or transitional stages as is the case in most food classification studies in the present (Messer 1981).

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Duality in the Iranian Two Symbolic Fish Pattern

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Fish (two fishes), as a metaphorical expression and well-known symbol, is one of the repetitive dual patterns in the decorative works of art. There is a known pattern in Iranian carpets called *Herati*-Two Symbolic Fish Pattern, for instance. Etymologically analyzing pictorial and verbal depictions, this work attempted to show that the two fishes, as a logical structure, is reflected in both cosmological and human body symbolism. Despite cultural differences and evolution of some elements linked to the central fish-related institute, the underlying semantic structure which is responsible for the internal semantic relations and logic, is found to remain unchanged; maintaining the fish-related institute as the symbolic reflection of death/life opposition. The novel aspect of the current work is that it revealed the connection between *Herati* and the well-known *Pisces* in astrology. Exploiting the connections found in iconographic material, describing the pertaining literary devices, and clarifying the linguistic consideration of words in Indo-European cultures and morphological relations between fish and feet in illustrations and myths, we explained the binary opposition based on the structural analyses. This provides further insight into the two fishes structure especially the Iranian *Herati* Pattern, and could be treated as a new application of the structural analysis.

Keywords: Two fishes, *Herati* (Iranian symbolic fish pattern), Duality, Structural analysis, Body symbolism.

The 18th SAARC Summit from a Cooperative Theoretical Lens of Functionalism and Positioning Theory

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The 18th SAARC summit themed on ‘Deeper Integration for Peace and Prosperity’ which is concluded with 36 points of Kathmandu Declaration has created a new hope for refreshed functional agenda for SAARC nations. Consecutively, the connectivity agreements on transport and energy sectors have been signed targeting a ‘functional boom’ in the region. On the other hand, different verbal and non-verbal acts made by the SAARC leaders during the summit have captured ample public and media attention leading to a wide array of ‘storylines’. Indeed these political sensitive storylines have added a more discursive outlook to the summit. Therefore it is pertinent to conduct a systematic inquiry towards these two distinct scenarios in order to explore their mutual impact on reinvigorating the SAARC regional cooperation. Primarily this paper intends to conduct an analytical inquiry headed for how these storylines can affect the functional framework adopted by the summit appealing to a joint theoretical approach. In this context, firstly this study draws some theoretical insights from Functionalism to explain the adopted cooperative functional scheme while looking for positioning theory to analyze the diverse of storylines deriving from communications and interactions of the SAARC leaders during the summit. Finally several potentials of such storylines to determine the success of proposed functional agenda will be explored along with several suggestions for a positive prospective.

Keywords: Functionalism, Storylines, Positioning theory

Wage Disparities and Internal Migration Patterns

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I investigate how wage disparities between the rural and urban areas affect internal migration patterns. In particular, I attempt to clarify which types of parental migration and family migration are undertaken under different wage disparities. Studies on China’s internal migration have determined that the wage disparity between rural and urban areas is the main reason for people living in rural areas to migrate to urban areas. In this paper, I demonstrate how the wage disparity influences the choice of migration pattern. Such a choice has significant implications on the future course of the economy. I first show that the wage disparity reduces human capital under parental migration and increases under family migration. I then show that if the wage disparity is neither large nor small and the migration cost does not differ significantly across two patterns, the wage disparity makes people more likely choose family migration. The contribution of this paper is to reveal that the wage disparity not only causes internal migration but also does affect the choice of migration pattern and to derive the possibility that the present wage disparity alleviates the future wage disparity via the choice of migration pattern, education and human capital formation.

Keywords: Wage disparity; Parental migration; Family migration

Biography and Roles of Chinese and Thai-Chinese Ancestors of the Six Families in Songkhla Old Town, Thailand

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The Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle (IMT-GT) is a sub-regional cooperation initiative formed in 1993 to accelerate economic transformation of the member states and provinces. At present, it is composed of 10 provinces of Sumatra in Indonesia, 8 states of Peninsular Malaysia and 14 provinces in southern Thailand. Songkhla, one of 14 Southern provinces of Thailand, is a historic town where its area of “Songkhla Old Town” or “Songkhla BoYang” maintains its unique identity of cultural and historical heritage. Most of people who live in Songkhla Old Town are Chinese or Thai-Chinese descendents. To have some part of a local history of Songkhla recorded and to promote the IMT-GT Tourism context, the study on biography and roles of the Songkhla Old Town Chinese and Thai-Chinese ancestors were investigated. Research method included interviewing six families’ descendents, and analyzing related documents as well as other evidences. The research found that the six families’ ancestors migrated from the province of Fujian (Hokkien), China. Trading and service were the main careers of them. They had economic roles and made Songkhla Old Town as a commercial center at their times. They also had social roles and innumerable benefactions to the communities. The blend of local and Chinese cultures has brought about the Songkhla Old Town’s specific identity which could be seen through architecture, tradition and belief, and cuisine.

Keywords: Local history of Songkhla Old Town, Biography of Chinese and Thai-Chinese ancestors of the six families

Introduction

The Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle (IMT-GT) is a sub-regional cooperation initiative formed in 1993 to accelerate economic transformation of the member states and provinces. At present, it is composed of 10 provinces of Sumatra in Indonesia, 8 states of Peninsular Malaysia and 14 provinces in southern Thailand (IMT-GT, n.d.). The six areas of cooperation among IMT-GT include: 1) trade and investment, 2) agriculture, agro-based industry and environment, 3) tourism, 4) infrastructure and transportation, 5) human resources development, and 6) halal products and services. Thailand’s participation in IMT-GT focuses on the prosperity of Southern provinces of Thailand in relations to the IMT sub-regional development which involves participation from both public and private sectors (TICA, 2013). In 1993, Songkhla, as well as the other fourteen provinces in southern Thailand, has been selected as a city under the strategic economic cooperation program of IMT-GT. Moreover, according to the Committee on Krung Rattanakosin and Old Towns Conservation and

Development (2548 B.E. or 2005), Office of Natural Resources and Environmental Policy and Planning (ONEP), Songkhla has been classified as Old Town because of its outstanding characteristics and has evidences of historical or architectural value as well as a continuously livable town (ONEP, 2554 B.E.)

Songkhla was a city of the old Malay Kingdom of Langkasuka with heavy Srivijayan influence. It has been part of the Thai Kingdom since the 18th century (Songkhla, n.d.). At present, Songkhla is a border province in Southern Thailand, adjoining the state of Kedah in Malaysia. It has been known as a principal sea port and coastal trading post (Country information: Thailand, 2009). Songkhla Old Town, formerly known Songkhla BoYang, is located between Songkhla Lake Basin and the Gulf of Thailand. It is the name of last town of Songkhla three empires: Songkhla Hau Khao Dang, 1450-1550; Songkhla Lamson, 1680-1842; and Songkhla BoYang, 1843-present (Suwannachart, 2009). The town consists of three major roads: Nakorn Nork Road, Nakorn Nai Road, and Nang Ngam Road. Nakorn Nork Road is parallel to Songkhla Lake. Most of people who live in Songkhla Old Town are Chinese or Thai-Chinese descendents whose ancestors migrated from China since the late Ayutthaya period (1688-1767). Those ancestors were the pioneers in commerce in the communities and brought wealth to Songkhla Old Town. Due to their innumerable benefactions to Songkhla Old Town, some ancestors of those families were granted titles from the King.

In order to recall the descendants' memories of their ancestors, to have information of a local history of Songkhla Old Town recorded, as well as to promote the IMT-GT tourism context, the study on biography and roles of the Songkhla Old Town Chinese and Thai-Chinese ancestors focused on the families whose ancestors were given titles from the King, was conducted. Those were six target families which included the Prathanrasnikorn family, the Kapilakanachana family, the Gonandana family, the Saowapruk family, the Prichayakorn family and the Sirichote family.

Research objectives and Scope of the study

This qualitative study aimed 1) to examine the biography of the Songkhla Old Town Chinese and Thai-Chinese ancestors, who were given titles, 2) to investigate economic and social roles of those ancestors and 3) to construct a family tree presenting individuals from the oldest generation first identified to the ones in the current generation. The key informants were the Chinese and Thai-Chinese descendants or individuals related to each family from six families mentioned above.

Methodology

Research method included in-depth interviewing descendants of and individuals related to each family, observing, and analyzing related personal documents as well as other evidences. Methodological triangulation was also used. Data were presented by way of descriptive analysis; necessary illustrations were also included.

Results

The research found that all of the six families' ancestors migrated from the province of Fujian (Hokkien), China. The first group was Prathanrasnikorn family who migrated to Songkhla in the late Ayutthaya period (1688-1767) while the migration of the second group, the Kapilakanchana, the Gonandana and the Saowapruk families was evident in the Rattanakosin period, during the reigns of King Rama I, King Rama II and King Rama III (1782-1851), and the third group, the Prichayakorn and the Sirichote families, migrated to Songkhla in the reign of King Rama IV (1851-1868). Details of each family are as follow:

The Prathanrasnikorn family

The Chinese family's name of the Prathanrasnikorn family was Ju. The ancestor, Ju (with no record of the personal name) migrated from the province of Fujian to Suratthani province, Thailand in the late Ayutthaya period (1688-1767). Later, Ju's son named Ju Li Aui moved to Songkhla. Ju Li Aui had a son, Ju Ju Eng. There were no evidences of occupation of these 3 ancestors. The fourth generation of the Ju family was Ju Juan Bi, the eldest son of Ju Ju Eng. Ju Juan Bi was a Chinese junk trader, trading between Songkhla-Bangkok, and Songkhla-Singapore. He was also a tax collector for alcohol and was granted monopoly in opium trading. Due to his works to local authority, Ju Juan Bi had noble title granted as "Luang Nikorn Jeanbhiban" which there unclear documents were indicating whether from the King Rama IV or King Rama V.

Ju Kek Beng (1885-1960), the eldest son of Ju Juan Bi had continued his father's business and had expanded the business under the name "Ju Eng Nguan" which later became Prathanvanich Limited Company. He also established others 7 network companies trading varieties of products and services such as rice mill, rice trade, ice factory, wholesale trade on silk, thread, rope, sugar, etc. from Bangkok, Penang and Singapore to customers in Songkhla. Chinese family business culture was used in his business. Ju Kek Beng's younger brother did a Chinese business exchange receipt (Phoi kuan) to serve Chinese merchants in Songkhla for payment of goods ordering from Penang or Singapore, as well as sending money to families in Fujian.

JU Kek Beng married Thai-Chinese lady from the wealthy family and had 3 sons and 5 daughters. His sons and daughters had continued and expanded the family's business. After the 1st World War, the family had expanded business to foreign countries. The Prathanvanich Limited Company was an agent of Standard Oil Company of New Jersey in Singapore. Moreover, the family had a rubber business trading with Japan and United States.

In term of their roles, it revealed that Ju Kek Beng's family had innumerable benefactions to communities, they took a main part in building public benefits such as public health, education and religious facilities. He was granted a noble title as Luang Prathanrasnikorn. At present, the business of the family has managed by the third generation of Ju Kek Beng or Luang Prathanrasnikorn.

The Kapilakanchana family

The Chinese family's name of the Kapilakanchana family was Ong. The ancestor, Ong Lai, migrated from the province of Fujian to Songkhla Lamson in the Rattanakosin period of King

Rama I (1782-1809). He was a Chinese junk trader. Ong Lai died in 1812. Thirty years later, in 1842 in the reign of King Rama III, Songkhla BoYang was built up as a new community. Ong Lawn who was Ong Lai's son had moved to Songkhla BoYang since then. He also continued his family business as well as became an assistant of Songkhla Governor whose ancestor was also a Chinese migrated from Fujian. Later, Ong Lawn was granted title from King Rama V to be "Luang Bamrungbhoka".

One of Ong Lawn or Luang Bamrungbhoka's son was Gii Sian (1868-1930) who did a business on rice mill and was an imported agent ordering goods such as lamps, spoons and other Chinese products. Gii Sian also served as a leader who took care of Chinese in Songkhla BoYang, a keeper of Chinese Shrine as well as an advisory member of Board of Songkhla. In 1910, he donated his land to build a resident of the viceroy of the South, Chaofa KromLuang Lopburirames in the reign of King RamaVI. The resident has been called "Phratamnak Khao Noi" (Khao Noi Villa) which at present is a resident of the governor of Songkhla. He was granted title as "Khun Nikorn Jean Nayok" from King Rama VI and later was promoted a higher rank as "Rong Ammart Eke Luang Sukkasemsamothai". Moreover, he was given a Thai family name called "Kapilakanchana" from King RamaVI in 1917.

The Kapilakanchana family has been a big family as Gii Sian or Rong Ammart Eke Luang Sukkasem samothai had 4 wives. His descendants had varieties of businesses including, Chinese junk trader, and rice mill at the beginning, later some of them had their businesses such as: trader of robes for the monks and items for Buddhist ceremony, clothing store, and stationary store. After the 2nd World War, some of them had a pharmacy business and a movie theater business. At present, only a trader of robes for the monks and items for Buddhist ceremony has been continued.

The Gonandana family

The Chinese family's name of the Gonandana family was Goi. From the tombstone inscription it revealed that the Gonandana family and the Kapilakanchana family had the same ancestor, Ong Lai.

Goi Huad Liang (1855-1946), the ancestor of the Gonandana family was the 5th generation of Ong Lai. Goi Huad Liang was born in Songkhla BoYang in the reign of King Rama IV. There was no record of his education but he might knew Thai language well enough as he was appointed to be a consultant committee of Songkhla BoYang. He was granted title as "Rong Ammart Tri Khun Bhokabhibhat", and later was given a family name "Gonandana" from King Rama VI.

Goi Huad Liang (or Rong Ammart Tri Khun Bhokabhibhat) had 3 sons and 3 daughters who did varieties of businesses such as Bho Seng was a fabric trader, who designed and had it weaved by local people of KohYaw, as well as a cloth seller of sarong, and Thai loincloth made by local people. Tek Nguan had small hotel business, "Lak Muang Hotel". Some descendants of the family were traders of robes for the monks and other items for Buddhist ceremony, and a newer generation was an agent of SINGER Company, Thailand.

The Saowaprak family

The Chinese family's name of the Saowapruk family was Lim. The ancestor, Lim Teng Bun, migrated from the province of Fujian to Songkhla Lamson in the Rattanakosin in the reign of King Rama II (1809-1824) and King Rama III (1824-1851). Lim Teng Bun died in 1835. In 1842 his family had moved from Songkhla Lamson to Songkhla BoYang where they built a house on Nakorn Nork Road.

Lim Jun Liang (1864-1930), the 4th generation of this family had a business on rice mill "Hub Ho Hin" since 1914. At the beginning, Hub Ho Hin was a small rice mill using machine ordered from Penang managed by Mr. Suchart Rattanaprakan, the grandson of Lim Jun Liang. Later, it was expanded and had about 30 workers, worked 6-hour shifts, 2 or 3 shifts a day, and the steam engine using husk fuel ordered from England was used. Hub Ho Hin was a modern rice mill of that time. The family was a rice trader in Songkhla Lake basin area as well as Malaysia. During the 2nd World War, his house was occupied by Japanese troops and used as a storage of gold and money, the rice mill Hub Ho Hin was used as a storage of medical supplies. As Lim Jun Liang was a person who created economic prosperity to Songkhla BoYang, he was given title as "Khun Rajakitkaree" from King Rama VI in 1921. He was also a committee of Songkhla Governor Board. In 1924, he was given the title as "Rong Ammart Tri Khun Rajakit karee." His descendants continued the rice mill business and had expanded to other businesses such as rubber business, transportation business using steam engine bus serving the routes between Songkhla BoYang and nearby places. During the 2nd World War, the bus was taken and used by Japanese troops and became damaged, thus resulting in ending the bus services. The notable business of the Saowapruk family including: pier port business, fishing shipyard, fish freezing and cold storage, and hotel business "Choakdee Hotel" which was considered a modern hotel of that time.

The Prichayakorn family

The Chinese family's name of the Prichayakorn family was Jia. According to the descendants, the name of the ancestor was Jia Moa Chong, but the tombstone inscription revealed that the name of ancestor was pronounced as Jia Min Giang who died in 1872. The ancestor was migrated from the province of Fujian to Songkhla in the reign of King Rama IV (1851-1868). Jia Yu Song, the first of 4 sons of Jia Min Giang, had continued business on Chinese junk trader and brewed liquor business which made him wealthy. He was later given title as "Luang Trakhakdee" and was assigned to be a Chairman of Chinese traders preparing for the reception of King Rama V on his visit to Songkhla.

From the tombstone inscription it revealed that Jia Yu Song (Luang Trakhakdee) had 3 sons and 3 daughters. The first son, Jia Ting Piew, had continued the family business. A new business that Jia Ting Piew set up was a loan business. He was given title as "Khun Trak bhakdee" from King Rama VI. His descendants also had new business such as: a trade of glass-making sand which appeared in their coconut garden, a middleman in basket work business, as well as an entertainment business on Thai traditional dramatic performance (Li kei) which later was changed to a movie theater "Lak Muang". The family had made connections with the wealthy families such as the Gonandana family, the Kapilakanchana, and the Sirichote family through an intermarriage.

The Sirichote family

The Chinese family's name of the Sirichote family was Ooi. According to the descendants, the name of the ancestor was Ooi Pun, but the ancestral tablets revealed that the name was Ooi Ming Thee. The ancestor migrated from the province of Fujian to Songkhla in the reign of King Rama IV (1851-1868). There was no record of ancestor's occupation. Ooi Ming Thee married Eiw Nam Nue and one of their sons, Ooi Meng, was later the secretary of Songkhla Governor, Phraya Wichienkhiri (Chom NaSongkhla, 1888-1901). Ooi Meng was given title as "Khun Sawathdibhoka" from King Rama V.

Ooi Tek Uun, the first son of Ooi Meng (Khun Sawathdibhoka) was granted the authority of monopoly in operating Bull fighting in Songkhla BoYang. The notable business of this family was that of lantern shop, "Ooi Hub Tek". Lanterns were imported from Penang as well as Bangkok. His descendants had varieties of businesses, such as, a contractor of truck business carrying soil and rock for road construction. "Joti Bhand," a shop selling construction materials and spare parts of fishing boat and long-tailed boat, a sale agent of Pennzoil lubricator, as well as a book and stationary business. "Ooi Hub Kidd", later the name was changed to "Siribhanich", was a sale agent of Shell's gasoline and lubrication imported from Kedah, Malaysia, as well as a seller of Raleigh bicycle and electrical equipments. Some descendants were a sale agent of Boon Rod Brewery Company, a sale agent of tobacco, as well as a seller of local dried food products, "Sin Adulyabhan". At present, some of the business has been continued.

Conclusions

The study revealed that all of the six families' ancestors migrated from the province of Fujian (Hokkien), China. Like all the Chinese, they had good skills in trading using family business culture. Trading and service, the main careers of them could be described in two phases. The first phase was from the reign of King Rama V (1868-1910) to the reign of King Rama VII (1925-1935). The commercial areas were on Nakorn Nai Road and Nakorn Nork Road, where the shops built in Chinese architecture style were also used as their residences. Later, some residences were built in Chinese-Western style. Trading and service in this phase included retail and wholesale trades. Trading power expansion was also seen in this phase. Such expansion was done by way of monopolistic marketing. Apart from economic roles, some of those ancestors had social roles as they had chances to assist local authorities and the Governor of Songkhla, whose ancestors were also migrated from Fujian. When they became wealthy, they had potential to build public benefits such as public health and religious facilities. Moreover, because of the interaction of those ancestors and the royalty, the nobility, as well as public servant, some of them were granted titles and some were even given last name from the King, thereby resulting in socially upgraded of these families. In the second phase, from the reign of King Rama VIII (1935-1946) to the year 1960, a business was operated by the newer generation. Western technologies were brought and implemented in their businesses. Some families could even transform their family businesses to an international ones. It can be concluded that those ancestors had the role on the growth of economic of Songkhla as they made Songkhla BoYang a commercial center during their times until 1960. The ancestors' life style of living, the blend of

local and Chinese cultures, has brought about the Songkhla BoYang's specific identity which could be seen through architecture, tradition and belief, and cuisine.

At present, Songkhla BoYang is on the way transforming to a historical old town as stated by ONEP in 2011 that Songkhla has been classified as Old Town because of its outstanding characteristics and has evidences of historical or architectural value as well as a continuously livable town. The challenges of transforming to be Songkhla historical Old Town are those of participations from local authorities, public and private sectors. It is expected that this study, a piece of local history of Songkhla Old Town conveyed by the descendants of the six target families should be one that promote Songkhla Old Town in historical tourism context.

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Korean shamanism in transition evolving toward a new religion in the east coast of the U.S.

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Should “newness” be identified by the notion of “different, albeit converging” with traditional practice, Korean diasporic shamanism in the U.S. is evolving toward a new religion by mediating between the culturally attributed power of spirits and the currently “othered” life of the Korean diaspora and functioning as “a culturally alternative remedial mechanism” in the Christianized diasporic community in the U.S. Korean diasporic shaman is learning to respond differently to the question how to Americanize one’s own Koreanized practice of diasporic shamanism. This paper introduces aspects of subjectivized rituals and, cultural and spiritual negotiation of Korean shamanism in the practice of diasporic context, which can greatly contribute to the production of variation or change of landscape in the practice of Korean diasporic shamanism.

Keywords: Korean Shamanism, Diasporic Community, Religion and Transmigration, Ritual Negotiation, New Religion,

Introduction: Korean Shamanism in the New Cultural Context

This paper presents an ethnographic study of Korean shamanism, particularly focusing on the shamanic practice in the East Coast of the U.S. The discussion draws on fieldwork undertaken over a period of eight years, from 2004 to 2011, and in particular on new qualitative data from extensive interviews and observations focusing on three primary shaman informants, Lee Bosal, Kang monk shaman, and M Doryeong, and some fifteen clients of the informants.

Korean diasporic shamanism represents part of the cultural endowment that has accompanied the call of Korean diaspora, supporting a new life in the U.S. by way of reinventing part of traditionally collective ethos through the presentation in its rituals of the authoritative images, the military costumes, the weapon-like ritual props, and the central moral virtues of the early *Joseon* society (Lee 1981, 31-4; Haeoe Kongbokwan 1996, 65). In this light, the practice of Korean diasporic shamanism can be identified as “the return of a form of institutional repression” dating back to the past regime of the early *Joseon* society (Spiro 1967, 141), one that has continued to be present in Korean community, and has made the journey across the sea with immigrants.²¹ Hence, the diasporic shamanic ritual functions as a culturally alternative remedial mechanism in the Christianized diasporic community by mediating between the culturally attributed power of spirits and the currently “othered” life of the Korean diaspora in the U.S.

Shamans are regarded as very insignificant presence, if not totally negative, within the Korean diasporic community that has been substantially constituted by evangelical Protestantism

²¹ I am deeply indebted to Melford Spiro for the insightful remark in his research, *Burmese Supernaturalism*, in which he identifies Burmese Buddhism as “an institutionalized form of repression and the “nat festival” as “an institutionalized form of the return of the repressed.” Nonetheless, I borrow here only the literal implication of his insightful remark, a repression of traditional culture. My research area is a much more individualized form of diasporic shamanic practice, whereas Spiro’s work concerns the institutionalized Burmese Buddhism.

since the earliest migration history in the U.S (Guillermo 1991, 40; Kim and Patterson 1974, 57-58; GBGM 2000).²² In fact, Korean diasporic churches have provided a home for the Korean diaspora not only by sheltering the sense of cultural confrontation in keeping with a shared experience of traditional ethnization but also by assisting the everyday compromise to be adequately Americanized in the new social environment through networking, reassuring communal belonging, and facilitating various cultural and legal services for positive survival. Functionally, the Protestant diasporic church provides the heart of Korean life in the U.S., which by itself represents a holistic web of cultural, spiritual, psychological, and physical resources and helps to support the Korean diaspora within varied contextual challenges in the cross-cultural life. So, it is perhaps adequate to say, in this regard, that having affiliated with the diasporic church means not only having access to various resources to acquire manifold benefits but also reaffirming the self-identity by belonging to their own distinctive ethnic community. Whereas in contrast, Korean diasporic shamans are considered as a counter-presence for this culturally Christianized community. Unlike the diasporic church, diasporic shamanism represents no shared system or community at all and, is, thus, unable to assist the imminent needs of the Korean diaspora. Korean diasporic shamans themselves are neither welcomed as part of the community nor do they have access to those resources to help themselves, a contrast with shamans in Korea that exist in a religiously plural context in which shamanism is more accepted. In other distinction to Korea, the clients of shamans in the U.S. are more likely to be Christians. In this new social venue, Korean diasporic shamans yet find ways to fill “the little space for alternative practice” (Sorrensen 1989, 163), being culturally deviant and communally isolated, but continuing to reinvent the collectively conventional homeland ethos in the life of Korean diaspora.

From Tradition to Change

Korean diasporic shamanic ritual in practice of the East Coast in the U.S. is undergoing slow change in the process of adapting to the new cultural environment and a different geographical location. In terms of Annemarie de Waal Malefijt’s notion of internal and external variables that impact upon cultural change, the character of “cultural receptivity” may be a very important aspect for understanding the impact of a change in the religious landscape together with the associated change in ritual practice in the new cultural context (1968, 329). Receptivity is imperative for the diaspora, but the nature of cultural receptivity often involves an encounter with counter-impulses from the new cultural contact, causing tension as people seek a balance between the old and new, and between confrontation and compromise. In the encounter with

²² Less than a hundred years after the onset of Protestant missions in the Korean peninsula, the first group of Korean immigrants embarked in 1903 to immigrate as agricultural laborers in the sugarcane plantations in Hawaii. They brought with them their early missionary Protestantism even before this western Protestant tradition was well settled in Korea itself. Some members from the Naeri Methodist Church, a church founded by the Methodist missionary Henry G. Appenzeller, were on board among these first immigrants and took a leading role in laying the cornerstone of a longstanding history of protestantization in the Korean diasporic community in the U.S. Although the working conditions were excruciatingly exploitive on the sugarcane plantations, and the living situations were a poverty level, the very first thing that the Korean diaspora accomplished as a group in Hawaii was organizing a Christian church by the following year in 1904. This church, the Korean Methodist Church, was not only the first diasporic church operating as a faith-based religious community but also as a multi-functional ethnic resource center for the Korean immigrants, laying the ground-work for the extensive and continuing spread of Korean diasporic Protestant churches throughout the U.S. ever since.

many limits set by new legal and environmental codes in the diasporic context, Korean diasporic shamans in the East Coast are, on the one hand, resolutely resisting influences from the new cultural context. So, they attempt to be resistant to changes in keeping with their traditionized form of shamanic practice in the diasporic cultural environment. However, the diasporic shamans have already partially opened the door to cultural negotiation with the Western Christianity, considered as one of the most unpleasant encounters in their traditional shamanic practice in Korea, by accepting clients mainly from the Christianized diasporic community in the U.S. In addition, some foreign, local spirits also begin to be part of the diasporic shamanic pantheon, which reflects changes of the landscape in the practice of Korean diasporic shamanism. The performance of traditional Korean shamanic rituals have often been compared to theatrical plays or human dramas due to the inclusion of various art forms, colorful costumes, dance, emotionally driven narratives; the ritual can become viewed as entertainment (Kendall 1983, 166; Choi 1989, 246). Most of all, the ritual impersonations, enacted by the shaman of spirit figures who appear in connection with real life stories that arouse the sympathy of the audience, can easily lead outsiders to the given ritual context to view the rituals as theatrical drama. Actually, in providing the appearance of a “show,” the shamanic rituals performed in the public arena in Korea have been a great attraction for villagers or visitors in the past (Wilson 1985, 26).

However, the full coursed, dramatized, enjoyable “show” performed by Korean charismatic shamans in multi-colorful costumes, may no longer part of the scene in the diasporic cultural context in the East Coast of the U.S.²³ As mentioned, the ever present legal and environmental limitations serve to eliminate the very visible, audible, non-Western, Korean “native” rituals from public arena or residential neighborhoods in the diasporic cultural arena. Even Korean immigrants themselves do not welcome the public performance of Korean shamanic rituals in the U.S. Furthermore, as for the diasporic clients’ confidentiality, assigned a high priority in the discreet search for the shaman, the rituals performed for their life remedies and/or good fortunes are incompatible with public disclosure within the Christianized diasporic community.

Meanwhile, the restricted availability of appropriate time and location for both the shaman and the client also contributes to inventing reduced forms of summary ritual in the diasporic shamanic practice in the East Coast. In other words, there is a virtue in effective “quickness” in the ritual as opposed to a lengthy, time consuming shamanic ritual, from the perspective of both client and shaman due to the less flexible circumstances of time and space in the life of the diasporic world. Moreover, particularly on the part of shamans, uninterrupted time and protected spaces for ritual performance should be a requisite condition so as to achieve the ritual efficacy even in the virtue of “quickness.”

My female diasporic shaman informant was able to secure a relatively large space for her rituals that was quite separate from her consultation office, which provided her with considerable flexibility in her shamanic practice. Whereas other shamans have to travel about seeking appropriate creeks or forests for freely performing rituals, she no longer has to spend time searching for a reasonably protected ritual space as being even able to maintain outdoor altars for the *yongshin*, the water spirit, and the *seaonwang*, the village tutelary spirit. Her forest mansion even included a small Buddhist shrine and a well-furnished, sizable guest room for clients who may need to stay over after a lengthy nighttime ritual, though most clients left fairly quickly after

²³ The East Coast shamanic setting may be different in some ways than the West Coast of the U.S. On the Tenth anniversary of L.A. Rodney King Riots, Kumhwa Kim joined by twelve others, publicly performed rituals, and had come back to perform at UCLA (<http://articles.latimes.com/2002/apr/21/entertainment/ca-looseleaf2>).

ritual consultations or ritual performances. Meanwhile, the situation of the male diasporic shaman informant, M Doryeong, did not have sufficient space and residential freedom to have lengthy consultation and/or rituals at his “office” where he combined his professional and personal space in a small rental unit that he shared with a house mate. Maintaining a tiny apartment room in a built-up urban area for his shamanic altar and engaged in part time work at nail salon, he could not himself provide an appropriate space for a lengthy ritual or any type of apprenticeship. Accordingly, for some expansive rituals, he had to search for a safe outdoor space near some running water or a mountain quite apart from his urban residence. This search was also difficult for him to take care of by himself because he did not have a means of transport or driver’s license apart from the public transportation system.

In general, the shamanic clients appeared quickly and left fairly soon after achieving the purposes of their visits to the shaman. Some clients showed up together with their own ritual offerings, but others did not attend their own ritual proceedings, leaving the ritual process solely in the hands of the shaman. In either situation, a basic desire of the clients was to have “quick” resolutions for their problems or instant good fortunes. This demand for the virtue of “quickness” is also quite associated with the clients’ awareness of the tainted reputation of shamanism, regarded as superstition, and involving their vulnerability and shame as the emotional response to it in the predominantly Christianized diasporic context.

The demand of “quickness” seemed to be also a factor in the marked reduction of the colorful representation of shamanic costumes in the diasporic shamanic rituals, as compared with the homeland practice in Korea. Tae-gon Kim asserts that the charismatic shamanic costume is a ritual symbol, representing the state of the shaman controlled by the ego of a deity or spirit (1988, 128). Recognizing the quintessential aspect of spirit possession in traditional Korean shamanism, his remark denotes that the shamanic costumes as a means of shamanic manifestation symbolically represent the presence of the shamanic deities. However, the diasporic shamans whom I observed in my fieldwork in the East Coast never put on traditional shamanic costumes during their rituals. Although traditional shamanic ritual props were widely used, the colorful shamanic costumes filled their closets but were never used during the many rituals that I observed or participated in. The closest approximation involved Kang monk shaman, the husband of Lee Bosal, who often wore the gray, baggy pants and the traditional Buddhist robe over them that was similar to part of the traditional Kendo uniform. Lee Bosal, the female shaman, sometimes wore the gray, baggy pants that were commonly used by female Buddhist devotees in Korea. But, for most other ritual occasions, she got dressed in casual clothing. M Doryeong, a male shaman, was always in casual clothes within and beyond the ritual setting, usually in a pair of dark color sports pants or baggy pants and a random T-shirt. Overall, this situation simply but apparently meant that the traditional, time consuming proceeding with colorful representation of costumes and charismatic shamanic deities was gradually replaced by summary forms of ritual, corresponding to the contextual limit and following the client’s desire for a “quick” resolution in the diasporic shamanic practice.

The emphasis on “quickness” also seemed to contribute to eliminating dramatic momentum from the diasporic shamanic ritual, as represented by the theatrical characters richly portrayed in traditional Korean shamanic ritual scenes. When the “quick” resolution was favored, it shortened the ritual duration by focusing on achieving the ritual objective and, thus, this situation consequently produced ritual performance that, in comparison with traditional rituals in Korea, were quite plain and uninspiring. The dramatic and symbolic moments with cries, laughs, or sarcastic narratives being exchanged between the

shaman and the possessing spirits, often involving even the clients, were apparently seldom observed in the diasporic shamanic ritual. Instead, the shaman-centered divinations and the associated rituals that focused on problems and questions in search of resolutions took precedence and bypassed the dramatic elements in the yearning for a quick remedy. The atmosphere of diasporic shamanic ritual, therefore, mostly seemed rather serious and tense, mostly less entertaining.

Once the ritual proceeding was completed, acquiring certain types of shamanic remedies or promises for good fortunes, the shamanic clients quickly went back to their routine life in the mainstream, Christianized diasporic community. The experience with the shamans would be set aside for some time as they were back in their everyday life. However, their experience of the checkered life will lead them again to contemplating a traditional, culturally established, common-sense, “*jeom-ina-chireo-gal-gga?*”, “Shall I go for a divination?” So, the shaman will seek out for another “quick” remedy that creates “a third space,” an alternative space for the diasporic shamanic practice that is ethnized by traditional Korean collective consciousness, but excluded from the Christianized diasporic community and invisible hence to the broader society in the U.S.

Should “newness” be identified by the notion of “different, albeit converging” with traditional practice, Korean diasporic shamanism in the U.S. is evolving toward a new religion (Clarke 2006, 9). The probative analysis of diasporic shamanism as “engaged with the modern society from the one which they originated,” may be fairly pertinent to understanding the significance of the “new” practice of Korean shamanism in the U.S. (Arweck 2002, 265). In this regard, considering the scholarly discussion in the rise of a new religious movement, I do not attempt to either speculate about Korean diasporic shamanic practice as an “option for spirituality” that can enrich an individual’s true-self, or degrade it as a kind of “cult” or “sect” that, properly or not, seems to carry a negative nuance (Clarke 2006, 7;9; Hunter 1983, 13; Wilson 1983, 217). However, concerning the trace of something “new” within the Korean diasporic shamanic arena that deviates from the traditional form of shamanic practice in Korea itself, it seems useful to examine the trend of shamanic “subjectivization” in the new cultural context (Hunter 1983, 12). James Davison Hunter, citing Arnold Gehlen, refers to “subjectivization” as “a corollary process to de-institutionalization” (1983, 12). According to Hunter, subjective cultural choices apart from institutional routines assist to promote a kind of newness in the subjectively empirical arena that is liable to change (Hunter 1983, 12). In this regard, the trace of something new observed in the practice of Korean diasporic shamanism, including new deities, signifies a subjective induction that deviated from the traditional practice and that is caused by the individual shaman’s encounter with the new culture and by the geographical relocation.

Note, inter alia, the striking appearance of the American national flag commonly on the altars of Korean diasporic shamans that are unrelated with their spirit possessions, specifically on both altars of the diasporic shamans I encountered. This may seem insignificant at first glance, given the ubiquitous presence of the American national flag in the U.S. But it might also be regarded as rather significant in its connection with the ethnic diasporic shaman’s experience of spirit possession. Considering that each traditional religion is culturally identified and the specific cultural markers of each traditional religion are limited by its specific cultural location, involving the American national flag commonly in the Korean diasporic shamanic pantheon is unexpected, something not taken for granted unless its connection with the *momju* spirit. Apart from the American flag, the Korean shamanic altar has representations of only culturally constituted traditional shamanic deities and the associated offerings to them, again unless the connection with the foreign *momju* spirit. It is, therefore,

noticeable that the general presentation of the American national flag is an unusual symbol that is disconnected from the Korean shamanic tradition. Meanwhile, in that each national flag is an emblem that represents the pride, culture, and identity of a particular country, the common appearance of the American national flag on the Korean diasporic shamanic altar seems quite foreign. With the display of this flag on the altar, the Korean diasporic shamanic practice is culturally located, but its cultural identity is no longer indicated as strictly Korean. Instead, it has become an in-between cultural practice, both Korean and American as expressed by the symbolic presence of two national flags as part of the display in the diasporic shamanic altar. Also, keeping with the presence of two flags, a cultural negotiation with the foreign spirits is potentiated, involving local, American spirits in the diasporic shamanic practice. In this regard, Lee Bosal simply remarked that the display of American national flag on her altar was a symbolic recognition of current location of her shrine and shamanic practice in the U.S. Considering that her first husband was a Native American and that the current area of her shrine property was a local Native American residence in the past, the presence of American national flag on the Lee Bosal's altar might also symbolize her openness particularly to the local Native American spirits. Moreover, M Doryeong seemingly provided a very compatible and realistic comment about the small set of three American flags placed on his altar. He commented that the specific number three was the shamanic deities' favorite number and that the presence of American national flag on his diasporic shamanic altar signified reverence given to the local American spirits whom he did not want to offend. Admittedly, these observations point to the recognition by the shamans of their acknowledgement of traditional practice in a new geographical and cultural context.

This comment of M Doryeong was reflected in the physical appearance of a new altar at Lee Bosal's shamanic shrine, named "the U.S. *sanshin*," the U.S. mountain deity. Lee Bosal's shamanic shrine was located nearby a mountainside, so she had given recognition and honor to the local mountain spirit, thereby inventing a new shamanic deity and inducing a new altar into her diasporic shamanic pantheon. Negotiating not to offend a local mountain spirit in the area of her shrine, Lee Bosal offered honor and represented the deity. As part of performing a successful ritual, according to her, initial authorization by the U.S. *sanshin* was required by reporting to the deity prior to any scheduled ritual performance. Lee Bosal said that she served the new deity with as much honor as she served the traditional shamanic deities of her diasporic practice.

It is a symbolic reaction as part of cultural negotiation with the non-traditional, local spirits of the foreign country by way of the recognition of a new deity and invitation to a new altar into the pantheon of Korean diasporic shamanism. This diasporic shamanic reaction to the foreign locale and its spirit, furthermore, signifies the potential of differentiation from altar to altar and from ritual to ritual, reliant upon each specific local environment in which each individual shaman resides while practicing diasporic shamanism in the U.S. Individual diasporic shamans may continue to distinctively include local U.S. spirits into her/his practice, creating a distinctive title and inventing a new altar. In this light, the subjectivized choice of each shaman can greatly contribute to the production of variation or changes among the traditional list of shamanic deities, altar settings, and ritual forms in subsequent diasporic shamanic practice.

As a concluding feature, it may be noteworthy as to how the individual Kang monk shaman creates the immense impact upon the differentiation of ritualization in the diasporic shamanic practice at the Lee Bosal's shrine. Drawing upon his long-term Buddhist transition from fairly traditional Buddhist monkhood to becoming a charismatic

shaman, his Buddhist formation and his presumption of traditional male dominance played a major role in his transformations of the ritual practice at Lee Bosal's shrine. Kang monk shaman's Buddhist formation was markedly strong so as to affect changes in the blending avenue of diasporic shamanic rituals.

The ritual in traditional Korean shamanism is, in general, the shaman-led, dialogical proceeding interactively with the spirits, which modality is fundamentally distinct from the collectively or communally involving performance and/or spirit possession. Thus, it is meaningful to compare the performance of Korean shamanic ritual, in general, to traditional theatrical plays staged in a dialogical interplay between the actor/actress and audience. Similarly, the shamanic audience stays on the observer's side in general rather than participating in the other's ritual proceeding. In contrast, traditional Buddhist ritual invites all the devotees to partake in the ritual kowtows and to engage in contemplation in the practice. Buddhist ritual seeks more directly to enrich the spirituality of the devotees who are present, whereas Korean shamanic ritual is appropriated for client remedies. In this regard, a personal remark by Lee Bosal is quite illuminating: "My belief is in Buddhism whereas my calling is to shamanism." In this context, then, Kang monk shaman involved all of the audience in the ritual, creating his own "Buddhist" congregation at Lee Bosal's shrine. He invited all the attendees to engage in shamanic-Buddhist contemplation and to join in the associated spirituality, accentuating particularly extended kowtowing and producing a Buddhist-shamanic effervescence during the ritual at the shamanic shrine in the forest. In this, his Buddhist ethos contributed immensely to the shamanic ritual leading to gradual differentiation at Lee Bosal's diasporic shamanic shrine. Greatly contributing to this ritual influence was also "the personal relationship" of Lee Bosal with Kang monk shaman as husband and wife. Taken together with other cultural adaptations overall, it emphasizes the malleability of the Korean shamanic practice in the diasporic context of the U.S., alerting to potential changes and adjustments from the impacts of shamanic subjectivized choices and/or cultural shift to the diasporic life.

Conclusion

Current Korean diasporic shamanic practice is still very similar with the traditional forms of practice, in the ritual placements of altar setting, the deities invoked, and the foot table, the reasons that clients come, but its potential for change with some new inclusions is already observable. The most variable factor in this gradual change is connected with the atmosphere of shamanic subjectivization, as indicated, in the diasporic practice in facing the new cultural and social conditions in the U.S. and potential changes within the Korean diasporic community. In my observations, each Korean diasporic shaman is learning to respond differently to the question as to how to Americanize one's own Koreanized practice of diasporic shamanism. The overwhelming Christian context of the Korean diasporic community is one of the biggest differences from Korea, where Christians are about a quarter of the population; thus the diasporic shamans struggle to settle into a new cultural condition, even open to negotiation with the local, foreign spirits and somewhat with other established Korean religious traditions in order to prevent conflicts from the representation of traditional native Korean spirits in her/his diasporic practice. So, the foreign spirits of a specific locale are favorably invited to partake in the feast with the traditional shamanic deities in the Korean diasporic shamanic pantheon. Calling forth the traditional deities to the othered life in the U.S., the Korean diasporic shaman help acquire "quick" remedies and/or good fortunes for the preponderantly Christianized, first generation, nostalgic diasporic clients. The diasporic shamans still repeatedly enact what they have learned from their shaman teachers, but they will gradually change their ritual fashions in the diasporic

practice, corresponding to their experience of new, foreign spirits in the new cultural, social geographic context in the U.S. They may deviate from traditional practice, but this process is neither rapid nor radical. However, over time, assuming that the diasporic shamanic practice will survive even if only on the fringes, it will take on new forms and contribute to further deviations from traditional forms of practice in Korea, in the long run, leading to innovations of varied ritual forms in the arena of diasporic shamanic practice and including various foreign spirits in the pantheon of Korean diasporic shamanic practice.

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Communication Complexity in New Nuclear Powers in Asia: Discourse and Governance in China and India

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This paper examines the mechanism and the difficulty of nuclear communication in emerging nuclear-energy powers in Asia. The nuclear accident in Fukushima has re-drawn a lot of attention to the importance of communication management in nuclear-related issues along with technological development of power plans. Of new nuclear powers in Asia, China and India are planning to generate tens of gigawatt electrical (GWe) nuclear energy by 2020. Case studies of China and India's policy discourses of nuclear energy help us understand the complexity of nuclear communication in which networked communications among experts, both domestic and international business stakeholders, local residents and interest groups, the state, and an international community are exercised. The paper also attempts to reframe the traditional understanding of one-sided communication in nuclear risk management from state authority to the general public. In particular, it focuses on how the rhetorical practice, as the mode of persuasion, of the invisibility of unpredictable nuclear plant accidents and the visibility of economic profits from nuclear energy are played out in various discourses. The communicative complexity of nuclear energy must be understood in transnational context from the lens of the current particular historical and political situation.

Keywords: nuclear energy, nuclear communication management, new nuclear powers in Asia

Rule out the negative sides of Brain Drain

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Brain drain means the transfer of talents from a less developed country to a developed one through temporary or permanent migration. This phenomenon takes place across the continents characterized by South-to-North migration, chained or permanent migrations are inevitably hindering the development of countries of origin by vacuuming the talents who have been nurtured and educated there throughout their youths, leading to an indirectly net transfer of capitals from a poorer country to a well-off one. Recognizing the inherent gap between Southern and Northern countries in economy and social stability, this paper shows how brain drain can be utilized constructively and how the fundamental weaknesses of less developed countries can be tackled. Politically, Southern countries should strive for enhancing national security and formulating measures to tackle local issues such as corruption and democracy; secondly, clear direction of development is indispensable to especially propagandize to attract migrants and foreign investments, frequent connections with emigrants can definitely fuel the effectiveness; in the area of localism, national consciousness and cultural attractions are key elements in promoting return migration or even north-to-south migration, that is, making the country livable, vibrant, attractive and comfortable to stay and work.

Keywords: Brain Drain, Migration, Development

‘Moving out the kitchen’: contemporary Bugis migration

Mukrimin Mukrimin

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Migration has become an essential part of Bugis identity. In fact, statistically, the number of Bugis who live outside their homeland now is bigger than the numbers who live in their homeland of South Sulawesi. This presentation aims to provide a study of pattern and dynamic of contemporary Bugis migration. It is focused on the pattern of Bugis migration in a resource frontier area, Baras, in North Mamuju, West Sulawesi. I attempt to answer the following questions: What are the motives of the Bugis for permanent migration? How do they create and sustain their communities in a frontier world? How do they penetrate and dominate in existing communities? And, importantly, what has and has not changed in the dynamic of Bugis migration? In this ethnographic study, I employed a variety of qualitative methods, such as in-depth and open-ended interviews and participant observation along other tools of inquiry. Based on literature and fieldwork research, I argue that unlike their migrant predecessors, the Bugis in Baras, West Sulawesi are permanent migrants, who follow the local pattern of “mallekke’ dapureng” (‘moving out the kitchen’).

A pluralistic approach to improving indigenous health in Peninsular Malaysia

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Scholars of multidiscipline shared similar concluding remarks that indigenous people across the world, including the *Orang Asli* of Peninsular Malaysia, have significantly poorer health status compared with the wider mainstream population. This poor health is associated with poor socioeconomic status, differing concepts of health and illness, and alternative health seeking behaviour. With government development programs to integrate the *Orang Asli* into the main stream of national economy, many subgroups of *Orang Asli* have engaged in modern agricultural activities and modern manufacturing sector. As they move from traditional to modern lifestyles, they are facing social and environmental challenges, particularly in the aspects of health and illness. This study aims to investigate their culturally related health care practices inherited from their ancestral indigenous community, especially on the use of self-medication and home remedies. Focus of study includes an examination on their healthcare system in this modern age. We conduct a mixed method research employing questionnaire survey, in-depth interviews and participant-observations in 30 villages in Peninsular Malaysia. Our results showed that these *Orang Asli* communities subscribe to their traditional healing practices of which are constantly used together with Western biomedicine. Recommendations are made for a medical pluralistic approach to be recognized by policy makers.

Keywords: indigenous people, medical pluralism, Peninsular Malaysia, traditional healing practices, *Orang Asli*

Introduction

Since the 1970s, anthropologists have had a focus on medical pluralism. For example, studies on complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) in India indicate that the Indian Ministry of Health and Family Welfare identifies Ayurveda, Unani, Siddha and Homeopathy as Indian Systems of Medicine of which Indian citizens regularly use these medicines to support biomedicine (Taylor and Leslie 1973; Seehan 2009). In other parts of the world, in countries such as China, Taiwan, Korea and the United States, traditional medicines are considered well established and commonly used besides Western medicines (Chi et al. 1996; Barnes et al. 2004; Chung et al. 2007; Wade et al. 2008). Most of the studies on CAM use amongst children and adults have been carried out in the Western countries, particularly in the United State of America (Eisenberg et al. 1998; Davis and Darden 2003; Tindle et al. 2005). So much so that, Eisenberg, one of the researchers, has proposed for the medical doctors to enquire about patients' use of unconventional medicines whenever they obtain patients' medical histories (see Eisenberg et al 1993).

Researchers of multidiscipline defined Medical Pluralism (MP) as the employment of more than one medical system or the use of both conventional medicine and unconventional

medicine for health and illness (Heggenhougen 1980; Shih et al., 2010; Wade et al. 2008). Previous researches have documented the increased adopting model of medical pluralism for indigenous culture of Maori in New Zealand (Mark and Chamberlain 2012) and remote Aboriginal communities in Australia (Saethre 2007). Some specific studies carried out in rural Malaysia, on multiplicity of medical system used by multi-ethnic Malaysia population, was quite some time ago (Heggenhougen 1980). However, the need and possibilities for collaboration between biomedicine and traditional health practices of the indigenous people in Peninsular Malaysia ought to be investigated more closely.

The tradition of medical pluralism has existed among the indigenous people of Peninsular Malaysia for a long time. Many factors explained the co-existence of several systems of medicine and practitioners, including availability of modern health care since colonial rule, economic affordability and religious faith (Bedford 2009; Nicholas and Baer 2007). To the best of our knowledge, there have been no studies reporting the interaction of biomedicine use with alternative traditional indigenous medicines and practices. This study aims to investigate Orang Asli culturally related health care practices inherited from their ancestral indigenous community, especially on the use of self-medications and home remedies. Focus of study includes an examination on their healthcare system in this modern age.

The Indigenous People or the *Orang Asli* of Peninsular Malaysia

The predominant indigenous people of Peninsular Malaysia are the *Orang Asli* who makes up a total population of 187,000 (Department of Orang Asli Development, 2013). Experts have divided the Orang Asli, based on their anthropological descent, into three general categories of 'Negrito', 'Senoi' and 'Proto-Malays'. Each of these three groups can be further differentiated into six subgroups, each with its own culture, language, religion and subsistence lifestyle. Under Negrito, there are six sub groups - Kensiu, Kintaq, Jahai, Mendriq, Bateq and Lanoh. These sub groups can be found at the northern part of the Peninsula namely in Kedah, North Perak, Kelantan (Gua Musang) and Ulu Terengganu. As for the Senoi, there are six sub groups namely the Temiar, Semai, Jahut, Che Wong (Pahang), Semoq Beri and Mahmeri. Many of these sub groups can be found in Central Perak, South Perak, Pahang and Selangor. The Proto-Malays Group consists of six sub groups - Temuan, Jakun, Semelai, Orang Kuala, Orang Seletar and Orang Kanaq. Many of them can be found in Johor, Melaka, Negeri Sembilan, South Pahang and part of Selangor (Edo and Fadzil, 2004).

Still in trying to cope with the adjustment to the rapid development of the mainstream society, they are at all stages of development, from the most primitive to the most sophisticated (Benjamin, 1976). The most prominent development program initiated by The Department of Orang Asli Development (JAKOA) is named as "Resettlement Plan Scheme" or also known as "Regroupment Schemes". This program has been carried out due to the powerful interests on timber and minerals, conversion into oil palm or rubber plantations, golf courses, hydroelectric power installations, the Kuala Lumpur International Airport and other development projects coveting the Orang Asli land (Nicholas and Baer 2007). The Orang Asli were then resettled in rural and semi-rural locations, or on the outskirts of larger cities, where they are encouraged to integrate into mainstream society. According to the Malaysian government policies, the relocation programs of Orang Asli aim at drawing the Orang Asli into "the mainstream of society" (Gomes, 2004).

With regard to the “Resettlement Plan Scheme” adopted by the Orang Asli, moving out of the forest led to changes in their lifestyle and living environment. This changes subsequently brought changes to their healthcare system. As the Orang Asli are being situated near to larger cities, among others, the changed environmental conditions caused the spread of infectious disease such as common cold, cough and running nose among the Orang Asli children particularly. Also, those settlements with higher population densities would sustain parasitical infections over a longer period (Chee, 1992). Besides, there are other health problems such as increased social stress and skin problem as well as pollution-caused diseases, which are associated with living in urban environment in crowded areas.

Scholars of multidiscipline shared similar concluding remarks that indigenous people across the world, which include the *Orang Asli* in Peninsular Malaysia, have significantly poorer health status for the nation state in which they reside (Stephens et al. 2006; Ring and Brown 2003). Review of health literatures (Polunin 1953; Baer 1999; Bedford 2009) on indigenous people of Peninsular Malaysia show that health experience of Orang Asli is somberly different from that of the wider mainstream population. This poor health is associated with socioeconomic status, lifestyle factors, differing concepts of health and illness, and alternative health seeking behaviour.

Further to the continuous research finding patterns showing poorer general health status of the Orang Asli as compared to the mainstream citizens, studies into the accessibility of health services provided by the mainstream government echo the above explanations. For that, research done in relation to mainstream orthodox medical approach in upholding these indigenous health has been primarily clinical (e.g. Dunn 1972), and workdone on traditional healing system (e.g. Lee and Chang 2009). However, none of these works have addressed the central question of how these indigenous people have been adapting themselves to the mainstream healthcare system when many of them still hold strong beliefs in their traditional medicine.

Despite much excellent work on research themes such as health care for the Orang Asli and their engagement with traditional healers, scholars examining the role of mainstream health care providers in improving the health conditions of the indigenous people have not yet explored the importance of the role of Orang Asli in adapting themselves into a new health approach. Yet, without such an understanding, we are left with an inadequate analysis that creates the condition for ill-informed policy making decisions. This study will remedy this gap in the literature by examining the efforts of the Orang Asli in adapting to new orthodox health care approach amidst old traditional health beliefs and traditional healings in order to more fully elucidate the heretofore-unrecognized claims of narrow-minded resistance to change in one highly contested indigenous context.

Health and Illness of the Orang Asli of Peninsular Malaysia

This section presents a short discussion on previous studies that show how the indigenous people or Orang Asli in Peninsula Malaysia deals with the matters of health and illness. Particularly, the discussion seeks to explore the sociocultural phenomena that occur in health and illness of Orang Asli including their illness experiences and behaviours, their understanding of health and illness, and the choice of treatment as well as their healing process. This description is in line with what Kleinman (1980: 49-60) termed as “healthcare system,” which means a cultural system integrally interrelated with local patterns of meaning, power, and social interaction.

Then, Roseman (1993) in her study on Orang Asli Temiars found that the Temiars community subscribes to a similar model of healthcare system as defined by Kleinman. The Temiar's healthcare system includes self-medication of the Temiar people using herbal remedies from jungle, in addition to the more specialized herbal knowledge and spirit séance used by mediums and midwives in performing diagnosis and treatment to the Temiars. In the cases of unsuccessful diagnosis and treatment, the Temiars then turn to free Western medical care and treatment at a government hospital or clinic nearby their settlements. However, if patient does not have a successful outcome despite treatment, the Temiars will then return to their mediums in the settlement.

Next, as many of the Orang Asli subgroups are still residing in the jungle, most of them are in a state of transition. Majority of them leaving their traditional cycle of agricultural work and rely on gathering forest products such as fish and rattan. In doing do, the Orang Asli community had to face the social and environmental challenges. On one hand, this group of indigenous people recognized that their standards of living must be raised. On the other hand, many of them resist giving them up or allowing them to be subsumed or compromised as they are still proud of their traditions and heritage, which include their sociocultural values (Nicholas, 2000). The above mentioned social and environmental challenges have shown certain effects on the livelihood of this group of indigenous people. Here, in this study, we look into their culturally related healthcare practices inherited from their ancestral indigenous community, particularly with regards to the use of self-medication and home remedies. Focus of study also emphasized on how much change has affected their healthcare system in this modern age.

Methodology

Study participants and research methods

The present study was conducted within selected Orang Asli communities from 30 villages located in the state of Pahang, Peninsular Malaysia. Adults of 18 years old and above from the Orang Asli communities participated in this study (July 2013 – Jan 2015) by responding to semi-structured questionnaire. A mixed methods approach, combining both quantitative and qualitative research techniques, was employed. As this study engaged face-to-face interviews, 159 successful interviews were finally recorded at the end of our fieldwork duration. All interviews were carried out using Malay language. If the interviewee could not understand Malay language, another family member or neighbour who could speak dual languages (ethnic language as well as Malay language) was then used as an interpreter. The questionnaire developed for this study measuring the following characteristics: demographics, traditional understanding of illness and treatment; use of self-medications, use of home remedies, use of traditional healing practices, as well as use of modern healthcare system.

The average age of the participants was 36.81 years. Residence patterns revealed that 67% of the study population lives nearby town area. Average family size in the Orang Asli communities is 6 people. Language use was predominantly respective Orang Asli ethnic languages with 78% being able to speak the official language of the mainstream population – Malay language. English proficiency was extremely limited. Employment levels were low, with 46% being unemployed. Educational levels were low as few numbers in the communities were presently attending college and only limited individuals possessed a college degree. The median

range of income levels for this study group was less than Malaysian Ringgit (RM)10,000 per year.

Regarding qualitative methods, in-depth interviews were conducted with members of the community (15 men and 15 women) – Orang Asli villagers aged 60 and above. The interview schedule for this group of key informants included questions on traditional healing practices, the availability, access and utilization of various traditional health and illness rituals, and adaptation to biomedicine. All the participants identified for in-depth interviews knew Malay language, and hence all interviews were held in that language. Prior to interviewing, consent was obtained from each participant by explaining the purpose of the study.

Data management and analysis

The data obtained from the quantitative surveys were entered into a computer using Microsoft Excel, and analyses were carried out using SPSS. With regard to in-depth interviews, all the interview data were recorded by the first author as written field notes and were later transcribed before the study was concluded. The process of transcribing the field notes is considered beneficial in facilitating any independent viewers to understand the study better during the phase of data analysis (Poland, 1995; MacLean, et al., 2004). All the participants' names used in the transcribed data are pseudonyms, to ensure confidentiality. Throughout the whole study, the tape recorder was not used to record any forms of discussion between the researcher and informants. This was agreed earlier before fieldwork was carried out. This in turn had produced several positive contributions to the data collection process. For example, informants showed positive responses to most issues raised during the interviews.

In this study, data analysis deals with a large amount of field data derived from observing or interviewing research informants. In this context, data analysis was carried out with the objective of “making sense” of those unstructured textual-based field data. In relation to the process of “making sense” of the field data, the following discussions focus on the process of data analysis, which involves identifying and organising field data, followed by a process called unitising whereby the researcher extracted relevant data that contain common meanings. Then, the researcher continued to categorise those data extracted into several categories according to several broad themes, and this process is known as categorising. Later, the various categories of broad themes went through two more processes, synthesising the broad themes and then searching for similar patterns among the themes. Finally, the last process of data presentation involved presenting data based on the meanings emerged and interpreting from the previous synthesised broad themes (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982).

Results

The study results showed that *Orang Asli* communities subscribe to their traditional healing practices of which are constantly used together with Western biomedicine. Among the several health care incidents the first author encountered during her interactions with some of the Jah Hut and Che Wong tribes of Orang Asli; one of the incidents was an encounter with the sick wife of the headman or “*Tok Batin*” in one of the Orang Asli villages in Pahang. This incident provides a concrete example to elaborate the application of medical anthropology in investigating healthcare system among Orang Asli communities in Peninsula Malaysia. The

following description was extracted from her interview notes with the “*Tok Batin*”, Pak Ali, and aged 63:

According to Pak Ali, his wife had been suffering from stomach pain for the past one month. At the initial stage, his wife thought that it was due to “wind” in her stomach and she then treated herself by self-medication. Later, she began to feel constant and unbearable stomach pain; Pak Ali then approached the shaman (“bomoh”) in his village. The shaman performed some rituals, “jampi” (incantations). After the rituals, the shaman told Pak Ali and his wife to adhere to a number of taboos, such as his wife was to stay inside their house for one whole month. Also, their friends, relatives and neighbours were not allowed to visit her within the one month.

(Field note: 27 September 2013)

With regard to the above illness experience of Pak Ali’s wife, the study results were then categorized according to the study objectives such as the perception of health and illness; use of self-medication, use of home remedies, use of traditional healing practices, as well as the use of modern healthcare system by the Orang Asli communities.

Perception of Orang Asli on health and illness

The findings of this study indicates that a good understanding of the Orang Asli’s health beliefs and practices would subsequently assist in shaping their illness treatment alternatives. In addition, the Orang Asli communities possess a medical system, which includes traditional healers (using herbal and magical treatment), as well as formal health care institutions (government hospitals or clinics, including community-based mother and child health care clinics), and their healing practices, which are a part of their society.

Generally, the Orang Asli perceives a severe life-threatening illness as a concern of the whole village. This is evident in the above illness phenomenon of Pak Ali’s wife. Other illnesses, such as skin diseases, do not call for general concern, as the victims do not complaint much and majority of them could still carry out their routine responsibility. In terms of causes of illnesses, one of the reasons is the same as the findings of Vivien and Noor (2013) on Malaysian Chinese cancer survivor, the Orang Asli has long perceived severe illness as being the result of a spirit attack. To the indigenous communities in this study, most of them (86 percent) irrespective of their education level and occupational achievement have a strong belief that severe life-threatening illnesses are associated substantially with supernatural causes and being a divine punishment for their sins. However, as these Orang Asli communities were being resettled to places nearby town areas, they claim that their health status is much affected by the environmental and social factors surrounding their living place.

Juggling among self-medication, home remedies, biomedicine and traditional healers

When the indigenous people were asked what they do when a child is ill, a majority of them replied that they take it to the medical doctor for treatment. On further probing, it is revealed that the Orang Asli are pluralistic and approach different sources of care depending on the type and perceived severity of the illness. The pattern of health seeking behavior and the sources of health care are described below.

In general, when a family member feels uncomfortable physically, for example, having mild and non-serious illnesses such as headache, cold, cough, vomiting, diarrhoea and scabies; home remedies usually involve plant or herbal medicines that are known to most of the adult members of this community. This finding is further supported by the quantitative data collected from the Orang Asli communities. Most respondents, particularly the mothers (63%) revealed that they use home remedies to treat childhood illnesses in their family such as cold, cough and diarrhea. However, qualitative data indicates that most Orang Asli perceived that herbal or plant medicines are on the diminishing level due to deforestation and that these illnesses are therefore not being cured to the same extent as in earlier times. This has been cited by most of the young adults of Orang Asli communities (42%) as one of the reasons for preferring a medical doctor to home remedies even they are being attacked by mild illnesses like cough and cold.

In the event that if a mild illness such as diarrhoea is not cured after treated using home remedies, their elders, particularly their parents, will normally advise the patient to further seek treatment from a medical doctor based at a town nearby their villages. Qualitative data collected from key informants disclosed that this particular stage of health seeking behaviour is meant to acquire a confirmation on the actual cause of the illness. If a doctor tells the patient that his or her illness is caused by 'germs' or 'bacteria', the patient will then change to consume the Western medication prescribed by medical doctor. In-depth interviews on key informants of this study show that majority of the respondents were familiar with certain modern medical terms such as germs or bacteria, as a result of health education talks given by the Ministry of Health Malaysia.

However, if an illness is not cured even after seeking treatment from a medical doctor, most key informants disclosed that they then subscribed to a shared understanding that the particular illness is attributed to the anger of the ancestors or the interference of spirits preventing the patient to be relieved from sufferings. In such cases, the elderly Orang Asli would advise the particular patient to seek help from a distinguish traditional healer or 'shaman' in their villages. Throughout this study, qualitative data collected on traditional healing practices employed by different 'shaman' of different tribes of Orang Asli shows that similar practices of spiritual and traditional remedies have been used to act as intervention, in order to interact with supernatural power in seeking forgiveness for the betterment of the patient.

Subsequently, if the effort of the traditional healer or village shaman failed after a short duration (to be determined by the healer or shaman), the patient will be advised to again seek treatment from a medical doctor. And the same patient will be sent to a government hospital by then. However, after a few days at the hospital, if the doctor's treatment is perceived to be ineffective in curing the patient, the patient will be brought back to the village and continued to be treated using traditional healing methods.

Discussion

Health seeking behavior or care seeking behavior or treatment seeking behaviour – of which there are interchangeable, varies from culture to culture, as illness and treatment seeking are patterned by culture. Various communities' values, beliefs, practices and norms are associated with the selection and changing of sources of treatment. In the present study, the Orang Asli communities basically do not consider mild illness like headache and diarrhea as life threatening. Hence, self medication and home remedies are preferred as it is less expensive and basically consider as non-risky treatment because it is passed down from generation to generation.

However, if the illness is not cured by the initial home remedies, this indigenous people generally turn to biomedicine as they worry that the illness could be caused by some biological factors in their body.

In the very beginning, they try hard to avoid visiting a medical doctor. Beside fear of injections and surgery, long waiting hours and an inability to communicate freely about their illnesses are the reasons given for avoiding government clinics or hospitals. It is important to note that during severe illnesses, the Orang Asli prefer to ask for the patient to be discharged from the hospital and have the patient treated by village traditional healers again employing ritual and spiritual-based care. This last resort in seeking treatment of the Orang Asli is in line with the fighting spirit of any other community in the world – never give up even till the end (Vivien and Noor 2013).

In this study, research findings highlight the change in treatment seeking behaviour of the Orang Asli in the context of the severity of their illnesses. In other words, the perception of health and illness, specifically the perception of the severity of illnesses by the Orang Asli become the main factor that influences the treatment-seeking pattern. In this study, the Orang Asli's interpretation of an illness determines the type of treatment they seek.

The present study contemplates health and illness from the cultural point of view. The cultural interpretations of illnesses by the Orang Asli include understanding of human body in relation to external forces such as the social and environmental factors. For this, the communities are able to accept modern biomedical treatment in the event their home remedies and traditional healing practices fail to cure an illness. Consequently, due to variation in the severity of a single illness, treatments are sought from different health care sources; be it biomedical, traditional or spiritual. Henceforth, the emergent of the concept of medical pluralism whereby more than one tradition or medical system have been employed by the Orang Asli communities in seeking treatment for curing an illness.

In exploring medical pluralism, Arthur Kleinman (1973) created a sector model for understanding how multiple healing systems coexist in a society through three overlapping sectors of health care. Each sector distinctively explains illness and related treatment; determines the healer(s) and the patient and the ways in which they interact; and fixes on the course of treatment. In Kleinman's model, patient may move freely from one sector to the next and even to a third and then back again, especially when a cure is not effective or when a combination of approaches may seem optimal. As Kleinman states, health care may be "described as a local cultural system composed of three overlapping parts: the popular (traditional healers), the professional (medical doctors) and folk sectors (self medications)."

Conclusion

On one hand, the Orang Asli continue using self medication and home remedies due to far distance from town government hospitals or clinics as well as low economic status. On the other hand, government resettlement scheme causes them to live nearer to the mainstream industrial society, with the new diseases encountered; the Orang Asli somehow acknowledges the superiority of the modern medicine in several functions. Thus, a practical and pluralistic approach of treatment seeking coupled with whatever works attitude of the Orang Asli has been employed. One key point to emphasize in this study is that in contrast to previous assumptions, in fact indigenous communities are prepared for social change, in this context, the inclusion of modern health care so as to improve their health status. Now, the Malaysian government's policy

is to mainstreaming Orang Asli medical system within the public healthcare system. However, this study display evidence that home remedies and traditional herbal medicines nonetheless still remained a source of care for many of the Orang Asli communities. It is to propose for recommendations to be made for a medical pluralistic approach to be recognized by policy makers.

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The Dynamic Role of Strategic Framing in Shaping Social Movement Personae: Analyzing Metaphors of “Revolution” and “Movement” in 2014 Hong Kong Protests

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This paper focuses on the recent pro-democracy protests in Hong Kong and the rhetorical dynamics associated with them. Although commonly known in Western media as “Occupy Central,” activists in Hong Kong referred to the protests as either the “Umbrella Movement” or “Umbrella Revolution.” More than a simple dispute over word preference, the debate between these two labels has been a hotly contested issue both among the activists themselves and in the broader Hong Kong political discourse. Against this backdrop, this paper seeks to address three key questions. First and foremost, why has this debate been such a contested one? Second, what are the political stakes and constraints associated with these two labels? Third, how might these two labels have operated as frames that coordinated and shaped the personae and performances of key actors during the protest, and in turn, influenced the rhetorical dynamics surrounding the movement? This paper’s analysis demonstrates that strategic framing not only helps maintain a movement’s unified persona but also reshapes the persona of a movement’s opponents. Furthermore, strategic framing may lead to unintended consequences by creating a situation in which a movement is tasked with maintaining an impossible persona which in turn creates the opening for the strategic counter-framing of its opponents. This paper concludes by demonstrating the political and rhetorical stakes associated with the frames “movement” and “revolution. Furthermore, this paper theorizes the extent of possibilities and limitations of strategic framing in the 2014 Hong Kong protests, and how these frames may have served to reshape, maintain, and at times undermine the personae of key actors surrounding the movement.

Keywords: social movement, Hong Kong, political discourse

Narrating the nation - Gender and nationalistic narratives in Turkish school textbooks

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In my PhD thesis I am asking how gender operates in national(istic) narratives in primary school textbooks of Turkey since 1980. My general interest lies in the gendered textual and visual "stories" which are told to educate children as future citizens. Textbook contents - as being an essential part of public mass education and thus highly constructed - are considered to be a central institution for the dissemination of knowledge, intending to turn girls and boys into female and male citizens. As textbooks and curriculum are centralized and controlled by state authorities in Turkey, particularly nationalistic narratives can be deduced in this context. In my contribution I will elaborate on an essential part of the Turkish nationalistic narratives since its founding as a republic: the hegemonic narrative of embracing modernization. Within textbooks, this narrative can be deduced in several contexts. Gender, in fact, lies at the core of such constructions, as topics are being negotiated through gender in various ways. After a brief sociopolitical introduction on Turkey's last decades I will deconstruct through gender by analyzing specific examples taken from the subjects "Life Science" and "Social Science", "Religious Culture", and "Turkish" of primary school textbooks from 2000 until 2012. I will demonstrate how gender (re)produces hegemonic/ non-hegemonic femininities/ masculinities, hierarchical structurings of social fields, and society while embracing the hegemonic narrative of modernization.

Keywords: Turkey, Gender, Nation

Japanese- and English-language social media reactions to the Fukushima nuclear accident: A quantitative comparison using “big-data” analytics

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The nuclear accident that occurred in Fukushima following the 2011 Tohoku Earthquake led to extensive discussions of various policy-related issues within the general public both in Japan and throughout the world. The vast amount of public discourse now taking place on online social media networks such as Twitter and Facebook offers a potentially rich source of insight into the different reactions of various communities to such events. The work reported here is based on quantitative analyses of the content of several hundred million Twitter messages (“tweets”) sent at various times before and after (a) the original Fukushima reactor accident in 2011, and (b) the announcement in 2013 of unexpectedly high levels of radioactive groundwater contamination in northeastern Japan. In particular, I compared Japanese-language and English-language tweets in order to identify differences between the two with respect to the apparent relevance of various event-related issues and themes. I analyzed the data in such a way as to mitigate certain problems that could arise from translational nuances and other potential sources of bias. The analysis revealed, for example, that after the accident, the usage frequencies of words related to food and water increased by larger factors in Japanese-language tweets than they did in their English-language counterparts. Japanese tweets also showed a larger increase in the frequency of terms related to certain economic and health-related issues.

Keywords: Japan, nuclear, Fukushima Daiichi, big-data analytics

The Sociocultural and Religious Struggle Asians Face Every Day in Western Society to Prove Themselves Equal to Westerners

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In the last three decades, the economy and technology development of Asian countries have become stronger relative to Western countries, yet immigrants from Asia in Western countries still face immense struggles in becoming an equal part of Western societies. It seems that although Western countries are becoming dependent on Asian technology and its market-produced goods and labor supplies, Asians are still considered the “other” in the eyes of Westerners because of the religious and cultural differences. Asians in Western society are being portrayed by Whites as excessively traditional and religious, an ancient and inferior group of people that suddenly got hold of the world market and its capital—but that still lives in the dark ages. To recover from this position, Asia needs to remind the West that it is not just over the last thirty years but even before colonial rule that Asian nations were culturally, economically, and intellectually superior—and that today its religions and cultures have much to offer. This paper will compare and contrast the twenty-first-century Asian condition with the nineteenth-century Asian condition under foreign and colonial rulers, and it will show positive and negative cultural aspects that Asians have adopted and at what cost. By drawing from primary and secondary sources, I will perform a deep analysis of why Asia needs to let go of its conservative traditional aspects but keep its core religious and cultural faiths intact because, knowingly or unknowingly, Asian religions and cultures are under the microscope of the Western world!

Keywords: Economic and technological development, Western Society, Asian religions and cultures

Simple rules to recognize sentence connector for the syntactic software

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Software plays an important role in the society especially in the field of Language. Using software became a common process even in language teaching. The scientific study of Language is known as Linguistics. In the subfield of Applied Linguistics, Computational Linguistics is important. It deals with the computer and linguistic levels. It is also said, as a branch of language studies which applies computer techniques to linguistics field. In computational syntax, the syntactic analyser breaks a sentence into phrases and clauses and identifies the sentence with the syntactic information. Tamil is a language spoken in India, Malaysia, Singapore, Mauritius and few other places in the world. In computational syntax, the first step is to provide required information regarding the head and its constituent of each phrase. This information will be incorporated to the system using programming languages. The major objectives of this paper are to provide simple rules to the syntactic software which is going to be developed and how this software identifies the sentence connector in a given sentence using the given rules.

Keywords: linguistics, computer, software

The effect of using Reciprocal Teaching on Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Size

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Reciprocal teaching is an important strategy to improve reading comprehension performance. It has four strategies which are predicting, clarifying, questioning and summarizing. The preliminary study examined the reading comprehension and vocabulary size of secondary school students taught using Reciprocal Teaching procedure. The study was conducted on 45 students in a secondary school in Miri, Sarawak: 30 students in the experimental group and 15 in the control group. The experimental group was taught using the Reciprocal Teaching Procedure and the control group was taught using usual reading comprehension instructional techniques. A reading comprehension test focusing on predicting skills was given before the teaching, and another test focusing on summarizing, clarification and questioning skills was given after the teaching. Nation Vocabulary Size Test (2012) was used to measure their vocabulary size after the teaching. The scores of the control and experimental groups were similar for the pre-test comprehension questions focusing on predicting skills and the post-test questions focusing on clarifying, summarizing and questioning skills. Both groups were more familiar with words at the K2 (2,000-word) level but there is no relationship between the vocabulary size and post-test reading comprehension scores. The brief exposure to the reciprocal teaching procedure may be too short to make an impact.

Keywords: reciprocal teaching, reading comprehension, vocabulary skill

Introduction

Reading is one of the most important language skills that should be acquired by L2 learners. Reading skill refers to an individual's level of proficiency in reading skill measured using various reading assessments. Through individual's reading assessment, the reader proficiency is determined. For example, those who obtain high language test scores are classified as standardized language user and vice versa (Perfetti, 2001). Reading is a process by which a reader extracts visual information from a piece of written text and makes sense of it (Garrod & Simmon, 2011). Reading comprehension refers to "the construction of meaning from text" by the reader (Sporer & Brunsein, 2009, p. 289). Additionally, it is necessary to have self-monitoring during comprehension to improve reading comprehension (Todd & Tracey, 2006). They stated that self-monitoring is one of the best strategies to improve reading comprehension and indirectly able to improve vocabulary skill too. A large body of research focuses on how children learn to decode text and how best to foster children's decoding skills. Pardo (2009) explained that in order to understand print, a child must be able to decode the words on the page and to extract meaning.

Reading comprehension is aided by a good vocabulary size. Nation (2006) examined the coverage of words at different frequency levels from the British National Corpus to find out the

vocabulary threshold that is needed for adequate reading comprehension, and the relationship between the two is as follows:

the first thousand most frequent word families will provide a coverage of 78% to 81%, the second thousand an additional 8% to 9%, the third thousand 3% to 5%, the fourth and fifth thousand 3%, the sixth to ninth thousand 2%, and the tenth to fourteenth thousand, less than 1%. (Cited in Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010, p. 18)

Moving up the frequency bands brought consecutively less increments in text coverage or comprehension. Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski conducted a study on 745 college students in Israel using Nation's (1983) Vocabulary Levels Test for vocabulary size, English scores from the Psychometric University Entrance Test for reading comprehension, and a new version of the Vocabulary Profiler for text coverage. Their findings show that "64% of variance in the reading score is accounted for by vocabulary" (p. 25) showing that vocabulary size influences reading comprehension.

All reading strategies foster comprehension, and reciprocal teaching is one of them. Palincsar and Brown (1984) came up with reciprocal teaching strategies in order to help the readers and students enhancing reading comprehension skills. Reciprocal teaching is an instructional activity that takes the form of a dialogue between teachers and students regarding segments of text for the purpose of constructing the meaning of text. In this approach, students have to complete the lesson in a small group and a leader takes the place of a teacher and instructs the group members (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). A reciprocal approach provides students with four specific reading strategies that are actively and consciously used to support comprehension: questioning, clarifying, summarizing, and predicting. Palincsar (1986) believes the purpose of reciprocal teaching is to facilitate a group effort between teacher and students as well as among students in the task of bringing meaning to the text (Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

This preliminary study examined reading comprehension and vocabulary size of secondary school students taught using Reciprocal Teaching procedure.

Methodology

The participants of this preliminary study comprised 45 Form Two students from a secondary school in Miri, Sarawak. Their average age was 14 years old, and they were from different language backgrounds. For the experiment on reciprocal teaching, the participants were divided into two groups: 30 students in the experimental group and 15 in the control group. The lesson was conducted by an experienced instructor for one hour. The control group was conducted as a traditional classroom using the usual approach of teaching reading comprehension, which was reading the passage and answering the comprehension questions. The experimental group was taught using the reciprocal teaching procedure which required the students to be divided into groups of five students each. One student was selected as a group leader and acted as an instructor in a group. Before they assigned to complete the lesson, an instructor had explained what strategies should be applied and how to conduct it in the group. The lesson focused on these four reading strategies: questioning, clarifying, summarizing, and predicting. Each segment on the strategies took 15-20 minutes.

Before the teaching, the students did a reading comprehension test focusing on predicting skills (five questions). After the teaching, the students did a reading comprehension test focusing on summarizing, clarification and questioning skills (10 questions) as well as Nation Vocabulary

Size Test (2012) to measure their vocabulary size according to K1, K2 and K3 levels (10 selected words each). See Appendix 1. K1 refers to the 1,000-word level, K2 refers to the 2,000-word level, and K3 refers to the 3,000-word level. The students' answers in the two reading comprehension tests were marked out of 5 and 10 respectively; 1 was given for the correct answer. Mean scores of students obtained in the Nation Vocabulary Size Test (2012) were calculated based on three levels (K1, K2 and K3).

Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows that the mean scores for the control group in both the pre- and post-tests were lower than the experimental group. If the pre-test mean scores were converted to 10, then the control group would have a mean score of 5.74 and the experimental group would have a mean score of 6.40. The post-test mean scores are slightly higher than the pre-test mean scores for both groups (5.87 and 6.93 respectively), indicating that after the students had read the comprehension passage, they answered the questions more accurately. Before reading the passage, they were relying on their background knowledge and other contextual cues in the prompts to predict the contents of the reading passage.

Table 1

Pre- and post-test reading comprehension mean scores for control and experimental groups

	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Mean (out of 5)	SD	Mean (out of 10)	SD
Control (n=15)	2.87	.743	5.87	1.060
Experimental (n=30)	3.20	.761	6.93	1.202

Table 2 shows the vocabulary-size test scores for control and experimental group based on K1, K2 and K3 levels. The control group had lower mean scores than the experimental group for all the three levels. Earlier, Table 1 showed that the pre and post-reading comprehension scores were lower for the control group as well. This suggests that the control group may comprise students who have a smaller vocabulary size and lower reading comprehension capability to begin with.

Table 2

Vocabulary-size test scores for control and experimental group based on K1, K2 and K3 levels

	Group	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
K1	Control	15	8.27	1.100	.284
	Experimental	30	8.80	.887	.162
K2	Control	15	8.60	.828	.214
	Experimental	30	9.00	.910	.166
K3	Control	15	7.00	1.000	.258
	Experimental	30	8.37	1.520	.277

A comparison of the vocabulary size across levels indicates that there is no clear pattern for the control and experimental groups. For both groups, the mean score for K2 is the highest: 9.00 for the experimental group and 8.60 for the control group. This shows that the students were more familiar with words in the K2 list. However, it is expected that the lowest score for both groups would be for K3. This is because K3 vocabulary items are less frequent compared to K1 and K2 levels but it is uncertain why the mean scores for K1 are not the highest for either group. The means for vocabulary sizes at K1, K2 and K3 levels are slightly higher for the experimental group but the difference was not significant at 95% confidence level. Generally the results indicate that the students were familiar with 8 to 9 out of 10 words presented to them in the K1, K2 and K3 lists except for the control group (K3: 7 words).

Finally, a Pearson correlation test was run for the post-test comprehension scores and the vocabulary size scores (K1, K2 and K3 combined, 30 items). Table 3 shows that there is no significant relationship between the two for the control and experimental groups. With the selected words in the K1, K2 and K3 lists, there is no indication that if the students knew more words, they could answer the comprehension questions on clarifying, summarizing and questioning better.

Table 3

Correlation coefficient for post-test reading comprehension scores and vocabulary size

	Post-test comprehension scores		Vocabulary size scores		Correlation between post-test comprehension scores and vocabulary size scores
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Control (n=15)	5.87	1.060	36.00	4.259	0.19, p=.498
Experimental (n=30)	6.93	1.202	40.33	3.986	0.32, p=.083

Conclusion

The preliminary study indicated that the brief exposure to the Reciprocal Teaching procedure which emphasizes peer teaching of predicting, clarifying, summarizing and questioning strategies did not assist students in their reading comprehension. The scores of the control and experimental groups were similar for the pre-test comprehension questions focusing on predicting skills and the post-test questions focusing on clarifying, summarizing and questioning skills. Both groups were more familiar with words at the K2 (2,000-word) level but there is no relationship between the vocabulary size and post-test reading comprehension scores. The brief exposure to the reciprocal teaching procedure may be too short to make an impact.

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Appendix: Selected words at K1, K2 and K3 levels

<u>First 1000</u>	<u>Second 1000</u>	<u>Third 1000</u>
1. SEE: They saw it. a. cut b. waited for c. looked at d. started	1. MAINTAIN: Can they maintain it? a. keep it as it is b. make it larger c. get a better one than it d. get it	1. SOLDIER: He is a soldier. a. person in a business b. student c. person who uses metal d. person in the army
2. TIME: They have a lot of time. a. money b. food c. hours d. friends	2. STONE: They sat on a stone. a. hard thing b. kind of chair c. soft thing on the floor d. part of a tree	2. RESTORE: It has been restored. a. said again b. given to a different person c. given a lower price d. made like new again
3. PERIOD: It was a difficult period. a. question b. time c. thing to do d. book	3. UPSET: I am upset. a. tired b. famous c. rich d. unhappy	3. JUG: He was holding a jug. a. a container for pouring liquids b. an informal discussion c. a soft cap d. a weapon that explodes
4. FIGURE: Is this the right figure? a. answer b. place c. time d. number	4. DRAWER: The drawer was empty. a. sliding box b. place where cars are kept c. cupboard to keep things cold d. animal house	4. SCRUB: He is scrubbing it. a. cutting shallow lines into it b. repairing it c. rubbing it hard to clean it d. drawing simple pictures of it
5. POOR: We are poor. a. have no money b. feel happy c. are very interested d. do not like to work hard	5. PATIENCE: He has no patience. a. will not wait happily b. has no free time c. has no faith d. does not know what is fair	5. DINOSAUR: The children were pretending to be dinosaurs. a. robbers who work at sea b. very small creatures

<p>6. DRIVE: He drives fast. a. swims b. learns c. throws balls d. uses a car</p> <p>7. JUMP: She tried to jump. a. lie on top of the water b. get off the ground suddenly c. stop the car at the edge of the road d. move very fast</p> <p>8. SHOE: Where is your shoe? a. the person who looks after you b. the thing you keep your money in c. the thing you use for writing d. the thing you wear on your foot</p> <p>9. STANDARD: Her standards are very high. a. the bits at the back under her shoes b. the marks she gets in school c. the money she asks for d. the levels she reaches in everything</p> <p>10. BASIS: This was used as the basis. a. answer b. place to take a rest c. next step d. main part</p>	<p>6. NIL: His mark for that question was nil. a. very bad b. nothing c. very good d. in the middle</p> <p>7. PUB: They went to the pub. a. place where people drink and talk b. place that looks after money c. cupboard to keep things cold d. animal house</p> <p>8. CIRCLE: Make a circle. a. rough picture b. space with nothing in it c. round shape d. large hole</p> <p>9. MICROPHONE: Please use the microphone. a. machine for making food hot b. machine that makes sounds louder c. machine that makes things look bigger d. small telephone that can be carried around</p> <p>10. PRO: He's a pro. a. someone who is employed to find out important secrets b. a stupid person c. someone who writes for a newspaper d. someone who is paid for playing a sport, etc.</p>	<p>with human form but with wings c. large creatures with wings that breathe fire d. animals that lived a long time ago</p> <p>6. STRAP: He broke the strap. a. promise b. top cover c. shallow dish for food d. strip of material for holding things together</p> <p>7. PAVE: It was paved. a. prevented from going through b. divided c. given gold edges d. covered with a hard surface</p> <p>8. DASH: They dashed over it. a. moved quickly b. moved slowly c. fought d. looked quickly</p> <p>9. ROVE: He couldn't stop roving. a. getting drunk b. travelling around c. making a musical sound through closed lips d. working hard</p> <p>10. LONESOME: He felt lonesome. a. ungrateful b. very tired c. lonely d. full of energy</p>
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Publicizing "thainess" on the internet: art of expressing through thainess via website tourism authority of Thailand

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This research aims at studying the characteristics of Thainess and analyzing the process of publicizing Thainess on the internet: art of expressing through Thainess via website Tourism Authority of Thailand. The Ten majors of website purpose are selected as case studies. They are 1) About Thailand, 2) Travel and Transport, 3) Where to go, 4) See & Do, 5) Where to Stay, 6) Food and Drink, 7) Shopping, 8) Travel Deals, 9) Real Experiences, and 10) What's New, All of this are own prominent characteristics. This research uses a qualitative research methodology through observation as well as collecting documents concerning the website's process and web content design. The research applies concept of the "circuit of culture" as the framework in the analysis of the process. The circuit of culture is composed of five factors: representation, identity, production, consumption and regulation.

The research shows that Thainess is constructed through three characteristics: 1) through physical settings with Thai art and architecture; 2) through a Thai style of greeting by personnel with politeness, and 3) through story and picture of culture. It is also found that Thai values, wisdom and Thai ways of life are selected and presented as the characteristics of Thainess.

Keyword: Thainess, Art of Expressing through Thainess, Website Tourism Authority of Thailand

Introduction

Thailand is a wondrous kingdom, featuring Buddhist temples, exotic wildlife, and spectacular islands. Along with a fascinating history and a unique culture that includes delectable Thai food and massage, Thailand features a modern capital city, and friendly people who epitomize Thailand's "land of smiles" reputation, and there are many information of Thailand that the tourist to know such as:

- **Country**
Thailand, the only Southeast Asian nation never to have been colonized by European powers, is a constitutional monarchy whose current head of state is HM Bhumibol Adulyadej. A unified Thai kingdom has existed since the mid-14th century, and Thailand was known as Siam until 1939 when it officially became the Kingdom of Thailand.
- **Geography**
Thailand is the 50th largest country in the world, most nearly equal in size to Spain. Located just 15 degrees north of the equator, Thailand has a tropical climate and temperatures typically range from 19 to 38 degrees C (66-100 F). Thailand's largest peak, Doi Inthanon, is 2,565 meters (8,415 ft) tall. Thailand covers 510,890 sq km of land and 2,230 sq km of water. The coastline of Thailand is 3,219 km long. Thailand's longest shared border is with Myanmar (Burma), stretching 1,800 km.

- **Weather**
The weather in Thailand is generally hot and humid: typical of its location within the tropics. Generally speaking, Thailand can be divided into three seasons: hot season, rainy season, and cool season, though Thailand's geography allows visitors to find suitable weather somewhere in the country throughout the year.
- **Languages**
More than 92% of the population speaks Thai or one of its regional dialects. While the Thai language is the official language of Thailand, as a result of its cosmopolitan capital city and established tourism infrastructure, English is spoken and understood throughout much of Thailand.
- **Religion**
94.6% of Thais are Buddhist, 4.6% of Thais are Muslim and 0.7% of Thais are Christian.
- **Currency and Banking**
The currency of Thailand is the Thai Baht. Baht come in both coin and banknote form. The size of Thai currency, both coins and bills increases with value and varies in color. Thai bank hours are generally Monday to Friday, 9:30 am to 3:30 pm, though certain banks have shorter Saturday hours and currency exchange booths are open considerably longer hours in Bangkok and other tourist destinations.
- **Accommodation**
Thailand hotels are some of the finest in the world, whether they are five star luxury spa retreats or quaint family-run beachfront bungalows. There is a hotel in Thailand for every type of traveler on every budget. That said, the best prices are during Thailand's off-peak season (May – Aug), while the most expensive prices are typically during the cool season (Dec – Feb). Whether your accommodation choice is a homestay with local villagers, a guesthouse in a backpacker district, a beach bungalow, or a five star hotel in Thailand, unless you have booked ahead, settle for nothing less than the warmest "land of smiles" hospitality.

Methodology

The Ten majors of website purpose are selected as case studies. They are 1) About Thailand, 2) Travel and Transport, 3) Where to go, 4) See & Do, 5) Where to Stay, 6) Food and Drink, 7) Shopping, 8) Travel Deals, 9) Real Experiences, and 10) What's New

1) About Thailand: There are introduce in the information of Thailand that the tourist to know such as: Country, Geography, Weather, Languages, Religion, Currency and Banking, and Accommodation.

2) Travel and Transport: Thailand travel is convenient for visitors as there are many ways to get to Thailand and even more ways to travel in Thailand, whether your destination is Bangkok, Phuket, Chiang Mai, or the most remote provinces. It is possible to enter Thailand by air, land, or sea from countries throughout the region and across the globe. And the transportation options such as: Airlines, Bus & Coach, Private Charter and Train.

3) Where to go: There are five regions of Thailand: North, Northeast, East, Central, and South, which are divided into 75+1 provinces, each geographically distinct from the others; each

Thailand province contains unique cultural, historical, and natural attractions from the northern peaks (replete with wildlife and home to exotic hill tribes) and the central plains (the “Rice Bowl of Asia”) to the northeastern plateau (stretching to the Mekong River border with Laos) and the spectacular beaches and islands of the south (including both Phuket and Samui).

4) See & Do: From traditional Buddhist festivals and wet and wild Thai New Year, celebrations to spectacular national parks and an array of land, sea, and air activities, Thailand is a wonderland of festivals, attractions and activities.

5) Where to Stay: Thailand features not only some of the finest hotels and resorts in the world but also arguably the greatest variety of accommodation to choose from. The accommodation options range from rural home stays to luxurious five-star spa-resorts and nearly everything in between.

6) Food and Drink: Thailand features not only one of the finest cuisines in the world but also a wide selection of restaurants serving authentic Italian, Japanese, Middle Eastern, and other global cuisines.

7) Shopping: Shopping in Thailand is hands-down one of the premier activities for visitors to the kingdom. Some favorite items when shopping in Thailand are Thai silk, leather goods, silver & gold, precious and semi-precious gems, pearls, furniture, antiques, and all sorts of exotic handicrafts.

8) Travel Deals: Special Tour Promotions in Thailand for every season, every festival and holiday! No matter what time of year, you can always go out for a wonderful getaway. Find all the best deals for accommodation, air tickets, and tour packages.

9) Real Experiences: These real travel experiences, including exciting travel stories, insider travel tips, and travel videos and photos that showcase the many exciting activities, festivals, and destinations in Thailand have been provided by travelers to Thailand who chose to share their information with others like you.

10) What's New: There are many news from today to archives, that all of discover Thainess event.

Result

The tourism industry has been a significant contributor to the Thai economy. It has played an increasingly important role in the country’s long-run economic development and the influx of foreign money has helped to pay for much-needed developments throughout the country. Thailand is best known for its friendly people, rich culture, and its variety of destinations that offer vastly different experiences. These elements have made Thai tourism second to none. In 2015, Thailand’s tourism policy focuses on promoting the values of Thai culture. The campaign aims to create an understanding of Thailand and the Thai people’s way of life, or what we call ‘Thainess.’ To achieve this the Tourism Authority of Thailand has created the Discover Thainess website so that travelers may appreciate authentic and unique examples of Thai culture. The website also serves as a portal for information that discerning travelers may use to plan their trips to Thailand on which they will begin to understand the true meaning of “Thainess”

Discussion

The Tourism Authority of Thailand invites non-Thai travelers from around the world interested in Thai culture to experience an ultra-exclusive, once-in-a-lifetime trip to Thailand absolutely FREE simply by participating in the “One and Only” contest. To join, choose an activity you

enjoy from the five activities under the “Discover Thainess” theme: Muay Thai, traditional Thai dancing, Thai cooking, making Thai-style floral garlands, or speaking Thai. Discover Thainess will upload a video clip for each activity for you to use as a guideline for making your own video. Film yourself doing the same activity, submit the clip to us, and get a chance to be a part of this unique and culturally rich experience. The 5 step of experience,

- Step 1: Join the activity by registering on <http://www.tourismthailand.org/discoverthainess>
- Step 2: Choose one of your favorite video clip showing your favorite activity from Muay Thai and traditional Thai dancing, to cooking Thai food, making Thai-style floral garlands, and speaking Thai. You must film yourself doing the same activity.
- Step 3: The clip should not be longer than 60 seconds. You can submit as many clips as you want in every category.
- Step 4: Upload your video clips to website.
- Step 5: Three teams of finalists will be invited to Thailand to participate in a series of Thailand activities. Plus, they will have an exclusive meeting with Thailand’s boxing star “Buakaw Banchamek”

Conclusion

The elaborately decorated Royal Barge Suphannahong, or “The Golden Swan” and a cotton rose are two significant symbols of Thailand that reflect the country’s rich cultural heritage. They are often featured on the interior of temple walls to depict the cultural values of the society. But the Thai people’s way of life and culture, or what we call “Thainess” is not just found in murals or other artwork, because they are deeply implanted in the people’s souls. Thailand boasts a strong culture, traditions, beliefs, values and customs that are unique and extraordinary a harmonious mix of cultures intertwined with the quintessential Thai way of life.

Thailand offers visitors an array of vastly differing experiences. Whether you yearn for discovering the simple and slow Thai way of life, or prefer a vibrant lifestyle, adrenaline-filled adventures, ethnic cultures, traditional performances, or spectacular natural wonders, you can choose the travel style that matches your personality it will lead you to a better understanding of Thainess. Of course, there are many tourist attractions to visit in Thailand, from the Grand Palace and the ancient temples along the Chao Phraya River to a number of fascinating museums, shopping malls, and outdoor venues, but if you really want to understand Thai culture, you have to do as the locals do and delve a little deeper than the popular hotspots and explore the true values and meaning of Thainess.

- Thai Fun

The brilliant emerald-green waters of the Gulf of Thailand and the Andaman Sea contrast with the blue skies above and the white sand of the shore. With captivating sunsets, gentle winds and clear skies, Thailand has become one of the most fashionable beach destinations in the world. Islands in Thailand, from Phi Phi to Tarutao, boast beautiful bays, beaches, cliffs, caves and have many options for diving and snorkeling. The amazing world beneath the turquoise water is as beautiful as the world above it. Visit

famous beach towns like Phetchaburi, Surat Thani or Phuket which have excellent hospitality and services.

- Thai Festivity

In Thailand, rich and colorful festivals are held all over the country all throughout the year. Every region celebrates its unique culture and some provinces are well-known outside of Thailand for their incredible celebrations. Most festivals are connected with religion and the cultivation cycle of rice. The timing of the festivals is calculated according to the Buddhist lunar calendar, and thus their dates change every year. Among tourists, Songkran often referred to as the Water Festival is popular. During the celebrations people splash, pour and shoot water at each other for three fun-filled days. Another colorful festival held annually across Thailand is Loy Krathong. The festival's name derives from the Thai word "loy" meaning "to float" and the colorfully decorated, lotus-shaped "krathong" that Thais construct by hand to carry incense and flowers as these little vessels float down rivers or across ponds and lakes. It is one of the most beautiful Thai festivals, and it is a time to give thanks to the goddess of the waters and to seek forgiveness for past misdeeds.

- Thai Food

Modern art has not been around in Thailand as long as it has in Western countries, but the Thai creative arts have existed for centuries. And this creativity isn't limited to painting, it is also apparent in Thai food. The history of royal Thai food can be traced back as far as the sixteenth century, over 350 years ago. Royal Thai cuisine is prepared and served in a unique manner. Special skills are required to cook and display the food. Only the best and freshest ingredients are used for making royal Thai food. Vegetables and fruit are delicately carved into flowers, birds and other types of animals. These edible works of art are creative and unique. The culinary arts require time and effort. Royal Thai cuisine takes a tremendous amount of time to prepare and cook. A troop of helpers is needed for the royal kitchen. However, it is worth these great efforts. The flavor of the carefully crafted dishes are the reward.

- Thai Way of Life

Though the authentic Thai way of life is slow and humble, Thailand's bustling capital is one of the Far East's most energetic cities. Bangkok's frantic streets are crowded with steaming food stalls at all hours of the day. So do indulge in a street cart or two, they are a fun part of the local culture. You can hop on a three-wheeled tuk-tuk to explore the secrets of Bangkok and find a Thai experience uniquely your own. Visit local temples on national holidays. Experience festivals and temple fairs that are colorful, noisy and fun a perfect day out with family or friends. Ring toss, dart throwing, games of chance, shooting you can try your hand win a prize. Enjoy cotton candy and other local delights while watching local performances to experience Thailand's simple but vibrant local culture that you won't find in any major tourist destinations.

- Thai Wellness

Thailand is full of local wisdom and endowed with natural resources that can cure or prevent diseases. Centuries of collecting and practicing herbal medicine have created a great amount of local knowledge and helped Thai traditional medicine to become famous all around the world. Thai herbs are gift from nature and have played an important role in health and beauty for centuries. This indigenous wisdom has been passed on from generation to generation. The use of natural products for healing is another example of the Thai people's connection to the natural world. The art and science of Thai traditional massage is now well accepted by the people around the globe. Renowned as the "Health Capital of Asia" Thailand offers some of the best medical centers where the ancient wisdom of Thai traditional massage is incorporated into holistic medicine. If you want to understand more about Thai traditions, values and culture, try exploring some of the spas at five-star hotels or other local venues, and you will gain pleasure from the experience.

- Thai Arts

Thailand is home to a rich and diverse cultural heritage. The Thai people have preserved their cultural values and traditions, while showing an ability to absorb, imitate and assimilate elements of foreign cultures that complement their own aesthetic preferences. Thai cultural heritage takes many forms from tangible legacies seen in golden temples, royal palaces, Thai houses, murals, paintings, as well as arts and crafts. It is also present in Thai music and performance, and even in the ancient martial art of Muay Thai.

- Thai Wisdom

Thailand's tropical climate opens up an array of opportunities for fun in the sun. The friendly climate and abundance of natural resources is an important part of Thai heritage. In the past, people made their living traditionally from agriculture, farming and fishing. These days Thai children are still taught the famous lines, 'nai naam mee bplaa, nai naa mee kao', meaning 'in the water there are fish, in the fields there is rice.' Thai people regard this bounty as a blessing and have great respect for nature. Though urbanization has increased rapidly, Thai people still yearn for a simple and slow way of life. Thai people enjoy a 'sabai sabai (or relaxed) lifestyle, and this phrase sums up the authentic Thai way of life. If you're looking for chill holiday and a way discover a slow-paced life you'll want to book a stay outside of the city. Thailand has one of the most pristine natural landscapes in Southeast Asia. It's a beautiful country of high mountains, densely forested hills and endless rice paddies, irrigated by the mighty Mekong River. Thailand also boasts a number of temples and meditation spots for those who would like to practice and seek peace of mind.

This research uses a qualitative research methodology through observation as well as collecting documents concerning the website's process and web content design. The research applies concept of the "circuit of culture" as the framework in the analysis of the process. The circuit of

culture is composed of five factors: representation, identity, production, consumption and regulation.

The research shows that Thainess is constructed through three characteristics: 1) through physical settings with Thai art and architecture; 2) through a Thai style of greeting by personnel with politeness; and 3) through story and picture of culture. It is also found that Thai values, wisdom and Thai ways of life are selected and presented as the characteristics of Thainess.

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A Training Design for the Language Faculty: Viewpoints on Technology Integration

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The Language Faculty's competencies in technology integrated instruction are deemed fundamental among higher education institutions. This is primarily due to the increased knowledge of learners in technology integration. Hence, this paper aims at ascertaining faculty competencies in the use of multimedia aided instruction. Moreover, a training module was designed to maximize their competencies. Faculty proficiency level on pedagogical competencies and training interests were also identified. The teachers' perception on trainings and competencies constituted as reference to the development of the training program for the faculty. Findings revealed that these teachers need to be trained. Furthermore, it was found that these language faculties were willing to be trained towards more refined technology integration. The paper clustered around the concepts of Instructional Design Models. Seels and Glasgows (2005) and Johns (2001) models served as tough theoretical foundations of the study. Needs analysis was conducted putting emphasis on the language, information and communication technology arenas. From here, the researcher came up with the design to develop the training material enlisting pronounced weight on language via technology integration.

Keywords: Training Module, Language Faculty, Technology Integration

An overview of English learning motivation: a study of Sri Lankan and Malaysian undergraduates

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English is very critical for the undergraduates in Asia with the huge expansion of globalization. Since their English learning depends on various motivational factors, the current study examined 152 Asian undergraduates, including 76 Sri Lankan undergraduates and 76 Malaysian undergraduates to identify the motivational dimension by utilizing Dornyei's L2 Motivational Self System. The motivational questionnaire adapted from the previous motivation studies used to collect data with reference to the learners' motivated learning behavior, ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self, social goals, mastery goals, performance goals, attitudes towards English learning and attitudes towards L2 community. Regression analysis was conducted as the major analysis technique to examine the best predictors. The results indicated ideal L2 self as the strongest predictor of English learning motivation. Further, attitudes towards learning English appeared as the second strongest predictor. Interestingly, this study also proved the weak contribution of ought to L2 self in learners' motivation. These results indicate the important role of English in the undergraduates' life, because they experience the huge demand of English in the academic field and future professional field. The weak contribution of ought to self suggests the matured learners' independence from the obligations and the strength of their future imagination power.

Key words: Asian learners, Motivation, L2 Motivational Self System

Introduction

L2 learner motivation become more diverse and complex with the expansion of globalization and their typical image of English speaker has not anymore connected with the particular geographical or cultural community. The global spread of international culture, in cooperating business, technology innovation, consumer values, democracy, world travel, multifarious icons of fashion, sport and music caused to change the identity of English speaker and learner motivation at large (Lamb 2004). This phenomenon directly affected to change Gardner's pioneering of motivation theory based on integrativeness (Gardner 1985). The consequences of the globalization caused to transform learner identity as a central psychological consequence of globalization (Arnett 2002). Most young adolescents developed their 'bicultural' identity, as by combining local and world citizen, because they wanted to maintain their local identity and also they wanted to join with the global community (Lamb 2004). In addition, globalization created path for learners to join with the international community by communicating, business, international relations, education, travelling, working etc. In fact International Posture or join with the international community appeared as a causative factor of increasing willingness to communicate (WTC), motivated learning and ideal self of English learners (Yashima 2002; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide 2004; Yashima 2009).

Based on these changes learners' superordinate vision was identified as the key secret of success. This led to the construction of L2 Motivational Self System (LMSS) with three components as ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self and L2 learning experiences (Csizer & Dornyei

2005;Dörnyei 2009) and validated in different contexts with reference to the emerging needs of the country specific (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi 2009).

The studies in Japan, Hungary and Chile proved international posture as a causative factor to increase ideal L2 self (Yashima 2009); (Csizer & Kormos 2009);(Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér 2011). Due to the economic and social value of English (Lamb 2004) learner self was influenced by parents (Csizer & Kormos 2009;Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér 2011). In addition, facilitative immediate language learning experiences appeared as a contributing factor to increase language learning motivation (Lamb 2012;Lamb 2013). Besides that, English as an international language appeared as very important for Pakistanis to represent their country to gain good image from the international community (Islam, Lamb, & Chambers 2013).

Motivation literature highlighted the diverse language learning needs based on the different motivational factors with respect to the international needs, parental needs, immediate learning experiences and national needs. Anyhow, most of the studies proved the importance of learning experiences in Asian learner motivation by focusing Chinese, Japanese, Iranian and Indonesian learners and most of the learners were learning English as a Foreign Language (FL). In fact, the current study focused to researched Asian students of Malaysia and Sri Lanka to examine their motivational aspect of second language (L2) learners by utilizing Dörnyei (2009) L2 Motivational Self System to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the best predictive factors of Malaysian and Sri Lankan learners' English learning motivation?
2. How L2 Motivational Self System fits to explain the motivational dimension of Malaysian and Sri Lankan learners'?

Method

The study was conducted among 152 undergraduates including, 76 Malaysian undergraduates and 76 Sri Lankan undergraduates. At the time of data collection, they were engaging with their compulsory English course. Participation was voluntary and they filled the questionnaires leisurely at hostels and after lecture hours. The questionnaire was developed by using the validated motivation questionnaires of Taguchi et. al (2009), Islam et. al (2013), Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels (1994) and Lamb (2012). Pilot studies were conducted in Malaysia and Sri Lanka separately before the formal data collection. The finalized instrument consisted with 8 scales as follows.

Motivated learning:

This scale was developed by using the items of Lamb (2012) and Islam et al.(2013) and it consisted with 10 items. Lamb (2012) scale consists with 5 items to measure the motivated learning of the learners ($\alpha=0.65$) and Islam et al.(2013) scale consists with 6 items to measure learners' perception regarding the anticipated efforts to learn English ($\alpha=0.70$). The current motivation questionnaire considered all the items in the above instruments and modified them to match the Sri Lankan context and make the total scale including 10 items.

Ideal L2 Self

This scale was developed by adapting and modifying the items of Lamb (2012) and Islam et al. (2013). Lamb (2012) ideal L2 self consisted with 6 items to measure the future vision of the learners ($\alpha= 0.64$) and Islam et al. (2013) ideal L2 self scale consisted with 8 items to measure the imagined personally desired future English using self ($\alpha= 0.72$). The current motivation questionnaire considered the all items and modified some of them to fit with the Sri Lankan and

Malaysian contexts. The current motivation questionnaire consisted with modified and adapted 8 items in the scale to measure the learners' future aspirations and hopes.

Ought to L2 self

Ought to L2 self aims to measure the contribution of learners' obligations, responsibilities and duties for their English learning motivation. 4 items were selected from Taguchi et al. (2009) and Lamb (2012). Taguchi et al. (2009) referred ought to L2 self to measure the attribute one ought to possess ($\alpha= 0.78$) and Islam et al.(2013) refers ought to L2 self as the learners' imagined future English self as expected by others ($\alpha= 0.73$).

Social goals

This scale was designed to measure the contribution of social factors for the English learning of Malaysian and Sri Lankan undergraduates. The scale consisted with 8 items. These items were adapted and modified from Taguchi et al. (2009) and Islam et al. (2013). Further, the items were selected from the various scales of the above studies to match the contexts.

Mastery Goals

This scale was prepared to measure the learners' needs to develop the English fluency to develop themselves. Four items were designed with the help of Clement et al. (1994).

Performance Goals

Four items were adapted from Taguchi et al. (2009) to form this scale. This scale was introduced to in this study to measure the learners' needs to demonstrate English fluency or avoiding the demonstration of lack of English fluency to survive in the university environment.

Attitudes towards L2 community

This scale was designed by adapting and modifying the items of Lamb (2012) and Islam et al. (2013). This scale aims to measure the learners' attitudes towards the L2 community.

Attitudes towards learning English

This scale was designed by adapting the items of Lamb (2012) and Islam et al. (2013). This scale aims to measure the learners' attitudes towards the classroom learning.

The final questionnaire including all the above scales consisted with 49 five point Likert scale questions (1- Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Slightly Agree, 4- Agree, 5- Strongly Agree).

After the data collection, data were subjected to SPSS 21.0. Firstly reliability analysis was conducted to check the Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients of the items. Then the regression analysis was run to examine the predictive factors.

Results

Reliability of the scales

In order to assess the suitability of motivation questionnaire in the context, the reliability test was run. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient of the whole instrument was 0.842 and coefficient values of scales are given below in the Table 1. All the scales are above 0.6 and consistent with accepted social sciences research instead the scale of social goals (George & Mallery 2005). In fact, to make it consistent question 30 was removed from the instrument.

Table 1 Reliability of the scales

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Motivated learning	.823
Ideal L2 self	.892
Ought to L2 self	.701

Social goals	.501 *.601
Mastery goals	.794
Performance goals	.861
Attitudes toward learning English	.835
Attitudes toward L2 community	.872

*after item 30 removed coefficient value

In accordance with the Table 1, the Cronbach’s alpha values in 49 Likert scale items ranging from .601 to .884. This indicates the 49 Likert scale items used in the current study is consistent with the accepted values of social sciences.

Regression Analysis

Linear regression analysis was used as the major statistical tool to identify the best predictive motivational factors of Malaysian and Sri Lankan undergraduates. According to the results in the Table 2 the scales of ideal L2 self, social goals, mastery goals, performance goals, attitudes towards learning English and attitudes towards L2 community have correlations with the criterion measure of motivated learning above 0.3 and no two scales have a bivariate correlation of 0.7 or more. In addition Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and Tolerance were used to examine the multicollinearity. The values of Tolerance are not less than 0.10 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) are below 10 (Table 2). These results prove the non- violation of multi-collinearity of the data (Pallant 2007). Outliers of the data were also detected via the regression analysis. They were identified by using the Mahalanobis (Mah_1) distances in the data file .According to the data no outliers were detected majorly and these values did not exceed the value 24.32 (Pallant 2007). In fact the assumptions of the regression were met in the satisfactory level.

Table 2 Inter Item correlation

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Colinearity values	
									Tolerance	VIF
Motivated learning
Ideal L2 self	.643592	1.690
Ought to L2 self	.445	592	1.690
Social goals	.382	.390	.474646	1.548
Mastery goals	.480	.586	.566	.526342	2.923
Performance goals	.436	.480	.513	.441	.691490	2.042
Attitudes towards learning English	.493	.364	.313	.256	.300	.262808	1.237
Attitudes towards L2 community	.457	.472	.432	.485	.650	.518	.359519	1.929

The best predicted factors of the motivated learning are shown in Table 3. This model consists with two best predicted factors of motivated learning as ideal L2 self and attitudes toward English learning and R² value was .518. The contribution of all the scales were significant at p<0.5. According to the results Ideal L2 self appeared as the highest predicting

factor of motivated learning and attitudes toward English learning appeared as the second strongest predictor of motivated learning.

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Zero Order</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>Ideal L2 self</i>	.643	.436	.000
<i>Attitudes towards English learning</i>	.493	.257	.000

$$R^2 = .518$$

$$F = 22.076$$

$$P < .0005$$

The significant contribution of ideal L2 self to predict the motivated learning indicates the learners' ideal L2 self as a critical factor in English language learning motivation. This finding further validates the L2 Motivational Self System in Malaysian context and Sri Lankan context and parallel with the findings of Kormos et al. (2011); and Islam et al.(2013), but need to be cautious due to the small sample size. In contrast, this finding is different from the findings of Taguchi et al.(2009);Csizer & Kormos (2009);Papi (2010); and Taguchi (2013) who found attitudes, and learning experiences as the most influential factors to increase the motivated learning. Although since participants of the study are young adults may have matured ideal L2 self due to the experiences they gain from the society. This can be interpreted with the critical unemployment issue emerge for the government Malaysian undergraduates and Sri Lankan undergraduates due to their lack of English competence (Ha, Phan, Kho, & Chng 2013);(Hanapi & Nordin 2014) compared to the private university students. Specially, in Sri Lanka Sri Lanka English is the key language of all gate keeping jobs in government and private sector and also Sri Lankan education policy prioritized the need of English from grade 1 to university level (National report Ministry of Education, 2004). In fact learners realize the high demand of English to survive in the university and the job market. If they lose the competency they have the future risk of being unemployed or low paid, because the unemployment rate is high among the higher educated young people due to the lack of English proficiency (Gunatilaka et al 2010).

The contribution of attitudes towards learning English indicates the importance of classroom learning experiences for the learner motivation. This is parallel with Kormos et al (2009); (Papi 2010); Lamb (2012);Islam et al (2013);(You & Dornyei 2014); (Taguchi 2013). This can be happened due to the learners' exposure to the English medium instruction. They try to depend on the classroom experiences to fulfill their degree requirement.

Interestingly, this study further proved the weak contribution of ought to L2 self for the learners' motivation. This can happen due to the maturity of the learners, because they are independent from the parents once they enter to the higher education (Kormos et al. 2011). This finding is parallel with Papi (2010); Kormos et al (2009,2011) ; Lamb (2012); Islam et al (2013); You et al (2014).

Conclusion

This study focused on two major research questions based on Malaysian and Sri Lankan undergraduates by utilizing L2 Motivational Self System .The findings validated the L2 motivational self system among Malaysians and Sri Lankans by proving high ideal L2 self and importance of learning experiences to motivate their English learning. Additionally, the study

suggests the weak contribution of ought to L2 self to motivate Malaysian and Sri Lankan learners. Further, attitudes towards L2 community have no impact on learner motivation. This further validates the invalidity of 'integrativeness' in the Asian context with the expansion of globalization.

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Poverty (or Income) and Political Islam in Indonesia: Statistical Analysis of Muslim Voting Behavior

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This study explores whether the poor are more likely to support the Islamic parties in Indonesia, using survey data sets (Asian Barometer Surveys and Comparative National Election Project) and a statistical method of ordered logistic regression. We will see how other factors such as education, urbanization, piety, and ethnicity also influence the Islamization of political parties and voters.

Keywords: Islamism, income, Indonesia

The Citizenship Law Regime as a Driving Force in Constructing Migration Policymaking: The Case of Japan

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It is conventional wisdom that policy outcomes within consolidated democracies are based on a compromise between preferences of the general public and those of politicians. However, it is questionable whether these divergent incentives are truly translated into migration policy, and if so, how that process occurs. By treating actors' preference formation process as a causal mechanism, this paper hypothesizes the citizenship regime plays a central role in constructing threat perception harbored by the general public while altering politicians' strategic calculations on electorate. Specifically, I argue natives under a *jus sanguinis* (by ancestry) regime are less welcoming toward migrants, because they are less exposed to an environment where migrants have equivalent social and political rights, fulfilling their duties as full members of the host country. Thus, natives do not re-categorize these initial *outsiders* as in-group members. Meanwhile, politicians in a *jus sanguinis* regime have less incentive to enact generous policies toward migrants, because they are excluded from the voting group. In sum, countries adopting this citizenship principle are likely to be less willing to incorporate migrants. This paper uses Japan as a case to trace how this causal mechanism has operated in a country under a strict *jus sanguinis* principle.

Keywords: migration policy, citizenship law, Japan

I. Introduction

Japan is commonly regarded as a country that is closed against migrants. It does not allow their entries in a large size, granting restricted rights. As an attempt to understand this tendency, this paper claims that countries' respective citizenship law, which is normally classified into *jus soli* (by birthplace) and *jus sanguinis* (by ancestry), is a fundamental cause. Simply put, countries under *jus sanguinis* principle are more likely to impose a restrictive migration policy, because 1) the general public tends to reveal a greater prejudice and fear against migrants (societal nature), and 2) migrant groups are excluded from electorate, and thus, they would not contribute to votes (electoral nature). Japanese migration policy, under a long Liberal Democratic Party's ruling during postwar era, is relatively deterring due to its strict citizenship law based on blood. In order to demonstrate this mechanism, I trace Japanese public attitude and political calculations, which have governed its migration policy until today.

II. Theoretical Framework

Acquisition of a country's citizenship means a full membership to the community with a guarantee of civil, political and social rights (Marshall, 1950: 6). Because citizenship law is the

basic component in identifying in which society individuals belong to, it naturally influences how natives view migrants. According to Allport (1954), intergroup contact will lead to a favorable attitude toward initial out-group members due to decreasing prejudice and increasing familiarity. In other words, frequent and consistent interaction between natives and migrants would reduce anti-migration sentiment, and natives would re-categorize them into in-group members. He claims however that this does only occur when those initial out-group members acquire equal status and rights. The largest distinction between *jus soli* and *jus sanguinis* regimes is that natives in the former regime recognize that migrants can obtain the same status as theirs, and they are exposed to such a situation. On the contrary, natives under the other rule are not used to this situation, and thus, their conception on citizenship continues to be strongly based on ancestry. They may feel closer to migrants as a stock of foreign population grows. However, they would not feel motivated to share the same rights with migrants. In sum, *natives, who do not have an exposure to migrants with equal rights (in this case, jus sanguinis), will feel a greater fear toward migrants (H1 on societal nature).*

In *jus sanguinis* regime, this negative public attitude on migrants is likely to discourage politicians from enacting open migration policies due to a fear that they may lose votes from the general public. Adding to this hurdle, politicians grant more rights for migrants as a rational mean to survive contestation via winning new votes from them (Brubaker, 1992; Howard, 2009; Janoski, 2010; Joppke, 1999; Renshon, 2001). In other words, whether migrants are capable of obtaining a political right becomes another matter of interest. Of course, there are two other methods for migrants to obtain political rights – a possibility of noncitizen franchise and an option of naturalization (*jus domicilis* principle). Although there is a variation across countries, there is a common tendency that *jus soli* countries apply these methods much more frequently (Bauböck, 2005; Earnest, 2008, 2015, OECD report, 2011). Therefore, it is safe to rely on this dichotomous distinction of citizenship law; *Political parties in jus sanguinis regime take interests of migrants less seriously, because their votes do not count (H2 on electoral nature).*

III. Japanese Citizenship Law and Migration Policy

Japanese nationality is granted based on *jus sanguinis* since 1952. Because of this strict principle by ancestry, foreign nationals experience a great difficulty in acquiring Japanese nationality for themselves. Those permanent residents (*Eijusha*) are largely classified into two categories: regular (*Ippan-Eijusha*) and special (*Tokubetsu-Eijusha*). The latter encompasses ethnic Koreans and Chinese, who stayed in Japan after the end of the WWII. This status passes onto their descendants, implying that the children of immigrants cannot automatically become citizens by birth. Although permanent migrants can become Japanese citizens via naturalization (*kika*), six requirements set by the Naturalization Law (No. 147 of 1950 originally; No. 88 of 2008 as the most recently amended as of 2015; Article 5) are frequently criticized to be enormously austere. Consequently, many permanent migrants tend to be dispirited prior to submitting applications. The average naturalization rate in past ten years has been less than 5 percent. One of main obstacles, for instance, is the documents asking 1) whether the other family members are willing to naturalize or support the applicant's decision, and 2) whether neighbors or colleagues know the applicants' original nationality. Since most of special permanent residents use Japanese names, they become reluctant to let their surroundings to discover their original descent, and thus, give up on naturalization (Lee, 2005: pp. 46-7).

At present, besides the two types of permanent migrant status, there are another 25 visa types to distinguish temporary migrants. Since the First Fundamental Plan on Employment Measures adopted in 1967, the government outspokenly announced to attract migrants, who possess high and special skills or knowledge, while discouraging inflow of low skilled labor migrants. However, there have been frequent cases where this policy goal was disrupted (i.e., employment of illegal migrants by middle- and small-sized firms), and subsequent revision of the policy was in need (i.e., inviting returning Japanese descents). Along with these returning Japanese descents (*Nikkeijin*), Japan sought to import necessary labor from neighboring countries, such as China, Korea and Philippines. What is noticeable from this policy revision is that instead of coping with culturally, religiously and ethnically different foreign aliens, it sought to rely on those, who possessed the same ancestry or similar values and norms (Toita, 2005; pp. 16). In addition, labor supply by foreign students also dramatically amplified (Nokawa, 2012; pp. 200). The result was that most of migrants continued to be low-skilled or irregular, despite Japan's effort to attract high-skilled ones. Debates on these issues became heated again since the early 2000s. Subsequent moderations on migration policies (2004, 2005, 2007) kept highlighting their goals to only admit qualified migrants, although there was no major shift.

The most noticeable moderation of migration policy since the millennium is perhaps the implementation of point-based system in 2012. Unlike Canadian or Australian point systems, Japanese one does not guarantee a direct or automatic road to a permanent settlement in the very early stage. In other words, this system stands parallel with existing immigration law, which requires a job offer prior to entry. Because of these difficulties in acquiring Japanese nationality, a cleavage between Japanese nationals and migrants is stark. Consequently, Japanese migration policy seems to be more dedicated on temporary migrants, and hence, it approaches migrants from an economic standpoint. The next section elaborates how the citizenship law has shaped natives' perception on migrants that eventually filters into migration policymaking.

IV. Japanese public perception on migrants

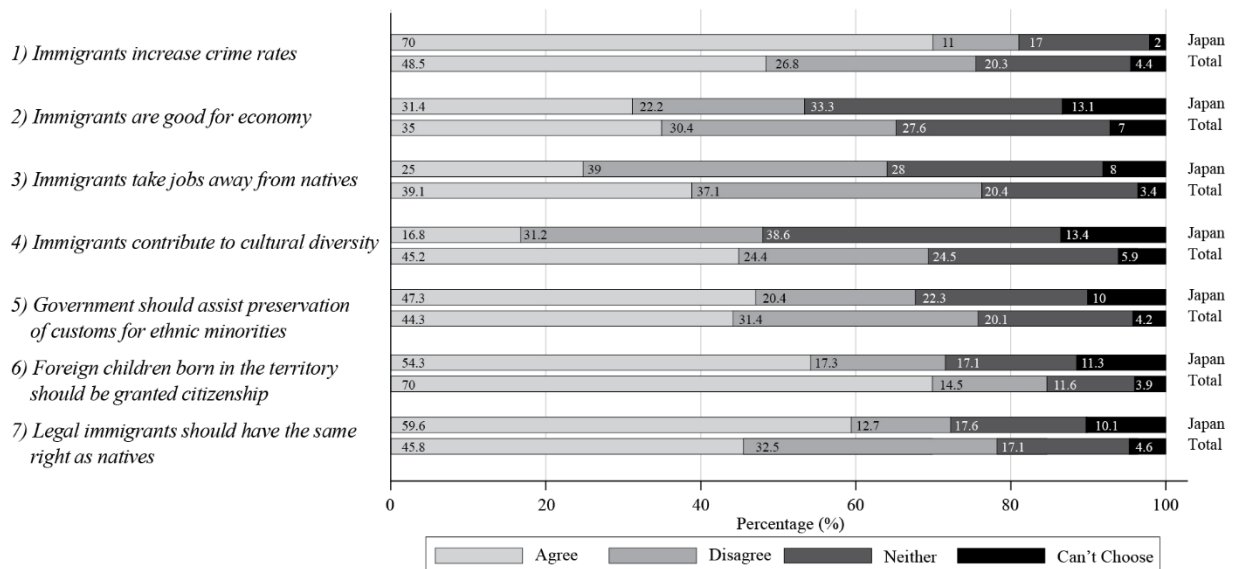
In order to examine Japanese public attitude toward migrants, I compare multiple surveys. I first scrutinize general perception toward migrants among Japanese natives. To do so, I mainly rely on "National Identity II" survey results composed by International Social Survey Program (ISSP, 2003) to generate a cross-country comparison. <Figure 1> presents the result.²⁴ In regards to the first statement (Question 1), 70 percent of Japanese respondents agreed that immigrants increase crime rates while only 48.5 percent of total respondents across countries did. The similar outcome is also noticeable in other survey data, such as "opinion poll on public order," collected by the Cabinet Office, Government of Japan (2004, 2006, 2012). It seems that a great portion of Japanese citizens believes their public order has been exacerbating (86.6% (N=1,961) in 2004, 84.3% (N=1,795) in 2006, and 81.1% (N=1,956)), while they mainly blame on migrants as its cause.

²⁴ National Identity Survey II (2003) by ISSP includes Australia, Austria, Bolivia, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Japan, Latvia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russia, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. I acknowledge that some countries in the dataset are not democracies while my hypothesis is bounded to democratic countries. Because I use this data in order to parse out public's view on citizenship and migrants, I decided to include all participated countries.

The second group of questionnaires (Questions 2 and 3) asks on economic dimension of migrants. The data shows that Japanese people relatively do not consider migrants as an economic threat. Noro’s (2002) survey asks similar questions in regards to temporary foreign workers (N=564). His outcomes reveal a stronger negative image on economic migrants. Thus, the overall results are mixed, and this difference probably emerges due to wordings of questionnaires. On the other, Japanese natives tend to be more generous toward migrants from human rights standpoint while they do not embrace disruption of their cultural solidarity or personal lifestyle. ISSP outcome shows that Japanese natives are highly skeptical about migrants’ contribution to cultural diversity (Question 4) while they still value minorities’ culture and custom (Question 5) as well as rights of foreign children and legal migrants (Questions 6 and 7). The similar results also emerge from Noro’s data on temporary migrants. More importantly, even the altruistic attitude evaporates when the questionnaires involve specific conditions or situations that can directly influence respondents’ environments. For instance, according to opinion survey, conducted by Cabinet Office, on human rights (2007), 59.3% claimed that foreigners’ human rights needed to be preserved regardless of their nationality, although 57.1% stated it is inevitable that foreigners experience unreasonable treatment, because they do not understand Japanese values or cultures. In addition, a survey conducted in Japan and Sweden by Otsuka et al. (2006) finds that Japanese respondents are much more pessimistic about migrants.

Sweden by Otsuka et al. (2006) finds that Japanese respondents are much more pessimistic about migrants.

<Figure 1> Public Attitude toward Migrants



Source: IPPS (2003).

Overall, there is a recurring tendency on Japanese attitude on migrants. Although they value general human rights, they tend to associate “overall migrants” with a negative image while they

are sensitive about preservation of cultural solidarity. The reasons behind can be traced down to their historical socialization with “others.” Kim’s (2010) survey indicates that majority of Japanese citizens (63 percent) claimed they did not have any close foreign acquaintance (N=106). This indicates that Japanese natives tend to have a negative attitude against migrants even without direct or personal contacts with them. To put it another way, there is a great plausibility that their perception on migrants is a product of prejudice, which is based on social norms and values, instead of actual encounter. The less frequent contact with foreigners seems to induce low-level interests as well as negative stereotypes toward migrants, and thus, the cleavage between natives and foreigners has been growing.

The question then carries onto why Japanese citizens have this prejudice against migrants. In fact, Japanese postwar discrimination against “foreigners” originates from a divide between Japanese natives and special permanent migrants. Until today, this cleavage has led frequent social conflicts (i.e., Hate Speech), and these events in turn exacerbated negative images on each other. As a result, this segregation between natives and special permanent migrants has spread to overall image of migrants, inducing outcomes shown in various opinions surveys.

Subsequently, there is a necessity to closely examine why this category initially emerged. Most of *Zainichi* at recent years are born and raised in Japan. However, because they do not share Japanese ancestry, they are strictly excluded from many rights. If Japan were a mixed regime where *jus soli* principle was implemented or naturalization procedure was easier, the number of *Zainichi*, who succeeded in obtaining Japanese citizenship, would have been larger. As a consequence, the fundamental racism in Japan would have been ameliorated, and the society would have transformed into more culturally diversified environment. Under such a circumstance, the public survey outcomes may have been different. Because Japanese citizenship law is strictly based on blood, those natives are used to a situation where migrants do not enjoy the same rights as theirs. Thus, they are hesitant to grant greater rights to migrants. Specifically, they regard that it is natural to allow controlled rights to temporary migrants while they feel threatened to give greater rights (in this case, political) to permanent migrants.

V. Political Calculation on Migrants

The previous section has elaborated an effect of citizenship law on Japanese public perception toward migrants. On this matter, the two main political parties in recent era, Liberal Democratic Party (LDP; *Jiminto*) and Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ; *Minshuto*), reveal different approaches. The former holds a more restrictive and conservative attitude, while the latter prefers more open and incorporating policies. DPJ members, such as Chiba and Hosokawa argued Japan needed to adopt amnesty for irregular migrants, and to find a way to integrate them into Japanese society instead of simply expelling them. On the contrary, LDP has sustained its opposing attitude, claiming that it would simply increase a number of the irregular (171st National Assembly Legal Committee No. 4, March 24, 2009; No. 10, May 12, 2009). Furthermore, the recent debate on granting political rights to permanent residents during DPJ rule (2009-2012) highlights these contrasting standpoints. Both DPJ and *Komeito* have expressed a positive attitude toward the idea. However, LDP has repeatedly argued that the permanent migrants needed to naturalize in order to obtain the right, because voting right is a fundamental right of Japanese citizens (although some of LDP members also called for granting political rights). Eventually, LDP’s overall opposition led to a failure of the proposal.

To understand causes to the firmly opposing attitude of LDP, I evaluate interest groups that support the party. Many scholars note that LDP has succeeded in sustaining its position as a dominant party for such a long period of time, because its main emphasis has been on attracting votes from various interest groups as an exchange of policies (Kinoshita, 2009). The two most dominant rent-seeking groups have been agricultural cooperative (*Nokyo*) and Employers' Association (*Keidanren*). Since the beginning of postwar era, agricultural cooperative has been a strong advocate, and thus, LDP has continued protectionist policies for domestic agricultural profits (Davis, 2003; Yamashita, 2009). Considering the fact that the Central Union of Agricultural Cooperatives (*JA-Zenchu*) involves 9,690,000 union members by the year of 2010, it is apparent that this interest group has long provided a stable voting basis for LDP. On the other, employers' association has been widely known for its financial lobby to LDP in order to support the latter's capitalist approach. Thus, there is a wide recognition that it pays to LDP to buy policies (Nikkei Newspaper, 2014).

The influence by the two dominant interest groups is perceptible in migration policymaking. Although LDP has enacted rather restrictive policies against migrants' rights or integration, it has allowed both high- and low-skilled migrants under a temporary scheme. The intention is quite apparent; LDP has attempted to satiate labor shortage in agricultural sector while *Keidanren* has continuously pushed for attracting greater number of skilled migrants. For instance, since 2000, *Keitandren* kept insisting for greater attraction of migrants with professional knowledge (Towards a Lively and Attractive Japan, 2003; Recommendation on Problems Arising from Incoming Migrants, 2004). As a result, the most recent change in migration policy took place by adopting point-based system. In fact, it was originally DPJ, which suggested introduction of this system when it was a dominant party (the Conference on Advanced Human Resources Promotion (*Kodojinzai Ukeire Suishin Kaigi*), 2009). Its report outlines broader rights for high skilled migrants as well as international students. Meanwhile, it emphasizes an easier access to permanent residency while it even hints plausibility for allowing entries of migrants with a right for an indefinite residency (pp. 9). However, when the actual system was implemented under LDP rule in 2012, these proposals were eliminated.

Despite the historical tie between LDP and its rent-seeking groups, this relationship has been hampered due to fears arising from former Prime Minister Koizumi's strong insist on privatization of postal service. Oshiro et al. (2010) note that votes from agricultural sector for LDP was extremely high for the 43th general election; however, its effect disappeared by the 45th election (pp. 18). As a result, these votes temporarily leaked to DPJ. In addition to its appeal to attract votes from the general public, the votes from agricultural sector assisted DPJ becoming a major party during this election. The implication is that DPJ's basis for votes is quite fragile, and therefore, it needed to generate a consolidated and stable winning coalition. When one scrutinizes an interest group that has not benefitted from policies by LDP, the migrant group quickly emerges as one of plausible candidates. In reality, the former Prime Minister Noda made an appearance to a festival held at Chiba prefecture by the Korean Residents Union (*Mindan*) in 2009. He made a speech, in which he stated that he could win the election because of the support from the union. In a budget meeting of House of Councilors in 2011, he eventually admitted that he previously received bribes from two officials of the union (Asahi Newspaper, 2011). The speculation here is that there has been a tie between DPJ and *Mindan*, and the latter intended to financially maneuver DPJ's policymaking.

One then needs to scrutinize why DPJ decided to co-opt migrants, instead of other domestic groups, when there was likelihood that favorable migration policy may disrupt existing public

support. In fact, when domestic conditions along with party image of DPJ are taken into account, incorporating permanent migrants by granting voting rights turns out to be a highly rational strategy. First, voting rate in Japan has been declining. According to the Association for Promoting Fair Elections (*Akarui Senkyo Suishin Kyokai*), none of major elections has recorded a voting rate higher than 70 percent since 1993. Moreover, a continuous public surveys by Kono et al. (2009) between 1973 and 2008 (N=5,400 per year) indicate that a rate of swing voters without any party affiliation has exceeded 50 percent since 1998 (pp. 6). These outcomes suggest that it would be wiser to formulate firm supporting groups in order to steadily maintain political power, instead of solely relying on swing voters, who irregularly go to elections.

Second, granting voting rights for permanent migrants fits with DPJ's image as a center-left party, which advocates preservation of fundamental human rights. As shown in the previous public polls, Japanese citizens seem to be sympathetic when it comes to human rights issue. Additionally, although there was a heated public debate on this issue, many public polls seem to indicate that Japanese natives are generally more optimistic about attributing regional voting rights to permanent residents as long as it is the only right permitted for them and it will not be misused by temporary migrants (Kim, 2010; Maruyama et al., 2006; Matsutani et al., 2005). By observing the public attitude, DPJ may have assumed the public opinion would not be problematic. Considering these conditions, DPJ's choice on co-opting permanent migrants by limiting its policy proposal to regional voting rights was the most strategic approach to stay in office.

When the indispensable cause to this situation and choices made by DPJ is taken into account, it is impossible to neglect Japanese *jus sanguinis* principle. Besides fears that the general public might hold against migrants, the benefit by incorporating migrant groups is usually minimal under this citizenship law. This explains why Japanese long-term ruling party, LDP, has treated them from an economic framework by emphasizing temporariness and domestically demanded types of labor. As a consequence, *Mindan* had to lobby DPJ, and this relatively innate party ended up pushing for political rights of permanent migrants to consolidate its political position. If Japanese nationality were provided by birthplace, LDP would have enacted more encompassing integration policies alongside economic concerns. Subsequently, this may have led ethnic minorities' groups into its winning coalition. Nevertheless, it is evident that Japanese citizenship law has a trajectory on contemporary migration policy outcome.

VI. Conclusion

Although many researchers treat Japan as a hostile country against migrants, it is no doubt that Japan admits a lot of foreigners. A more articulate description would be that Japan would welcome migrants, but their rights will be very limited. I have argued that a vital root to this tendency lays in the nature of citizenship law – in this case, a principle by ancestry. Because people in Japan are not used to face culturally or ethnically dissimilar aliens, who possess full membership, they naturally feel more fearful. Meanwhile, politicians rationally calculate a way to maximize their stay in office. Hence, when they treat migration policies, they consider the public sentiment on migrants as well as how many new votes they can gain by becoming generous toward migrants. In this sense, there is no incentive for politicians in Japan to enact such a policy, and this explains why LDP has long treated migrants merely as economic contributors.

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Disability digital divide: an analysis on Sri Lanka

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Disability digital divide is a pertinent topic discuss in Sri Lanka. Three decades of civil war effected to become many civilians into disabled. This study analyses the findings on disability and technology adoption among the disabled community in Sri Lanka. This study conducted in two stages and results analyses and proposed a framework to benchmark the web accessibility consideration factors that need to be consider into account for web based mobile application development. Sample cover with the 494 participants. Questionnaire distributed among the sample selected from the different disabled people and it cover from different communities, different disabled categories and different geographical locations. This study indicated that computer and internet usage among the community is low comparatively used of mobile phone. Reason for this is cost of the computer, mobility difficulties, cost of high speed bandwidth, difficulties of sitting in front of a computer, lack of understanding on modern assistive tools and technologies. Therefore mobile phones are popular among the community. As a solution a Framework proposed to overcome the issues .It included the essential consideration factors need be consider by the web developers in the mobile related web application development.

Keywords: Disability Digital Divide, Technology Adoption

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the disability and accessibility of information is a pertinent topic discussed in the modern globalised world. In Sri Lanka many people disabled due to the civil war during the three decades. This makes a huge disadvantage for the Nation. Due to their disability many of them are having difficulties of using technologies. It makes huge impact on equal accessibility on technology. Most technologies are daily added into their day to day works. But the main problem is adoption on those tools and technologies are low among the community due to their disability. Objective of this study is to propose some guidelines in mobile application development to bridge the disability digital divide in Sri Lanka.

This research basically finds out the current technology adoption in Sri Lanka. In second phase of this study is to find the adoption on three different mobile, web and computer adoption in Sri Lanka. Finally it discusses how the mobile application developers need to contribute to eliminate the digital divide gap in the country. Phase 01 of this study has been already published in the International conference at the Kothalawela Defence University-Sri lanka.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definitions

According to the Charlton (1998) and Driedger's (1989) study **disability** is complex, dynamic, multidimensional, and contested. Over recent decades, the disabled people's movement together with world report on disability numerous researchers from the social and health sciences (Barnes, 1991) – have identified the role of social and physical barriers in disability.

According to the Roger et.al(anon) **digital divide** is the latest evocative term that refers to differences in access to and uses of information technology that are correlated with income, race and ethnicity, gender, age, place of residence, and other measures of socioeconomic status. According to them some people “have the most powerful computers, the best telephone service

and fastest Internet service, as well as a wealth of content and training relevant to their lives.... another group of people ... don't have access to the newest and best computers, the most reliable telephone service or the fastest or most convenient Internet services. The difference between these two groups is ... the Digital Divide.”

According to the Sen (2009) Disability is a development issue, because of its bidirectional link to poverty: disability may increase the risk of poverty, and poverty may increase the risk of disability. Disabled community also face some difficulties of access computers, mobiles and Internet due to their disability. It causes for many reasons such as poverty, lack of awareness, language issue, social and ethical background and lack of interest.

2.2 Theory used for this study

In the Innovation - Diffusion Theory the status of Digital Divide of a disabled community was specified by means of an Index. This theory is basically used to identify the technology adoption of the differently abled community in Sri Lanka.

Rogers' diffusion of innovations theory is the most appropriate for investigating the adoption of technology in the disabled community. Many research involves technological innovations. Rogers (2003) usually used the word “technology” and “innovation” as synonyms. According to Rogers, “a technology is a design for instrumental action that reduces the uncertainty in the cause-effect relationships involved in achieving a desired outcome”. It is composed of two parts: hardware and software. While hardware is “the tool that embodies the technology in the form of a material or physical object,” software is “the information base for the tool” (Rogers, 2003). Since software (as a technological innovation) has a low level of observation and its rate of adoption is quite slow. The model is given in the figure 01.

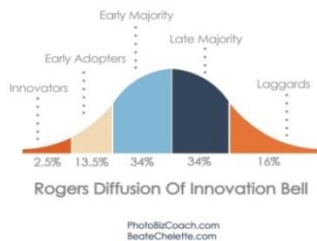


Figure 1: Rogers Diffusion Theory

3.0 METHODOLOGY

In the first phase of this study examine the level of adoption of ICT in a disabled community; it is basically divided in to three segments which include basic, intermediate and advanced technologies.

3.1 Research Strategy

This study has been conducted using an empirical investigation. This research consists of two phases. In the first phase the study on technology adoption for differently abled community is found using a survey. Second phase included another field survey to find data related to problems and issues related to use of computers, Internet and mobile usage by the disabled community.

3.2 Data Collection

Data was collected under two phases. In the first phase primary data is collected through observation and interviews at the Sri Lanka Army CLI, unit Panagoda. Around 40 Information Technology undergraduate students participated to interview the participants. Structured interviews were conducted. This study interviewed 314 differently abled people using a non-probability sampling method such as convenience sampling. Age group of the participants was between 20 and 50. Participants for this study were selected from different communities, disabled categories and various geographical locations. Data was collected under different themes.

In the second phase of this study conducted interviews with 180 disabled employees at the Ranaviru Apprel Yakala Branch. Structured interviews were conducted. Participants for this study were selected from different Age, Type of Work, Gender, Leaving arrangement, Employment status, Management Level and Income.

3.3 Data Analysis Framework

Table 1: Type of Variable Used for the Empirical Model in Phase 01
Variables Used in the Empirical Model

Variable Name	Type of Accessibility	Variable Description
B1	Basic	Telephone Use
B2	Basic	Web Access – Information Search and Email use
B3	Basic	Computer Use
I1	Intermediate	Office application Use
I2	Intermediate	Multimedia use
I3	Intermediate	Screen reader Software use
I4	Intermediate	Social media use
A1	Advance	IT Administration
A2	Advance	S/W Design Development related
A3	Advance	High-tech S/W Use (Eg. CAD/ CAM Operations)

Table 2: Dependent Variables Used in the Empirical Model

Type of Users	Dependent Variable	Range of the Digital Divide Index
1. ICT Innovators	DDI1	0.8 < DDI > 1.0
2. Early ICT Adopters	DDI2	0.6 < DDI > 0.8
3. Early Majority ICT Adopters	DDI3	DDI3 0.4 < DDI > 0.6
4. Late Majority ICT Adopters	DDI4	DDI4 0.2 < DDI > 0.4
5. Laggards in Adopting ICT	DDI5	DDI5 0.0 < DDI > 0.2

Level of Adoption of Basic ICT (B Basic ICT Facilities ICT) = Basic ICT Facilities/ 3 (i)

Level of Adoption of Intermediate ICT (I Intermediate ICT Facilities ICT) = Intermediate ICT Facilities/ 4 (ii)

Level of Adoption of Advanced ICT (A Advanced ICT Facilities ICT) = Advance ICT Facilities/ 3 (iii)

In the first sample set differently abled community adopts 2 out of 3 ICT facilities listed under the Basic category, its BICT would be $2 = 0.66$. Similarly, if the same set adopts 2 Intermediate and 1 Advanced ICT facility, its IICT and AICT would be $2/4 = 1/2 = 0.5$ and $1/3 = 0.33$, respectively.

3.4 Phase 02 –Data Analysis

Collected data were analysed based on qualitative approach according to thirteen themes. Analysis techniques used in this research were co-relation on the above factors on disability digital divide. Factors analysed based on the three main viewpoints including perception on technology, Technical problems and issues and other.

Under the perception of technology variables were consider as Income(CPI), Education(CPE), Desire for learning(CPL), Entertainment(CPEN), Culture(CPC).

Under the technical problems and issues variables were consider as web standard issues (CTW), Software incompatibility /user friendliness (CTS).

Under the other inhabiting factors variables were consider as Cost of Software Technology(COC), Lack of Awareness(COLA), Lack of Direction(COLD), Lack of Skills(COLS), Lack of resources(COLR), Lac of Training (COLT).

3.5 Inhabiting factors which causes for the issue.

Dependent variable used for this study based on the literature analysis and factors identified through the literature. Following variables Identified as causes for disability digital divide. It is given in the Table 3, Table 4 and Table 5.

Table 3: Web related factors

Perception on Technology (Independent Variables)	Technical problems and issues (Independent Variables)	Other inhabiting factors (Independent Variables)
Income(WPI)	web standard issues(WTW)	Cost of Software Technology(WOC)
Education (WPE)	Software incompatibility/ friendliness (WTS)	Lack of Awareness (WOLA)
Desire for learning(WPL)		Lack of Direction (WOLD)
Entertainment (WPEN)		Lack of Skills (WOLS)

Table 4: Mobile Related factors

Perception on Technology (Independent Variables)	Technical problems and issues (Independent Variables)	Other inhabiting factors (Independent Variables)
Income(MPI)	web standard issues(MTW)	Cost of Software Technology(MOC)
Education (MPE)	Software incompatibility/ user friendliness(MTS)	Lack of Awareness(MOLA)
Desire for learning(MPL)		Lack of Direction(MOLD)
Entertainment (MPEN)		Lack of Skills(MOLS)
Culture(MPC)		Lack of resources(MOLR)
		Lac of Training(MOLT)

Culture(WPC)		Lack of resources (WOLR)
		Lac of Training (WOLT)

For this study sample were collected with problems with eyes 53,Ears 05, Upper Limbs 06, Lower Limbs 06,Other simple disabilities 107 and reject 03.All together 180 sample were taken into the research.

4.0 RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive statistics of the sample included with the general information of differently abled community (age, experience in technology), and the other details are reported in Table 6.According to the descriptive statistics three main areas were taken into consideration such as current ICT knowledge, Relevance of IT for job related activities and Interest of ICT for future needs. Result of the study indicated that the level of Current ICT Knowledge is high among the age between 25 to 28.Reason for this could be that younger generation is using more smart phones and they are likes to incorporate new technologies. Adaption level is high among this community.

English language issues among this community are a significant issue. It is indicated that majority are having language barriers to use technology. 90 percent of the participant had English language issues and they are working in Sinhala language. Most of them are in the medium level .Most of the computer users are using office package in day today life at the same time some participants in young age like to use new innovative technology. But employees who are closer to retirement age do not like to learn new technologies. Their ambition is to have their pension and stay at home. But they are interested in giving IT education to their children rather than learning themselves.

According to the findings social media usage is 0% among the community. Restriction of social media with in the office hours and office computer are cause for this result. Most of them do not have a computer at home and as a result less usage of social media among the community.

Table 6: Use of Technology

Variable	Description	Respondent	Percentage
B1	Telephone Use	252	98 %
B2	Web Access	150	58 %
B3	Computer Use	155	60 %
I1	Office application Use	131	51 %
I2	Multimedia use	28	11 %
I3	Screen reader Software use	4	0 %
I4	Social media use	10	0 %
A1	IT Administration	2	0 %
A2	S/W Design Development related	1	0 %

A3	High-tech S/W Use	0	0 %
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Level of Adoption

According to the Rodgers adoption theory discussed above following calculations were done to identify the level of adoption.

$$\text{Level of Adoption of Basic ICT (B Basic ICT Facilities ICT)} = \text{Basic ICT Facilities} / 3$$

According to the formula values for adoption in basic ICT is 72 % .Therefore this study conclude that level of adoption among the use of basic ICT Facilities are between 0.8 to 0.6. Therefore it is proved that this community are early users for basic level of ICT facilities. This is shown in the figure 3.

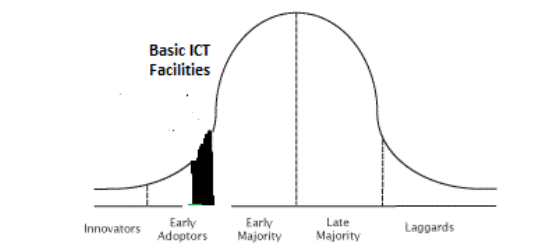


Figure 2: Adoption on Basic ICT Facilities

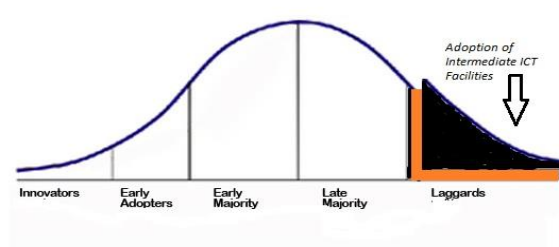


Figure 3: Adoption on Intermediate ICT

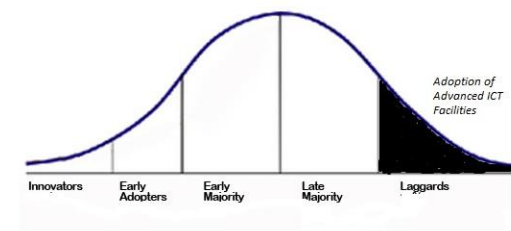


Figure 4: Adoption on Advance ICT Facilities

$$\text{Level of Adoption of Intermediate ICT (I Intermediate ICT Facilities ICT)} = \text{Intermediate ICT Facilities} / 4$$

According to the formula, values for adoption in Intermediate ICT is 15.5 % .Therefore this study concludes that level of adoption among the users of basic ICT Facilities are between 0.2 to 0.0. Therefore it proves that this community are Laggards in Adopting ICT for Intermediate level of ICT facilities. This is shown in the Figure 4.

$$\text{Level of Adoption of Advanced ICT (A Advanced ICT Facilities ICT)} = \text{Advance ICT Facilities} / 3$$

According to the formula values for adoption in advance ICT is 0 % .Therefore this study concludes that level of adoption among the use of basic ICT Facilities is 0.2 to 0. Therefore, it is

consider that this community are Laggards in Adopting for advance ICT facilities. This is shown in the figure 5.

According to the analysis, 58 % are using web services including E-mail system, but statistics indicated that the usage of social media usage is 0%. Reason for this fact indicated that this community does not use modern social relationships with the use of web technology.

4.1 Mobile, Web and Computer Adoption- Phase II

According to the phase II study findings it was indicated that among the three technologies mobile usage is high among the community and computers and web usage is not much popular among them. The following figure 5, 6 and 7 has shown the techr

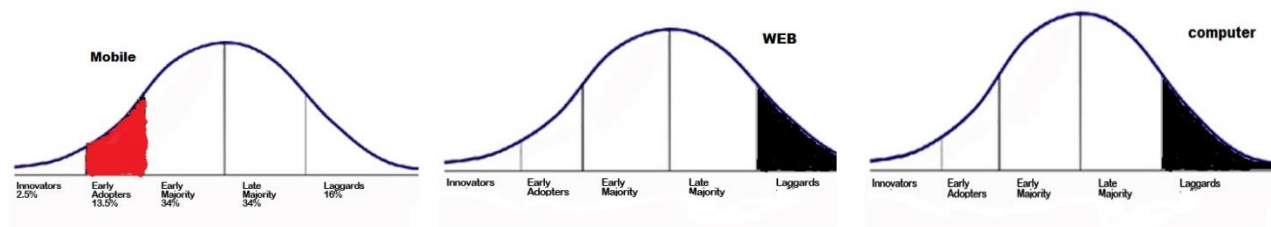


Figure 5: Mobile Technology Adoption Figure 6: Web Technology Adoption Figure 7: Computer Technology

Adoption

5.0 Conclusions and Recommendation

According to the research findings basic level ICT Facilities are more used by the Sri Lankan disabled. Mobile usage is high compare to the computer and web usage among this community. In order to bridging the disability digital divide mobile application developers need to consider accessibility guidelines for application developments before releasing the products. The proposed recommendations are guided and support based on the latest information week magazine findings and literature survey findings.

5.1 Add alternative text to images

Disabled users those who are using screen readers are facing this problem. This could be considering as an important issue that Sri Lankan mobile developers also consider. When screen reader software's are converting digital pictures into speech technologies proper converting mechanism is required. It is necessary to including meaningful name to the picture during the development process. Therefore screen reader users can have a clear idea of the image.

5.2 Consider Captioning for Audio and Video

Deaf or hard hearing are having inequality of access audio. Most people today's are accessing and interesting on online video and audio formats. Therefore like other countries Sri Lankan producers also need to consider adds captioning into the video and audio content.

5.3 Transcription Facilities for Brail and Other Devises

Another most important concept is to consider on user inputs on address fields, drop-down menus, submit and buy buttons .The people use mobile apps and digital interfaces are facing

difficulties if the buttons are not labeled properly. They are not having a clear idea on which button is for what purpose. Therefore there should be a proper idea on developers on this issue

5.4 Proper Row and Column Headers for Tables

Proper tabling is important for screen-reader technologies to function properly. Logical arrangement of row and column headers will be necessary for data translation. These data tables need to add in the mark-up, the '<td>' tag for data table cell and '<th>' use for table header cell. Most programming languages are using different tags and difficult to convert properly in the screen reading language.

5.5 Testing with Assistive Technologies

When the mobile applications are developed it is necessary to test the applications with assistive technologies including screen readers, refreshable brail displays, screen magnification and high contrast setting. This will overcome many accessibility issues faced by the differently abled community

5.6 Get Feedback from People with Disabilities

When developing mobile application get the feedback from the disabled community is an important concentration. Before going it as live using tested software could be remove the accessibility difficulties faced by the disabled community.

5.7 Follow Latest Release on W3C, WAI Accessibility Guidelines for Mobile Accessibility

Mobile developers need to consider on the W3C initiatives publish in the website. It is necessary to recommended following these guidelines among the mobile developers.

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Investigating Equity in Inclusive Education: Implications for Long-term Educational Investment

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Improving educational equity has significant long-term return on increasing social wellbeing, economic gains and tax revenues. Thus, it is critical to provide equitable education to all students in inclusive classrooms. The present study examined the equitability of test accommodation policies and practices by examining student performance of the Ontario Secondary Literacy Test (OSSLT) in Canada (N = 208,289). The accommodations provided to students included extra testing time, a computer, and/or assistive technology. This study investigated whether or not accommodated students with learning disabilities (LD), emotional and behavioural disorders (EBD), or multiple exceptionalities (MD) have same probability for achieving the provincial standards as their non-accommodated counterparts with special needs. The results suggest that the likelihoods of achieving the standards may differ among these students who received or did not receive varied accommodations. Compared with non-accommodated students with disabilities, the likelihood of being at or above standards for non-accommodated students without special needs were substantially higher. Non-disabled students using standard testing procedures were 6.2 times, 2.7 times, and 8.75 times more likely to achieve the standards compared with those with LD, EBD, or MD, respectively. This paper discusses the potential implications and application of such research in the context of Asian countries.

Keywords: equity, inclusive education, quantitative methods Theme: Education & Teaching

Of books and babies: Defining the Lived Experiences of College Student-Mommies

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The societal inclusion of student-mothers in higher educational institutions has changed the landscapes of universities in the Philippines. Being a student and mother at the same time has corresponding ramifications both on their academic and maternal roles. Using contextual analysis, this qualitative study examines the lived experiences of student-mothers enrolled in their undergraduate studies. Specifically, it describes their academic and child care performance and seeks to find various aspects that affect their situation as student-mothers such as the number of children, support from immediate family and father of the children and the school policies. Analyzing the respondents' sharing of their lived experience, this study found the following themes that are common among student-mothers' experiences: 1. disappointment, acceptance & second chance, 2. immediate family support, 3. hardships in childcare, 4. regular students with considerate teachers and 5. Lessons learned.

Characterization of the Particle Size in Magnetic Resonance Imaging Contrast Agents with the Concentration

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Contrast agents are useful to improve the ability of detection in Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI). Better signal amplification can be achieved if a suitable MR contrast agent is accumulated in the target cells with an adequate concentration. When considering the physiochemical properties of the MR contrast agents, the particle size plays an important role as it affects the efficiency of the physiological reaction inside the human body. The objective of this study was to evaluate and compare the mean hydrodynamic particle diameter in five types of commonly used MR contrast agents, with respect to their concentrations. The mean hydrodynamic diameter measurements of Ammonium ferric citrate, Feridex, Resovist, Magnevist and Prohence were conducted in an aqueous medium by Dynamic Light Scattering technique. The results indicated that increasing the concentration leads to increase in the particle diameter of some contrast molecules. At the same time the multiple associations between Ammonium ferric citrate molecules were observed when the concentration was increased. Therefore, according to the results of the study, Ammonium ferric citrate was demonstrated the largest mean diameter at the concentration level of 5 % w/w.

Keywords: Particle size, self-association, Concentration, Dynamic light scattering

1. Introduction

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) is a rapidly evolving diagnostic tool that can produce high quality anatomical images of the soft tissues in the human body. MRI has many advantages over other diagnostic imaging modalities, as it can produce excellent spatial resolution without any radiation burden [Strijkers et al. 2007; Caravan 2006]. However, MRI has relatively low sensitivity compares to the other imaging modalities, because of this, for successful bio-imaging the development of signal intensity (SI) becomes quintessential [Caravan 2006; LiLi et al. 2013]. The signal intensity of MRI is depends on the T1 (spin–lattice) and T2 (spin–spin) relaxation times and proton density. MR contrast agents such as magnetic compounds, chelates of gadolinium or iron oxides can be manipulated the relaxation times to enhance the visibility on MR images. During the clinical application, MR contrast agents can be divided into two categories according to the manipulation of T1 and T2 relaxation times. Paramagnetic CAs which can alter the longitudinal (T1) relaxation times of the neighboring water protons are recognized as positive CAs. On the other hand, super paramagnetic CAs which can alter the transverse (T2) relaxation times of water protons, are recognized as negative CAs [Riyahi-Alam et al. 2015; LiLi et al. 2013]. Positive CAs like Gd⁺³-based agents, are widely applicable for different organs such as liver, spleen and lungs, whereas, negative CAs such as iron oxide particles are only specific to the liver [Strijkers et al. 2007; Riyahi-Alam et al. 2015; Jo et al. 2010].

Higher local concentrations of CAs are required at the target sites to generate optimum image contrast due to low sensitivity of MRI. When considering the physiochemical properties of the

MR CAs, the particle size plays an important role as it affects the efficiency of the physiological reaction inside the human body. There are several physical properties depends on the particle size such as magnetization and charging [Waters et al. 2008]. Thus, CAs should have a proper size with adequate concentration to produce optimum effect on the observed signal. At the same time, in order to achieve sufficient T1 changes in MRI, relaxivity of the molecule should be increased. Because relaxivity is dependent on molecular motion which based on particle size, optimization of relaxivity also affected by particle size [Caravan 2006; Osuga et al. 2004].

The T1 relaxivity can be improved using small CA particles and use of T1 weighted imaging sequences in the clinical setting. Small particles have a high surface to volume ratio. Particles size and functionalization of the particles have been considered to be important for cell uptake. Less than 100 nm (hydrodynamic diameter) particles are generally preferred for cell uptake and large iron oxide particle are used for bowel and liver imaging [LiLi et al. 2013; Waters et al. 2008]. Vance et al. [2009] suggested that particles between 25-50 nm were internalized most efficiently into the cells.

Generally the total particle size of CA is considered as actual particle size with the nano-magnetic particle (NMPs) coating. The sizes of the nanoparticles that are used in MRI are about 3 to 350 nm [Waters et al. 2008]. The total particle size in the solution can be larger than the dry size, due to the absorbed, hydrated coating layer. To describe the particle size, usually hydrodynamic diameter is used. Hydrodynamic diameter is derived from Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) technique which calculate average solution particle sizes by monitoring the diffusion characteristics of the particles in a solution [Wang et al. 2001]. Suspended particles exhibit Brownian motion and this motion basically depends on the size of the particle, when temperature and the viscosity are controlled. Scattered light from moving particles measures particle velocity distribution based on particle size.

Therefore the objective of this study was to evaluate and compare the mean hydrodynamic particle diameter measurements in five types of commonly used MRI contrast agents, with respect to their concentrations.

2. Methodology

In-vitro experiments were performed on five types of commonly used CAs to measure the mean hydrodynamic particle diameter from dynamic light scattering (DLS) technique. Characteristics of these CAs relevant to this study are shown in Table 1.

Contrast agent	Structure	Classificati	Target
Ferric ammonium citrate	$C_6H_5+4yFexNyO_7$	T1 agent	Upper
Feridex (Ferumoxides/ /Super-paramagnetic iron oxide)	Fe_3O_4 (SPIO)	T2 agent	Reticuloendothelial system , Liver
Resovist (ferucarbotran/ super-paramagnetic iron oxide)	Magnetite Fe_3O_4 and maghemite-gamma Fe_2O_3 (SPIO)	T1 and T2 agent	Liver
Magnevist (Gd-DTPA)	Gd-DTPA	T1 agent	Intravascular, Renal excretion
Prohence (Gadoteridol)	Gd-1,4,7	T1 agent	Brain, Spine, Whole body

Table 1. Characteristics of Contrast Agents [<http://www.mr-tip.com>]

DLS experiments were performed using a Microtrac wave particle dynamic light scattering analyzer (Nikkiso, Tokyo, Japan) which can measure the particle sizes ranging from 0.8 - 6500 nm, with a laser diode (3 mW output power) operating at 780 nm. After preparation of the instrument, a few drops of sample were added on to the sensor cell until the red bar reaches the green zone on the computer. After that the measurements were taken for each five CA samples separately. In DLS technique, light from a laser diode is coupled to the sample through an optical beam splitter in the probe assembly as shown Figure 1. The laser is frequency shifted according to the Doppler effect relative to the velocity of the particle. Using $MW = \frac{A \rho D^3}{6}$, hydrodynamic molecular weight (MW) is calculated, where A is Avogadro number, ρ is molecular density and D is the hydrodynamic diameter. The Debye plots which reflect the MW depends upon an accurate measurement of the light that is scattered by a molecular suspension with presence of known C concentration. Rayleigh ratio (R) is the ratio of total scattered-light to total incident-light. The expressed MW relates to the Rayleigh ratio and the sample concentration in the analyzer [<http://www.microtrac.com/MTWP/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/Nanotracs-Wave-Temp-Brochure-Ver-9.pdf>].

In this experiment, the temperature was controlled at 25 °C and the scattering angle was set at 180°. First, the histograms which reflect the hydrodynamic diameter with the abundance were derived from the resulted output then the concentration dependent behavior of the CA conjugates by DLS results.

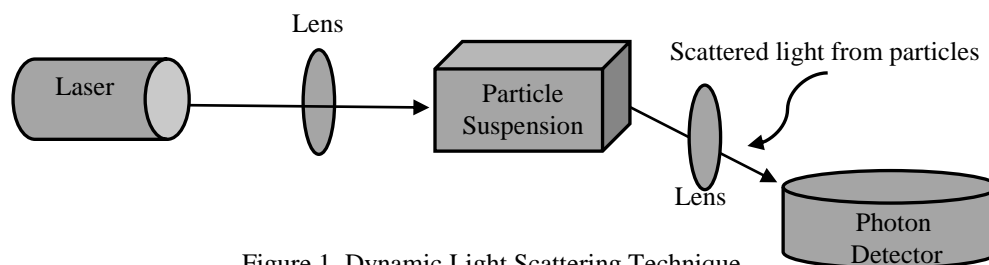


Figure 1. Dynamic Light Scattering Technique

3. Results and Discussion

The current study was conducted using dynamic light scattering (DLS) technique to examine the hydrodynamic particle diameter of MR contrast agents in an aqueous solution as a function of concentration. In addition to that this has allowed the determination of their self-association properties and surface properties in different concentration levels. Particles in a dispersing fluid are subject to random collisions with the thermally excited molecules resulting in Brownian motion. Although the direction and velocity of the resulting motion are random, the velocity distribution of a large number of mono-sized particles averaged over a long period will approach a known functional form, in this case the size distribution of the particles can be achieved [<http://www.microtrac.com/MTWP/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/Nanotracs-Wave-Temp-Brochure-Ver-9.pdf>]. The results in this study were obtained assuming spherical particle geometry and mono-modal but poly-disperse distribution of sizes based on the laser diffraction property in DLS technique. Because of that, the resulting particle sizes are the diameters of

hypothetical spheres with the same diffusion coefficients when the CA aggregates [Riyahi-Alam et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2001].

In this experiment, the highest concentration was utilized in Ferric ammonium citrate (5% (w/w)) and the lowest concentration was utilized in Feridex and Resovist (0.5×10^{-6} mol/L). From the obtained results, the diameters were found to be concentration dependent of some contrast molecules. Particle diameters of Ferric ammonium citrate and Prohence were demonstrated the higher dependency with the concentration. The results were indicated that increasing the concentration of these contrast agents caused to increase in the size of the mean hydrodynamic particle diameter. This can be occurred as a result of self-association of these molecules in an aqueous solution.

Particles with hydrodynamic diameter less than 100 nm are generally preferred for cell uptake [LiLi et al. 2013; Jo et al. 2010]. T2 relaxivity is highly sensitive to particle size in SPIO and larger SPIO generally have higher T2 relaxivity [LiLi et al. 2013]. According to the results of the study both Ferric ammonium citrate and Feridex were exhibited relatively larger mean diameter. But it is important to point out that the concentration levels of 0.5×10^{-1} and 0.5×10^{-2} mol/L of Feridex were reported comparatively less mean diameter (<80nm) with agreement of the previous studies [Saito et al. 2012]. Particles with larger diameters were more efficiently incorporated into macrophages. The diameters of SPIO used in previous studies were over 150 nm [Oude Engberink et al. 2007; , Daldrup-Link HE et al. 2003]. Generally the particle size of Feridex has rather larger diameter than Ferric ammonium citrate but when the concentration was increased the Amonium ferric citrate demonstrated a somewhat larger diameter than Feridex in this study, presumably due to the weak tendency of these particles to self-associate in a solution. The particles which considered as SPIO were demonstrated larger mean diameter compared to the other contrast solutions. The highest mean hydrodynamic particle diameter (1903nm) was found at 5% (w/w) of Amonium ferric citrate and the smallest hydrodynamic mean diameter (0.910 nm) was found at 0.05 mol/L of Prohence.

The data demonstrated a unimodal distributions for the Ferric ammonium citrate at the concentration level of 0.05% (w/w) and 1% (w/w), Resovist at the concentration level of 0.5×10^{-2} , Magnevist and Prohence at all the studied concentration levels. However, all the measured contrast agents demonstrated poly-dispersed particle diameter distribution at all the concentration levels. The Graphic Standard Deviation measurement is one of the measures of the width of the poly-disperse distribution (<http://www.microtrac.com/MTWP/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/Nanotrac-Wave-Temp-Brochure-Ver-9.pdf>). Prohence demonstrated the narrowest poly-disperse distribution (0.09nm) in the concentration of 0.05 mol/L and Ferric ammonium citrate demonstrated the widest (2433nm) poly-disperse distribution at the concentration of 1% (w/w).

In this study, when the concentration is decreased, the apparent hydrodynamic diameters of both Amonium ferric citrate and Prohence shifted to lower values, while no such shift is observed for Feridex and Resovist. This result implies a shift in the population of the larger association to smaller ones for Ferric ammonium citrate but not for Feridex and Resovist. Thus, some contrast agent molecules self-association are less impacted by changes in parameters such as concentration. The current study shows the less self-association tendency of Gd-DTPA and Prohence contrast agents at the studied concentration levels. This difference in self-association behavior may be due to a difference in the inter-molecular and intra-molecular interactions between associated species. Previous studies are [Sitharaman et al. 2004] reported that some Gd based contrast compound was detected with no self-association behavior which is in agreement

with the current study. The SPIO molecules indicate a high surface area at all the measured concentration levels. Furthermore, the study demonstrated a larger surface area of the Feridex which respects to Resovist. Notably, Gd-DTPA and Prohence were demonstrated relatively small particle diameter measurements which are in agreement with the previous studies [Shu et al.2009].

4. Conclusion

From the obtained results, the diameters were considered to be concentration dependent only in some contrast molecules. Ferric ammonium citrate demonstrated the largest mean diameter at all the studied concentration levels.

Table 2. Results of Dynamic Light Scattering Technique

Contrast Agent	Concentration	Mean Diameter (nm)	Distribution
Ferric ammonium citrate	10% (w/w)	4014	Bi-modal
	1% (w/w)	2628	Bi-modal
	0.2% (w/w)	1945	Unimodal
	0.05% (w/w)	7.53	Unimodal
Feridex	0.5×10^{-1} mol/L	53.9	Bi-modal
	0.5×10^{-2} mol/L	59.8	Bi-modal
	0.5×10^{-4} mol/L	101.2	Multi modal
	0.5×10^{-6} mol/L	749.7	Multi modal
Resovist	0.5×10^{-1} mol/L	56.3	Bi-model
	0.5×10^{-2} mol/L	58.78	Unimodal
	0.5×10^{-4} mol/L	173.9	Multi modal
	0.5×10^{-6} mol/L	73.05	Bi-model
Magnevist	0.5×10^{-1} mol/L	1.23	Unimodal
Prohence	0.5×10^0 mol/L	1.91	Unimodal
	0.5×10^{-1} mol/L	0.92	Unimodal

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Students' Perceptions of Community Service Learning 2013-2014: Basis for the Re-Implementation of the Projects of the National Service Training Program at De La Salle Lipa

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Community service learning (CSL) is becoming an important course in Philippine higher education institutions. As it focuses on hands-on learning for and by the students, CSL requires accurate evaluation from them as the key players in service learning. The researchers aimed to determine the outlook of the students enrolled in the National Service Training Program (NSTP) of De La Salle Lipa regarding its community projects for school year 2013-2014. 783 students took part in the evaluation. This descriptive study utilized the Lens Model for Service-Learning Educators. The DLSL CSL Evaluation 2013-2014 was used as the data gathering tool. Frequency, percentage and mean were the statistical tools utilized. Findings revealed that the students had a positive evaluation of their CSL experiences. Most of them applied the subject's academic content to real-world situations. They gained new knowledge and skills which they might not have done so inside the classroom. Majority of the respondents became more motivated to think about their future career options. They felt that they made personal contributions through the CSLs. Most of them recommended the integration of service-learning into their future subjects. All of these positive feedbacks implied the reimplementation of the NSTP projects for the next school year.

Keywords: community service learning, service learning, National Service Training Program

The Impact of Victory Christian Fellowship to De La Salle College Students

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The phenomenal growth in the members of Evangelical churches has influenced an increasing number of catholic students in the Philippines. These students slowly desert their obligations in the Catholic Church and become member of these Evangelical churches. This paper examines the relationship of the cohorts' demographic profile to their membership and reason in joining the Victory Christian Fellowship and looks on its perceived impact to LaSallian catholic students.

Keywords: Victory Christian Fellowship, Evangelical, catholic students

Public Sector Performance Appraisal System: A Case Study of Public Management Assistant Service in Sri Lanka

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At present performance appraisal is a widely practiced tool in field of human resource management in any organization. Respectable policy makers need to introduce effective appraisal system to organization since it benefitted to make sound administrative and development decision on employee performance, assist to successful achievement of organizational objectives, enhance economic growth through labor productivity of the country. Therefore, this study aims to critically evaluate existing performance appraisal system in Sri Lanka focusing on Public Management Assistant Service (PMAS) as a case study. Though PMAS was established in 2004, they still practicing long-standing appraisal system introduced for general clerical service in 1998. Therefore, using primary data collected by appraisers and appraises expect to identify effectiveness of this appraisal system, in three aspects: Characteristics of design and operation, appraiser's behavior and appraises behavior of the system. The results revealed that appraiser and appraise have more negative perceptions on system effectiveness and empirical results indicated that characteristics of design and operation and appraiser behavior are significantly affected to increase their negative perception. Thus, this study hopes to suggest effective recommendations to overcome identified issues in appraisal system considering both party suggestions and best practices of other countries.

Key words: Performance appraisal system, appraiser, appraise, moderator, Service minute in public management assistant service.

Introduction

In order to acquire a competitive advantage to compete with opponents, effective human resource practices are essential for any organization regardless of organizational differences: public or private, small or large, service or manufacturing. Therefore, at present most of the organizations pay attention to practice performance appraisal within their organization as a vital tool in human resource field to ensure effective evaluation and management on employee performance (Kumar, 2005).

Public service is the arm of the government in translating its policies into practices. Thus, government needs a reliable and efficient public service to implement policies in order to achieve its objectives. Therefore, the performance of public employees is very critical to any country since it is the primary factor that ensures an efficient and effective public service within the country. Ahmad & Spicer (2002) have stated that, the poor performance of public employees raise negative feelings among the citizens and creates doubts and dissatisfaction with the government recruitment process and public administration system in the country.

Sri Lanka is heading for a new era of economic development at the end of a thirty (30) year civil war in the country. Thus at present, in order to achieve government objectives through implementing massive development projects, the Sri Lankan public sector needs to play an important and influential role at national, provincial and local level as a major implementer and facilitator of the government. Sri Lankan public sector has significant characteristics compared

with other countries. According to the CBSL Annual Report (2012), 1,244,315 employees representing the public sector out of the estimated population of 20,328,000 in 2012. The entire public sector consists of two categories: government and semi-government sectors and there are many professional categories serving both sectors in the government. Public employees working in central /national government, local governments, and provincial councils are considered as the government sector while employees working in state corporations, statutory boards and state authorities are considered as the semi-government. Irrespective of the strength of the public sector, the massive budget allocation is another significant factor in a Sri Lankan public sector. CBSL Annual Report (2012) highlighted that the overall nominal wage rate index has increased by 6.9 percent in 2012 on average, compared to an increase of 6.7 percent in 2011, due to new recruitments for government and semi-government sectors.

Department of Management Service's Statistics as cited in Sri Lankan CBSL Annual Report (2012) revealed that, the Public Management Assistant Service (PMAS) is the 3rd largest category in the Sri Lankan public service, consisting of 32,192 career positions all over the country. Of which 16, 677 are recruited at the national level while other positions are filled by provincial and local governments. Officers of PMAS are the officials who directly deliver government services to the ordinary citizen at all three administrative levels, thus representing the larger portion of middle-level public officers in Sri Lanka. The Public Management Assistant Service was established in 2004 by amalgamating several service categories: general clerical service, government shorthand and typist service, government shroffs' service, government book-keeping service and government store-keeper service. In 2004, all officers who were absorbed from several service categories were renamed as public management assistant service and their duties and other administrative matters relied on the new service minute of PMAS (Government Notification, 2004; Ministry of Public Administration and Home Affairs, 2004).

Even though, several service categories were included into one service and their functions and duties changed according to the requirements of new service minute, the recruitment authority, the Ministry of Public Administration and Home affairs has failed to identify and introduce new performance evaluation system to evaluate individual performance of new service members in PMAS. Therefore, officers in PMAS still continue the old performance evaluation system introduced in 1998 by PA Circular No.07/98 and PA Circular No. 08/98(1) to evaluate the performance of the general clerical service. Though the previous appraisal system is still in use, the effectiveness of the appraisal system is questionable due to many reasons.

Objectives of the study are critically examine the existing performance appraisal system of the Public management assistant service (PMAS) with a view to identify the drawbacks that influence the effectiveness of the system, undertake a literature survey to find out best practices to evaluate public officers in other countries and recommend a viable performance appraisal system that can effectively evaluate officers' performance in management assistant service in Sri Lanka.

Methodology

This study is descriptive since it aims to describe the perceptions of an appraiser and appraisee regarding the main three facets of current performance appraisal system in PMAS. In order to satisfy the first objective of this study, the researcher critically examined the current evaluation system through questionnaire surveys to identify significant drawbacks that affect its' effectiveness.

The study adopted the survey method to collect data by applying two questionnaires which were developed based on three main areas in performance appraisal: design and operation, appraiser's behavior and appraisees behavior that can affect effectiveness of any PA system information gained from the literature review. The same content of the questionnaire was used to get responses from appraisers and appraisees. The First questionnaire was distributed to executive officers who play appraiser's role in PMAS appraisal system and another questionnaire was distributed to the PMAS officers to identify the degree of their perception as appraisees.

The appraisers and appraisees of PMAS performance appraisal process who are working in the Ministry of Public Administration, all district and divisional secretariats in the Western Province: three (03) district secretariats and forty (40) divisional secretariats were selected as samples for this study. Western province was selected in order to conduct this research as a case study of this province and Ministry of Public Administration and Home Affairs was selected because it is the central administrative body of this performance evaluation system situated in Western province. Three hundred and ten (310) questionnaires were circulated to appraisers, and 171 responses received, representing 55.16 % response rate. 182 responses were received by appraisees; however, the response rate is comparatively less than appraiser's response rate that is 11.38%.

Both questionnaires mainly consist of two parts, with thirty-five (35) structural statements/questions and two (02) open-ended questions. In part I: the general information part expects to collect demographics details of the participants and Part II expects to capture the degree of perception of participants on each and every aspect of problem areas associated with the current appraisal system and how their perception affects the overall responses on system effectiveness. The participants rated their level of agreement or disagreement using 4-point Likert scale technique for the statements from 08 to 34 related to the second part of the questionnaires. Finally, in order to get the overall perception of participants on whether PMAS system is effective or not, participants were asked to select one of the answers from check box that was applied for question No.35. Furthermore, two open-ended questions are used to get suggestions from the participants for improvement of PMAS appraisal system in future if necessary.

Cronbach's coefficient alpha was calculated in order to assess the item's reliability in two questionnaires. Both questionnaires were evaluated in Stata in order to get a confirmation of their item scale reliability. In appraiser's questionnaire, the overall standardized item scale reliability is 0.8193 as the standardized item scale reliability for design variable is 0.7013. The reliability for appraiser behavior variable is 0.7377 and the appraisee behavior variable is 0.7353. Particularly overall standardized item scale reliability for appraisees questionnaires is 0.7124, while maintaining standardized item scale reliability for design variable is 0.7214, for appraiser behavior variable is 0.7353 and appraisee behavior variable is 0.7241. Therefore, it is revealed that, both of the questionnaires in this study are able to maintain their consistency.

Mainly descriptive analyzing methods are applied to analyze part I and part II results of the questionnaires. In part I, frequency and relative frequency were calculated to depict the representation of the sample based on different demographic characteristics. In part II, point values are assigned to each and every response on Likert scale under the region 0-1 in order to get the average level of agreement /disagreement of each statement. Thereafter more descriptive tools: frequency distribution table, contingency tables, and comparative graphs are used to visualize the analyzed results qualitatively. Finally in order to submit empirical evidence to

illustrate causal relationship between responses on system effectiveness (dependent variable) and three main factors related to the existing appraisal system (independent variables), the following probit regression model is applied as a supplementary data analyzing method in this study. This model was constructed by author mainly focusing on appraisal-related problems that influenced system effectiveness in three aspects as presented by Dayal in 1976 as a traditional categorization of performance appraisal problems. According to his explanation these are the main areas influencing performance appraisal, therefore, based on that argument the researcher developed this model to get the perception of appraisal system effectiveness with respect to those three areas in PMAS performance appraisal system.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Responses on} \\ \text{System Effectiveness} \end{array} \right\} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ Responses on design and operation characteristics} + \beta_2 \text{ Responses on characteristics of appraiser's behavior} + \beta_3 \text{ Responses on characteristics of appraises behavior}$$

Results: Descriptive analysis

The majority of appraisers and appraises have a negative perception of this performance appraisal system. By representing 64.91% appraisers and 83.52% appraises rated this system as non-effective system.

In addition analyzed results explained that, on average, majority of appraisers agreed with six (06) statements in part II related to the design and operation characteristics of existing appraisal system as follows. Poor link between performance goals and organizational objectives (55.02%), more subjective measure than objective measures (54.24%), not working as an employee motivator (50.76%), no proper link between performance results and rewarding system (56.82%), unable to identify employee training requirements(52.43%) and not following-up frequent review system (56.08). According to their perspective, the poor link between performance results and the rewarding system is the main issue in this appraisal system. From appraises point of view, on average, the majority of appraises agreed with other all statements irrespective of insufficient feedback from the system and undefined evaluation criteria. The highest percentage of appraises agreed there is a poor link between performance results and rewarding system (73.23%) in the existing appraisal system. In addition, appraises also presented a high rate of agreement on same issues which are already agreed with appraisers in relation to the design and operation aspects of the system: poor link between performance goals and organizational objectives (51.98%), more subjective measure than objective measures (53.59%), not working as an employee motivator (62.79%), unable to identify employee training requirements (51.76%) and not following-up frequent review system (52.83%). However, though the majority of appraisers do not agree with issues such as not encouraging proper documentation system and no adequate validity for self-evaluation, majority of appraises have agreed with those issues in the existing appraisal system.

Furthermore, on average the majority of appraisers are agreed that, the existing appraisal system is influenced by some issues related to the appraiser behavior by showing their high agreement level of some statements in the list: contrast error (66.22%), recency error (60.03%), central tendency error (59.49%) and first impression error (57.69). On average, majority of appraises are agreed that, the existing appraisal system affect some appraisers issues: similar to me error (67.74%), recency error (63.59%), stereotyping (60.79%), personal bias (53.03%), spillover bias (51.95%). Even though, the majority of appraisers are agreed that, appraisal system has affected

by contrast error, central tendency error, and first impression error, but, the majority of appraisers do not agree with them. However, the majority of both parties have agreed that, recency error influences the existing appraisal system.

The analyzed results explained that on average majority of appraisers agreed that, most of the subordinates have not participated in the goal setting process in their appraisal process (67.60%), as they do not have a better understanding of the main purpose of their evaluation system (60.47%), furthermore they are more reluctant to talk with their appraisers to identify their weaknesses and further improvements (55.44%). Significantly, on average, the majority of appraisers 66.77% also agreed that same issue in appraisers behavior on performance appraisal system accounted for poor participation in the goal setting process, 60.08% for poor understanding about the main purpose of the evaluation system and 5.73% for reluctance to talk with appraisers. However, majority of both parties did not agree on specific issues related to the defensiveness and resistance to evaluation, poor respect for the appraisal system, lack of feedback and response to evaluation and poor working relationship with appraiser.

Results: Empirical analysis

The appraiser's point of view, results explained that, design characteristics, appraiser's behavior and appraiser behavior in existing appraisal system negatively affected the responses on the effectiveness of appraisers. The chi-square value is 0.000, R-square value is 0.2300 related to this regression results. Even though all three independent variables have the negative effect on system effectiveness, only design characteristics make a highly significant negative effect on responses of system effectiveness, representing 1% significance level. Appraisers who have worked as appraisers for more than 20 appraisals, have negative responses on system effectiveness representing 10% significance level, and appraisers who are working as appraisers for 11-20 appraisals have negative responses on system effectiveness representing 1% significance level, compared to the appraisers who have responsibility to appraise below 05 appraisals. It is explained that, when the number of appraisals were increased, the appraiser's perception of system effectiveness also decreased, because appraisers can gain a better understanding and practical experience on the existing system by evaluating more appraisals who are engaging in different tasks.

Therefore, they have an ability to identify the significant problematic areas in this current system than others. Though grade variable shows a negative relationship with appraiser's perception of system effectiveness, it is not a significant effect in this study. However, that negative perception can occur from high-grade officers because they have more than ten (10) years working history as appraisers than others when their grade increased from III to I. Marginal effect results explain that, design characteristics of existing appraisal system have a high significant negative marginal effect on system effectiveness representing 1% significance level. Then partial effects value of design features is 0.8814 explained that, if existing design characteristics increased by 1 unit, then the probability of appraiser's perception of system effectiveness decreased by 88.14 percentage point. In addition, appraisers who have appraising responsibility for more than 20 appraisals and 11-20 appraisals also made a significant negative marginal effect on system effectiveness representing 1% significance level. It means when number of appraisals increased by 1, the probability of appraiser's perception of system effectiveness, those who have more than 20 appraisals decreased by 26.2 percentage points and those who have appraisals 11-20 decreased by 41.1 percentage points.

The appraisal point of view, result also explained that, all three independent variables: design characteristics, appraiser's behavior and appraiser's behavior in existing appraisal system negatively affected the responses on system effectiveness of appraiser. The chi-square value is 0.000, and R-square value is 0.3721 related to this regression results. Even though, all three independent variables have a negative effect on appraiser's perception of system effectiveness, design and operation characteristics and appraiser's behavior make a significant negative effect on system effectiveness representing 5% significance level. The results show that, education has a negative effect on appraiser's responses on system effectiveness representing 10% significance level, while experience has a more significant negative effect on it representing 1% significance level. It means when appraiser's education increased from G.C.E (A/L) to bachelor level and their experience increased from below 05 years to above 10 years, they have a significant negative perception of system effectiveness because they have sufficient knowledge and experience to compare strength and weaknesses of their existing appraisal system. The results illustrate that, design characteristics made a significant negative marginal effect on system effectiveness representing 10% significance level. Therefore marginal effect value for design and operation characteristic -0.0757 explained that if existing design characteristics increase by 1 unit, then probability of appraiser's perception of system effectiveness decreased by 7.57 percentage points. However, these results clearly highlighted that, appraiser's behavior is the most influential factor that affects the effectiveness of the existing appraisal system by giving its marginal effect results representing 5% significance level. Therefore, the calculated partial effects for appraiser's behavior is -0.0733 explained that if existing appraiser's behavior increase by 1 unit, then probability of appraiser's perception of system effectiveness decreased by 7.33 percentage points. In addition, education and experience also have a negative marginal effect on the perception of system effectiveness representing 10% and 1% significance level respectively. Their marginal effect values explained that, if education and experience increase by 1 unit, then probability of appraiser's perception of system effectiveness decreased by 7.29 percentage points and 1.59% percentage points respectively.

Conclusion

Performance appraisal is the most admired, criticized and debated management tool in human resource management field, nevertheless, it is widely used in every organization as a formal method to evaluate their subordinate's performance, regardless of their nature. The Sri Lankan public Sector also practiced this method to evaluate working performance of all public officers who represent different service categories. Though PMAS was introduced in 2004 with identifying specific work duties, task, and responsibilities, the Sri Lankan government failed to introduce tailor-made appraisal system for evaluate the performance of this new service members. Therefore critical analysis of existing PA system which was first objective of this study revealed that, performance of all members in PMAS is measured by archaic appraisal system that was introduced by 1998 to evaluate performance of general clerical service.

Findings from valuable literature explain that, there is no universally accepted method for evaluate employee performance in any organization. The system effectiveness depends on a number of characteristics that are relevant to different organizational backgrounds. Therefore, undertaken literature helps to identify world best practices on PA systems in developing countries, as well as in developed countries by satisfying the second objective of this study. It is revealed that, all countries have different, but well-designed and tailor-made evaluation systems to evaluate their employee performance. However, it is clear that, every system consists of some

salient features that were highlighted by various scholars as essential criteria for any effective PA system.

Empirical evidence revealed that, characteristics related to the design and operation and appraiser's behavior aspects in existing appraisal system significantly influence to raise negative perceptions among the appraisers and appraises on system effectiveness. Furthermore, it shows that, characteristics of appraises behavior also influence to increase their negative feelings, but that influence is not very significant compared to other two factors. However, deeply analyzed descriptive results illustrate that, the following characteristics incorporated with three aspects of the appraisal system are the main drawbacks of PMAS performance evaluation system.

- Both parties are unable to identify how existing appraisal system contributes to achieving organizational objectives due to the poor relationship between performance goals and organizational objectives.
- According to Talukdar & Saha (2007), proper combination of objective and subjective measures are essential to get the actual results from appraisal system. However, the existing system is unable to balance those two factors in order to measure actual performance of their employees because it consists of more subjective measures than objective measures.
- According to Khan (2013) , performance appraisal should have made adequate pressure on employees in order to improve their performance by giving necessary guidance and assistance. However, this appraisal system is unable to provide such kind of professional development opportunities for them.
- The most controversial issue is no proper link between performance results and rewarding system in this appraisal system. It indicates that reward outcomes did not show a positive reflection of the performance appraisal outcomes.
- Though proper identification of training needs of the employees is one of the main objectives of any PA system, PMAS appraisal system is unable to satisfy that requirement. In order to prepare an annual training plan, the organization needs to identify the strength and weaknesses of their employees through a proper appraisal system. However, it is very hard to devise appropriate training programs for PMAS employees because this system fails to provide expected information related to employee's training needs.
- PMAS performance evaluation is conducted by annually, based on employee's appointment date. This different evaluation dates negatively affect the frequency of appraisal and also make a barrier to get the mid-year progress reviewing of the employees.
- Present evaluation system was profoundly influenced by recency error from an appraiser. However other behaviors: central tendency, contrast error, first impression error, personal bias, spillover bias, similar-to-me error and stereotyping error also incorporated with appraiser behavior in the present appraisal system.
- Reluctance to talk with appraiser on their weaknesses or improvements, inadequate participation in goal setting process in the appraisal system, poor understanding about the main purpose of the appraisal process are the main issues related to the appraises behavior of this system.

Based on theoretical explanation from academic researchers, best practices from other countries and more valuable suggestions from main stakeholders in this study, the researcher propose the

following policy recommendations to develop sound performance evaluation system to measure actual performance of PMAS officers. All of those recommendations will provide appropriate solutions to overcome identified issues in the existing appraisal system.

- Regulate following performance appraisal process as PMAS performance evaluation process. Introduce proper information system to maintain employee's performance
- PMAS training plan should be developed based on training requirements of the employees.
- Conduct proper awareness programs for appraiser and appraise
- Introduce new performance evaluation form for PMAS

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The Absolute Protection Available for the Children under the Prevention of Domestic Violence Law; Sri Lankan perspective

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Domestic violence had been recognized as a statutory offence under Sri Lankan context; under the Prevention of Domestic Violence Act (PDVA), No. 34 of 2005. Further, the law prevails in any circumstances, where a child subjects to or about to be subjected to a domestic violence incident in every instance where the statute specified. The research question of the study is, whether the domestic legal mechanism established in order to protection of the rights of the children from domestic violence is accurate and effective? The objective of this qualitative study is to assess the efficiency of the available domestic legal mechanism established in order to protection of the rights of the children from domestic violence situations with reference to relevant domestic and international legal standards. Further, the study is limited to analyze few recognized rights; i.e. Right of equality, right to privacy, right of social security etc. The study reveals some of the practical difficulties in implementing the introduced mechanism under the statute and evaluates the level of protection of rights of the children. The study concludes with pointing the need of effective intervention of the legislature in order to avoid the issues relating this law towards the children. Therefore, the study recommends some of the possible amendments can be made to implement a sound framework for the protection of the rights of the victimized children of domestic violence.

Keywords: Children, Domestic violence, Sri Lanka

1. Introduction

Generally, child is known as an every human being below the age of eighteen years. The preamble of the Convention of the rights of the child (CRC) stated that, it is the responsibility of the state to understand the childhood is entitled to special care and assistance and convinced that the family, as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members and particularly children, should be afforded the necessary protection and assistance.

Further, according to the preamble of CRC, the responsibly had extended to recognize that, the child, for the full and harmonious development of his or her personality, should grow up in a family environment, in an atmosphere of happiness, love and understanding, in order to fully prepared him/her to live an individual life in society in the spirit of peace, dignity, tolerance, freedom, equality and solidarity. Therefore, the responsibility of each member of the family/home is to ensure a peaceful environment for children inside the home.

The existing law relating to domestic violence of Sri Lanka which also provides the protection towards children, came into force under the Prevention of Domestic Violence Act (PDVA), No. 34 of 2005.

2. A Review of Related Literature

The PDVA is a great step forward for the recognition of the rights of women and the problems within the perception of the social hierarchy of families in Sri Lanka. However, cultural patterns that have existed for centuries cannot be transformed overnight. (Rordan 2010)

The level of equality achievable in a particular society varies according to the standard of equality enforced by a law and vice versa. It is obvious that Sri Lanka's legal system has failed to take this into account when enacting legislation to ensure "real equality". (kugathasan 2012)

, Both the police and the judiciary play a major role in the procedure relating to protection from domestic violence. Hence protection of rights of the victim (and sometimes the plaintiff where victim is not the plaintiff) and the respondent, as well as the safety and welfare of the victim should be the main concerns of the procedure. (Wijesekera 2011)

Most importantly when children are involved directly or indirectly in domestic violence, the court should ensure that their rights are not violated by their decisions, and that the litigation process does not leave them psychological scars. This issue arises both in the trial process and thereafter, i.e. consequent to the issue of Protection Orders/Interim Protection Orders. The practical problem again is whether the courts, particularly the Magistrate Court in this instance, has sufficient training and resources to handle such situations effectively. . (Wijesekera 2011)

The police do not consider domestic violence a serious matter and especially in undermanned stations they are likely to neglect cases of domestic violence or put them low on the priority list. As a result, the enforcement of a Police Officer is a major challenge. (Rordan 2010)

Another big challenge of the effectiveness of the Act is the lack of victim protection. No shelter or housing is offered by law enforcers or by the legal system itself. The law stipulates that the court may order, if the aggrieved person requests, that she can be placed in a shelter or provided with temporary accommodation. (Rordan 2010)

3. Problem Definition

The children are always considered to be a vulnerable group in every society, as always they need and expect love, proper guidance and assistance of their elders in terms of recognizing and realization of their rights , preferably from their parents, grandparents etc. When such a group faces situations of a violence inside the house; either physical or emotional, that will negatively impact on their physical health and physiological development. The applicability of the statute does not limit to the violence occurs between and among spouses and its application had been extended by the legislature in order to ensure a peaceful and happiest living environment/condition for the children with their family and household members. Yet, the issue that the study focuses to assess the efficiency available mechanism established by the statute in order to protection of the rights of the children from violence situations as per the definition of PDVA of Sri Lanka.

4. Methodology / Approach

The study is totally based on quantitative methodology, which largely focused on critically analyzing the provisions and approach of PDVA of Sri Lanka, Constitution of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka and other relevant domestic legal instruments. Even though, there are many international legal instruments can be found in relation to the topic, which had been ratified by the Sri Lanka, the study basically focuses on and limits to the analysis of the Convention of Rights of the Children (CRC).

Particularly, the study is focused on a theoretical approach in terms of analyzing few basic rights; namely, right of equality and equal protection of the law, right to access to justice, rights of social security and right to privacy.

5. Results & Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This section of the study is focused on the assessment on the protection mechanism available for the children under the PDVA, Sri Lanka with reference to the accepted domestic and international standards.

Family is the fundamental unit of the society. A peaceful and protective environment for the well-being of its members must be established, particularly, for children in order to build up a strong and responsible community in future. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the state to promote special care and work towards to guarantee the best interest of the children in every aspect (physical, mental, moral, social, religion) in order to protect them from exploitation and discrimination.

The rationale of introducing the act is to provide for the prevention of any act of domestic violence and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto. Further the statute covers a wide range but does not limit to the protection of the family members and the intention of the legislature was to introduce a gender neutral law in terms of avoiding any form of unequal or discriminatory protection and/or treatment towards the parties subjected to this law.

Article 12(i) and (ii) of the Constitution of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka specifies that, all persons are equal before the law and are entitled to equal protection of the law and non discrimination. Article 12(iv) provides a space to enact any special provisions being made by law, subordinate legislation or executive action for the advancement of children.

Also it the responsibility of the state to take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, inquiry or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parents or guardians under Article 20 of the Children's Charter which is par with the Article 19 of the convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC).

Sri Lanka ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) on July 12, 1991. According to Article 157 of the Constitution of Sri Lanka (1978), duly ratified international agreements

have the force of law in the country and no law may be enacted that is in contravention of the international agreement. Moreover it is need to emphasis that, the introduced Children's Charter in Sri Lanka is not a legally binding document, but a way of a guideline on rights of the child

5.2 Statutory definition on domestic violence

The statue defines the term domestic violence under Section 23 and the definition consist of two limbs; whereas (a) an act which constitutes an offence specified in Schedule I ;(b) any emotional abuse, committed or caused by a relevant person within the environment of the home or outside and arising out of the personal relationship between the aggrieved person and the relevant person. The part (a) of the aforesaid definition refers to all offences contained in Chapter XVI of the Penal Code, Extortion-Section 372 of the Penal Code, Criminal Intimidation-Section 483 of the Penal Code and finally attempt to commit any of the above offences. Emotional abuse means a pattern of cruel, inhuman, degrading or humiliating conduct of a serious nature directed towards an aggrieved person.

5.3 PDVA and guarantying the rights of the children

5.3.1 Right of equality and equal protection of the law and right to access to justice

As section 2 of PDVA states person, in respect of whom an act of domestic violence has been, is, or is likely to be, committed (hereinafter referred to as “an aggrieved person”) may make an application to the Magistrate’s Court for a Protection Order, for the prevention of such act of domestic violence. The statute specifies three possible jurisdictions for the victimized persons to access to justice, namely, jurisdiction of the aggrieved person or the relevant person (the who commits the offence) temporarily or permanently resides, or the act of domestic violence has been or is likely to be committed.

If the aggrieved person is a child, then the application to the court with regard to the domestic violence can be made by the following categories on behalf of the child.

- (i) by a parent or guardian of the child ;
- (ii) a person with whom the child resides;
- (iii) a person authorized in writing by the National Child Protection Authority established under the National Child Protection Authority Act, No. 50 of 1998.

Herewith, the legislature has guaranteed the right of non discrimination and right to equality under Article 12(i) and (ii) of the constitution in terms of access to justice. Further, the Article 2 of the children’s Charter states that, the state shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that the child is protected against all forms of discrimination or punishment on the basis of the status, activities, expressed opinions, or beliefs of the child’s parents, guardians, or family members.

Considering the provisions of the CRC, it is observed that the Article 2 upheld the right to non discrimination, while Article 3 guarantees the best interest of the children in all the instances, in relation to public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies. Moreover, Article 12 of the CRC held that the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the

child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law.

Therefore, it is established that the right to non- discrimination, right of equality and equal protection of the law and right to access to justice had been theoretically guaranteed by the PDVA.

5.3.2 Rights of social security, right to remedy and right to reparation

Further, the PDVA provides a space to obtain an interim protection order as temporary remedy for the victimized child for not exceeding for fourteen days to avoid the respondent from committing or causing the commission of any act of domestic violence, while the application been heard by the primary court. Apart from that a victimized child is able to plead for a protection order for a period of 12 months.

The Court may, by means of an interim order or protection order prohibit the respondent from;

(a) entering a residence or any specified part thereof, shared by the aggrieved person and the respondent;

(b) entering the aggrieved person's -

- (i) residence;
- (ii) place of employment;
- (iii) school;

(c) entering any shelter in which the aggrieved person may be temporarily accommodated; etc. under the section 11 of the PDVA.

Further, Court may order a supplementary orders, where a Protection Order has been granted and where the Court is satisfied that, it is reasonably necessary to protect and provide for the immediate safety, health or welfare of the aggrieved person.

The court has the authority to make alteration, modification, variation, extention, or revocation for the previously issued orders, if any change of circumstances found. This can be decided by the court after careful hearing to the victimized child and the respondent.

Where respondent against whom an Interim Order or a Protection Order, as the case may be, has been issued and has failed to comply with such Order, such respondent shall be guilty of an offence and shall be liable on conviction after summary trial before a Magistrate to a fine not exceeding ten thousand rupees or to imprisonment of either description for a term not exceeding one year or to both such fine and imprisonment under the section 18 of the PDVA.

Therefore, the statute upheld the child right to benefit from social security under Article 26 of the CRC, with imposing the sentences to the offenders while ensuring the basic rights of right to remedy and right to reparation for the harm suffered by the victimized child.

5.3.3. Right to privacy

Right to privacy is recognized under Article 16 of the Children's Charter, whereas no child shall be subject to arbitrary or unlawful interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to unlawful attacks on his honour and reputation.

Respecting and recognizing the right to privacy under the PDVA, it is established that a person's printing or publishing any matter in relation to domestic violence cases to be punished with the imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to two years or to a fine or to both such imprisonment and fine.

It is the responsibility of the state to recognize the right of every child alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law to be treated in a manner consistent with the promotion of the child's sense of dignity and worth, which reinforces the child's respect for the human rights and fundamental freedom of others and which takes into account the child's age and the desirability of promoting the child's reintegration and the child's assuming a constructive role in society under the Article 40 of the CRC.

6. Conclusion

The PDVA can be appreciated as a statute with a sound legal framework. Yet, there are many practical difficulties in terms of the implementing the phrase introduced by the statute.

It is hard to find a helping hand in order to seek justice against his/her own family member who commits or above to commit the violence against the children. Further, this sort of approach does not encouraged by the social and religious norms of the state. Therefore, a child tries to follow this approach and intends to seek justice, may be blamed by the elders and even from the places of protecting the law and order of the country.

Sometimes child may disappoint with the remedy provided by the court; probably instance where an order been granted to respondent refraining from entering the residence pace of the aggrieved child. There is huge issue with the practical situation of the implementing phrase of the order. Trying to implement such sort of order inside the family may create unpleasant situations inside the home and that may lead to violate many fundamental rights of the child such as right to education, right to live in peaceful environment, right to maintenance, right to food etc.

The responsibility of any state in terms of the children is that to recognize the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development. An incident of domestic violence may change the whole peaceful environment of the child's world.

Therefore, the elders around the child, have to be more careful and responsible in terms of handling the situations of the children, both inside and outside of the home without been subjected to domestic violence, yet to uphold the best interest of the children.

7. Recommendations

- 1) The sensitivity towards the rights of the child among the family members must be improved.
- 2) The officials involved in the entire process of tolerance of the domestic violence are too have to be sensitive towards the rights of the victimized children of domestic violence who seeks just and equity.
- 3) The state must bring immediate effect to the children's charter.
- 4) The role of the National Child Protection Authority established under the National Child Protection Authority Act, No. 50 of 1998 must be significant in terms of combating the domestic violence against children.
- 5) Some of the statutory provisions have to be alter and/or modify with regard to the excepted social and religious norms in order to avoid the laps of procedure of seeking justice.

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