GLOBAL JOURNAL
OF HUMAN SOCIAL SCIENCE

DISCOVERING THOUGHTS AND INVENTING FUTURE

HIGHLIGHTS

Perspective of Meditation

Community Based Disaster

Carrier Responsibility Basis

Two Contemporary Approaches

Chicago Symphony Orchestra

Volume 12 | Issue 4 | Version 1.0

ENG

Global Journals Inc.

Publisher's Headquarters office

Global Journals Inc., Headquarters Corporate Office, Cambridge Office Center, II Canal Park, Floor No. 5th, **Cambridge (Massachusetts)**, Pin: MA 02141 United States
USA Toll Free: +001-888-839-7392
USA Toll Free Fax: +001-888-839-7392

Offset Typesetting

Open Association of Research Society, Marsh Road, Rainham, Essex, London RM13 8EU United Kingdom.

Packaging & Continental Dispatching

Global Journals, India

Find a correspondence nodal officer near you

To find nodal officer of your country, please email us at *local@globaljournals.org*

eContacts

Press Inquiries: *press@globaljournals.org*
Investor Inquiries: *investers@globaljournals.org*
Technical Support: *technology@globaljournals.org*
Media & Releases: *media@globaljournals.org*

Pricing (Including by Air Parcel Charges):

For Authors:
22 USD (B/W) & 50 USD (Color)
Yearly Subscription (Personal & Institutional):
200 USD (B/W) & 250 USD (Color)

Dr. Bart Lambrecht
Director of Research in Accounting and
FinanceProfessor of Finance
Lancaster University Management School
BA (Antwerp); MPhil, MA, PhD
(Cambridge)

Dr. Carlos García Pont
Associate Professor of Marketing
IESE Business School, University of
Navarra
Doctor of Philosophy (Management),
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
(MIT)
Master in Business Administration, IESE,
University of Navarra
Degree in Industrial Engineering,
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya

Dr. Fotini Labropulu
Mathematics - Luther College
University of ReginaPh.D., M.Sc. in
Mathematics
B.A. (Honors) in Mathematics
University of Windso

Dr. Lynn Lim
Reader in Business and Marketing
Roehampton University, London
BCom, PGDip, MBA (Distinction), PhD,
FHEA

Dr. Mihaly Mezei
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
Department of Structural and Chemical
Biology, Mount Sinai School of Medical
Center
Ph.D., Etvs Lornd University
Postdoctoral Training,
New York University

Dr. Söhnke M. Bartram
Department of Accounting and
FinanceLancaster University Management
SchoolPh.D. (WHU Koblenz)
MBA/BBA (University of Saarbrücken)

Dr. Miguel Angel Ariño
Professor of Decision Sciences
IESE Business School
Barcelona, Spain (Universidad de Navarra)
CEIBS (China Europe International Business
School).
Beijing, Shanghai and Shenzhen
Ph.D. in Mathematics
University of Barcelona
BA in Mathematics (Licenciatura)
University of Barcelona

Philip G. Moscoso
Technology and Operations Management
IESE Business School, University of Navarra
Ph.D in Industrial Engineering and
Management, ETH Zurich
M.Sc. in Chemical Engineering, ETH Zurich

Dr. Sanjay Dixit, M.D.
Director, EP Laboratories, Philadelphia VA
Medical Center
Cardiovascular Medicine - Cardiac
Arrhythmia
Univ of Penn School of Medicine

Dr. Han-Xiang Deng
MD., Ph.D
Associate Professor and Research
Department Division of Neuromuscular
Medicine
Davee Department of Neurology and Clinical
NeuroscienceNorthwestern University
Feinberg School of Medicine

Dr. Pina C. Sanelli
Associate Professor of Public Health
Weill Cornell Medical College
Associate Attending Radiologist
NewYork-Presbyterian Hospital
MRI, MRA, CT, and CTA
Neuroradiology and Diagnostic
Radiology
M.D., State University of New York at
Buffalo,School of Medicine and
Biomedical Sciences

Dr. Roberto Sanchez
Associate Professor
Department of Structural and Chemical
Biology
Mount Sinai School of Medicine
Ph.D., The Rockefeller University

Dr. Wen-Yih Sun
Professor of Earth and Atmospheric
SciencesPurdue University Director
National Center for Typhoon and
Flooding Research, Taiwan
University Chair Professor
Department of Atmospheric Sciences,
National Central University, Chung-Li,
TaiwanUniversity Chair Professor
Institute of Environmental Engineering,
National Chiao Tung University, Hsin-
chu, Taiwan.Ph.D., MS The University of
Chicago, Geophysical Sciences
BS National Taiwan University,
Atmospheric Sciences
Associate Professor of Radiology

Dr. Michael R. Rudnick
M.D., FACP
Associate Professor of Medicine
Chief, Renal Electrolyte and
Hypertension Division (PMC)
Penn Medicine, University of
Pennsylvania
Presbyterian Medical Center,
Philadelphia
Nephrology and Internal Medicine
Certified by the American Board of
Internal Medicine

Dr. Bassey Benjamin Esu
B.Sc. Marketing; MBA Marketing; Ph.D
Marketing
Lecturer, Department of Marketing,
University of Calabar
Tourism Consultant, Cross River State
Tourism Development Department
Co-ordinator , Sustainable Tourism
Initiative, Calabar, Nigeria

Dr. Aziz M. Barbar, Ph.D.
IEEE Senior Member
Chairperson, Department of Computer
Science
AUST - American University of Science &
Technology
Alfred Naccash Avenue – Ashrafieh

CONTENTS OF THE VOLUME

The Origin of Language: A Perspective of Meditation Shifting Towards Needs Satisfaction

By Zhongxin Dai , Jun Liu

North China Electric Power University, Zhuxinzhuang, , Beijing, China

Abstract - This paper discusses the origin of language from the perspective of meditation towards the needs satisfaction of communication. Labor played a crucial part in the creation and shaping of man himself and his body parts and also in the creation of language. Labor forced man to meditate on the void left between what he needed and the means to satisfy his needs. Man shifted his meditation from the needs to needs satisfaction, which resulted in the creation of tools, typical representatives of human culture. The ability to shift meditation towards tool making is a prelude to the creation of language. The ability to conduct meditation shifting is what distinguishes man from other animals. This ability has been woven into the genetic structure of man and has become man's innate trait.

Index Terms : origin of language, meditation shifting, needs satisfaction.

GJHSS-A Classification : FOR Code: 200406, 200405

THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGEA PERSPECTIVE OF MEDITATION SHIFTING TOWARDS NEEDS SATISFACTION

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

The Origin of Language: A Perspective of Meditation Shifting Towards Needs Satisfaction

Zhongxin Dai [α], Jun Liu [σ]

Abstract - This paper discusses the origin of language from the perspective of meditation towards the needs satisfaction of communication. Labor played a crucial part in the creation and shaping of man himself and his body parts and also in the creation of language. Labor forced man to meditate on the void left between what he needed and the means to satisfy his needs. Man shifted his meditation from the needs to needs satisfaction, which resulted in the creation of tools, typical representatives of human culture. The ability to shift meditation towards tool making is a prelude to the creation of language. The ability to conduct meditation shifting is what distinguishes man from other animals. This ability has been woven into the genetic structure of man and has become man's innate trait.

Index Terms : origin of language, meditation shifting, needs satisfaction

I. Introduction

Language is generally viewed as one of man's most complex phenomena. Scholars of different ages have spotted different part of the language phenomenon as a target of research, and accordingly a variety of theories in linguistics have been developed in the history. Saussure (1916/1983) distinguished "langue" from "parole" at the beginning of the 20th century and thought that linguists should study "langue" instead of "parole". He was mainly concerned with the cultural end-product of human language and the main focus was on the mechanisms of language operation. Through his work, the centre of interest in linguistics was directed away from searching the changes and origins of languages towards studying the structural system of language as a social phenomenon. Chomsky (1957, 1965) directed public attention from viewing language as a static social phenomenon to seeing it as an individual phenomenon of generation and transformation of grammatical structures. Saussure extracted language from individual speeches, i.e. paroles, and viewed it as a static social phenomenon. Chomsky placed this static and social language system back into an ideal native speaker's head and regarded it not only as a system but also as a dynamic individual linguistic phenomenon. He (1965, p.4) made the "fundamental distinction between *competence* (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and *performance* (the actual use of language in concrete situations)." The distinction that he noted is "related to the *langue-parole* distinction of Saussure; but it is necessary to reject his concept of *langue* as merely a systematic inventory of items and to return rather to the Humbodtian conception of underlying competence as a system of generative processes." Dell Hymes (1979) put forward the concept of "communicative competence" and placed social communication at the center of investigation, with Chomsky's conception of language "competence" being part of the communicative competence. Halliday (1985) emphasized the function of language and explored how language functions in the process of social communication.

The past roughly three decades has seen the development of cognitive linguistics, which places central importance on the role of meaning, conceptual processes and embodied experience in the study of language and the mind and the way in which they intersect. According to Croft and Cruse (2004, p.1), there are three major hypotheses guiding the cognitive linguistic approach to language: language is not an autonomous cognitive faculty; grammar is conceptualization; and knowledge of language emerges from language use. These three hypotheses represent a response by the pioneering figures in cognitive linguistics to the dominant approaches to syntax and semantics at the time, namely generative grammar and truth-conditional (logical) semantics. Langacker (2008, p.3) argues that portraying grammar as a purely formal system is not just wrong but wrong-headed. Grammar is meaningful. "This is so in two respects. For one thing, the elements of grammar—like vocabulary items—have meanings in their own right. Additionally, grammar allows us to construct and symbolize the more elaborate meanings of complex expressions (like phrases, clauses, and sentences). It is thus an essential aspect of the conceptual apparatus through which we apprehend and engage the world." This is entirely in opposition to the generative grammar's well-known hypothesis that language is an autonomous cognitive faculty or module, separated from non-linguistic hypothesis that language is an autonomous cognitive faculty or module, separated from non-linguistic cognitive abilities.

Author [α σ] : College of Foreign Languages, North China Electric Power University, Zhuxinzhuang, Changping District, Beijing 102206, China E-mails : Zhongxindai@126.com, liuj59@126.com

Research paradigms shift with the shift of focus of interest in linguistics. It is generally assumed that researchers are making progress towards the nature or essence of human language, but from the aforementioned areas of research interest that linguists have showed, we cannot see that they have approached nearer to the nature of human language. It has been repeatedly proven in the history of human scientific endeavor (especially in humanities) that the research paradigm of the time does not guarantee it is the scientific mode of thinking. Behaviorists' approach to psychology and linguistics is a typical example. Researchers frequently fail to see the wood for the trees, because they focus too much upon details and specific matters. This article attempts to circumscribe and depict the emerging and developmental picture of the origin of human language in the hope that we can see the wood as well as the trees. We come back to the scene of the origin, and the very essential nature may reveal itself. In this paper, we view human language as a human cultural phenomenon, with human "tools" being the most typical. Language is a human tool for social communication. Man's creation of tools for labor is a prelude to the creation of language for communication. Understanding the human needs, emotions, and thoughts underlying the creation process of his tools and language will better our appreciation of the nature of language and the operational mechanisms involved in speech and language acquisition.

II. Meditation: a Crucial Point In the Creation of Huamn Tools

Human history is in a sense a history of culture creation and development. "Culture" in this article refers to the material and spiritual wealth man has created and accumulated in his long history. In this sense, everything is of culture that man made or developed in the course of the creation or development of himself. Language, as well as tools for labor, is culture. "Man" refers to mankind, all the people of varied societies. "Processes" are twofold: the process of culture generation/creation and the process of culture development. What man made or developed was not made or developed by one single man, but by men who worked together in a society and who were descendants of their ancestors. It is in this sense that we say human beings live in a diachronic (historical) and synchronic (contemporary) society. Therefore, a man-made thing (a tool, henceforth) that can be called culture can be viewed both from the very point of its being created, and from the course of its improvement and development. As far as language is concerned, it can be seen from the very point of creation when people desperately needed it and came up with the idea of resorting to something for the expression of the something that happened to be there in their mind. Therefore, culture is human's intended creation and invention, and

human intention is embedded in his action towards his creation or invention. Investigation into the origin of human cultural products entails inquiry into the intention of the action towards creation or invention of the cultural products. The creation of a tool stems from the needs for survival and existence. His needs compel him to meditate on how to satisfy his needs. When the meditation turns onto some physical material for satisfying his needs, a tool is born, and a cultural product is produced. This is the generation or production process of culture. Once a tool is born, human's meditation will be directed towards his need for improvement of the tool, and culture enters the phase of development.

Engels (1876) asserts that labor is not only the source of all wealth, but it created man himself. Labor played a part in the shaping and making of human hand. Much more important, he further argues, is the direct, demonstrable influence of the development of the hand on the rest of the organism. Our simian ancestors were gregarious. They were the most social of all animals. The development of labor necessarily helped to bring the members of society closer together by increasing cases of mutual support and joint activity, and by making clear the advantage of this joint activity to each individual. "In short, men in the making arrived at the point where *they had something to say* to each other. Necessity created the organ; the undeveloped larynx of the ape was slowly but surely transformed by modulation to produce constantly more developed modulation, and the organs of the mouth gradually learned to pronounce one articulate sound after another." The conclusion that Engels reached has made it clear that man himself was the product of labor, more exactly the by-product of labor. Labor was not intended to create man himself. Man did not even intend to labor. The intention of labor came from the necessity for survival and existence. Accordingly, cultural products of man's labor are not the direct end-products of labor, but by-products of labor.

Investigation into the generation process of culture entails the inquiry into the motivation of labor. First, man conducts labor in order to satisfy his material and spiritual needs. No needs, no labor. Second, man's own needs entail the intention to satisfy the needs, and labor is the action performed out of man's needs in order to fulfill his certain intention. Third, labor consists of processes of "meditation" and "action", which alternate and contain each other. Finally, the result of man's labor is the creation and accumulation of material and spiritual wealth, and the simultaneous creation of man's organs and mind.

Man's very needs are the internal and intrinsic force of culture generation. Although man's needs themselves are not culture, they are the motivation of culture. In essence, all cultural phenomena originate and develop in the process of the satisfaction of man's needs. Man's ancestors were forced to change their life style from forestry life to grassland life under

the pressure of the changes of evolutionary conditions. Needs for survival have generated hunting- and agriculture-related cultures.

Meditation towards the needs and towards the satisfaction of the needs is crucial to the generation of culture. Man's meditation is first directed towards his needs, and then towards the satisfaction of the needs. For instance, man needed food to survive. Meditation towards the food needs eventually led to the meditation towards the satisfaction of the food needs. However, man's meditation differs from that of animals in that man is able to direct his meditation towards other things as a third party for help. In other words, man can go beyond direct meditation towards the thing that he needs, and turn to a third party and resort to an indirect approach to the satisfaction of his needs. In natural environment, the meditation towards the satisfaction of man's food need might be directed towards some kind of fruit. By tasting fallen fruit on the ground, man might have discovered that this kind of food could satisfy his need. Animals also could have done this. However, when the meditation towards the satisfaction of the food need pointed to the fruit up in the tree, the direction of man's meditation could shift from the fruit up there in the tree to means of reaching the fruit. The meditation at this moment had entered the process of creating tools. A tool is a result of meditation towards the approach to the solution of a problem. A prerequisite for the creation of tools is the shifting of meditation from direct to indirect approaches to the needs satisfaction. Animals cannot do the shifting of meditation. Animal's meditation pointed directly to the fruit up in the tree. An animal might have exhausted itself by jumping at the fruit up in the tree until it assured itself the impossibility of reaching the fruit. This is why the creation of tools is viewed as a sign of distinction between man and other animals. Nevertheless, tools are merely the external markers of the distinction. The crucial point in the creation of tools is the meditation towards what tools function. This is the very crucial point that distinguishes man from other animals. A branch in the natural world could be converted into a cultural tool in the problem solution process of reaching the fruit up in the tree. The cultural element does not lie in the branch itself, but in the problem solution with the branch. The shifting of meditation occurs when man meets an impediment to the satisfaction of his need. The goal of creation of a tool is the solution to the problem, and the improvement of a tool is also directed towards the solution to the problem. The key point in the creation and improvement of a tool is meditation.

As man is in a position of meditating towards his needs satisfaction, culture enters the phase of generation; as he is in a position of meditating towards the improvement of a tool, culture enters the phase of development, and as a result, tools get improved and advanced.

III. THE SHIFTING OF MEDITATION: THE STARTING POINT OF LANGUAGE CREATION

A study on the social-cultural process of language is to view it as a social-cultural phenomenon and study its generation and development processes under the pressure of social-cultural needs. Like any other social-cultural phenomenon, the social-cultural processes of language also entail compulsion, intrinsic needs, meditation towards needs satisfaction, shifting of meditation, and meditation towards the improvement of tools.

Just as stated above, man was forced to live and labor in groups. This way of life entailed the needs for communication among the members of the community. Engels concluded in his work that "men in the making arrived at the point where *they had something to say* to each other." The creation process of human language ought to be traced back to this point "where *they had something to say* to each other." "Something to say to each other" was the urgent need of the men in the making and this need for communication compelled them to find ways out of the meditation. Animals do not have language partly because they cannot conduct meditation shifting, and partly because they do not have such an urgent need for communication as men. Just as Engels (1876) asserted:

Comparison with animals proves that this explanation of the origin of language from and in the process of labour is the only correct one. The little that even the most highly-developed animals need to communicate to each other does not require articulate speech. In its natural state, no animal feels handicapped by its inability to speak or to understand human speech. It is quite different when it has been tamed by man. The dog and the horse, by association with man, have developed such a good ear for articulate speech that they easily learn to understand any language within their range of concept. Moreover they have acquired the capacity for feelings such as affection for man, gratitude, etc., which were previously foreign to them. Anyone who has had much to do with such animals will hardly be able to escape the conviction that in many cases they now feel their inability to speak as a defect, although, unfortunately, it is one that can no longer be remedied because their vocal organs are too specialised in a definite direction.

Engels's statement shows that the social environment of man's labor necessitated the need for human communication, and hence the strong desire to express the *something* that men in the making had. The bringing-together of the members of society by the development of labor is the external force and the desire to express the *something* that the men in the making had is the internal force. Without these two forces, human language could never have been created. However, we argue that the reason why

animals do not have language is that they lack the external force and hence the internal capacity to meditate towards the necessity of communication. The external force occasionally make the highly-developed animals feel the need for communication, but they communicate in a straight and direct fashion and never demonstrate any sign of resorting to a third party for the expression of the "something" that they happen to have. Meditation towards the creation of language operates in the same way as meditation towards the creation of tools. Animals cannot create tools, and this further means that they cannot create language.

Vygotsky (1986, p.58) discussed William Stern's intellectualistic conception of speech development in the child. Stern distinguishes three roots of speech: the expressive, the social, and the "intentional" tendencies. While the first two underlie also the rudiments of speech observed in animals, the third is specifically human. Stern defines "intentionality" in this sense as a directedness towards a certain content, or meaning. "At certain stage of his psychic development, man acquires the ability to mean something when uttering sounds, to refer to something objective." Although there are differences between phylogenetic and ontogenetic phenomena, human individuals must have been endowed with the genetic tendency to meditate on the means of satisfying the need for communication. There is no escaping the fact that a highly-developed animal cannot acquire human language no matter how we teach it. The "something" that an individual child has to communicate with adults around him is very much like that in the men in the making, staying there as a driving force that compels the bearer to meditate towards the satisfaction of the need of expression and communication.

We may arrive at a conclusion from the studies on the creation of tools and language that the crucial point in the creation process of tools and language is the meditation shifting towards a third party for the needs satisfaction. The shifting of meditation is the recognition of the usefulness of another thing to fill the *void* that emerges when the need arise. For instance, food and water are man's basic needs. When he eats or drinks, he needs something to hold what he eats or drinks, and a *void* is left, or more exactly, created by the act of eating or drinking. This *void* is begging man to fill with his meditation towards a third party, anything that functions as a container. Therefore, what is important is not the material or the substance of the container, but its usefulness. The begging *void* is what the meditation is directed towards. What a thing is is not the thing itself, but the void that functions in man's need. You do not need to define a table when you teach a child the word "table". Just show him how to use it, and he would refer to a stool, a stone, or even his knee as a table if he puts his bowl on it.

The nature of language is its function as a symbolic tool, i.e. the symbolic sign pointing to the intentionality that is to be expressed. Theoretically speaking, language does not rely on the sound medium. Any signs (for instance, gestures) can be the third party that serves to fill the void between the inner intentionality and the addressee and to play the role corresponding to that of man's language. Confronted with the desperate need for communication among the members of society, man first developed the ability to meditate towards the satisfaction of the communication need. This ability is one that generates the functional awareness of a third party to fill the void of conveyance. Under the pressure of the communication need plus the functional awareness, it is possible for man to shift his meditation from the communication need to the satisfaction of the need. Only when the meditation shifts towards a third party to resort to a detour can the expression of the intentionality become possible.

IV. Conclusion

Phylogenetically and ontogenetically, meditation is the central and crucial point in the process of language creation and acquisition. Language could not have been created without the shifting of meditation towards a detour for a resort to the satisfaction of the communicative needs. Man's ability to meditate on the communicative needs originated in the external and internal compulsion to the *something* that he had had to say to each other. Intellectual and mental mutation must have occurred in the long process of meditation, and this mutation was the shifting of meditation towards a detour. It is certain that the men in the making were not conscious when they conducted the meditation or the shifting of meditation, but their desire, anxiety and desperation smoldered, simmered and seethed until their meditation found a way out. More often than not, this situation can be found with a child or a pet animal when they attempt to convey the "*something*" that they have. Even though the child's discovery of the function of signs is not a matter of all of sudden, but the gradual process of communication with people around him makes it possible for him to refer to something when it is not there. This mental inward pointing towards the object in the intentionality is the actual mechanism on which speech operates. The abilities of meditation and meditation shifting in the men in the making must have been genetically woven into the genetic structure of human beings, and become an innate trait in modern humans.

References Références Referencias

1. Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic Structure*. The Hague: Mouton & Co. N.V., Publishers.
2. Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Massachusetts: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.
3. Croft, W. & Cruse, D. A. (2004). *Cognitive Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

4. Engels, F. (1876). *The Part Played by Labour in the Transition from Ape to Man*. See: http://www.marxists.org/archive/marx/works/1876/part-played-labour/index.htm.
5. Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
6. Hymes, D. H. (1979). On communicative competence. In C. J. Brumfit & K. Johnson (Eds.), *The Communicative approach to language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 5-26.
7. Langacker, R. W. (2008). *Cognitive Grammar: A Basic Introduction.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
8. Saussure, F. de (1983). *Course in General Linguistics,* edited by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye with the collaboration of Albert Riedlinger (Roy Harris, Trans.), London: Gerald Duckworth & Co. Ltd. (Original work published 1916).
9. Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and Language* (newly revised and edited by Alex Kozulin). Massachusetts: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

This page is intentionally left blank

Housing Security and Implications for Socio-Economic Status of Residents in Ogbomoso

By Atolagbe, A.M.O

Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomoso, Nigeria

Abstract - This study examines the relationship between the residents' socio-economic status and their attitudes to the issue of security in their houses. It surveys the housing environments in the different residential zones of Ogbomoso, taking cognizance of physical devices adopted by residents for ensuring adequate protection of their lives and properties. The physical security devices examined include the presence of a perimeter fence, security gate, security gatehouse and employment of security guard/gateman. The incidence/employment and distribution of scores for these physical and human devices across the city are examined in relation to the socio-economic status of residents. The result shows a high incidence of security personel/devices among the residents with high socio-economic status; found mostly in the lower density residential zones of the city; and vise versa.

GJHSS-A Classification : *FOR Code: 160403, 160401*

HOUSING SECURITY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF RESIDENTS IN OGBOMOSO

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Housing Security and Implications for Socio-Economic Status of Residents in Ogbomoso

Atolagbe, A.M.O

Abstract - This study examines the relationship between the residents' socio-economic status and their attitudes to the issue of security in their houses. It surveys the housing environments in the different residential zones of Ogbomoso, taking cognizance of physical devices adopted by residents for ensuring adequate protection of their lives and properties. The physical security devices examined include the presence of a perimeter fence, security gate, security gatehouse and employment of security guard/gateman. The incidence/employment and distribution of scores for these physical and human devices across the city are examined in relation to the socio-economic status of residents. The result shows a high incidence of security personel/devices among the residents with high socio-economic status; found mostly in the lower density residential zones of the city; and vise versa.

I. Introduction

Beyond the protection of residents from the scorch of the sun, on-slaught of hales, strong winds and other harsh effects of inclement weather, protection of houses in primitive settlements of Africa and the Third World nations consisted of devices to ward off aggression from unfriendly animals and fellowmen from neighbouring ecological environments. Residents on tree-branches, hunting decks and hill-tops (Buah, 1969) relied on height advantages over aggressors who had to climb to their height level before affecting an attack. The time lag, for the intruder, to reach such heights, and energy spent in such effort provided some advantage to the home front, for a counter attack on the intruder. Spears, missiles (of stones), cutlasses and cudgels came handy as weapons to repudiate intruders' aggression. Others included ethno-medical devices, relying on fetishes, potent charms and incantations in the Yoruba (African and Asian) traditional medicine (Atolagbe, 2011).

This was a period when riparian house-steads were sparse and consisted of a relatively few, homogenous households that knew themselves and shared the same traditional and cultural beliefs. The first suspicion of an impending intrusion in such close knitted house-steads was the mere sighting of a strange man, animal, phenomenon, etc, in the housing environment that had only few accesses; and thus, enabling intruders to be seen from a warning distance.

With urbanization, agglomeration of larger numbers of households and human populations with diverse tribal and socio-cultural backgrounds resulting in one single, dense and extensive urban settlement, ensuring security of a household has become intricate and complicated. First, strangers could no longer be easily identified as in previous, relatively smaller homogenous settlements. Next-neighbour households in cities are now strangers, as households now change often, in an urban setting characterized by changing tenants and immigrants. Second, property and thus, household boundaries and areas of influence and authority have become smaller and much more curtailed. This may, at first, appear to be an advantage; by limiting areas for security concern of each household. This is however not so, for another third reason! The urban setting is characterized by provision of urban facilities and services, whose agencies like the police, water and electricity boards, gas, milk, paper, etc, agencies, may, by virtue of their duties, have statutory rights of entrance into household premises. Thus the additional communal security provided by the vigilance of every member of the neighbourhood is lost in the urban setting where the challenge of adequate security in the house is largely the responsibility of individual households.

Today, among the major factors of discomfort in urban residential houses in Nigeria is the fear of burglary attack, rape, murder, kidnapping and other similar criminal assaults (Microsoft library, 2007). How do individual households respond to this challenge? Is this response the same for all residents across the different residential zones of the city? If not, what factors account for the differences?

II. Methodology of Study

First, a reconnaissance survey was made to draw up a checklist of physical security devices used in the city. These include erection of boundary fence, building of security gate, provision of security gate-house and employment of security guard/gateman.

A total of 1,250 houses, constituting about ten percent (10%) of the projected number of houses (1,2504) in Ogbomoso, by 2008, was sampled in a randomly systematic method. This was done in fifty percent (50%) of the total number of streets in the city; consisting of 18, from the high, 15, from the medium and 14, from the low density residential zones, respectively. In each sampled house, the incidence of any of each of the physical security devices and the socio-economic status of the household were noted

Author : Department of Architecture Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomoso, Nigeria.

and recorded. The data obtained was transformed using contingency tables for houses with security fence, security gate, security gate house, and security gateman as in tables 1.0, 2.0, 3.0 and 4.0 respectively.

Similarly, the income, education and employment status of each household sampled was examined; and the comparison shown on contingency Tables 5.0, 6.0 and 7.0 respectively.

Chi-square tests were run to show the significance of the scores on all indicators of physical security devices (Tables 1.0 to 4.0), and indicators of socio-economic status (Tables 5.0, 6.0 and to 7.0) respectively; in the different zones of the city.

Finally, adopting the Pearson product moment coefficient, a correlation test was run between indicators of socio-economic status of residents and incidence of physical security devices in the city (Table 8.0).

III. FINDINGS

The frequency of each indicator of housing security and for indicators of socio-economic status are as shown in the score distributions in Tables 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0; and 5.0, 6.0 and 7.0 for the high, medium and low density residential zones of Ogbomoso, respectively.

IV. SECURITY DEVICES

About 68, 64, 45 and 53 percents of the households in the city have security fence, security gate, security gate-house and employ security gateman in the low residential density zone of the city. This is the zone with the highest proportion of households with physical security devices in the city. This is followed by the medium residential density zone with 31.6, 18.6, 12.7 and 10.1 percents, with similar devices; while the high residential density zone generally have the least; with about 8, 1.2, 1.9 and 2.8 percents of the devices, respectively (Tables 1.0, 2.0, 3.0 and 4.0). The Chi-square test result is also shown in the Tables (1.0 to 4.0) as 358.217, as 468.433, 301.918 and 394.301; at 99 percent level of confidence, respectively.

Thus physical security devices are significantly higher or more frequently installed by residents in the low density residential zone of the city. This is followed by residents in the medium density and least in the high density residential zones.

Table 1.0 : Houses with Security Fence

Variables	Residential Density Type						Total	
	High		Medium		Low			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Response	25	4.9	6	1.6	10	2.8	41	3.3
Yes	39	7.7	119	31.6	246	67.8	404	324
No	443	87.4	252	66.5	107	29.3	794	63.6
Total	508	100	377	100	363	100	1248	100

X^2 value: 358.217   Significance level: 0.000 (99%)

Table 2.0 : Houses with Security Gate

Variables	Residential Density Type						Total	
	High		Medium		low			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Response	22	4.3	11	2.9	2	0.6	35	2.8
Yes	6	1.2	70	18.6	233	64.2	309	24.8
No	480	94.5	296	78.3	128	35.3	902	72.3
Total	508	100	377	100	363	100	1248	100

X^2 value: 468.433   Significance level: 0.000 (99%)

Table 3.0 : Houses with Security Gate House

Variables	Residential Density Type						Total	
	High		Medium		Low			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Response	21	4.1	8	2.1	5	1.4	34	2.7
Yes	4	1.9	48	12.7	164	45.2	216	17.3
No	483	95.1	321	85.1	194	53.4	998	80.2
Total	508	100	377	100	363	100	1248	100

X^2 value: 301.918   Significance level: 0.000 (99%)

Table 4.0 : Houses with Security Gate Man

Variables	Residential Density Type						Total	
	High		Medium		Low			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Response	14	2.8	5	1.3	2	0.6	21	17
Yes	14	2.8	38	10.1	191	52.6	243	19.5
No	479	94.5	333	8.4	167	46.0	973	78.0
Total	508	100	377	100	363	100	1248	100

X_2 value: 394.301   Significance level: 0.000 (99%)

V. MONTHLY INCOME OF HOUSEHOLDS

Over four (4), and two (2), percents of residents in the low residential density zone of the city earn between ₦60,001 and ₦80,000; and ₦80,001 and ₦150,000 per month respectively. No single household in the medium and high density residential zones, earns this much range of monthly income. Moreover, about 5.3 and 10.7 percents of residents in the medium and low density residential zones earn between ₦40,001 and ₦60,000 per month.

The highest set of income earners (on ₦20,001 – ₦40,000), in the high density residential zone constitutes only 1.2 percent, while those earning such and above in the medium and low density residential zones of the city constitute 19.4 and 42.3 percents respectively. The greatest percentage of those earning below ₦20,000 per month are in the high (69.0%) and medium (57.3%) residential zones. Thus residents with the highest monthly income are in the low followed by the medium density residential zones. Chi-square test for the distribution of these scores across the zones gives 260.512 and is significant at 99 percent confidence level (Table 5.0)

VI. EDUCATIONAL STATUS

About 58 percent of the residents in the low, 30 percent in the medium and 13 percent in the high density residential zones have tertiary education respectively, in the city. Conversely, a higher percentage of residents in the high (38.9%), 27.3 percent in the medium and only 15.4 percent in the low density residential areas have below secondary education (Table 6.0). This result, with a Chi-square value of 251.096 is significant at 99 percent level of confidence. Thus, education status in the city is significantly higher and better among residents in the lower density residential zones of the city.

VII. EMPLOYMENT STATUS

The result of the analysis on the employment status in the city also shows that the cumulative percentage of those employed in the public service (government) and private company is higher for residents in the low residential density zone (37.5%).

This is closely followed by the medium (35.0%) and least in the high (13.8%), density residential zones. It will be recalled that the result on level of income (Table 5.0) shows a much higher trend in the low; and the least in the high residential zones. It is thus clear, that the self-employed, public service employed and private company-employed, in the higher residential density zones earn lower salaries compared to employees n the lower density zones. The latter may mostly be senior and management employees while the former belong to the junior cadre:

With the Chi-square value of 37.271 and at 99 percent level of confidence, the employment status is significantly higher and better in the low followed by the medium, and least in the high density residential zones of the city (Table 7.0).

Table 5.0 : Monthly Income of Respondents

| Variables | RESIDENTIAL DENSITY TYPE | | | | | | Total | |
| | High | | Medium | | Low | | | |
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Response	151	29.8	88	23.3	80	22.0	319	25.6
1 – 20,000	350	69.0	216	57.3	129	35.5	695	55.7
20,001 – 40,000	6	1.2	53	14.1	92	25.3	151	12.1
40,001 – 60,000	0	0	20	5.3	39	10.7	59	4.7
60,001 – 80,000	0	0	0	0	15	4.1	15	1.2
80.001 – 150,000	0	0	0	0	8	2.2	8	0.6
Total	151	100	377	100	363	100	1247	100

X^2 Value = 260.512   Significant level = 0.000 (99%)

Table 6.0 : Educational Status of Respondents

| Variables | RESIDENTIAL DENSITY TYPE | | | | | | Total | |
| | High | | Medium | | Low | | | |
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Response	8	1.6	2	0.5	6	1.7	16	1.3
Non formal	153	14.3	54	14.3	24	6.6	231	18.5
Primary School	125	24.6	50	13.3	32	8.8	207	16.6
Secondary School	141	27.8	20	31.8	87	24.0	348	27.9
Vocational NCE/Nursing	47	9.3	76	20.2	65	17.9	188	15.1
Tertiary/University Education	34	13.2	75	29.1	149	57.8	258	20.7
Total	508	100	377	100	363	100	1248	100

X^2 Value = 251.096   Significant level = 0.000(99%)

Table 7.0 : Employment Status of Respondents

| Variables | RESIDENTIAL DENSITY TYPE | | | | | | Total | |
| | High | | Medium | | Low | | | |
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Response	14	2.8	9	2.4	3	0.8	26	2.1
Unemployed	32	6.3	27	7.2	26	7.2	85	6.8
Self employed	368	72.6	198	22.5	18.5	51.0	751	60.2
Public (Govt.) Service Employed	48	9.5	84	22.3	99	27.3	231	18.5
Private Company Employed	22	4.3	48	12.7	37	10.2	107	8.6
Pension	23	4.5	11	2.9	13	3.6	47	3.8
Total	507	100	377	100	363	100	1247	100

X^2 Value = 87.271   Significant level = 0.000 (99%)

VIII. SECURITY DEVICES AND RESIDENTS' SOCIO-ECONOMICS STATUS

Pearson product moment correlation test was run to examine the relationship between incidence of security devices and residents' socio-economic status. The result, shown in Table 8.0, confirms the direct correlation between these two sets of variables. The trio of monthly income, educational status and employment status – all indicators of residents socio-economic status, each correlates, directly and significantly, with incidence of boundary fence (0.16, 0.318 and 0.162); houses with security gate (0.49, 0.297 and 0.120); houses with security gate house (0.107, 0.22 and 0.153); and with security gateman (0.118, 0.219 and 0.104), Table 8.0. Thus all indicators of housing security vary directly; and at 99 percent level of significance with the indicators of socio-economic status of residents. Both incidence of security device and residents' socio-economic status increase directly with decreasing residential population density.

Table 8.0 : Correlation between Socio-Economic Status of Household and Physical Security Devices

Variables	Monthly income	Educational status	Employment status	Apartment with Fence	House with Security Gate	House with Security Gatehouse	Houses with Security Gateman
Monthly Income	1						
Educational Status	0.252**	1					
Employment Status	0.196**	0.370**	1				
Apartment with Fence	0.169*	0.318**	0.162**	1			
Houses with security gate	0.149**	0.297**	0.120**	0.495**	1		
Houses with security gatehouse	0.107**	0.220**	0.153**	0.3700.	490**	1	
Houses with security gate man	0.118**	0.219**	0.104**	0.326**	0.378**	0.423**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

IX. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

All physical security devices have significantly, greater incidence of occurrence among residents in the low residential areas of the city. This is followed by the medium, and least in the high residential zones. These indicators and their Chi-square values include security fence (358.217), security gate (468.433), security gatehouse (301.918), and security gateman (394.301), are all significantly higher in the low, followed by the medium and least in the high density residential zones, at 99 percent confidence level.

Similarly, all indicators of socio-economic status (Table 6.0), and Employment status (Table 7.0) are significantly higher in houses within the low, followed by the medium and least in the high density residential zones of the city. The result, each of which is significant at 99 percent confidence level, also has Chi-square values of 260.512, 251.096 and 87.271, respectively.

Thus, households in the lower density residential zone and with higher incidence of physical security devices are also, of the highest socio-economic status. This implies that residents with higher income, education and employment status are enlightened enough to realize they are at higher risk of burglary attacks. They are also more economically buoyant; on account of their higher pay. The burglary devices are also more easily affordable to them. It is no surprise therefore, that majority of them have these devices in their houses.

X. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Incidence of security devices against intruders with criminal motives is significantly higher in the lower density residential zones. The variables of such indicators also increase significantly with decreasing residential population. Similarly, residents' socio-economic status is significantly higher in the lower residential zones. Its variables also increase significantly, with decreasing population and residential density zones.

Thus households in the higher residential density zones are of significantly lower incidence of security devices; as they have lower income regime. They can therefore, ill-afford these physical security devices. They are, also, however at lower risk of criminal assault by reason of their lower socio-economic status; and thus, materials possession.

12

Inspite of the lower likelihood of criminal attacks at a scale possible in the lower density residential zones, residents in the high, and to a greater level in the medium residential zone, may be accosted with petty criminals within their immediate zones. This explains why within the high density zone, security devices consisted more of ethno-medical indigenous forms as noted by Atolagbe (2011). These potent, native charms, that have satisfied this indigenous settlement zone in the past, should be further encouraged within the richer, residents of the lower density residential zones. The latter can choose between the ethno-medical, and conventional, physical forms of anti-criminal security devices. In the face of increasing rate of crime at home, work and highways in Nigeria, and the dwindling efficacy of conventional security devices against the use of grenades, armoured tanks; with which sophisticated burglars break, formidable barriers, alternative devices are due for a welcome. Besides, the ugly trend in current burglary attacks is the invasion of the victim by criminals in large, intimidating numbers. Such burglars have, in the past, knocked and forced victims to open their doors voluntarily; or risk a complete wreck of whole apartments. Ethno-medical devices, with their latent potency, can safe, nay, forestall such harrowing situations.

REFERENCES RÉFÉRENCES REFERENCIAS

1. Atolagbe A.M.O. (2011): "An Evaluation of the spatial Dimensions of Housing Stress in Ogbomoso, Nigeria" An unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Submitted to the Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Ilorin, Ilorin Nigeria.

2. Atolagbe A.M.O.(2011): "Security Consciousness in Indigenous Nigeria Houses: A preliminary survey of Yoruba Ethno-Medical Devices" Studies on Ethno medicine Vol. 5, Number 1, Pp. 57-62.

3. Buah,. F.K. (1969): The Ancient World, A New History for Schools and Colleges Book 1, 2nd Edition. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan Education Limited.
http://www.nlgsolutions.com/(2007)
http:globa/security.org/(2007)
MSN Microsoft Library, (2007)

Carrier Responsibility Basis in Islamic Law

By Ebrahim Taghizadeh

Payame Noor University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract - - Carrier liability in Islamic law is investigated in the present work. The liability systems are classified into four distinct systems: system based on the proved fault, system based on fault supposition, system based on the supposition of responsibility, and system of absolute or mere responsibility. All above systems are observed in Islamic law and there are viewpoint differences among jurisprudents as well as lawyers in the subject of carrier liability. However the dominant idea is on the carrier liability, i.e. the carrier is responsible and the only way to get rid of responsibility is to declare the damage cause and the loss cannot be related to the carrier. Damage assessment in Islamic law is also investigated.

Keywords : *Carrier, responsibility, commitment, fault, damage*

GJHSS-C Classification : *FOR Code: 220403, 220405*

CARRIER RESPONSIBILITY BASIS IN ISLAMIC LAW

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Carrier Responsibility Basis in Islamic Law

Ebrahim Taghizadeh

Abstract - Carrier liability in Islamic law is investigated in the present work. The liability systems are classified into four distinct systems: system based on the proved fault, system based on fault supposition, system based on the supposition of responsibility, and system of absolute or mere responsibility. All above systems are observed in Islamic law and there are viewpoint differences among jurisprudents as well as lawyers in the subject of carrier liability. However the dominant idea is on the carrier liability, i.e. the carrier is responsible and the only way to get rid of responsibility is to declare the damage cause and the loss cannot be related to the carrier. Damage assessment in Islamic law is also investigated.

Keywords : *Carrier, responsibility, commitment, fault, damage*

I. CIVIL RESPONSIBILITY CONCEPT

Once damage is caused to someone and is distinguished as an illegitimate action not only by the having lost but also by the society, it follows a social reaction and the cause of loss has to compensate. The civil responsibility is the legal obligation and commitment of one to compensate the loss originated from his harmful action to the other [1].Therefore the three following provisions are to be integrated to fulfill the civil responsibility:

1. Loss realization which means to cause a loss or waste to the properties, to lose a certain benefit or damage to health, respect, and feelings.
2. Commitment a harmful action which must be abnormal from the society viewpoint.
3. Causal relationship between the loss and the harmful action, so that the custom declares the damage originated from the harmful action although the loss does not relate to a single cause [2]. Some of lawyers have stated in the responsibility definition that the civil society is the commitment of compensation in the law language except in special cases [3]. Some believe that the commitment to the improvement of caused resultant loss is associated to the civil responsibility [4]. Some state that in the cases one has to compensate the loss of the other it is said that he is in a civil responsibility position [5]. Some others believe that the civil responsibility is the commitment of one to the compensation for the loss of the other and when someone indemnifies rights of the other without legal permission and as a result causes loss to the other then the civil responsibility is entered [6].

Author : *Department of Law, Payame Noor University P. O. Box 19395-4697, Tehran, Iran.*

The concept of civil responsibility in general is the commitment to compensate the loss caused to the other whether the loss originated from a crime or a tort, a contract or quasi contract, non performance of contract or the law [7]. Some of lawyers believe that the contractual civil responsibility is excluded from the civil responsibility. If this idea is accepted, then there is civil responsibility in its special concept. In general concept however is classified into two categories: contractual and non- contractual [8].

II. KINDS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Harmful action is one of the provisions of the civil responsibility to be realized. The harmful action is unlawful when it is followed by the breach of one of the promises that public rules and law in general concept (law, custom, judicial process, and doctrine) knows one in charge or the two parties accept in mutual relations with others (contractual commitments). Therefore the civil responsibility can be classified into contractual and non-contractual [9].

a) Contractual responsibility

The contractual responsibility is fulfilled when the damage is a result of non-performance of contract which links the having lost to the causing loss [10]. The commitment to be originated from the contract it is not necessary that belongs to the common intent of the two parties, once the obligated commitment be considered as an agreement whether the obligation be of the custom or legal kind then the commitment is said to be originated from the contract [11]. In other words the contractual responsibility is the obligation to compensate the caused losses as a result of non performance of the contract by the promise [12].

b) Non- contractual responsibility (coercive)

The non-contractual responsibility is fulfilled when the damage caused to the other is not originated from non performance of the contract or violation of contractual commitment. The root of this kind of responsibility is not the contract between the carrier and the having lost, but it is in the breach of legal duties that exist for all.

III. CARRIER RESPONSIBILITY REQUIREMENTS

The relation between the carrier and the having lost is analyzed based on the contract. Therefore the transportation responsibility is of the contractual responsibility kind. In the contractual responsibility the having lost must prove the loss

entrance, breach of promise, and the causal relationship between breach of promise and loss entrance. In carrier responsibility however, the having lost does not have to prove the breach of promise and the causal relationship between breach of promise and loss entrance and once the loss is proved the existence of two other pillars is assumed [13].

IV. FAULT PROOF

The lawyers are agreed that two conditions are necessary for the responsibility to be fulfilled: a loss is caused, and there is a relation between loss and the action of the actor. Some of lawyers believe that any action which is illegal and is intended to cause damage even if it is legal leads to responsibility. They call these kinds of actions 'errors' or 'faults' and state that one is responsible when commits a fault and the claimant of the detriment prove the fault existence. [14]. In contrast some other lawyers believe that the existence of the fault and the relation between the loss and the having lost is enough for responsibility realization and it is not necessary that the action to be illegal. The first theory which assumes the responsibility basis on the fault existence is called 'fault theory and the second theory which assumes the responsibility basis on the loss entrance to the other is called 'risk theory'. According to the fault theory the claimant of the damage in addition to the loss proof must prove the fault of the causing the loss, otherwise cannot claim the detriment from the causing loss. Fault is the declination from the normal human behavior in the same accident entrance conditions. Fault may be intentional or non- intentional. Distinction between these two kinds of faults is of importance because if the provisions of non responsibility or limitation of responsibility have been declared in the contract then occurrence of an intended error leads to the exclusion of agreed advantages (responsibility limitation), while non-intentional fault does not disappear these advantages. Therefore in the case of an intentional error commitment the causing loss must compensate all of the loss entered to the having lost [15].

a) Fault proof in contractual responsibility

When one is obligated to perform an action as a result of a contract, then intentionally or carelessly avoid performing the, an illegal action has been committed. Therefore to prove the fault in contractual responsibilities where the provisions of the contract quietly or partly are not performed non performance of the contract and breach of the promise merely is enough and is considered as fault. In other words if the promise is not performed it is assumed that the violation has been done as a result of an illegal action.

b) Fault proof in non-contractual responsibility

As a result of error or an intention one may cause a loss to the other. In this case the causing loss must compensate the caused loss. In this kind of responsibility in addition to the loss burden proof and the relation between the loss and its actor the claimant must prove that the loss has been caused as a result of one's fault. The problem which sometimes leads to disapprove the claimant's claim is that the fault is the major violation and one cannot prove the fault of the causing loss [16].

V. CARRIER RESPONSIBILITY BASIS IN ISLAMIC LAW

In Islamic religious jurisprudence the goods transportation in the form of a lease contract is investigated. In this kind of the lease contract the hired worker is committed to perform an identified action for an identified wage. Goods transportation from one to another place also stands in the same form of contract. Therefore to investigate the carrier responsibility basis in Islamic law, the hired worker responsibility with respect to the property should be investigated. In the case of hired worker responsibility the guarantee liability rules which are based on wasting govern as the public rules of compensation [17]. As a public rule whoever dominates the property of the other is obligated to give it back. However one of the cases excludes from this is permission, i.e. whenever the liability possessor has the permission with respect to possession of the property will not be guarantor. Permission however cannot always prevent the liability that there is the liability in addition to the owner permission [Mohammadi, 1994]. According to this some of authors like "author of 'Anavin' "distinguished between permission and trust. Trustee is not the only guarantor and since not every authorized is trustee, they argued with respect to the criterion distinguishing permission from trust that it is trust just when the permission in possession is only for the owner interest and when the interest of the liability possessor or both of them is considered it is not trust.

According to the above argument about carrier liability it can be noted that the carrier takes wage for goods transportation and therefore their interest is considered and their liability on this basis is not fiduciary liability and they are the guarantor of the loss to the property. Some of hadiths also confirm this point. The criterion that the "author of 'Anavin' " stated has been criticized by many jurisprudents since it does not work in all cases [18]. Accordingly some of the authors following the public rules assume the hired worker as fiduciary liability and only in the case of the infringement and resort proof the hired worker will be assumed as responsible. Some of other authors in the investigation of hired worker responsibility (artisan, tailor, dyer, mariner, carrier, and so on) using the fundamentals of wasting and destruction distinguish between wasting and of the property loss.

By 'wasting' we mean the case that the loss caused to the property is originated from the hired worker action and is documented to it. By ' loss' we mean the action of liability owner has no interference in the occurrence of damage.

In the first case i.e. the cases the goods has been wasted by the action of liability owner, most of jurisprudents have distinguished the liability and even in the 'Jameolmaghased' and 'Masalek' there has been consensus lawsuit. The author of 'Sharaye' in the fifth problem from the lease provisions states that whether the hired worker is a trustee or not, whether he has committed infringement or resort or not, that does not make any difference. [19]. Some others believe that if the hired worker is skilful and has not committed infringement or resort he will not be a guarantor since the goods may prone to corruption. Accordingly "Mullah Ahmad " gathering these ideas stated that if the owner of the property admits or the hired worker proves that the waste or loss of the goods has been resulted from the properties and qualities, and then he will not be guarantor [20]. The author of 'Javaher' assumes this subject is out of discussion since basically in such a case wasting is not documented to the action of hired worker .

Several hadiths confirm this and argue on the reason of guarantee that the permission is in the modification not in the corruption and in other literatures the reason of guarantee has been assumed as caution in property [21].

If the goods are wasted in hired worker's hands so that it is not documented to his action then the majority of votes are that if he has not committed infringement and resort he will not be the guarantor since he is trustee and the assumption is on non guarantee. Some others like "S. Mortaza " believe the absolute guarantee of the hired worker unless he prove that the waste of the property has been due to something that has been unavoidable and so he is guarantor in the case of wasting even if he has not committed infringement and resort . There are differences among those believe in non guarantee of the hired worker, with respect to the question that whom will be the burden of proof. Some like the author of 'Sharaye' and the author of 'Javaher' believe that if the manufacturer and sailor claim that there is wasting without infringement and resort and the owner repudiates, then the hired worker is obligated to give a reason to waste the goods without infringement and resort. In fact he must prove that wasting the goods is by no means related to his action, but the properties have been wasted without his infringement and resort. Others believe that in this case the statement of the hired worker in the case of oath is preferred.

In the above statements it does not make difference that the hired worker is common or special, the owner is present or absent, while in the general religious jurisprudence there are distinctions between these cases. In the "Hanbali religion", the common hired worker will be the guarantor while the special hired worker is the guarantor only in the case of infringement and resort proof. Accordingly if the common hired worker gets the actions to staff done, in the case of wasting the goods he will be guarantor

versus the lease, while his staff will not be guarantors.

In the common guarantee the hired worker the absence of the property owner through the action is also necessary. Accordingly if the property owner is with the property the sailor will not be guarantor. They argue that in this case the owner liability has not been lost. In "Zaherieh religion" however there is no difference between the common and special hired worker [22]. Generally speaking the law disciplines of countries have different ideas in the field of carrier responsibility basis. Latin law discipline assumes it contractual i.e. the basis is the sabotage in the obligation and its direct influence on the output realization quality. The Anglo-Saxon law discipline however makes distinguish between general and special carrier responsibility; the general carrier is someone who is committed for getting wage to be responsible to any transportation request without making distinction. The special carrier however is someone who is committed to transportation without any obligation with respect to accepting the transportation.

The general carrier responsibility is based on the assumed fault. The special carrier responsibility however is based on the faultmust beproved [Altayayaranaltejari law, 1994].

VI. DIFFERENT KINDS OF RESPONSIBILITY SYSTEMS

To prove the non performance of the commitment the provisions and domain of the commitments should be investigated. The most important classification that is associated with the provisions and domain of the commitments is into promise to result and promise to means. In the promise to means the promisor should do his best to achieve the desired result. In this assumption he should behave in a standard manner in his special conditions. Therefore the promisee should prove that the promisor has not had the standard nature and has failed to provide the means for the agreed and in other words the promisor has committed a fault to demonstrate the breach of contract. However the degree of fault that provokes the promisor responsibility is not the same in all cases but it depends on the promise provisions and the agreement of the two parties.

In promise to result in cases where there is a high probability to achieve the desired result usually the promisor undertakes obtaining the result and providing means for promise performance is a preliminary provision for obligation. To prove the promise breach in this type of promise it is only sufficient to demonstrate that the desired result has not been achieved. However if it is proved that a force majeure event has prevented the contract performance then the promisor is exempted from responsibility. In the case that the promisor has

guaranteed obtaining the desired result proving any event cannot make him irresponsible (absolute responsibility) [23]. The carrier is promisor for both cargo and passenger safety. In other words safety promise is also included in the carrier promises. This promise in the case of goods transportation may be either a promise to result or means.

The carrier liability depends on how he has accepted the promise and/or legislator has assumed in the position of the two parties' decisions. Therefore the problem analysis should be considered different depending on the safety promise consideration of (a) promise to means (b) promise to result.

a) Safety promise is a promise to means

In this case the carrier commits to do the standard cares to save the cargo i.e. the carrier should provide the necessary standard transportation means and applies his best qualifications in this field. The carrier has responsibility only when it is proved that the detriment is due to his fault. There are two states in burden of proof of this fault. First on the basis of public rules the burden commits to the claimant or loss. Second the legislator has assumed the carrier fault ease for loss and obliges him to defend and ejection of circumstantial evidence of the fault.

b) Safety promise is a promise to result

In this assumption the carrier commits to convey the cargo safely and he is responsible for not attaining the desired result (safely conveying the cargo to destination) and the followed detriments unless he prove that an unavoidable force majeure has prevented from attaining the desired result. In other words the caused detriment to the cargo is not attributed to him. Hence in this case the burden of proof that the carrier has not promisor a fault is not a way to make him irresponsible. [24].

Albeit in this assumption if the carrier has guaranteed the cargo safety or such a promise has been imposed on him by Act then he is responsible for any detriment although it is an external force majeure factor. In this assumption the carrier regardless of any fault or precaution he has taken he is responsible for the detriments caused by not attaining the desired result. So there are four different responsibility systems:

1. The system based on the proved fault
2. The system based on the fault assumption: which is removed by proving of non committing fault or proving of doing common efforts by carrier
3. The system based on the responsibility assumption: which can be ejected by proving of detriment cause or non-performing the promise and that it cannot be attributed to the carrier.
4. Absolute responsibility system. [25].

In addition to the way of the carrier defense the difference of systems (2) and (3) can also be observed in the detriment caused by unknown factors.

According to the system based on the fault assumption in the case of detriments caused by unknown factors the carrier can easily defend himself and make oneself irresponsible since it is only sufficient to prove that he has not promisor the fault while in the system based on responsibility assumption the carrier becomes responsible in this case and cannot make oneself irresponsible because to be exempted he should prove the cause of detriment and that it cannot be attributable to him while in this assumption the detriment cause is unknown and that is impossible.

VII. CARRIER RESPONSIBILITY IN ISLAMIC LAW

All the above systems are observed In the Islamic law. As some of jurisprudents believe If the carrier is assumed to have the trustee liability then he will not be responsible unless the owner prove his aggression and failing short (a system based on the proved fault). It should be noted that in the religious jurisprudence the aggression and failing short of the trustee has lost the property of the trust and then the trustee like an appropriator will be the guarantor of any damage caused to the goods even if the damage has been resulted from an external and unavoidable cause. In the system based on the proved fault however, the carrier fault will result in his responsibility only when the fault has caused the damage. The similarity criterion of these two disciplines is that the burden of proof is on the owner to prove the aggression and failing short of the carrier or the trustee in both disciplines.

If we accept the idea of the author of 'Anavin' about the gurantee liability of the carrier, then the carrier will be responsible in any case and this is the absolute responsibility system. According to the authorization concept with respect to the author of 'Anavin' if the carrier claims that the property has been lost then he should prove the loss of the property without aggression and failing short. This is exactly the system based on the fault assumption. The concept of authorization according to "Sayyed Mortaza" however assumes the carrier as the guarantor unless he proves that the loss of the property has been due to an unavoidable accident and as a result we tend to the system based on the responsibility assumption.

VIII. DAMAGE ASSESSMENT IN ISLAMIC LAW

In Islamic law the public rule about the time and the place of damage assessment of the pricey properties is that the guarantor is obligated to pay for the price of the lost property in the time and the place of wasting. In the case of the likely properties since the promisor is obligated to pay for the replacement, the problem of assessment is considered when

reclamation of the replacement back is not impossible. In this case the current price ,and demand will be the criteria [Mohammadi, 1994]. In the case that the carrier or the sailor is the guarantor of causing loss there are different point of views among religious jurisprudences with respect to assessment time and place of the price of goods. Some of religious jurisprudences believe that in this case that the owner has the authority to assume the hired worker as the guarantor of the property price in the place the property has been given to him and does not give him the wage or to assume him as the guarantor of property price in the place the property has been lost. On the other hand the hired worker deserves the wage to carry the goods to that place. Some believe that in this situation the authority of the owner is not the case but the answer is that he will be the guarantor of the price at the time of loss and deserves the wage to carry the goods to that place. Some others assume that the owner has the authority to assume the hired worker as the guarantor of the property price in the place that has handed it over to him or assume him as the guarantor of the property price in the arrival place and deserves the wage [Jamal Abdalnaser, 1990].

References Références Referencias

1. Le Tourneau (p)(1982),Laresponsibilite civil, 3eme.ed.Dalloz.n.2.
2. Katuzian (N), (1998), Bargains contrancts, Tehran, Behshahr publication.p76.
3. Amiri Ghaemmaghami (A),(1980),obligations contracts,Tehran.university publication.p133.
4. Hosaininejad (H)(1990), Tortlaw,Tehran,shahid Beheshti university publication, p13.
5. katuziyan (N)(1998), contracts general rules, 4vol,Tehran,Enteshar publication,p134.
6. Emami (H)(1960), civil law,Tehran, Abooreyhan publication, p9.
7. Ripert-georges (1992), Droitmaritime, Tome second, 4emeedition Rousseaueetcieparis,n658.
8. Alnaghib (A)(1984),general View For liability from selfact,Bayroot,Avidat Aljazayer publication,p15.
9. Yazdaniyan (A)(2001),civil law Airia of tort law,Tehran,Adabestan publication.p145.
10. Lorasa (M), (1995), Tort law,translated by Mohamad Ashtary, Tehran, Hoghoghdan publication, p32.
11. Katuziyan (N)(2005).civil law(Tort law),Tehran Dehkhoda publication,p65.
12. Starek (B)(2000),Droit civilobligation,Liabairies Teechnique,n10.
13. Shahidi (M)(2008), civil law(3), Tehran, Majd publication, p42.
14. Ghasemzadeh (M), (2009), Basis of Tort law, Tehran, Dadgostar publication, p74.
15. Gouilloud(R), (1988),Droitmartime. Pedone. p74.
16. Erfani (T)(2006), Liability of Road Transportation carrier, Tehran, Aryan publication, p94.
17. Rabiee (F)(2005), Road and Airway Transportation law, Tehran, Aryan publication, p72.
18. Mohamady (A)(1991), Feghh rules, Tehran, Yalda publication, p96.
19. Najafi (M), (1981), Gavaherol kalam Vol.27. Bayroot. Altoras Alarabi publication,p32.
20. Gomi (A)(1995), Gameolshetat, Vol3, Tehran, Keyhan publication.p447.
21. Horameli (M)(1970),Vasayelo - shieehe. Vol13, Beyroot.Altoras Alarabi publication,p216.
22. Abdolalnaser (G)(1990),Mosooeh.Vol1,Ghahereh publication.p307.
23. Omid (H)(1980),Marine law,Insurance schooles, publication,p280.
24. Ramazani (A), (1992), Marine Transportation law, Tehran,shippings publication, p92.
25. Hashemizadeh (A)(2001), Marine Transportation carrier liability in International, conventions, M.Sc. Thesis, Imam sadegh university, p64.

This page is intentionally left blank

Rural Development in a Fast Developing African Society: The Case of Mauritius

By Dr H Chittoo & Rajen Suntoo

University Of Mauritius

Abstract - Title: Rural development in a fast developing African society: The Case of Mauritius Societies that are called modern are those where the states have encouraged a more holistic approach to development as both the urban and rural areas have been given much attention. Most of the African countries face the difficulties to go for a balanced development program mainly because of financial problem but also because of lack of commitment on the part of the state stakeholders to develop, design and implement appropriate policies for rural development. The challenge for most developing societies is to make judicious useof available scarce resources to cause development and modernity that satisfies all the inhabitants. In this paper the case of Mauritius, a fast developing African society, will be considered.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN A FAST DEVELOPING AFRICAN SOCIETY THE CASE OF MAURITIUS

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Rural Development in a Fast Developing African Society: The Case of Mauritius

Dr H Chittoo[α] & Rajen Suntoo[σ]

Abstract : Title: Rural development in a fast developing African society: The Case of Mauritius

Societies that are called modern are those where the states have encouraged a more holistic approach to development as both the urban and rural areas have been given much attention. Most of the African countries face the difficulties to go for a balanced development program mainly because of financial problem but also because of lack of commitment on the part of the state stakeholders to develop, design and implement appropriate policies for rural development. The challenge for most developing societies is to make judicious useof available scarce resources to cause development and modernity that satisfies all the inhabitants. In this paper the case of Mauritius, a fast developing African society, will be considered.

The main objectives of the paper are to

I. To take stock of the factors that have been taken by the Mauritius state, since its independence, to cause rural development and

II. To discuss whetherMauritius is a success story regarding rural development.

For the sake of this study, use of both primary and secondary data has been made. Books, government documents, information received from the Chief Regional Development Officer and Citizens' Advice Bureau officers and observation have proved to be very useful in writing this paper.The principal finding shows that Mauritius has resorted to the appropriate policies and the necessary implementation in achieving success in its rural development. However, the state needs to constantly review its policies and go for good governance to cope with new challenges so that the rural inhabitants are not left outside the mainstream of development.

Keywords : *Rural, Rural development, Policies and State.*

I. Introduction

Rural development is the process of growth and progress of the rural economy and the improvement of welfare and well being of the localpopulation. The improvement and modernization of the rural areas depend much on the state. Development of any society necessitates appropriate programs, policies and action for its success. State stakeholders like the government, private sector and civil society are usually bestowed with power to look after the welfare of the people in a country. The needs of the whole population have to be met. In this modern era, a holistic approach to development is required where the state caters for the needs of people living in both urban and rural areas. Therefore, the challenge for most developing societies is how available scarce resources can be used efficiently and effectively to cause development and modernity that satisfy all the inhabitants.

All over the world, rural inhabitants enjoy less facilities and benefits than their urban counterparts. It is also true that within the rural areas some members are more fortunate and have much better lifestyles than the majority because of their class, caste, ethnicity and gender statuses. Although most countries, regardless of their level of development, face the dilemma of rural development yet this problem is more acute in Africa. The latter being poor because of the acts of ancient colonizers and mismanagement by political leaders is struggling hard since centuries to take off and develop. Looking at some of the modern infrastructures in the some of the urban areas of the African societies a first time European visitor to Africa might conclude that Africa is rich and comparable to his own society. However, travelling to the rural areas will reveal how far Africa is poor and needs help and donation in both kinds and cash from international institutions for combating absolute poverty.

Mauritius is an exception in Africa as it has made much socio economic progress and has therefore been able to a very large extent develop its rural areas where all the main stream facilities like clean water, access to free education, free transport for students and free health care amongst others exist and are enjoyed by the inhabitants.

The main objective of this essay is to find out the reasons behind the Mauritian success regarding rural development. The methodology used for this paper includes both primary and secondary data. For the purpose of the literature review, data have been drawn from books and government documents. Moreover, additional and relevant information was sought from the Chief Regional Development Officer who was contacted thrice on telephone to give his views and opinions on rural development. Two Citizens' Advice Bureau officers working in the rural areas were also called for information. Personal observation of the living conditions of rural inhabitants

Author [α] [σ] *: University Of Mauritius*

and regular sight seeing of infrastructural development in villages also helped to carry out this study.

The first part of this paper will deal with a definition of terms rural and rural development and an overview of the 'penetrative efforts' made by the Mauritian state in promoting socio-economic changes in rural areas since independence. In the second par,t there will be a description of youth culture and rural development. The roles and contributions of women in rural development will also be accounted for. Then follows, a brief explanation on the importance of good governance for proper management of rural development.Finally, a conclusion based on the study is stated.

II. Rural and Rural Development

Giving a universal definition to the term 'rural' seems to be very difficult. Definition of rural varies both in scale and philosophy according to Roberts and Hall, 2003. For the sake of this paper, rural will refer to villages and countryside in Mauritius regardless of population density and differences in traditional social structures. Rural development will mean the socio-economic development and progress of villages and the countryside of Mauritius. Economic development refers to an improvement in the living standards that encompass material consumption, education, health, and environmental protection. On the other hand, social development refers socio-economic justice, that is fairness in income and occupational distribution, access to infrastructure like roads, electricity and clean water, preservation and respect for human rights, equal access to education, mutual understanding among members of different groups and peace and stability in society.   The overall goal of rural development is to increase the economic, political and social rights of all people in villages and the countryside. For development to take place, a society needs the input of all the different institutions of the state together with the cooperation of the population of rural areas. Rural development can be a success only when different stakeholders join hands and work responsibly. Good governance and transparency at all levels should prevail.

III. An Overview of the 'Penetrative Efforts' Made By the Mauritian State In Promoting Socio-Economic Changes In Rural Areas

Mauritius has made much progress and development since its independence in 1968. The rate of economic growth has varied between 2 to 5 percent on an average during the past three decades. Successive governments have often called upon the population to join hands and work hard for the sake of economic development. The positive response from the population, both in rural and urban areas, has been beneficial for the country. The transformation of the country from a mono-crop based agricultural sector in the late 1960s and early 1970s to a modern information, communication and technologically based society at present, passing through the industrial phase frommidst 1980s till the start of the new millennium,is seen as a marvellous achievement by the population.

The first years after Independence were full of socio-economic problems.   Poverty   and unemployment were among the major problems faced by the country in the early 1970's.   The then government looked for help from international institutions.   The World Bank was approached. Consultation and high level discussions with the World Bank resulted into the formation of the first Four Years Plan 1971-1975 for Mauritius. This plan was adopted as a charter for socio-economic development. The World Bank gave both technical and financial assistance.

The Development Workers Cooperation was established with a view to provide employment and bring development in the country. However, it was noticed that there was an uneven and unbalanced development taking place in the country.   Proper development could not reach the rural areas and that resulted in an uneven distribution of income. The government responded positively with corrective measures to do away with the pitfalls of unbalanced development. The World Bank helped financing rural development in Mauritius. A Rural Development Unit (RDU) was created in 1971 and it functioned under the aegis of the Ministry of Economic Planning. Together with a team of experts from World Bank, the RDU worked on a project to raise the quality of life of rural inhabitants. At the initial stage, on a pilot basis, 9 villages   were   provided   with   the   necessary infrastructure like access to good roads, village councils, village markets, electricity, water, health centers and provision of social amenities.   The success of the project in raising the quality of life of the inhabitants was so visible that the development programs were extended to another 29 villages.

Given that the objectives of the first phase of rural development programs were achieved, the authority went on to design a second phase for rural development. The main objective, amongst others, was to improve the income of small farmers. The projects developed were the Arsenal Litchis Project, Riche Terre Cooperative project, access to credit loan facilities through the Mauritius Credit Bank, availability of   funds   from   International   Fund   Agricultural Development (IFAD) and also there was the creation of appropriate schemes for small entrepreneurs. Highly productive cows from New Zealand and Anglo nubian goats were also distributed to some farmers with a

view to increase milk and meat production.

During late 1980,s, more particularly in 1988, the Rural and Development Unit (RDU) was restyled as National Development Unit (NDU) and the latter shifted to the Prime Minister's Office. The government nominated Private Parliamentary Secretaries, who were elected members of the Legislative National Assembly, to manage the NDU. In 1997, the government created a full-fledged Ministry of Urban and Rural Development with a view to bring development at the doorsteps of all inhabitants. The government motto for an integrated and holistic development 'putting people first' was given high priority on the national agenda.

The Mauritian States made tremendous penetrative efforts to reach people in rural areas since independence. The proper implementation and execution of the various policies and programs have been successful to a very large extent. However, still some improvements and efforts need to be done for rural population to enjoy and access benefits and facilities offered to urban inhabitants like good libraries and swimming pools, amongst others. Anyway, many social injustices have been addressed and corrected measures taken. Inequality regarding access to infrastructures like good roads, clean water, availability of electricity, telephone services and satellites television between rural and urban areas have been considerably reduced.

The Mauritian Government now acts as a facilitator and coordinator to its population with a view to combat poverty and other social ills. After the 2010 election, the Ministry for Social Integration was created to look after the empowerment and integration of all people in the mainstream all inclusive development program for modern Mauritius. Under the aegis of the Ministry for Social integration, there are the Trust Fund For Vulnerable Groups and the National Empowerment Foundation. These two bodies are the main arms of the Ministry for combating poverty, providing necessary training for acquiring skills, imparting education and knowledge and giving financial assistance to poor families living in both rural and urban areas.

The various district councils are important bodies that have contributed enormously to the development of rural villages and countryside. Collection of garbages is regularly done to keep rural areas clean. District councils workers work in close collaboration with the central government to develop and design policies and projects to improve the lives of rural inhabitants. Leisure and sport activities and competitions in various sports activities are often organised. The councils also deliver permits to inhabitants who are interested to carry out businesses.

Recently, the government, more particularly the Hon Prime MinisterDrNavinRamgoolam, initiated the Equal Opportunity Bill which has already become an Act and has been given the appropriate Assent. The implementation of Act in the near future will boost up the morals of the whole Mauritian population as recruitment and promotions, amongst others, will be based on meritocracy. Consequently, recruitment and services provider agencies cannot discriminate between urban and rural candidates applying for a job or requesting certain services. Such measures will help to consolidate the Mauritian nation building as people will not only live and feel as mauritians but will also act as good patriots.

IV. Youth Culture, Education and Development

Since its inception, UNESCO has stressed upon culture which impacts on development. Even the 1998 Intergovernmental Conference on cultural policy for development, held in Stockholm, rightly concluded that 'any policy for development must be profoundly sensitive to culture itself'. This shows that youth culture should be given its due and recognition by societies as it has its contribution in development process. Young people of any society, more particularly those of rural areas, are an important asset that should be exploited judiciously for rural development. No responsible society can ignore the potential of its younger population. Cultural values, beliefs and behaviour of the youths have an impact on development. With modernity, quite a large majority of youth of rural areas are having similar lifestyles as their urban counterparts.

Investment in education is important for there to be progress and modernity. Mauritius has invested much in education of its population. Primary education was free since its inception in Mauritius. Free secondary education was introduced in 1976 and tertiary education became free education in 1988. Free education is accessible to everyone. This measure has helped thousands of youngsters in both rural and urban areas to become learned, intelligent and professionals. Schools and colleges in rural areas have been given much facilities by the authority to provide quality education to the rural students. To further democratize access to education, the Hon. Prime Minister Dr. Navin Ramgoolam, has introduced free transport for all students in 2006. Some economists and upper middle class people defending the capitalists and their own vested interest were against the socialist measure. However, such a bold decision has been highly beneficial for poor families from both rural and urban areas. Besides, all students of the country welcomed the introduction of free transport.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has reached all inhabitants of the rural areas. Internet facilities are freely available in village councils and social centres. Both students and adults can make use of the computers. However, with high level

of competition among Mauritian students and the relatively high level of wasteage rate, mostly in rural areas, the Ministry of education had to review its system of education to meet the needs of the students and revisit its budget allocation for schools infrastructure, more particularly for those from rural areas. The recent government budgethas made a provision of Rs 500000 per schools for infrastructural development. This measure has been saluted by all the school administrators.

To ensure continuous development and stability, the state is investing massively in tertiary education, research and development. The policy of the Mauritian government is to have at least one graduate per family. Some people are sceptical about the future of the graduates as to whether appropriate jobs will be made available to them. The government seems to have a different view. For them an investment in tertiary education would facilitate Mauritius to achieve its vision to become a 'knowledge hub' in the region which would have a higher and sustainable payback in future.

V. Women's Roles and Contributions In Rural Development

Since 1970s, after the implantation of the Export Processing Zones (EPZ), the country has encouraged and invited both foreign capital and labour. At its infant stage of development, Mauritius relied on its local labour, particularly the reserved pool of labour, that is,women. Regarding capital for investment and skilled managerial expertise, the society had recourse to the Asian and European countries. Given that Mauritius had a guaranteed market for its exports due to the Lomé conventions and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the country easily got foreign direct investment to develop its manufacturing sector. The roles played by the Mauritian women in the development of the society, more particularly, in rural areas, are recognised by all stakeholders in Mauritius. The success of the EPZ goes to women's immense contribution as passive, docile and hard workers. They rarely complained about the poor working conditions and put in all efforts for the sake of productivity.

In the rural areas, many women were employed in the agricultural sector. They toiled hard in the sugar cane fields during the day and looked after the family in the afternoon. Their triple roles as formal employees in agriculture sector, mother at home and service providers to the community by paying regular visits to the sick relatives and assisting religious ceremonies have given a different but interesting dimension to rural development in Mauritius. Children and men have been socialised to respect culture and at the same time make development happen and accept modernity. Consequently, rural inhabitants in Mauritius have a dual personality. Outside home, that is in the public places, they look like very modern and developed by their lifestyles and at home they are very religious and pay much attention to various traditional rites and rituals.

VI. Good Governance For Proper Management of Rural Development

All governments coming to power since mid 1960s have contributed in one way or the other for rural development. They have taken good decisions and implemented same for the best interest of the rural population. This partly explains as to why, according to the Mo Ibrahim Index for the last three years, Mauritius has been ranked on the top of the list in Africa regarding good governance. The state actors have all in one way or the other contributed to make available so many facilities and basic social amenities in all regions of the country. Even the private sector, in joint venture with foreign MNCs, through the construction of hotels in rural areas, have contributed to provide jobs and livelihoods to so many rural inhabitants. Due to their good governance, the various hotels in the coastal areas of the countryside have helped to keep the surroundings clean and beautiful. Although, the Mauritian state, particularly the district councils, has been able to control development in the rural coastal areas yet there is the feeling among the rural inhabitants that the fruits of development have been unevenly distributed.Therefore, there is the need for greater vigilance to track both foreign and local investors and businessmen mainly in the tourist sector who exploit both human and natural resources to make the maximum amount of profit. Policies should be designed and rigorously implemented to encourage investors in rural areas to spend their yearly mandatory 2 % corporate social responsibility tax for financing mainly the social development projects for the benefit of the localsin the region where they operate.

VII. Concluding Remarks

Rural development in Mauritius has been a success story. However, continuous efforts to improve it further need to be carried out regularly by the state. Given the smallness of the Mauritian island, rural development has been facilitated by the different penetrative efforts, programs and policies well designed, responsibly implemented and monitored. The scenery of villages and countryside has been completely transformed since independence. Some villages have certain infrastructures and beautiful buildings that are not found in the so-called most developed urban areas. The lifestyles of many young people in rural areas have become similar to those of

their urban counterparts. Foreigners and sometimes even locals from urban areas are unable to distinguish between rural and urban youth at first sight.

References Références Referencias

1. Central Statistical Office. 2010, *Digest of Labour Statistics 2009*, PortLouis, Mauritius.
2. Central Statistical Office.2008, *Survey of Employment and Earnings in Large Establishments,* Port-Louis, Mauritius.
3. Cliff, L. et al. 1977, *Government and Rural development in East Africa: Essays On Political Participation*, MartinusNijhoff, Belgium.
4. George, E. W. et al. 2009, *Rural Tourism Development: Localism and Cultural Change*, Channel View Publications, Canada.
5. Gilbert, A. &Gugler, J. 1996, *Cities, Poverty and Development: Urbanisation in the third World, 2nd Ed,* Oxford university Press, USA.
6. Hall, D. et al. 2005, *Rural Tourism and Sustainable Business: Aspects of Tourism*, Channel View Publications, Canada.
7. McNicoll, G. & Cain, M. 1990, *Rural Development and Population: Institutions and Policy,* Oxford University Press, USA.
8. Ministry of labour, Industrial relations and Employment.2009, *Monthly Bulletin March 2009*, Employment Service Main office, Port Louis, Mauritius.
9. Ministry of women's Rights, Child Development and Family Welfare. 2009, *Statistics in Mauritius: A Gender Approach,* Port Louis, Mauritius.
10. Roberts, L. & Hall, D. 2003, *Rural Tourism and Recreation,*Cabi Publishing, London, UK.
11. Roy, K. C. et al. 2010, *Globalization and Development: Country Experiences*, Nova Science Publishers, USA.

This page is intentionally left blank

Air Transport and Sustainable Development: What Complementarities and Compatibility for the Future?

By N. P. Mootien

University of Technology, Mauritius

Abstract - History is replete of its own repetitions and contradictions and domestic and international air transport are no exceptions. It has now become necessary for several reasons to assess how limited resources could be more wisely used for further welfare and economic growth without threatening the very existence of mankind. In other words we need to stop 'shooting ourselves in the foot' by playing a game of duplicity when it comes to ecology and environmental protection the paradox of economic development and industrialization. The 20th century has seen the rapid and swift development of both international and domestic air transport worldwide. Emphases then were on efficiency, speed, comfort, cabin and cargo space and load factor. In the 2nd half of the last century, more specifically in the early 70s up to the end of the century and as a result of energy crises, oil peaks and price hikes of cartels, more attention was given to fuel efficiency. Air transport being an essential service has forced most aircraft manufacturers to devote more energy, investment and time to designing better equipment.

AIR TRANSPORT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT WHAT COMPLEMENTARITIES AND COMPATIBILITY FOR THE FUTURE?

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Air Transport and Sustainable Development: What Complementarities and Compatibility for the Future?

N. P. Mootien

Abstract - History is replete of its own repetitions and contradictions and domestic and international air transport are no exceptions. It has now become necessary for several reasons to assess how limited resources could be more wisely used for further welfare and economic growth without threatening the very existence of mankind. In other words we need to stop 'shooting ourselves in the foot' by playing a game of duplicity when it comes to ecology and environmental protection the paradox of economic development and industrialization. The 20th century has seen the rapid and swift development of both international and domestic air transport worldwide. Emphases then were on efficiency, speed, comfort, cabin and cargo space and load factor. In the 2nd half of the last century, more specifically in the early 70s up to the end of the century and as a result of energy crises, oil peaks and price hikes of cartels, more attention was given to fuel efficiency. Air transport being an essential service has forced most aircraft manufacturers to devote more energy, investment and time to designing better equipment. In so doing, aircraft manufacturers, airline operators and governments have all overlooked the issue of sustainability. This oversight has now become a major concern for all. Because of the global but fragmented nature of air transport, it is difficult to regulate the industry in order to establish standard policies and procedures. Attempts made by the European Union have so far produced mitigated results.

In this paper, we look at the contradictions and paradoxes when nations have to make a choice between the 'now' and the 'future', between the options of further economic growth and sustainability and between welfare and wealth.

Keywords : International and domestic air transport, sustainability, policies, carbon emissions.

I. Introduction

This paper questions the complementarities and compatibility of civil aviation with sustainability. Climate change is today recognized as one of the most serious challenges to the global community, potentially affecting almost all aspects across the planet. This century will pose some serious challenges to several sectors of the international economy. How will governments reconcile economic growth and development with the environmental impacts of such an industry like the transport industry in general and air transport in particular.

Author : University of Technology, Mauritius
E-mail : nmootien@umail.utm.ac.mu

Air transport as an essential service will continue to play a very important role in industrialization and economic growth. Airlines will continue to transport tourists and freight on long and short distances. However, principles of airline management will have to be revisited if the industry is to be sustainable both environmentally and economically. This paper will establish that there are ways to make it sustainable provided there is political will and the industry is viewed in its global perspective rather in a piecemeal way or within an attempt to apportion responsibilities to airline operators and owners or countries where the airlines fly from.

It is necessary for all stakeholders (operators, airline owners and governments) to adopt new methods of management and look in to cost effective means in terms of energy consumption and effects on the environment in general. Admittedly, at this stage our approach is rather fragmented and it is imperative that organizations like IATA, ICAO and the UN establish the required bases for more consolidation and globalization of airline operations worldwide.

II. Literature Review

a) Strategies

Consumers are now more conscious and conscientious about environment friendliness and the necessity to consume 'smart'. The preferred strategy to achieve sustainability is to *consume more efficiently* (Sorrel, 2010) which implies reducing the environmental impacts associated with each good or service. But the success of this approach will definitely depend on the size of the rebounding effects. A related and complementary strategy is to *consume differently* (Sorell, 2010) which implies shifting to alternative modes of transport with a lower environmental impact. In a review, Heiskanen and Jalas (2003) concluded that the environmental benefits of product-to-service arrangements are modest at best while Suh (2006) estimates that a shift to service-oriented economy could actually *increase* carbon emissions owing to the heavy reliance of services on manufactured goods. However, Sorell (2010) points out that developed countries are outsourcing the manufactured goods from developing countries confining the impacts on environment to the latter.

Official figures according to Druckman (2009), official emissions between 1990 and 2004, but this changes to a 15% increase when the emissions embodied in international trade are accounted for. Nonetheless, given the potential limitations of consuming efficiently and differently, it seems logical to examine the potential of a third option: simply consuming less (Sanne, 2000; Schor, 1999; Princen, 2005). The key idea here is *sufficiency*, defined by Princen (2005) as a social organizing principle that builds upon established notions such as restraints and moderation to provide rules for guiding collective behavior. The primary objective is to respect ecological constraints, although most authors also emphasize the social and psychological benefits to be obtained from consuming less.

While Princen (2005) cites examples of sufficiency being put to practice by communities and organizations, most authors focus on the implications for individuals. They argue that 'downshifting' can both lower environmental impacts and improve quality of life, notably by reducing stress and allowing more leisure time.

III.   Sustainability is Incompatible With Continued Economic Growth In Rich countries

There is a direct correlation between energy consumption and carbon emission. Unless clean, alternative sources of energy are found very quickly, we will not be able to reduce global warming. However, in the developed countries, increase in economic growth has been associated with over consumption and hence, a negation of the principles of sustainability.

The preceding arguments highlight a conflict between reducing energy consumption and carbon emissions in absolute terms while at the same time continuing to grow the economy. Recognizing the importance of rebound effects and the role of energy in driving economic growth therefore re-opens the debate about limits to growth. This debate is long-standing and multifaceted, but a key point is that the goal of economic development should not be to maximize GDP but to improve human well-being and quality of life. Material consumption is merely a means to that end and GDP is merely a measure of that means. GDP measures the costs rather than the benefits of economic activity and is only a proxy for welfare under very restrictive conditions (Weitzman 1976). It is likely that, beyond a certain level increased material consumption will reduce well-being, since the (typically unmeasured) social and environmental costs will exceed the benefits. As Ekins (1992) argues, human well-being is not determined solely by the consumption of goods and services but also by human capital (e.g., health, knowledge), social capital

(e.g., family, friends and social networks) and natural capital (*i.e.*, ecosystems and the services they provide), none of which are necessarily correlated with GDP. Attempts to value these contributions through the use of alternative measures of economic progress typically find that well-being is not improving or even declining in rich countries, despite increases in GDP (Noury 2008, Victor 2008). Hence, while growth in per capita income is likely to improve well-being in developing countries, the same may not be true for developed countries.

IV.   The Case of International And Domestic Air Transport

The 20th century has seen the rapid and swift development of both international and domestic air transport worldwide. Emphases then were on efficiency, flight duration, stopovers, speed, cabin and cargo space and load factor. In the 2nd half of the last century, more specifically in the early 70s up to the end of the century and as a result of various energy crises, oil peaks and price hikes of cartels, more attention was given to fuel efficiency. Air transport being an essential service has forced most aircraft manufacturers to devote more energy, investment and time designing better equipment. In so doing, aircraft manufacturers, airline operators and governments have overlooked the issue of sustainability. This oversight has now become a major concern for all.

Because of the global but fragmented nature of air transport, it is difficult to regulate the industry in order to establish standard policies and procedures. Attempts made by the European Union have so far produced mitigated results.

One of the major issues regarding international and domestic air transport today is the sustainability of the industry in an era where the world is having a different approach to its ecological future and survival. This paper will endeavour to show whether the world can reduce its dependence on this form of transportation in order to curb the negative effects on the environment or should the air transport operators devise new ways and means to fly while reducing all the adverse effects such as air and noise pollution. Already in Europe and the US, more and more travelers are finding alternatives to air transport. This paper will look at several proposals and recommendations with a view to make the industry more sustainable. This approach will require the involvement of all stakeholders namely airlines, airports, craft manufacturers, legislators and air traffic management.

V.   Climate Change

It is now widely recognized that there is an urgent need for the world community to address the challenge of climate change. Sustainable development

worldwide also relies on access to aviation which should remain safe and affordable in order to ensure mobility on an equitable basis to all elements of society. The international community has a shared interest in ensuring that civil aviation can continue to deliver vital social and economic benefits, while addressing its impacts on the global climate (Sustainable Aviation, 2010).

Aviation […] impacts on the environment, both at the local level and internationally through its growing contribution to climate change, which is perhaps the most important issue facing the global community. So [governments and industries] have a responsibility to work together to tackle these issues […] There is now wide agreement that emissions trading is the most effective way of tackling aviation's contribution to climate change […] It is necessary that we strike a balance between the economic benefits of aviation and the environmental challenges it creates (Tony Blair, former UK Prime Minister, 2005).

Aircraft engines, particulates and gases which contribute to climate change (ICAO 2008) and global dimming. Despite emission reductions from automobiles and more fuel efficient and less polluting turbofan and turboprop engines, the rapid growth of air travel in recent years contributes to an increase in total pollution attributable to aviation. In the EU, greenhouse gas emissions from aviation increased by 87% between 1990 and 2006. There is an ongoing debate about possible taxation of air travel and the inclusion of aviation in an emission trading scheme, with a view to ensuring that the total external costs of aviation is taken into account (EU 2006).

Like all human activities involving combustion, most forms of aviation release carbon dioxide (CO_2) and other green gases into the earth's atmosphere, contributing to the acceleration of global warming (Anderson 2008) and ocean acidification (McNeil and Matear 2008). In addition to the CO_2 released by most aircraft in flight through the burning of fuels such as Jet-A (turbine aircraft) or Avgas (piston aircraft), the aviation industry also contributes to greenhouse gas emissions generated by the production of energy used in airport buildings, the manufacture of aircraft and the construction of airport infrastructure (Hovarth and Chester 2008). While the principal greenhouse gas emission from powered aircraft in flight is CO_2, other emissions may include nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide, also sometimes referred to oxides of nitrogen or NOx, water vapour and particulates (soot and sulfate particles), sulfur oxides, carbon monoxide, partly burned hydrocarbons, tetra-ethyl lead and radicals such as hydroxyl. The contribution of civil aircraft-in-flight to global CO_2 emissions has been estimated at around 2%. However, in the case of high-altitude airliners which frequently fly near or in the stratosphere, non-CO_2 altitude-sensitive effects may increase the total impact on anthropogenic (man-made) climate change significantly (IPCC 1999).

VI. Mechanisms

According to IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change), subsonic aircraft-in-flight contribute to climate change in four ways:

Carbon dioxide (CO_2)

CO_2 emissions from in flight aircraft are the best and most significant element of aviation's total contribution to climate change (Sausen et al 2007). The level and effects of CO_2 emissions are currently believed to be broadly the same regardless of altitude (i.e. they have the same atmospheric effects as ground based emissions). In 1992, emissions of CO_2, from aircraft were estimated at around 2% of all such anthropogenic emissions, and that year the atmospheric concentration of CO_2 attributable to aviation was only around 1% of the total anthropogenic increase since the industrial revolution, having accumulated primarily over just the last 50 years (IPPC 199). De Haan (2009) argues that CO_2 is emitted "at such an altitude that it will not easily be removed from the atmosphere and thus, will continue to have an impact on climate change for a relatively longer period of time". He also points out that "CO_2 has a strong relation with fuel consumption. There is a strong economic incentive to reduce fuel consumption in aviation. As a result of that aircraft have become very efficient in their fuel consumption. Flying one aircraft seat costs roughly the same as, or even less than, driving a car, only aircraft have ten times the speed of a car. However, people drive cars for relatively small distances, whereas they fly planes over long distances. Therefore in absolute terms, flights require a lot of fuel, and the result, thus, is a lot of CO_2 emission".

Oxides of Nitrogen (NOx)

At the high altitudes flown by large jet airliners around the tropopause, emissions of NOx are particularly effective in forming ozone (O_3) in the upper troposphere. High altitude (8-13 km) NOx emissions result in greater concentration of O_3 than surface NOx emissions and these in turn have a greater global warming effect. The effects of O_3 concentrations are regional and local as opposed to CO_2 emissions which are global (IPPC 1999).

Water Vapour (H_2O)

One of the products of burning hydrocarbons in oxygen is the water vapour, a greenhouse gas. Water vapour produced by aircraft engines at high altitudes, under certain atmospheric conditions, condenses into droplets to form *concentration trails* also known as *contrails*. *Cirrus clouds* have been observed to develop after the persistent formation of contrails and have been found to have a global warming effect over and above that of contrail formation alone. However, there is a degree of scientific uncertainty about the contribution of contrail

and cirrus cloud formation to global warming and attempts to estimate aviation's overall climate change do not tend to include its effects on cirrus cloud enhancement (Sausen et al 2008).

Particulates

Least significant is the release of soot and sulfate particles. Soot absorbs heat and has a warming effect; sulfate particles reflect radiation and have a small cooling effect. In addition, they can influence the formation and properties of clouds (EU 2005). All aircraft powered by combustion will release some amount of soot.

VII. CO_2 EMISSIONS PER PASSENGER KILOMETRE

Emissions of passenger aircraft per passenger kilometre vary extensively, according to variables such as the size of the aircraft, the number of passengers on board, and the altitude and the distance of the journey as the practical effect of emissions at high altitudes may be greater than those emissions at low altitudes. In 2009, the LIPASTO survey in Finland provided some figures for CO_2 and CO_2 equivalent per passenger kilometre:

- Domestic, short haul distances, less than 463 km: 257 g/km CO_2 or 259 g/km CO_2e

- Domestic, long haul distances, greater than 463 km: 177 g/km CO_2 or 178 g/km CO_2e

- Long haul flights: 113 g/km CO_2 or 114 g/km CO_2e

For perspective, per passenger a typical economy-class New York to Los Angeles round trip produces about 715 kg of CO_2 but is equivalent to 1,917 kg of CO_2 when the high altitude "climatic forcing" effect is taken in to account (Nevins 2010). Within the categories of flights above, emissions from scheduled jet flights are substantially higher than chartered jet flights. The emissions above are similar to a four-seat car with one person on board (LIPASTO 2009). However, flying trips often cover longer distances than cars, so the total emissions are much higher. About 60% of aviation emissions arise form international flights and these flights are not covered by the Kyoto Protocol and its emissions reduction targets (Owen et al. 2010). Per passenger kilometre, figures from British Airways suggest CO_2 emissions of 0.1 kg for large jet airliners – a figure that does not account for the production of other pollutants or condensation trails (Goodall 2007).

VIII. TOTAL CLIMATE EFFECTS

In attempting to aggregate and quantify the total climate impact of aircraft emissions, the IPCC has estimated that aviation's total climate impact is some 2 to 4 times that of its direct CO_2 emissions alone excluding the impact of cirrus cloud enhancement (IPCC 1999). This is measured as radiative forcing. While there is uncertainty about the exact level of impact of NOx and water vapour, governments have accepted the broad scientific view that they do have an effect. Globally in 2005, aviation contributed possibly as much as 4.9% of radiative forcing (Owen et al 2010). UK government policy statements have stressed the need for aviation to address its total climate change impacts not simply the impact of CO_2 (HMSO White Paper 2003).

The IPCC has estimated that aviation is responsible for around 3.5% of anthropogenic climate change, a figure which includes both CO_2 and non-CO_2 induced effects. The IPCC gas produced scenarios estimating what this figure will be in 2050. The focus point of the estimate is that aviation's contribution could grow to 5% of the total contribution by 2050 if action is not taken to tackle these emissions, though the highest scenario is 15%! (IPCC 1999). Moreover, if other industries achieve significant cuts in their own greenhouse gas emissions, aviation's share as a proportion of the remaining emissions could also rise.

IX. FUTURE EMISSIONS LEVELS: IMPROVED EFFICIENCIES Vs. THE TREND IN INCREASED TRAVEL AND FREIGHT

Admittedly, there have been significant improvements in fuel efficiency through aircraft technology and operational management but these improvements are being overshadowed by the increase in traffic volumes. From 1992 to 2005 and in spite of 09/11 and two significant wars, passenger kilometers increased by 5.2% annually. During the first three quarters of 2010, air travel markets expanded at an annualized rate approaching 10% (IATA 2010).

X. INCREASING EFFICIENCIES OF AIRCRAFT AND THEIR OPERATIONS

Modern jet aircraft are significantly more fuel efficient and thus emit less CO_2 than 30 years ago. Aircraft fuel efficiency has improved by some 50% over the past 30 years (IATA/ATAG 1999). Moreover, manufacturers have forecast and are committed to achieving reductions in both CO_2 and NOx emissions each new generation of design and engine (ACARE 2002). Therefore, the accelerated introduction of more modern aircraft represents an opportunity to reduce emissions per passenger kilometre flown. However, aircraft are major investments that are endured for decades and the replacement of international fleet is therefore a long term proposition which will greatly delay realizing the climate benefits of these improvements in aircraft design and engine. Engines can be changed at some point but nevertheless

airframes have a long life (ICAO 2001). It is also to bear in mind that in real situations, such aircrafts once depreciated are never phased out immediately. Because of high costs of equipment, they are either resold to private operators or developing countries where rules are either more relaxed or flexible than in the US and the EU. Moreover such equipment are often leased on a wet or dry lease basis.

Other opportunities arise from the optimization of airline timetables, route networks flight frequencies to increase load factors (ICAO 2001) together with the optimization of air space. Another possible reduction of the climate-change impact is the limitation of cruise altitude of aircraft. This would lead to a significant reduction in high-altitude contrails for a marginal trade off increased flight time and an estimated 4% increase in CO_2 emissions. Drawbacks of this solution include very limited airspace capacity to do this, especially in Europe and North America and increased fuel burned because jet aircraft are less fuel efficient at lower cruise altitudes (Williams et al 2002). On a more positive note, turboprop aircraft are known to bring two major benefits: they burn less fuel per passenger mile and they fly at lower altitudes, well inside the tropopause, where there are no major concerns about the ozone or contrail production.

XI. Alternate Fuels

Some research organisations have been experiencing on the following biofuels: ethanol, combination of coconut and babassu oils and jatropha oil. However there are major concerns from pressure groups that production of organic oils would lead to deforestation and a large increase in greenhouse gas emissions. The vast amount of land needed is more of a deterrent to produce biofuels for both civil and military aviation (Rapier 2011). However the latest research shows that Jatropha can thrive on marginal agricultural land where many trees and crops do not grow or would produce only slow growth yields (Oxburgh 2008). Other researches are now being carried out with components of algae and jatropha.

XII. Reducing Air Travel

Aviation has been growing faster than any other source of green house gases. In the UK alone between 1990 and 2004, the number of people using airports rose by 120% and the energy the planes consumed increased by 79%. Their CO_2 emissions almost doubled in that period – from 20.1 to 39.5 megatonnes or 5% of all emissions produced in the country (Monbiot 2006). However, attempts to discourage air travels have not been very successful. Flying is still associated with glamour and social status. With most international conferences having hundreds if not thousands of participants, and the bulk of these usually travel by plane, conference travel is an

area where significant reductions in air-travel-related CGH emissions could be made and as Reay (2004) argues, this does not mean non-attendance. Teleconferencing and other forms of technology could be used if we want to reduce unnecessary air travel. But Marshall (2009) is persuaded that many travelers still find it hard to believe that air travel could be replaced by alternative modes of transport.

XIII. Ending Incentives to Travel and Frequent Flyer Programmes

Over 130 airlines have *frequent flyer* programmes based at least in part on miles, kilometers, points or segments of flights taken. In 2005, globally such programmes included some 163 million people. These programmes benefit airlines by habituating people to air travel and through the mechanics of partnership with credit card companies and other businesses […] The only part of United Airlines that was making money when the company filed for bankruptcy was its frequent flyer programme (The Economist Dec 2005). Concerning business travel, the ease of international travel and the fact that, for most of us, the costs are met by our employers, means that globe trotting conference travel is often regarded as a perk of the job (Reay 2004). However, the perk usually is not only the business trip itself, but also the frequent flyer points which the individual accrues by taking the trip, and which can be redeemed later for personal air travel. Thus a conflict of interest is established whereby bottom-up pressure may be created within a firm or government agency for travel that is really not necessary. Even when such conflict is not a motivation, the perk of frequent flyer miles can be expected to lead in any cases to personal trips that would not be taken if a ticket had to be paid out of personal funds (UNEP DTIE 2009). In some countries, by just using an airline-sponsored credit card to pay for ones household or other such expenses or even personal bills paid by an employee and claimed from an employer , frequent flyer points can be racked quickly (The Economist Dec 2005). Thus, free travel – for which the individual has to pay nothing extra – becomes a reality. Across society, this too can be expected to lead to much air travel – and green gas emissions – that otherwise would not occur.

Several studies have contemplated the elimination of FFPs, on the grounds of anti-competitiveness (Storm 1999), ethics, conflict with society's overall well-being , or climate effects. Some countries even went to the extent of banning such programmes. Denmark did not allow the programmes until 1992, then changing its policy because its airlines were disadvantaged (Storm 1999). In 2002, Norway banned FFPs in order to promote competition among its airlines (Berglund 2002). In 1989, some US airlines were of the opinion that governments should consider

putting an end to the FFPs as they encourage unfair competition (Michael 1989).

XIV. DECREASING DEMAND FOR AIR TRAVEL

One means of reducing impact of aviation is to constrain demand for air travel, through increased fares in place of expanded airport capacity. Several studies have explored this:

o The UK study *Predict and Decide – Aviation, Climate Change and UK Policy,* notes that a 10% increase in fares generates a 5% to 15% reduction in demand, recommends that the British government should manage demand rather than provide for it. This could be accomplished via a strategy [..] against the expansion of UK airport capacity and constrains demand by the use of economic instruments to price air travel less attractively. (Newson 2006).

o A study of the Aviation Environment Federation concludes that by levying £9 billion of additional taxes, the annual rate of growth in demand in the UK for air travel would be reduced to 2% (Sewill 2003).

o The 9th report of the House of Commons Environmental Audit Select Committee published in July 2006, recommends that the British government rethinks its airport expansion policy and considers ways, particularly via increased taxation, in which future demand can be managed in line with industry performance in achieving fuel efficiencies, so that emissions are not allowed to increase in absolute terms (BHC 2006)

XV. KYOTO PROTOCOL

Greenhouse gas emissions from fuel consumption in international aviation, in contrast to those from domestic aviation and from energy use by airports, are not assigned under the firs round of the Kyoto Protocol, neither are the non-CO_2 climate effects. In place of an agreement , governments agreed to work through the ICAO to limit or reduce emissions to find solutions to the allocation of emissions from international aviation in time for the 2nd round of Kyoto in 2009 in Copenhagen; however, the conference failed to reach an agreement on these emissions (GreenAirOnline 2009).

XVI. EMISSIONS TRADING

As part of that process the ICAO has endorsed the adoption of an open emissions trading system to meet CO_2 emissions reduction objectives. Guidelines for the adoption and implementation of a global scheme have been developed and presented at the ICAO assembly in 2007, although the prospects of a comprehensive intergovernmental agreement on the adoption of these guidelines are still uncertain. Within the EU, however, the European Commission has resolved to incorporate aviation in the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS) (EC 2005). A new directive has been adopted by the European Parliament in July 2008 and it is expected to be effective from January 2012 (EC 2008). Emissions trading ensures that aggressive emission cuts are achieved, either through cutting emissions further within the aviation sector or paying other sectors that are able to reduce emissions at lower cost. Through trading, the abatement efforts are shared between sectors of the economy in the most cost-effective manner. The idea that all sectors must make the same absolute contribution misses the point of using emissions trading emissions trading to find the most cost-effective share of effort (Manifesto for Copenhagen 2009)

XVII. PROPOSALS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

a) A reduction in travel

It necessary for each organisation to have a policy statement on its ambition to reduce environment impact by reducing travel and making travel more efficient.

b) Consolidation of long haul travel instead of multiple travels for the same purposes

The combination of several missions or sectors on a single ticket instead of several journeys. Each landing and takeoff increases the carbon footprint of any aircraft.

c) Encourage the recruitment of local staff instead of expatriates wherever possible

Recruitment of expatriates is to be limited to the necessary personnel really indispensable for the purpose of the organization.

d) Reduce the number of participants and staff attending official missions and conferences

Organizations to limit the number of participants to the bare minimum

e) Use of alternative means of communication such as virtual technology for meetings, seminars and conferences

Many meetings could be conducted via ICT (Information and Communication Technology) such as telephone, e-mail, video conferencing, virtual meeting rooms or personalized (PC to PC) video links.

f) Encourage more efficient and alternative modes of transport: train and road travels for short haul distances

The carbon footprint of any travel depends not only on the distance travelled but also on the form of travel used. Travel usually has a much smaller footprint than travel by car. Travel by car usually has a smaller carbon footprint than travel by air. Air travel in economy

class has a smaller carbon footprint than travel in business class and business class has a smaller carbon foot print than travel in first class. The lower the class, the smaller share of the aircraft and associated emissions does the ticket represent. Normally a business seat accounts for twice the emissions of an economy seat and a first class seat three times the emissions of an economy.

g) Governments to purchase modern low emission aircrafts

Travel by modern aircraft has normally a smaller footprint than older aircraft. Governments in their bilateral and multilateral agreements should give preference to routings and airlines minimizing the number of landings and takeoffs and using more modern aircraft.

h) Aircraft Technological Development

One of the proposals being considered now is to create economies of scale by making aircraft larger. The currently largest available aircraft, the Airbus A380, can host 550 passengers in a 3-class configuration and up to 800 passengers if all seats would be short-pitch economy class (de Haan 2009). A preliminary design study (Blok et al. 2001) of a larger aircraft flying 1000 passengers showed advantages in terms of costs and fuel consumption (and thus CO2 emission) of roughly 10% per flown seat kilometre. However, disadvantages were also found, ranging from psychological resistance by both potential passengers and crew to fly with so many people together in one plane.

XVIII. CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to show that energy consumption will have to live side by side with sustainability unless clean, alternative sources of energy are found and used more than fossil fuels. We have also shown that economic growth is to some extent incompatible with sustainability and will not be complementary with each other until there is a change in people's mindset and in the approach towards industrial development, consumption and basic economic parameters. Economic growth just for the sake of greater wealth and comfort is no longer a panacea for social advancement. Society will have to make choices in terms of forgone alternatives.

REFERENCES RÉFÉRENCES REFERENCIAS

1. ACARE (2002) Strategic Research Agenda Airports and Travel Trade, Journal of Air Transport Management 12(1):40-46.
2. Anderson, K. (17. 06. 2008) Reframing Climate Change: From Long-term Targets to Emission Pathways, Tyndall Centre for Climate Change Research, University of Manchester Berglund, N. (19.03.2002) Sterling polishes plans for new routes, Aftenpost, Norway
3. Blok, G et. al (2001) A3XL, Faculty of Aerospace Engineering, Delft University of Technology, Delft British House of Commons Publications (2006), London
4. De Haan, A. R. C (2009) Limited Possibilities to Reduce CO2 Emissions from Aviation due to the Growth in Aviation Demand, Aerlines Environmental Report, Edition 40 Druckman, A.; Jackson, T. The carbon footprint of UK households 1990–2004: A socio-economically disaggregated, quasi-multi-regional input-output model. *Ecol. Econ.* **2009**, *68*, 2066-2077.
5. Ekins, P. A Four-Capital Model of Wealth Creation. In *Real-Life Economics: Understanding World Creation* ; Ekins, P., Max-Neef, M., Eds.; Routledge: London, UK, 1992.
6. EU Press Release (20.12.2006) Climate change: Commission proposes bringing air transport into EU Emissions Trading Scheme
7. Goodall, C. (2007) How to Live a Low-carbon Life: The Individual's Guide to Stopping Climate Change, Earthscan Publications Ltd, ISBN 1844074269 Heiskanen, E.; Jalas, M. Can services lead to radical eco-efficiency improvements?—A review of the debate and evidence. *Corp. Soc. Respon. Environ. Manag.* **2003**, *10*, 186-198.
8. HMSO (2003) The Future of Air Transport White Paper Hovarth, A. and Chester, M (2008) Environmental Life-cycle Assessment of Passenger Transportation: An Energy, Greenhouse Gas and Criteria Pollutant Inventory of Rail and Air Transportation, University of California Transportation Centre, Berkeley IATA (2010) Air Transport Market analysis, Geneva IATA/ATAG (1999) Aviation and Environment: aircraft fuel efficiency has improved by 50% over the past 30 Years
9. ICAO (2001) Operational Opportunities to Minimize fuel Use and Reduce Emissions
10. IPCC (1999) Aviation and the Global Atmosphere: A Special Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on climate Change, Cambridge University Press
11. IPCC (2007a) Summary for Policy Makers, Climate Change 2007, Cambridge University Press
12. LIPASTO (2009) Average passenger aircraft emissions and energy consumption per passenger kilometre in finland in 2008.
13. Manifesto for Copenhagen (2009) Sustainable Aviation, UK Marshall, G. (24.07.2009) We still don't believe in climate change, climatedenial.org
14. McNeil, B. I. and Matear, R. J. (2008) Southern Ocean Acidification: A tipping point at 450-ppm atmospheric CO2, National Academy of Sciences (105:48:18860)
15. Michael, K. (04.10.1989) Braniff to slim down, Orlando Sentinel, Florida, USA Monbiot, G. (21.09.2006) On the Flight Path to Global Meltdown,, The Guardian, UK Nevins, J.

(13.12.2010) Kicking the Habit: air Travel in the Time of Climate Change, Yes Magazine Nourry, M. Measuring sustainable development: Empirical evidence for France from eight alternative indicators. *Ecol. Econ.* **2008**, *67*, 441-456.

16. Oxburgh, R. (28.02.2008) Through Biofuels we can reap the fruits of our labours, The guardian, Uk Owen, B., Lee, D. S. and Lim, l. (2010) Flying in to the Future: Aviation Emissions Scenarios to 2050,

17. Environmental Science and Technology (44:7:2255-260)

18. Princen, T. *The Logic of Sufficiency*; MIT Press: Boston, MA, USA, 2005.

19. Rapier, R. (2011), Marginal Land Produces Marginal Biomass, consumer Energy Report Reay, D. S. (2004) New Directions : Flying in the face of the climate change convention, Atmospheric Environment (38:5:793-794).

20. Sanne, C. Dealing with environmental savings in a dynamical economy—How to stop chasing your tail in the pursuit of sustainability. *Energ. Policy* **2000**, *28*, 487-495.

21. Sausen, R. and Isaksen, I et al (2005) Aviation Radiative Forcing in 2000: an Update on IPCC Schor, J. *The Overspent American: Upscaling*, *Downshifting*, *and the New Consumer*; Basic Books: New York, NY, USA, 1999.

22. Sorrell, S. (2010) Energy, Economic Growth and Environmental Sustainability: Five Propositions, Sustainability, Sussex Suh, S. Are services better for climate change? *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2006**, *40*, 6555-6560.

23. Storm, S. (1999) Air Transport Policies and Frequent Flyer Programmes in the EC: a Scandinavian Perspective, Unit of Tourism Research, Research Centre of Borbholm, Denmark

24. Sustainable Aviation (2005) A Strategy towards sustainable development of UK aviation The Economist (20.12.2005) Frequent-Flyer Miles – Funny Money Travis, D. J (2002) Contrails reduce daily temperature range, Nature 418.

25. UNEP DTIE (2009) A Guide to Greenhouse Gas Emission Reduction in UN Organisations, Sustainable Consumption & Production Branch

26. Victor, P. *Managing Without Growth: Slower by Design*, *Not Disaster*; Edward Elgar: Aldershot, UK, 2008.

27. Weitzman, M.L. On the welfare significance of the national product in a dynamic economy. *Q. J. Econ.* **1976**, *90*, 156-162.

28. Williams, V. et al. (2002) Reducing the Climate Change Impacts of Aviation by Restricting Cruise altitudes,

29. Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment 7(6):451-464

Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame to Rectify Tunnel Vision. Is It Achievable?

By Mariam Mohamed Nor, Ng Yu Jin

Universiti Tenaga Nasional, Putrajaya, Malaysia

Abstract - Intensive English Programme (IEP) at Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN) is designed to measure candidates' level of English language proficiency and to determine whether they are ready to undertake a course at tertiary level in English. At UNITEN, many foreign students are currently undergoing the IEP Programme at the College of Foundation and General Studies (CFGS), before they can pursue their studies at the respective colleges in UNITEN. However, majority of the students lack the prerequisite language knowledge and reading skills to cope with the IEP reading comprehension tests. Many of them have problems with recognizing linguistic cues as well as locating the main ideas in discourses and paragraphs. This was an experimental action research project investigating the effectiveness of a reading model.

Keywords : Graphic organizer, Paragraph Frame, Tunnel Vision.

GJHSS A Classification : FOR Code: 200102, 200408, 200105

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame to Rectify Tunnel Vision. Is It Achievable?

Mariam Mohamed Nor [α], Ng Yu Jin [σ]

Abstract - Intensive English Programme (IEP) at Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN) is designed to measure candidates' level of English language proficiency and to determine whether they are ready to undertake a course at tertiary level in English. At UNITEN, many foreign students are currently undergoing the IEP Programme at the College of Foundation and General Studies (CFGS), before they can pursue their studies at the respective colleges in UNITEN. However, majority of the students lack the prerequisite language knowledge and reading skills to cope with the IEP reading comprehension tests. Many of them have problems with recognizing linguistic cues as well as locating the main ideas in discourses and paragraphs. This was an experimental action research project investigating the effectiveness of a reading model.

The objectives of this study were:

1. To investigate the EFL students' reading comprehension problems, specifically 'tunnel vision' during the IEP classes.
2. To evaluate the effectiveness of the Reading Model: Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame (GOPF) utilized by the researcher.
3. To suggest a Reading Model that can assist to boot up the IEP students' attitude, motivation, and reading skills (skimming and scanning).

Survey method was utilized to obtain responses from students and interview sessions were conducted to gain better insight on the students' attitude and motivation. Findings denote a significant improvement in the students' attitude, motivation and reading skills (skimming and scanning) at the end of the experimental research project.

Keywords : Graphic organizer, Paragraph Frame, Tunnel Vision

I. Introduction

Reading involves constructing meaning from a written text (Anderson, 1984).It serves as a communication between the writer and the reader. The writer encodes what he/she wishes to convey, and simultaneously the reader decodes according to his/her interpretation. Tunnel vision is a reading problem experienced by readers, especially beginner, second language and foreign English language readers. This occurs when they read an English text from A to Z, but they understand 'very little' what they are reading (Smith, 1994). Generally, they verbalize the words verbatim without comprehending what they are reading. The aim of this paper is to record the effectiveness of a reading model to rectify tunnel vision among the EFL students in the IEP program at Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN)

II. Reasons For Reading Comprehension Problems

For the three types of English language readers: beginner, second language and foreign language, majority lack 'non-visual information' when they try to comprehend certain texts that are not within their experience. Non-visual information refers to the knowledge that is stored in the brain, which can assist to relate the new knowledge received by the eyes to the brain, thus assist in reading comprehension. Generally, beginner, second language and foreign language readers have inadequate English language vocabulary, prior knowledge and specific information that can assist them to visualize the text read. This is particularly evidence when the text is not culturally within their experience. Hence, they will have to resort to the dictionary to look up for the meanings of the new words. However, English words have different meanings based on context. Ultimately, the reader is provided with the wrong meaning which is not according to context. The EFL students often resort to their digital dictionary when confronted with difficult words. The dictionary translates the words verbatim from Arabic to English and the meaning is not in context. Consequently, this bewildered the reader due to their inaccurate interpretation of the text. At other times, they resort to *Google* translation which also creates misinterpretation. Some words can be explained using pictures and miming. However, some words are too abstract to be explained. [Example the word 'table' has multiple meanings depending on the context]

Author [α] [σ] : Universiti Tenaga Nasional, Putrajaya, Malaysia

To table the meeting	To chair the meeting
Put the dishes on the table	To place
On the table	To postpone/ consider
Table tennis	A type of game/sports
Table of content	Listing of information
Table manners	Ethics while eating
tablecloth	A cloth placed on the table
Table top	A working area in the kitchen

III. READING PROBLEMS OF ARAB EFL STUDENTS

In particular the EFL students' reading problems can be attributed to the following: teachers' approaches and teaching style, differences between L1 (Arabic language) and L2 (English language), students are not trained on how to use their schemata, insufficient exposure to English, students attitude toward the text read, and pronunciation of words which is also related to their meaning and comprehension.

Mourtaga. K, (2006) in his study on reading problems among students in Gaza schools noted that some schoolteachers read for the class and then instruct students to read aloud. At other times they focus on every single word meaning, how it is pronounced. Sometimes, when student readers are asked to read aloud in class, they are asked to put their index finger on the words they are reading. This behavior might develop a way of reading that these students might follow in their whole life; a way that is slow, loud, and with subvocalization. However, the reading teachers need to know that if the eyes look at words one at a time, the brain deals with words in meaningful clusters. Therefore, using the index finger to refer to every word while reading aloud makes reading slow, and slow reading is bad " because it tends to create *tunnel vision*, overloads short-term memory, and leaves the reader floundering in the ambiguity of language" (Smith, 1994: 153). Smith adds that subvocalization is like loud reading which slows readers down and interferes with comprehension…" (160). It is hypothesized by this researcher that teachers' misunderstanding of the reading process is the cause of many reading difficulties their students face. Miller and Yochum (1991) maintain that the reading difficulties students face may be related to inaccurate knowledge of the reading process. This relationship is clear in Weaver's (1988) words:

Children's success at reading reflects their reading strategies; their reading strategies typically reflect their implicit definitions of reading; children's definitions of reading often reflect the instructional approach, and the instructional approach reflect a definition of reading whether implicit or explicit. (p. 2)

In fact for the reading teachers, student/student interaction is always looked at as a noise, confusion, and disturbance to them and to the other students' understanding. Based on this, one can conclude that there is a misunderstanding of what reading is and what the reading process is all about. Accordingly, the EFL students find reading English a very complicated skill, and therefore, they have many problems with it. Sad to say, the poor readers will realize this fact only when they are given big reading assignments when they want to further their education at the university level.

To reiterate, the teachers' teaching approaches do not encourage English language learning. For example, many teachers follow teacher-oriented approaches in class management and therefore, they forbid any kind of interaction and cooperation between students. Specifically, reading has never been given enough time and effort by Gaza EFL instructors (Mourtaga, 2006). As a result, EFL students are poor readers, who find reading a foreign language such as English a complicated task. Consequently, reading is not popular among teachers and students. In due course, the problem of weak student readers emerges at the surface when some of those students enter the English departments of the local universities. More often than not, these teachers follow a traditional bottom- up approach or the Grammar-translation method when teaching reading. For instance, they view reading as a one- way process and therefore, focus mainly on word identification. This is clear in many classrooms of reading where student readers are stopped from time to time to be corrected or to be asked about the meaning of individual words they have read.

Beyond that, when talking about reading problems of Arab EFL students, researchers used to attribute these problems to differences between L1 and L2. (Farquharson,1988; Lebauer, 1985; Torry, 1971; Block, 1992; Panos and Rusic, 1983;Duncan, 1983; and George, 1975). Take for instance, the Arabic alphabet is different from the Roman alphabet. For instance, there are no capital letters of the 28 Arabic letters, many of which have different shapes, depending on their position in a word. In addition, Arabic is written through the line from right to left,

which makes the adaptation (Panos and Ruzic, 1983) to the opposite direction in reading a problem. Undoubtedly, this can be a serious problem to fast reading in skimming, scanning, and note taking.

In addition, the EFL students are not trained to use their schemata. Therefore, they focus on many things at one time: phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic clues, so as to read fluently with comprehension. However, it is hard for the brain to attend to all these things simultaneously and "the harder we try to look, the less we may see" (Smith, 1988: 71). In order to get the meaning from the text, (Devine, 1988), the reader should have two categories of knowledge to interact: Form (recognition of graphophonic, lexical, syntactic/semantic, and rhetorical patterns of language) and substance (cultural, pragmatic, and subject-specific information). Donnell and Wood (1999) state three categories of factors that affect comprehension: factors in the reader (interest/motivation, fluency and metacognition); factors in the text (concept density, organization, and style); and readability (length of sentences and difficulty of vocabulary). If the students do not have the above categories of knowledge, and the teachers are unaware of the factors that affect comprehension, then, reading for these students will be really difficult, slow and with little comprehension. In other words, these readers do not have the "reading competence" to enable them to become proficient readers. This lack of competence seems to be the result of insufficient practice and lack of exposure to English whether through reading, writing, speaking, or listening.

The EFL students' attitude toward the text being read also play a significant role in reading. According to Farquharson, (1988), they feel that they are in love with Arabic, that divinely blessed language, which was the vehicle of God's ultimate revelations to the world. In this regard, Farquharson adds, the sanctity of the text should be mentioned with the Quran being the prime example that is not to be disputed, criticized, or contested. This attitude towards Arabic and the Quran makes Arab students inclined neither to survey an English text to see whether it is worth reading, nor to distinguish between important and unimportant information. While everybody acknowledges the importance of English as a universal language, only those who plan to continue their study abroad do not question its use in the daily life. So, Arab EFL students find reading difficult, laborious, and time consuming. Therefore, their reading practices are little, and consequently, their competence remains insufficient.

Most importantly, the spelling and sound system of English is different from that of Arabic, especially in the vowel system. The big number of English vowels in comparison with that in other languages is a problem (Avery and Ehrlich, 1987). For instance, while English uses six vowels in writing, and

about 14 in speaking, Arabic has only three. Also, in Arabic, only long and stressed vowels are represented in writing: "Ç" (for "a"), "æ" (for "o" and "u"), and "í " (for "e" and "i").For example, the Arabic verb "*kasara*" (broke) is written in Arabic "*ksr.*" It might seem to the reader that the problems mentioned above are mere pronunciation problems, but not reading ones. Actually, research does not show a clear -cut line between oral reading and pronunciation since both are oral and might embed comprehension if not handled properly. It is not only the comprehension of the student readers in class, but also that of the student listeners in the reading class. In short, it should be remembered that pronunciation of words is also related to their meaning. This means that when a student reader mispronounces such words, this might affect his/her comprehension as a reader, and confuse others as listeners.

To sum up, knowledge in spelling and pronunciation might make good readers and facilitate comprehension. To sum up, EFL students, suffer from many reading problems as a result of teachers' misunderstanding of the reading process, students' lack of the linguistic competence, differences between English and Arabic, and English spelling-pronunciation irregularities.

IV. The Reading Process

Reading is a cyclical process of making sense of meaning from the reading text which involves both the surface and deep structure (Goodman, 1996). The surface structure refers to what we can see and hear: the graphophonic and syntactic cueing systems. Graphophonic focuses on the written symbols, sounds and spelling, while syntactic system focuses on the grammar of sentences: how words are arranged and punctuation. The deep structure level (semantic cueing system) is where readers read for meaning and comprehension.
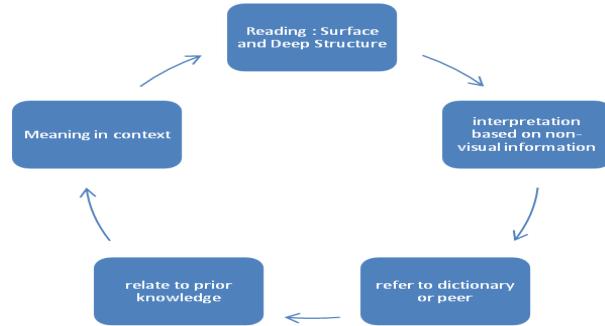

Figure 1: The Reading process

In effective reading, readers can comprehend text naturally. When reading comprehension is achieved, it becomes the reader's new 'theory of the world.' Later, when he read new materials, he can

relate the new information to the 'theory of the world' stored in the reader's mind. reader's knowledge of reading strategies, the classroom environment or facilities, and the teacher's teaching reading approach.
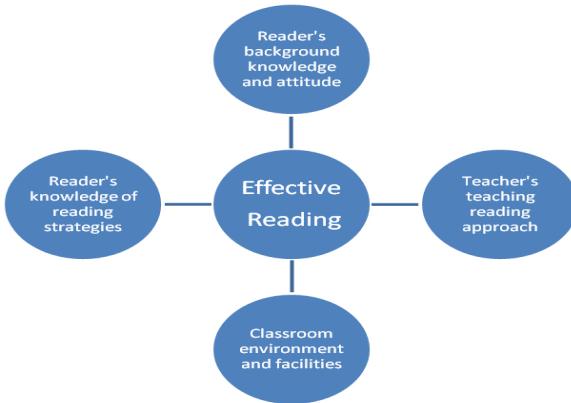
Figure 2 : Factors that determine Effective Reading Comprehension

The first and most important factor is the reader with his/her 'theory of the world.' This refers to the reader's background/prior knowledge or non-visual information, which he/she exploits to make 'meaning' of the reading text (Smith, 1994; Goodman, 1996; Guillaume, 1998; Albright, 2002). According to Smith (1994), it is the brain, not the eyes that makes 'meaning' from the reading. Another important factor related to the reader is attitude. With the right attitude they will have the interest and motivation to read. There should be both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to spur them to read. Rosenblatt (1988) in her Transactional Theory postulates that readers read for two purposes: efferently (for information) and aesthetically (for feelings). For instance, song lyrics, political cartoons, poetry, picture books, novels are aesthetic materials. In fact, affective responding, such as writing poetry, writing letters, writing journals and even writing skits may motivate learners to write and become independent readers. The third factor in the effective reading process is reading strategy. Teachers can utilize the reading strategies to access and build on the students' prior knowledge as well as increase their interest. For instance, K-W-L charts, discussion webs, and the like. To demonstrate, Albright (2002) utilizes starter questions as pre-reading activity to focus the students on making predictions about the text. In her study, she noted that this can assist to activate the students' prior knowledge about the subject matter. Further, Guillaume (1998) uses 'hands-on experiences' before reading to activate students' prior knowledge and to stimulate their interest towards the text. For instance, to minimize 'concept deficiencies' on a text the teacher can use video-clips, films, activities and skits before reading a text. This will enhance the students with non-visual information/prior knowledge, hence making future reading easier to comprehend.

The fourth factor is positive classroom environment. Positive environment can be created by having a conducive classroom that is neither too hot nor too cold for learning to take place. Also, the facilities must implement the latest *state-of-the art* or technology that can assist to prompt the students to fully utilize their five senses, hence motivate them to attempt the challenging tasks.

V.   Objectives of Study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To investigate the EFL students' reading comprehension problems, specifically 'tunnel vision' during the Intensive English Programme (IEP) classes in target university.
2. To evaluate the effectiveness of the Reading Model: Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame (GOPF).
3. To suggest a Reading Model that can assist to boot up the IEP students' attitude, motivation, and reading skills (skimming and scanning).

VI.   Research Questions

1. What contributes to the EFL students' reading comprehension problems, specifically 'tunnel vision' during the IEP classes?
2. Are there any significant relationships between the students' variables (students' attitude, students' motivation, reading practice, reading skills and reading problems) with regard to the IEP reading program?
3. Is there any significant difference between the EFL students' pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores to evaluate the effectiveness of the Reading Model: Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame (GOPF) utilized?

VII.   Hypotheses

H0 : There are no significant relationships between the students' variables (students' attitude, students' motivation, reading practice, reading skills and reading problems) with regard to the IEP reading program.

H0 : There is no significant difference between the EFL students reading comprehension pre-test and post-test scores to evaluate the effectiveness of the Reading Model: Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame (GOPF).

VIII.   Materials and Method

The survey method was utilized to obtain responses from the EFL students and interview sessions were conducted to gain better insight on the students' attitude and motivation. In addition, an experimental study was conducted based on a pre and post test, using the Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame (GOPF) model to assess the effectiveness of the GOPF Model on the students'

reading comprehension. Data collection was based on the researchers' teaching of IEP classes at UNITEN, where they taught the EFL students for more than three semesters at the Department of Languages and Communications. Therefore, most of the examples in this paper are real examples written by the students.

IX. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Results were discussed based on the research questions: What contributes to the EFL students' reading comprehension problems, specifically 'tunnel vision' during the IEP classes? And, Are there any significant relationships between the students' variables (students' attitude, students' motivation, reading practice, reading skills and reading problems) with regard to the IEP reading program? In addition, paired samples t-test between pre-test and post-test were conducted on the students to evaluate the effectiveness of the graphic organizer and paragraph frame on the students' reading comprehension performance.

Table 1 : EFL students' perception towards the Intensive English Programme in terms of Attitude

Items	Mean	SD
L ike to be tested on reading comprehension tests in English.	2.67	.49
Think about failing when taking reading tests in English.	1.72	.83
English i s a very important subject .	**2.84**	.50
N eed to learn English for future studies at the university.	**2.84**	.50
D o not like to do the English practices.	1.22	.43
H appy when learning English during the IEP reading class.	2.63	.60
Always bring English dictionary to class.	2.58	.61
C onfident to do well in the degree course.	2.50	.51
D o not need to learn how to read any more.	2.00	.67

Table 1 showed the EFL students' perception towards the intensive English programme in terms of attitude. Based on the table, most students strongly perceived that English is a very important subject and they need to learn English for future studies at the university (2.84). These are followed by their agreements that they like to be tested on reading comprehension tests in English (2.67), happy when learning English during the IEP reading class (2.63), always bring English dictionary to class (2.58) and confident to do well in the degree course (2.50). However, there are three items in which students disagreed upon; they do not need to learn how to read any more (2.00), think about failing when taking reading tests in English (1.72) and do not like to do the English practices (1.22).

Table 2 : EFL students' perception towards the Intensive English Programme in terms of Motivation

Items	Mean	SD
Like the English teacher for motivating in learn ing English.	**2.89**	.46
Classmates help to learn English.	1.89	.88
The English teacher motivated students to learn English by giving lots of practices.	**2.89**	.32
F eel very happy when score d high marks for the English reading tests.	**2.89**	.32
Explain to friends when they do not understand the words in the text.	2.32	.67
Happy with the marks obtained for tests.	2.56	.78
Have improved in reading.	2.79	.42

Table 2 portrayed the EFL students' perception towards the intensive English programme in terms of motivation. Three items are strongly agreed by students, in which they like the Englishteacher for motivating in learning English, the English teacher motivated students to learn English by giving lots of practices and they feel very happy when scored high marks for the English reading tests (2.89) . These are followed by another three items which are somewhat agreed by students, where they believed that they have improved in reading (2.79), happy with the marks obtained for tests (2.56) and always explain to friends when they do not understand the words in the text (2.32). However, they disagreed that classmates help to learn English (1.89).

Table 3 : EFL students' perception towards the Intensive English Programme in terms of Reading Practices

Items	Mean	SD
T alk in English during the English class.	1.79	.71
T alk in English outside the class.	1.72	.57
Like to talk in English with friends.	2.35	.61
A lways read other reading materials during free time.	2.06	.73
The paragraph frame helps to understand what had been read.	**2.47**	.61

Table 3 showed the EFL students' perception towards the intensive English programme in terms of reading practices. The item which students mostly agreed upon is that the paragraph frame helps them to understand what had been read (2.47). This is followed by their preference to talk in English with friends (2.35) and always read other reading materials during their free time (2.06). Conversely, students disagreed that they actually talk in English during the English class (1.79) and outside the class (1.72).

Table 4 : EFL students' perception towards the Intensive English Programme in terms of Reading Skills

Items	Mean	SD
Use English dictionar y when do not know the meaning of words.	**2.79**	.42
Able to answer all the reading comprehension questions.	2.32	.48
Discuss with friends when doing the reading comprehension practices.	2.00	.82
Improved on English (Reading) after taking the IEP classes for ten weeks.	2.53	.70
Able to read English text easily after learning the graphic organizer technique.	2.53	.51
Able to retell friends the ideas in the English text read.	2.00	.33
Able to understand the content of the English text that the teacher gives for class practice.	2.63	.50
Able to read and understand English narrative (story) text easily.	2.26	.65
Able to read and understand academic reading text in English.	2.28	.46
After attending the IEP reading classes, the topic (main idea) in the text can be understood .	2.63	.60
The IEP reading classes teach how to read and understand the whole text easily.	2.53	.70
The Paragraph Frame helps to see the organization of the text.	2.63	.50

Table 4 denoted the EFL students' perception towards the intensive English programme in terms of reading skills. The most strongly agreed item by students is that they use English dictionary when they do not know the meaning of words (2.79). Students also agreed that they are able to understand the content of the English text that the teacher gives for class practice, after attending the IEP reading classes, the topic (main idea) in the text can be understood, and the Paragraph Frame helps to see the organization of the text (2.63). Apart from that, they also implied that they have improved on English (Reading) after taking the IEP classes for ten weeks, able to read English text easily after learning the graphic organizer technique, and the IEP reading classes teach them how to read and understand the whole text easily (2.53). To add in, they agreed that they are able to answer all the reading comprehension questions (2.32), able to read and understand academic reading text in English (2.28), and able to read and understand English narrative (story) text easily (2.26). The two items with the least mean values are that students disagreed they discuss with friends when doing the reading comprehension practices (2.00) and able to retell friends the ideas in the English text read (2.00).

Table 5 : EFL students' perception towards the Intensive English Programme in terms of Reading Problems

Items	Mean	SD
D o not know how to do the English practices.	1.53	.61
F riends always copy English practices.	1.78	.73
A lways afraid when the English teacher gives reading tests.	1.63	.68
Cannot understand what had been read even after learning the graphic organizer technique.	1.58	.61
Confused when have to complete the Paragraph Frame.	1.68	.58
Al ways need more time to finish the reading comprehension practices.	2.06	.73
Worried for not getting good marks in the final exam.	**2.11**	.66

Table 5 indicated the EFL students' perception towards the intensive English programme in terms of reading problems. Only two items are agreed by students, whereby they are worried for not getting good marks in the final exam (2.11) and always need more time to finish the reading comprehension practices (2.06). However, students disagreed that their friends always copy English practices (1.78), confused when have to complete the Paragraph Frame (1.68), always afraid when the English teacher gives reading tests (1.63), cannot understand what had been read even after learning the graphic organizer technique (1.58), and do not know how to do the English practices (1.53).

Table 6 : Pearson Correlation between Variables

	Students' Attitude	Students' Motivation	Reading Practice	Reading Skills	Reading Problems
Students' Attitude	1	.588**			
Students' Motivation		1		.487*	
Reading Practice			1		
Reading Skills				1	
Reading Problems					1

**. *Correlation is si gnificant at the 0.01 level (2 - tailed).*

*. *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 - tailed).*

Table 6 represented the Pearson correlation conducted between the variables involved in this study. As can be seen from the table, only two significant relationships are identified, between students' attitude and motivation (.588**) and students' motivation and reading skills (.487*), thus rejecting the null hypothesis, whereas, there are no significant relationships detected among the rest of the variables, thus accepted the null hypothesis.

Table 7 : Paired Samples t-test for Pre-Test and Post-Test reading comprehension scores to evaluate the effectiveness of the Reading Model: GOPF

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation	*t*	*df*	*p*
			- 30.53	18	.000
Pre - Test	14 .58	6.07			
Post - Test	73.53	3.92			

Table 7 indicated the paired samples t-test between pre-test and post-test conducted towards the students in the Intensive English Programme (n = 18). From the table, it can be implied that there is a significant difference between the two tests where the means differ extensively with the pre-test at 14.58 and post-test at 73.53 and the significant level, $p < .05$. Therefore, this result rejected the null hypothesis.

X.   CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis conducted several implications of the Intensive English Programme (reading) towards EFL students were identified. In terms of the students' perception towards the IEP reading programme, they generally agreed that the program is beneficial and does improve their level of

English. Pearson correlation was conducted to find out whether there are any significant relationships between the students' variables (attitude, motivation, reading practice, reading skills and reading problems). From the correlation, two significant relationships wereidentified, between students' attitude and motivation, and also students' motivation and reading skills. This result proved that students' attitude influenced their motivation, while their reading skill is influenced by their motivation. Therefore, it is important for the lecturers to be able to motivate their students to improve their reading comprehension skills to ensure that they had acquired the intended reading skill. For example, students do like the idea that English lecturers motivate students to learn English by giving lots of practices, and stated that they are able to understand the content of the English text that the teacher gives for class practice. They also feel very happy when they scored high marks for the English reading tests, which would only happen when the lecturer set the test according to their level.

To find out whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test to evaluate the effectiveness of the Reading Model: Graphic Organizer and Paragraph Frame (GPL) utilized, paired samples t-test analysis was utilized. The analysis revealed that there is indeed a significant difference between the two tests, suggesting that the reading model does contributed towards students' reading skills improvements.

XI.   Implications and Suggestions

Comprehensively, it could be implied and suggested that teachers must consider the EFL students' prior knowledge when selecting text for them to do the reading practices. Secondly, teachers should teach reading using content area texts so that students can read with a purpose. Authentic texts taken from the newspapers, magazines and advertisements and brochures can be quite misleading for beginner, second language, foreign language readers (refer Appendix C). Thirdly, the classroom environment should encourage sharing and learning from each other. Therefore, the layout of the room must accommodate the most efficient use of social interaction. For instance, allowance should be made for small group work and student-centered learning, where they can reinforce what they already know and quickly clear up any misunderstandings. Moreover, this can help to reduce student anxiety, as severe anxiety can interfere with attention, learning and retrieval of information which ultimately result in poor reading comprehension performance (Woolfolk, 2004). Fourthly, teachers can assist to reduce student anxiety by making the students work as a group, foster convivial relationship between teacher-students, respect and understand students' limitations. At the same time, unnecessary anxiety can be overcome, by giving students alternative assessments as well as immediate and positive feedback. Above all, teachers can plan and prepare challenging tasks that can divert the students' focus away from the anxiety, but towards competing to complete the tasks in return for praise, marks, or any special privileges that the teacher deem applicable. Fifthly, teachers can introduce varieties of reading strategies to make the reading tasks challenging and interesting. For instance: reading aloud, graphic organizer, WH-Questions, text-completion, Word –attack skills (synonyms, antonyms, prefix, suffix) and the like.

However, before starting using any of these approaches/techniques, teachers need to know that teaching is a humanistic career, and that teaching and anxiety can never meet. Hence, the first step that teachers should take is motivating their students by creating a humanistic teaching/learning environment. Similarly, Weaver (1988) states that student readers "rarely or never had the opportunity to read under conditions that made reading pleasurable for them" (365). To commensurate, Maden (1988) states that majority of students fail to learn because theirbasic needs (love, power, freedom, fun, etc.) are not met and therefore, they refrain from working hard. At Uniten, the EFL students are bogged down with problems such as financial, visa, hostel, food, distant family, peer, culture and social issues.

In addition, Dwyer and Dwyer (1994) state that: Teachers must create within each classroom a positive atmosphere, a way of life conducive to promoting reading through positive affect. Positive teachers are realistic but always looking for the best in their students. Positive teachers are competent teachers, constantly striving to better their skills. They realize that positive effect coupled with a high level of teaching ability promotes maximum achievement from their students (p. 72).

Integrating reading and writing will provide students with a rich language environment of a variety of reading and writing through which they infer the rules themselves, inductively by utilizing the graphic organizer and the paragraph frame (Torry, 1971; Rivers, 1987). Such a technique will be useful if students find themselves in a humanistic language-rich environment in which they read and write as much as they can. Undoubtedly, they "learn to read by writing and by reading their own writing" (Weaver, 1988:147). In doing so, their reading problems will gradually take care of themselves when they receive occasional constructive feedback from their teachers. Since comprehension is essential in teaching reading, exploiting students' background knowledge to get meanings from the print is a highly effective technique. Unfortunately, this is neglected by many teachers who believe that the meaning is only in the print. Egan (1994), states that teachers rarely explain background

information to their students, though 10% of the information comes from the text while 90% of the information comes from the readers' background or schemata. In this regard, many techniques to teaching reading comprehension have been invented that utilize student readers' background knowledge (Cunningham and Wall, 1994; Wallace, 1995).

It is a fact that language skills are developed through practice while comprehension is improved and developed through extensive reading. Since EFL students do not have enough exposure to English, the GOPF – Reading Model might be one of the solutions. This reading model can be very beneficial and rewarding to student readers by developing good reading habits, developing structure and vocabulary, developing automaticity in identifying main and supporting ideas, enhancing background knowledge, improve comprehension skills, and promoting confidence and motivation.

When teachers function as guides and facilitators in the GOPF reading model, they actually integrate different reading approaches together in their instructions to maximize their students' reading comprehension. They might use different techniques from different approaches such as bottom-up, top-down, interactive, reading skills and strategies, etc. To conclude, although the reading problems of Arab EFL students vary and their reading competence seems to be below the threshold level, the techniques mentioned above might make a change. With collaborative efforts from teachers, students and administrations, it is possible to develop students' reading skills and strategies in order to give them the chance to be independent readers who, after being trained, will take the responsibility for their own learning.

REFERENCES RÉFÉRENCES REFERENCIAS

1. Albright,L.K. (2002). Bringing the ice-maiden to life: Engaging adolescents in learning through picture book read-alouds in content areas. Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy.
2. Anderson, R.C. and Pearson, P.D. (1984) "A Schema-Theoretic View of Basic Processes Reading. Comprehension", in Carrell, P.L., Devine, J. and Eskey, Avery, P. &, Ehrlich, S. (1987). Specific pronunciation problems. TESOL Talk, 17, 82 –115.
3. Block, E. (1992). See how they read: Comprehension monitoring of L1and L2 readers. TESOL Quarterly, 26, 319 - 341.
4. Cunningham, J. &, Wall, L. (1994). Teaching good readers to comprehend better. Journal of Reading, 37, 480 – 486.
5. Devine, J. (1988). The relationship between general language competence and second language reading proficiency: Implication for teaching. In P. Carrell, J. Devine &, D. Eskey (Eds.). Interactive approaches to second language reading. (Pp.260 - 277). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
6. Donnell, M. &, Wood, M. (1999). Becoming a reader: A Developmental approach to reading instructions. MA: Allyn and Bacon.
7. Duncan, E. (1983, November). Cheap ship trips: A Preliminary study of some English phonological difficulties of language minority children and their relationship to Dwyer, E. &, Dwyer, E. (1994). How teacher attitudes influence reading achievement. In E. Cramer &, M. Castle (Eds.). Fostering the love of reading: The affective domain in reading education. (Pp. 66 – 73). Delaware: International Reading Association.
8. Egan, M. (1994). Capitalizing on the reader's strength: An activity using schemata. Journal of Reading, 37, 636 – 640.
9. Farquharson, M. (1988, March). Ideas for teaching Arab students in a multicultural setting. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the teachers of English to speakers of other languages. IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED296575).
10. George, P. (1975). A Curriculum guide for English for speakers of other languages (ESL). Upper Marlboro, MD. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED263744).
11. Goodman, K. S. (1996): On reading: A common sense look at the nature of language and the science of reading. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Publishers.
12. Guillaume,A.M. (1998). Learning with text in the primary grades. The Reading Teacher, 51,476-486.
13. Lebaure, R. (1985). Nonnative English speakers problems in content and English classes: are they thinking or reading problems? Journal of Reading, 28, 136 – 42.
14. Madden, L. (1988). Improve reading attitudes of poor readers through cooperative reading teams. The Reading Teacher, 42, 194 – 199.
15. Miller, S. &, Yochum, N. (1991). Asking students about the nature of their reading difficulties. Journal of Reading Behavior, 23, 465 – 485.
16. Miller,W.H (1995) Alternative Assessment Techniques for Reading and Writing. John Wiley & Sons. San Francisco.p. 171. The Beagle Brigade.
17. Mourtaga. K, (2006) .Some Reading Problems of Arab EFL Students. Al-Aqsa University Journal. Al-Aqsa University,Gaza.
18. Rosenblatt, L. M. (1988). *Writing and reading: The transactional theory.* Champaign, IL:University of Illinois.
19. Panos, K. &, Ruzic, M. (1983). The least you 623.
20. Rivers, W. (1987). Interactive Language Teaching. (Pp.3 – 16). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

21. Rosenblatt, L. (1988). Writing and Reading: The Transactional Theory National Center for the study of writing and literacy. Technical Report.

22. Smith, F. (1994). Understanding reading. (Fifth Edition). NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. Publishers.

23. Smith, F. (1988). Understanding reading: A Psycholinguistic analysis of reading and learning to read. (Fourth edition). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

24. Torry, J. (1971). Second language learning. In C. Reed. (Ed.). The learning of language. (Pp.223 – 265). NJ: Meredith Corporation.

25. Wallace, J. (1995). Improving the reading skills of poor achieving students. Reading Improvement, 23, 102 – 104.

26. Weaver, C. (1988). Reading process and practice: From sociopsycholinguistics to whole language. Portsmouth NH: Hei Weeren, J. &, Theunissen, J. (1987). Testing pronunciation: An application of generalizability theory. Journal of Applied Linguistics, 37, 109 – 122.

27. Woolfolk,A. (2004). Educational Psychology. (9th ed.) Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Community Based Disaster Risk Analysis (CBDRA): Case Studies from Uttarakhand, India

By Vedika pant , Dr. Ravindra K.Pande

D.S.B.Campus, Kumaun University Nainital, Uttarakhand, India

Abstract - CBDRA is a tool to analyze the community involvement in disaster management programmes and strategies because the ultimate aim of any disaster management is for safer the community and, also, the local communities are always the first responder. It helps to prepare people, respond to disasters and recover from emergencies. This paper deals with the concept of community based disaster management (CBDM) & CBDRM, explains different disasters and their impacts of disasters in Uttarakhand through disaster risk analysis, and case studies. For the data collection authors have used Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) tools, interviews, secondary data etc. and for data analysis different techniques and software's like GPS, Ilwis 3.7, Statistics, and Arc 9 etc have been applied.

Keywords : Community participation, Disasters, Disaster risk analysis, PRA tools, GIS, Management and Planning, case studies.

GJHSS B Classification : FOR Code: 120504,

COMMUNITY BASED DISASTER RISK ANALYSIS CBDRA CASE STUDIES FROM UTTARAKHAND, INDIA

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Community Based Disaster Risk Analysis (CBDRA): Case Studies from Uttarakhand, India

Vedika pant [α], Dr. Ravindra K.Pande [σ]

Abstract - CBDRA is a tool to analyze the community involvement in disaster management programmes and strategies because the ultimate aim of any disaster management is for safer the community and, also, the local communities are always the first responder. It helps to prepare people, respond to disasters and recover from emergencies. This paper deals with the concept of community based disaster management (CBDM) & CBDRM, explains different disasters and their impacts of disasters in Uttarakhand through disaster risk analysis, and case studies. For the data collection authors have used Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) tools, interviews, secondary data etc. and for data analysis different techniques and software's like GPS, Ilwis 3.7, Statistics, and Arc 9 etc have been applied.

Keywords : Community participation, Disasters, Disaster risk analysis, PRA tools, GIS, Management and Planning, case studies.

I. Introduction

Disaster, when anyone heard about that utterance, the first trounce of consideration is damage, pain fatality and other negative reflections on the mind thought process, all these comes in mind because directly or indirectly they are related to community. Community is always in the nucleus of any learning. For example when any disaster strikes in the uninhabited zone the amount of natural or human allied losses are less counted and on the other hand, with the same intensity, when it strikes at the populated zone the amount of loss it counts a lot. Impact on community makes disasters more prominent. Risk of damage is high in populated zone in comparison to uninhabited zone. In simple words "Disaster risk is the probability of a hazard occurring and creating a loss." Disaster Risk is the actual exposure or threat of hazard on humans and is often referred as the product of probability of loss.

II. Objectives

The main objectives of this paper are:

1. To study the region in reference to different hazards.

2. To find the exposure, resistance, resilience, vulnerability, hazard and management status with the help of PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal) tools.

3. To investigate the major causes of disasters in the area and,

4. Finally suggesting a management plan for the region.

III. Research Methodology

To make the work effective and factual, authors have used both the primary and secondary data:

1. Collection of primary data by using PRA tools and conducting interviews for ground reality,

2. Study the region and assess different disasters.

3. Collection of secondary data for analyzing, explaining, and combining the information from the primary source with additional information.

4. Using Ilwis 3.7, Arc 9, Statistica 8 for mapping and clustering and other purposes,

IV. About Cbdm and Cbdra

Community Based Disaster Management Planning (CBDMP) is an assertion which involves the local community perception and participation in disaster management planning. CBDMP involves communities in identifying, assessing and acting jointly to reduce disaster risks. In the same time when we engage the local communities in diverse disaster risk scenarios, e.g. exposure, resistance, resilience, vulnerability, hazards, management etc, it is known as Community Based Disaster Risk Analysis (CBDRA).

V. Uttarakhand and Disasters

Uttarakhand, located in the northern part of India, extending from 28° 43' N to 31° 27' N latitude and 77° 34' east to 81° 02' E longitude, is the 27th state of the Republic of India and was carved out of Uttar Pradesh on 9th Nov 2000. The state is bordering, Nepal in the East, Himachal Pradesh in the west, China in the North, Uttar Pradesh in the South.

Author [α] *: Research Scholar, Department of geography, D.S.B. Campus, Kumaun University, Nainital.*
Email:(vedika.p2009@gmail.com)
Author [σ] *: Professor, Department of Geography, D.S.B. Campus, Kumaun University, Nainital.*
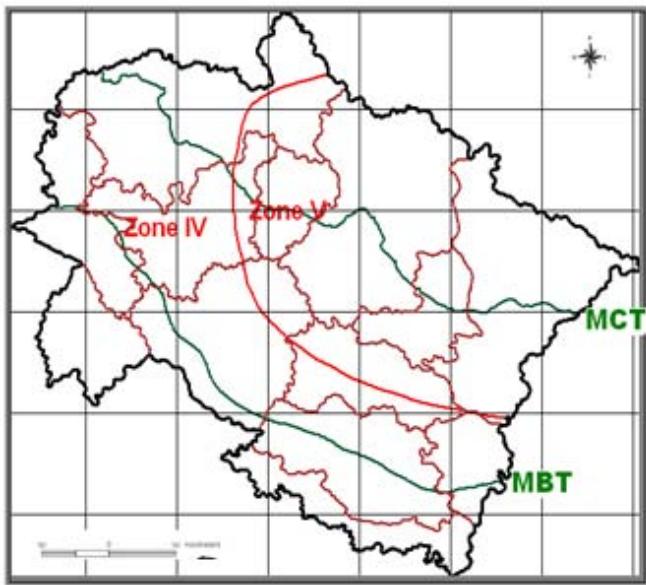
Fig 1 : Uttarakhand map with MCT, MBT and seismic zones V (Very High Damage Risk Zone) and IV(High Damage Risk Zone).

Almost every year Uttarakhand experiences various disasters e.g. earthquake, landslides, forest fire, cloud burst etc.

a) Landslides

Landslide disaster in the state of Uttarakhand in India has a very long and old history. Landslide and mass movements are recurring phenomena in Himalayan region. The consequences in recent times have become more severe in terms of casualties and extensive damage to the roads, buildings, forests, plantation, and agriculture fields. Some of the infamous major landslides of the region are 'The Karmi landslide', 'Landslides in Alaknanda Valley', 'Berinag Landslide'. 'Malpa Landslide', 'Ukhimath Landslide' and 'Varunavat Landslide'.
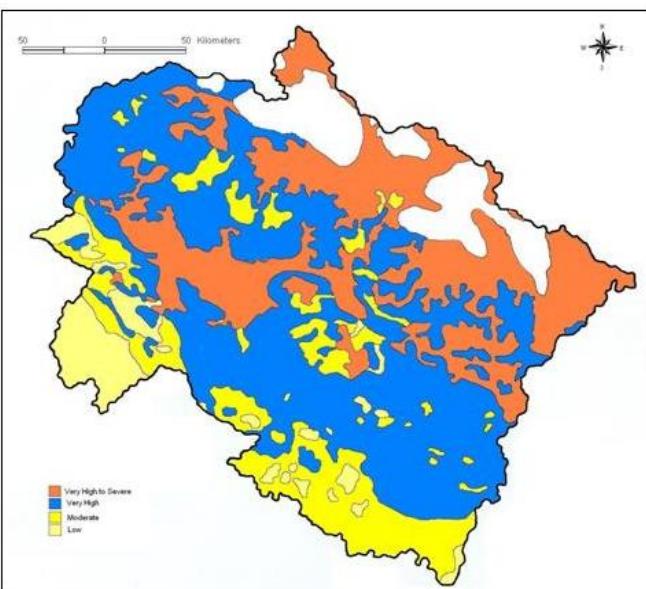
Fig 2 : Uttarakhand landslides zonation map (About 70 percent of total geographical area is registered under High to Severe category)

b) Earthquake

This is evident from geotectonic activities exhibited by almost the entire Himalayan province, but more conspicuously by the belts of intracrustal boundary thrusts and tear faults. Recurrent seismicity in the faulted areas indicates tectonic restlessness of the Himalaya. The north-eastern part of the U.P. Himalaya (Dharchula-Kapkot belt) and adjoining north-western Nepal (Bajang) are frequently rocked by earthquakes of minor to moderate magnitudes.
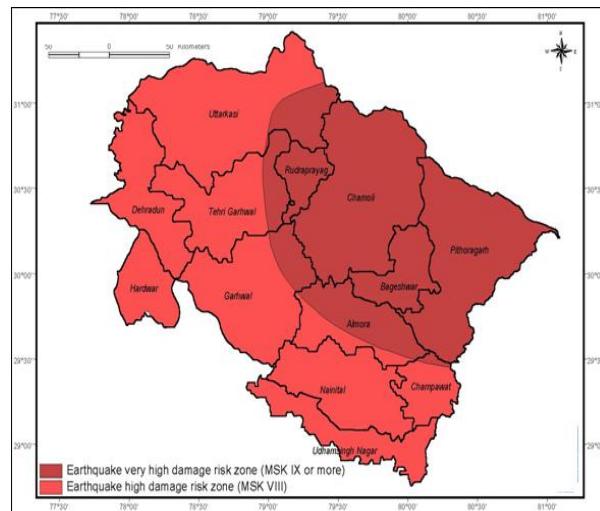
Fig 3 : Uttarakhand seismic damage risk zonation map

c) Forest Fire

Forest plays a vital role in the economy of Uttarakhand. All the hilly districts of Uttarakhand have more than 60 percent of the area under forest. However, forest fire, natural or manmade, has always remained a cause of concern for the people as well as for the government. Every year, in summers, the state is losing precious forest due to fire.

d) Other Disasters

Besides these other disasters of Uttarakhand are flash Flood, cloud burst, drought, avalanches, Hailstorms etc

VI. CASE STUDIES

a) Selection Of Villages

For the present study authors have selected the Main Central Thrust (MCT) zone of Uttarakhand. The MCT is an imaginary line which separates greater and lesser Himalayas. Uttarakhand's five districts fall in the MCT zone. Authors have taken all the five districts (Pithoragarh, Bageshwar, Uttarkashi, Rudraprayag, Chamoli), and with the help of Statistica 8 have prepared the clusters and selected five blocks from every district (Dharchula, Kapkot, Naugaun, Ukhimath and Dhasoli) and five village from each block (Lumti, Pothing, Dhari, Barsundhi and Mandal). The selected villages and their locations are shown in Table 1 and their basic information in Table 2:

Table 1: Selected villages and their geo references

S.No	Village Name	Block Name	District Name	Lat/Long of the Village
1	LUMTI	Dharchula	Pithoragarh	80°19'27.023"E 29°53'01.792"N
2	POTHING	Kapkot	Bageshwar	79°51'54.803"E 29°58'36.135"N
3	DHARI	Naugaun	Uttarkashi	78°08'51.777"E 30°44'28.158"N
4	BARSUNDHI	Agastyamuni	Rudraprayag	79°07'08.746"E 30°26'05.232"N
5	MANDAL	Dhasoli	Chamoli	79°16'13.922"E 30°27'51.743"N

Table 2 : Basic information of the selected villages.

Village Name	Total Population	Household Number	Transportation Medium	Main Crops	Hazards
LUMTI	355	76	Private Jeeps	Paddy, Wheat	Landslide, Earthquake, Forest fire.
POTHING	5439	578	Bus, Private Jeeps	Wheat, Paddy, Barley, Maize, Maduva	Landslide, Earthquake, Forest fire.
DHARI	102	22	Bridle path to village only	Wheat, Paddy	Landslide, Earthquake, Forest fire, Flash Flood.
BARSUNDHI	120	25	Bridle path to village only	Wheat, Paddy, Maduva, Soybean	Landslide, Earthquake.
MANDAL	630	135	Private Jeeps	Wheat, Paddy, Maduva	Landslide, Earthquake, Forest Fire, Drought.

b) *Village Data Analysis*

Date related to vulnerability (exposure, resistance, and resilience), Hazard (Frequency and severity), Management echelon (prevention, preparedness, mitigation, search, rescue and evacuation) of the selected villages have been calculated from the data collected through PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal) and interviews (Table 3).

Table 3 : Vulnerability, Hazard and Management scores of the selected villages

Village Name	Exposure (a)	Resistance (b)	Resilience (c)	Vulnerability (a + b + c) /3	Hazard	Management
LUMTI	76.92	73.68	56.81	69.13	22.16	10
POTHING	84.61	84.21	45.45	71.42	20.16	10
DHARI	84.61	84.73	72.72	80.68	19.83	10
BARSUNDHI	76.92	100	84.09	87	20	10
MANDAL	69.23	78.94	34.09	60.75	24.16	10

Vulnerability is a product of three dimensions: (i) Exposure, which is a largely a product of physical location and the character of the surrounding built and natural environment. (ii) Resistance, which reflects socio-economic, psychological and physical health and their systems of maintenance, and represents the capacity of an individual or group to withstand the impact of a hazard.(iii) Resilience, to natural hazard is the ability of an actor to cope with or adapt to hazard stress. The above table show that the exposure (69.23) and resilience (34.09) level of the Mandal village is low amongst all, with the score of 73.68 and resistance level of Lumti village is low. In total vulnerability of Mandal village with 60.75 score is the lowest and Barsundhi village with 87 score is the highest.

Disaster Risk Analysis: Disaster Risk Analysis of the selected villages is done using the following formula:

R = (H*V) / M

Where:

R = Risk
H = Hazard
V = Vulnerability
M = Management

Table 4 : Village risk analysis

Village Name	R = (H*V)/M
LUMTI	153.19
POTHING	143.98
DHARI	159.98
BARSUNDHI	174
MANDAL	146.77

The above table shows that the risk level of Mandal village is the lowest (146.77) and the Barsundhi

village is highest (174). With the help of this risk result we can easily prepare the disaster management plan for the region.

c) Household Management Analysis:

The household management analysis principally needs three categories of data i.e. Pre-disaster data, during disaster data, post disaster data. For the present study selected villages household data has been collected through PRA during field visit (Table 5).

Table 5: Household management analysis

Village Name	Pre-Disaster Data (In %)			During Disaster Data (In %)			Post Disaster Data (In %)		
	Prevention	Preparedness.	Mitigation	Response.	Community Participation	Rescue & Relief.	Damage Assessment	Community Health	Rehabilitation & Restructuring
LUMTI	38.94	12.76	30.30	24	13	41.42	29.99	33.22	22.85
POTHING	29.46	21.27	23.74	24	17	59.99	56.66	33.84	21.90
DHARI	56.83	21.27	29.99	0	68	35.71	100	30.76	47.61
BARSUNDHI	24.20	4.25	37.50	0	5	21.42	100	12.30	19.04
MANDAL	78.94	19.14	15.62	20	80	50	100	32.30	42.85

The above table shows that the prevention level of all the villages fluctuates from 78.94% of Mandal village to 24.20% of Barsundhi village. It is because Mandal is connected with a town. Preparedness level of all the villages is below 22 % and the mitigation conditions are also very poor below 40%.Therefore it can be assessed that pre disaster scenario of all the selected villages is very gloomy. In during disaster section response level varies from 0 to 24% means, community participation level varies from 5 to 80%, and rescue and relief scores between 21.42% to 59.99%. In post disaster section damage assessment is 29.99% in Lumti village because of inaccessibity while in Barsundhi and Dhari damge assessment registers 100% score. Community health related score is below 35% and rehabilitation and restructuring is also below 50%, so it can be said that disaster management planning is in a very poor condition in all the phases of disasters.

VII. Conclusion

Communities are the first to be affected by any hazard and first who respond to the disasters so it is imperative to give the community participation a proper place in disaster management and disaster risk related plans and programmes. Over the past few years "CBDRM" is gradually becoming common in the area of rural development. It is a discipline that involves preparing for disaster before it occurs or in pre disaster phase, e.g., prevention, mitigation and preparedness etc, helping in during disaster phase, e.g., response, emergency evacuation, quarantine, mass decontamination, rescue and relief etc., as well as post disaster phase e.g. damage assessment, community

health, supporting, restructuring and rehabilitation of society.

References Références Referencias

1. Boyles, A. (1996-97) The Baha'i World, pp. 197-219.
2. Atkinson, E.T. (1882), The Himalayan Gazetteer, Cosmo Publications, Delhi.
3. Bamdad, N.; The Role of Community Knowledge in Disaster Management: The Bam Earthquake: Lesson in Iran.www.engagingcommunities2005.org abstracts/Bamdad-Nasser-final.pdf
4. Community based disaster risk management, for local authorities Participant's `work book Asian disaster Preparedness Center , http://www.adpc.net /pdrsea/pubs/curriculumcbdrm.pdf.
5. CBDP Manual for grassroots Trainers, India, OXFAM Australia.2008

Open Sky Policy for Developing Countries with Emphasis on the Small Island Developing States (SIDS)

By N. P. Mootien

University of Technology, Mauritius

Abstract - With the advent of globalisation, the world has become a global village. In other words, traveling to other countries has become easy since the travel industry has facilitated economic growth, world trade, international investment and tourism. This paper addresses the future of air travel due to the adoption of an open sky policy by some of the developing countries who are somehow forced to do so as other airlines become too competitive. The first and foremost purpose of this dissertation is to assess the impacts and benefits of regulation and liberalisation on developing countries with a special consideration for the small island developing states (SIDS). Mauritius is a classic example of one such state that has favoured free enterprise for its economic development and has had to give up the quasi-monopoly of its flag carrier. Moreover, the purpose of this paper is to exhibit the benefits of an open sky policy for the government and the consumer. Furthermore the paper also aims at explaining the potential threats that a flag carrier like may face with the advent of an open sky policy. .

OPEN SKY POLICY FOR DEVELOPING COUNTRIES WITH EMPHASIS ON THE SMALL ISLAND DEVELOPING STATES SIDS

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Open Sky Policy for Developing Countries with Emphasis on the Small Island Developing States (SIDS)

N. P. Mootien

Abstract - With the advent of globalisation, the world has become a global village. In other words, traveling to other countries has become easy since the travel industry has facilitated economic growth, world trade, international investment and tourism. This paper addresses the future of air travel due to the adoption of an open sky policy by some of the developing countries who are somehow forced to do so as other airlines become too competitive. The first and foremost purpose of this dissertation is to assess the impacts and benefits of regulation and liberalisation on developing countries with a special consideration for the small island developing states (SIDS). Mauritius is a classic example of one such state that has favoured free enterprise for its economic development and has had to give up the quasi-monopoly of its flag carrier. Moreover, the purpose of this paper is to exhibit the benefits of an open sky policy for the government and the consumer. Furthermore the paper also aims at explaining the potential threats that a flag carrier like may face with the advent of an open sky policy.

Another objective of this project has been to devise a policy theory that could help airlines of SIDS to develop further strategies within a framework where deregulation and liberalization are bound to become a necessity and inevitable development to reckon with.

Keywords : Deregulation, Liberalization, Globalization, Open sky policies, SIDS

I. Introduction

a) The Aviation Sector

Air transport has for decades been an important sector for world trade, economic growth and tourism. While in the layman's view, the airline industry has for a long time been associated with excitement, adventure and glamour, for the decision and policy makers is just as important as any economic sectors of a country that requires efficient management and that are subject to all the constraints of business development: competition, costs, energy shortage and economic forces of supply demand. This project therefore focuses on some of the developments that have indelibly marked the industry over second half of the last century.

As a matter of fact, the air transport industry has for many years been viewed as a protected industry. This protectionism stems from the understanding of the Flag Carrier concept. This has brought about the state of monopoly situation whereby the national airline was considered as n essential service provider that should have all the support of the state: subsidies, preferential tariffs, accessibility to investment funds and more important the subsiding of routes that are not necessarily profitable.

b) Problem Statement

The main problem here is that most airlines of developing countries, including Mauritius, find themselves at a cross-road where they need to make some crucial decisions regarding their future development and survival in a global, more competitive world. Admittedly, most problems of developing countries are of an economic nature. So air transport being one of the vital sectors of economic development together with the linkages it provides for the other important sectors i.e., import-export, industry, tourism and others, it is therefore imperative that the pressing issues are addressed from a purely economic perspective. This study is expected to show the way for the future course of action in a predatory world without barriers or protectionism. It will show the necessity for an open-sky policy with an element of limited and minimum deregulation, especially with due consideration to customer service, safety, pricing policy, and standardisation of products and services. However, the core area of investigation will be the economic impacts of deregulation, liberalisation, globalisation and their effects on developing countries and LDCs (least Open Sky Policy for Developing Countries with Emphasis on the Small Island Developing States (SIDS) developed countries) as a result of the emergence of mergers and mega-carriers. This study will also address the very sensitive issue of flag carriers and their legitimate place in a highly competitive industry and in a global world. At the end of this research, countries like Mauritius which have adopted a policy of 'wait and see' or at times given in very reluctantly to political pressure to forgo some of its routes or accepted bilateral and multilateral agreements in a rather half-hearted way will be in a better position to assess what will be the political and economic impacts of the open sky policy on the national carrier itself and in the medium to long-term, what will be the effects on the freight and manufacturing industries and more important still on the tourism industry.

Author : University Of Technology, Mauritius
E-mail : nmootien@umail.utm.ac.m

c) *Small Island Developing States (Sids)*

These are low-lying coastal countries that tend to share similar development challenges, including small but growing populations, limited resources, and remoteness, susceptibility to natural resources, international trade and fragile environments. Their growth and development is also held back by high communication, energy and transportation costs, irregular international transport volumes, disproportionately expensive public administration and infrastructure due to their small size. The SIDS were first recognized as a distinct group of developing at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in June 1992. The Barbados Programme of Action was produced in 1994 to assist SIDS in their sustainable development efforts. The UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs lists 52 countries as SIDS. These are further classified in to three geographic regions: the Caribbean; the Pacific; and Africa, Indian Ocean, Mediteranean and South China Sea (AIMS). Each of these regions has a regional cooperation body: the Caribbean Community, the PacificIslands Forum and the Indian Ocean Commission respectively, which many SIDS are members or associate members of. In addition, most but not all SIDS members are members of the Alliance of Small States, which performs lobbying and negotiating functions for the SIDS within the UN system. A list of SIDS countries is provided in the appendix A on page.

II.   Literature Review

a) *Air Deregulation*

Open Sky Policy for Developing Countries with Emphasis on the Small Island Developing States (SIDS)

Airline deregulation is a process that started as early as 1978 in the US when the government under the Carter Administration passed the Airline Deregulation Act. This was a process whereby airlines would gradually move out of the International Air Transport Association and devise their own schedules, routes and fares as per the market forces. This was done in two stages with first the domestic air transport within the US and at a later stage the international routes outside the US especially on the European market.

When this concept met with some success in the US, the European airlines were somehow forced to adapt to the situation by starting a similar process which in Europe was termed liberalization. However, the change in term was more or less strategic as the Europeans not only wanted to look as original as possible in their approach but wanted to proceed in phases, hence the packages.

b) *Deregulation And Liberalization In Their Different Contexts*

Deregulation means the elimination or reduction of government control of how business is done, thereby moving towards a freer economy subject to the forces of supply and demand. In other words it is the movement towards a more laissez-faire and free market. Deregulation is the removal or simplification of government rules and regulations that constrain the operation of market forces (Sullivan and Sheffrin, 2002). The stated rationale for deregulation is that fewer and simpler regulations will lead to a higher level of competitiveness, therefore, higher productivity, more efficiency and lower overall prices.

Deregulation is different from liberalization because a liberalized market, while having fewer and simpler regulations to increase efficiency and protect consumers' rights, one example being anti-monopoly legislation. However, the terms are used interchangeably within deregulated/liberalized industries.

c) *Iinternational Trade And Other Fields Of Operations And Business*

Deregulation and liberalization have, since World War II, been on the agenda for international trade. These concepts are not new to trade and aviation. As early as the 1950s, there has been a desire to let Adam Smith's 'invisible hand' determine the course Open Sky Policy for Developing Countries with Emphasis on the Small Island Developing States (SIDS) of free trade at home and overseas. This is a situation whereby the market is allowed to be regulated by the forces of supply and demand and without government intervention. This is also referred to as the 'laissez faire' economy and this has worked well for developed countries but not so well for the third world.

d) *Aviation – Domestic And International Airlines, The Various Stages (Packages)*

This section looks at the concept and processes of deregulation as it started in the U.S in 1978 because of the pressure of competition and the antitrust laws. The American air transport industry could no longer operate as per the stiff requirements of the IATA. This new concept changed the American civil aviation remarkably and brought about fundamental changes in other parts of the world especially the European Countries which had also started to question the validity of some of the IATA rigid regulations. However, most European countries felt that there was an urgent need to respond to the changes occurring across the Atlantic. But to be cautious in a venture that had not yet showed positive results, most countries of the then European Community decided to embark on a gradual and

progressive process of deregulation which, in order to be somewhat different from the American concept, was called 'liberalisation' which eventually was to ease the European air transport industry in an inevitable process of globalisation.

Commercial aviation has always been known for its system of government regulation. The general concept has always been that the airline industry, being an important sector of the economic infrastructure and international trade, has to be nurtured, protected and guided; that it has to be cherished as the symbol of independence, sovereignty and nationhood. Governments have always regulated market entry and exit policies of airlines. They have dictated the kinds of services which carriers have to offer. In many cases, they have even gone to the extent of controlling capacity and dictating fares. Since the airline industry has for many years be characterised by financial instability, governments in a number of countries took the view that intervention was necessary to avoid 'wasteful' or 'destructive' competition (Pickrel, 1991; Kirkby, 1981). The policy was to restrict the scope of competition in a tightly regulated industry. In other cases, especially in developing countries that were emerging as independent states, the markets were judged to lack sufficient density to support more than one airline (Bowen & Leinbach, 1995). A common response was to nationalise all and to maintain a single flag Open Sky Policy for Developing Countries with Emphasis on the Small Island Developing States (SIDS) carrier to provide domestic and international services. All this has had the effect of eliminating or discouraging public service competition. Such attitudes are now being seriously questioned especially by advocates of free market economies.

(SIDS) The single airline, national flag carrier approach began to lose its appeal after 1978 especially in the United States. Since then, many other countries have liberalised airline competition, and though the 'destructive competition' argument still holds in some parts of the world (Dempsey 1995), especially among the developing countries, the consequences of deregulation have been more or less positive for several European countries (Button 1990; Morrison & Winston, 1995). The evidence in support of deregulation is possibly leading to the conclusion that developing countries should embrace liberal policies. Nevertheless, it is worth considering whether the benefits of airline competition depend upon factors such as the level of economic development (Hooper, 1998).

International air transport has, until recently, been one of the most regulated industries. The Chicago Convention of 1944 laid down the basis upon which a system of international bilateral air service was founded. This was a compromise arrangement that attempted to reconcile the very liberal, free market ideas of the US on the one hand and the more restrictive ones of countries such as Australia (that wanted a single global carrier) on the other (Button, 2009)

The Airline Deregulation Act is an example of a deregulatory act whose success has been called in to question (Pfaff 2006)

Domestic airline deregulation in the US in 1978 and the liberalization of air transport in Europe, started on a community-wide basis in 1988 with the passage of the first package of measures, brought competition to an industry which had been enjoying a high degree of government support and involvement for so long (Alamdari & Morell 1997).

International air transportation deregulation was generally slower to emerge than domestic reform because of the need for a double coincidence of interests. US policy makers first muted the general idea of bilateral 'open skies' policies to replace the highly restrictive air service agreements as early as 1979, but it took another dozen or so years before the first major one with the Netherlands, was signed. Since that time, a further 60 or so liberal agreements, of varying importance, have been signed between the US and partners. The emergence of the large free trade in air transportation service within Europe from the mid-1990s was another element in freeing-up other international markets by having both knock-out and demonstration effects for regions outside of the European area. Internationally, the initial moves at deregulation can be traced to the initiation of the US "Open Skies" policy from 1979. The recent opening up, at least to a substantial extent, of the US-EU transatlantic market is one of the most significant measures of international airline liberalization since the removal of international market barriers within the EU (Button, 2009). US and European carriers have been developing strategies to reduce costs in response to the growing competition in their markets following airline deregulation in the USA since 1978, and liberalization in Europe since 1988 (Alamdari and Morell 1997).

However, since 1984, countries such as UK and the Netherlands began to move towards a more liberal regime by signing more liberalized air services agreements. The airlines' main response has been to the growing competition in Europe has been to reduce costs. The intensified level of international competition from major carriers outside Europe, mainly US airlines, and the need to recover from economic recession which resulted in financial deficits, have also increased the need for the European carriers to reduce costs. (Alamdari and Morell, 1997).

From the late 1970s, when firs the US domestic cargo market was liberalized followed by the domestic passenger sector, there has been a gradual withdrawal of the state from the specific economic regulation of airlines (Button, 2009)

III.   The American Scenario

To fully understand liberalisation and open skies policies, it is imperative to explain the process of deregulation started in the United States in the late 1970s. In fact, this was also called the 'deregulation movement' and 'a veritable revolution in both domestic and international U.S air transport policy'. (Wells & Wensveen 2004). The Chicago Conference (1945) and the Bermuda Agreement (1946) had already set the base for some king of cooperation based on the following rules of bilateral agreements:

- Intergovernmental exchange of air rights to be exercised by designated airlines of the respective countries
- Equality of treatment and non-discriminatory with respect to airport charges
- The imposition of customs duties and inspection fees
- The exemption of such duties and inspection charges in certain cases
- Mutual recognition of airworthiness certificates and personnel
- Compliance with laws and regulations pertaining to entry, clearance, immigration, passports, customs and quarantine regulations
- Regulations pertaining to ownership and control of each country's air services
- Registration of pertinent agreements with the ICAO
- Termination of agreements on one year's notice
- Procedures for amending the annexes to the agreement (Wells & Wensveen 2004 p546)

However, the Airline Deregulation Act of 1978, later strengthened by the International Air Transportation Act of 1979 made it very clear that American air transport had reached a point of no return regarding open sky and competition. The main objectives were:

- To strengthen the competitive position of U.S carriers to at least ensure equality with foreign air carriers, including the attainment of opportunities to maintain and increase their profitability in foreign air transportation
- To give air carriers (U.S and Foreign) the freedom to offer consumer-oriented fares and rates
- To place the fewest possible on charter air transport
- To provide the maximum degree of multiple and permissive international authority for U.S carriers so that they could respond quickly to shifts in market demand
- To eliminate operational and marketing restrictions to the greatest extent possible
- To integrate domestic and international air transportation
- To increase the number of U.S gateway cities

- To provide opportunities for foreign carriers to increase their access to U.S points if exchanged for benefits of similar magnitude for the U.S carriers or passengers and shippers
- To eliminate discrimination and unfair competitive practices faced by the U.S carriers in foreign air transportation including excessive landing and user fees, unreasonable ground handling requirements, undue restrictions of operations and prohibition against of change of gauge
- To promote, encourage and develop civil aeronautics and a viable, privately owned U.S air transport industry (Wells and Wensveen 2004, p554)

IV.   The European Scenario

Air transport has always been vital for the cohesion of Europe. The continued economic and social development of the EU depends largely upon it. The rules of the Treaty of Rome (1957), including the competition rules, also apply to air transport within the EU. But so far such rules have not been enforced in air transport. Liberalisation which in fact is the European version of American deregulation has been painfully slow in Europe. Members of the European Community have been extremely cautious on the issue. Their strategy has been more or less a 'wait and see' position vis-à-vis the American initiatives.

We have repeatedly heard that Europe is not the USA and that US style deregulation will not work in Europe. Unfortunately, in practical terms and in the immediate future, this is likely to be true, not because European air transport is fundamentally different from the US, but because some European governments are unlikely to give up unilaterally the power they can wield through route licensing, capacity control, price setting and other interference in the industry. Nor are they likely to give up their perceived prestige in having a national, 'flag' carrier.

Some 20 years ago, the EU had agreed to a series of measures which should have to liberalise European air transport. But not much has been happening since. The most notable developments have been the negotiations of more liberal air service agreements by the UK government with Germany, the Netherlands, France and Belgium. Within Europe, some competition has already been brought in on a number of routes, and new routes not already flown by the flag carriers have been opened up to new airlines. Some airlines have had difficulty coping with market and/or competitive conditions leading to withdrawals from the market and/or bankruptcy, but the total network has not suffered unduly. Hence within a single nation, competition and scheduled air transport do not seem to be incompatible.

a) *Concepts Within The Private And Public Sectors, Involvement Of The Public (Consumers)*

Much of the analysis of the effects of market change has inevitably focused on domestic liberalizations, with a particular emphasis on the post 178 US market. Not only is this the world largest transport market (Button, 2009) but it was also the main driver of changes in the international market as well as the European tendency to adopt a more liberal approach to air transport.

b) *Motivations For Liberalization In Aviation*

Open skies air service agreements have not only removed restrictions governing rates and fares, market entry and the ways revenues are allocated, but have also permitted the emergence of various forms of business alliances.

c) *Customer Focus, Costs And Fares*

The gradual liberalization of international air transport has largely benefited the traveling public (Button, 2009)

The US-EU passenger market is substantial. In 2007 it accounted for 55 million passengers, 385 flights per day in each direction and 235 nonstop city-pairs served by 45 airlines comprising 8 from US, 26 from EU and 11 others. Geographically, 32 airports in 23 states were served on the US side and 53 airports in 19 countries in the EU (Button, 2009). The experiences of deregulation (or in Europe, "liberalization") of air transport markets over the past quarter of a century are generally seen as having produced significant economic benefits (Morrison and Winston, 1995, Button, 2004).

There were particular fears in some countries that the US, that had the largest fleet of commercial aircraft at the time and the potential of adding to this by converting surplus military hardware, would dominate any largely market-based outcome an thus an institutional structure emerged that led to piecemeal, and restrictive, practical arrangements (Button, 2009).

Not everyone has gained, certainly some communities have lost services or have seen service quality decline, some airlines have gone bankrupt, and some classes of passengers are now paying higher fares, but for those few that have been adversely affected there are many more who can fly more cheaply, have a greater variety of services to choose from, or have found jobs in the extended air transportation value chain. No positive change occurs without disruption, and that has certainly been the experiences of airlines, but these negative features have been far outweighed by the positive effects.

The most obvious area of costs for airlines to tackle has been labour(…) The results indicate that both US and European airlines have been successful in reducing labour unit costs. This was achieved in the US by some reduction in real wage levels (labour costs per employee) and periods of increased productivity (average ATK per employee). European airlines reduced unit labour costs by productivity increases, offset by increases in real wage levels (Alamdari and Morell, 1997).

More intensive competition amongst established carriers and relative ease of entry by lower cost carriers have made the ability to control costs crucial for major airlines' existence (Alamdari and Morell 1997). For example, 15% of the US domestic air travel market is now served by lower cost carriers who offer very low fares (US Department of Transportation, 1996)

In Europe, a similar trend has been observed with the entry of such carriers such as EasyJet, Ryanair, EBA (now Virgin Airlines), all offering very low fares (Alamdari and Morell, 1997).

One of the major areas of operating costs affected by cost cutting activities is labour expenses. This is because labour costs normally account for between one quarter and one third of airline operating costs (Alamdari and Morell, 1997).

The array of measures to reduce costs that have been used includes: voluntary or compulsory staff redundancy, reductions in wages, introduction of two-tier wage rates, contracting out labour and franchising (Alamdari and Morell, 1997).

There are some parallels between US developments in the US and policy changes in Europe (although) a transformation of European labour costs had not yet occurred (Robinson, 1994)

d) *Main Factors Driving Airline Operating Costs*

Airlines find it difficult to recover their full costs in competitive markets. There are clear cycles in the financial performance of the industry that correlate with the largest business cycle. But, in addition, taken overall, the industry has performed badly across cycles. In the US, for example, over the past 20 years or so the operating margins of US airlines has been about 0.4% compared with an average of well over 5% for US industry as a whole. The period has also seen a number of traditional airlines cease operations permanently, namely Pan Am and TWA in the US, Sabena and Swissair in Europe as well as a large number of new entrants and particularly low cost carriers. (Button, 2009). There have been a number of 'events' in recent years that particularly impacted on commercial aviation, adding to the normal market uncertainties of the industry and the larger, temporal trends that are on-going:

There have been unprecedented rises in cost of aviation fuel (kerosene) since 2001. The price of jet fuel has risen from $30.5 a barrel to 81.9 a barrel in 2006, to $113.4 in 2007n and is over $140 in 2008. The result is that for international airlines , fuel costs that constituted13.0% of operating costs rose to 26.0% and has climbed since. This has put financial pressures on the airlines to the extent that some have imposed fuel surcharges that are impacting adversely on the fares

paid by passengers (Button, 2009). Technically, there is evidence that scheduled air services offered in a competitive market suffer from problems of an "empty core" (Button, 2005).

The emphasis, however, has largely been on the direct effects of deregulation on the airlines and their customers with rather less on the implications for overall employment, other than narrowly for airline personnel. The broader economic impacts on industrial structure and regional economic development have largely been assessed indirectly through impact studies of the airports that handle the larger traffic volumes. The evidence from this, however, combined with the few impartial studies that have directly sought to link airline deregulation to economic development, is that more commercial sensitive domestic airline markets do facilitate economic growth in regions (Button, 2009).

Unit airline operating costs are affected by *input prices* (e.g. costs of fuel, airport charges or labour), *operational characteristics* (eg scheduled/charter or short/long haul) and *productivity*, which is a measure of the relationship between an airline's input and its output (eg available tonne-kms per employee) (alamdari and Morell, 1997). *Input prices* such as those of fuel and airport charges are beyond airline management's control and significant cost reduction through productivity or efficiency improvements may take many years to achieve (eg fleet replacement) or could be ineffective (eg airport charges). However labour costs, which account for between 25-35% of total costs, are more amenable to control by airline management.

There are many operational characteristics of airlines which can influence performance measures, especially unit costs and labour productivity. However, sector distance, passenger length of haul, aircraft size and the degree of involvement in freight operations have been found to have the most significant impact on airline unit costs (Alamdari et al., 1995).

The longer the average sector distance or passenger haul the lower the unit cost of operations, all the other things being equal. Similarly, the larger the aircraft size the lower the unit costs. The higher the percentage of freight carried, the lower the unit costs, particularly when an airline operates all-cargo aircraft. The cost of flying a tonne of freight is considerable less than the cost of flying an equivalent volume of passengers, who demand numerous additional services both on ground and in the air. (Alamdari and Morell, 1997).

Increases in *productivity* and efficiency are the key to cost reduction, particularly for large and well established carriers.

Efforts to reduce costs and bring about improved working practices met with strong resistance in many European countries. Since 1993, work stoppages, most of short durations, affected SAS (ground staff), Austrian Airlines (flying crew), TAP Air Portugal (all staff), Air France (all staff) and Alitalia (pilots).

e) *Controversy*

The deregulation movement of the 20th century had substantial economic effects and engendered substantial controversy. The movement towards greater reliance on market forces has been closely related to the growth of economic and institutional globalization between 1950 and 2010. There are a significant number of risks associated with economic liberalization and deregulation which may require some forms of protection against the distortion of the market but continues to encourage competition. Regulation can play an important role in, but not exclusive to, the following situation:

o Creating a level playing field and ensuring competition
o Maintaining quality standards for services
o Protecting consumers
o Ensuring sufficient provision of information
o Preventing environmental degradation
o Guaranteeing wide access to services
o Preventing financial instability and protecting consumer savings (Cali et al., 2008)

f) *Roles Of Stakeholders And How They Change Regulated Environment To A Deregulated One*

Much of the analysis of the effects of market change has inevitably focused on domestic liberalizations, with a particular emphasis on the post-1978 US market.

Such changes in the airline regulatory environment affected many aspects of the aviation industry. Established US airlines faced significant competition from new entrants, particularly in the initial period following deregulation in 1978. These new airlines were generally not unionized, and operated with labour costs which were well below those of Open Sky Policy for Developing Countries with Emphasis on the Small Island Developing States (SIDS) the large incumbents. They also achieved higher productivity and more flexible work practices. (Alamdari and Morell, 1997). Progress since the development of concepts such as "Open Skies" in the late 1970s as an alternative to the restrictive bilateral air service agreements that had effectively controlled most international transport since the mid-1940s has been uneven and spasmodic (Button, 2009). European liberalization formally started from 1988 with the passage of the first liberation package (Crans, 1992, AEA Yearbook, 1993).

V. Consequences of Deregulation

While it is difficult to quantify the impact of EU liberalization measures on the reduction in the airlines staff levels, it is clear that the measures have

encouraged such a trend. It is wrong however to assume that the development in EU airlines' staff levels is entirely due to increased competition in the EU countries. However a survey of 18 airlines revealed that almost two thirds of surveyed carriers believed that EU liberalization measures affected their policy in relation to staffing (Cranfield, 1997).

The macro-economic conditions of the late 1970s ('stagflation'), combined with background pressures generated in part by a series of academic studies, led to a sea-change in policy thinking. The US initially legally removed most economic regulation from its domestic market in 1978 and other countries, either through *de jure* reforms or *de facto* actions, gradually loosened theirs. The move towards greater economic and, to a lesser degree political, integration in Europe in the 1990s brought with it the creation of a Single European market, including that for air services.

Strategic alliances now dominate the international air transportation. Although not all have been successful in a commercial world, there were inevitably failures, they have allowed wider network economies of scope, and density on the cost side, and economies of market presence on the demand side to be exploited (Button 2009). Deregulation and liberalization are both here stay for many more years to come. As mentioned earlier, this is now an irreversible situation. This is a process which all future development will have to reckon with. It is obvious that this is a situation where the fittest will continue to survive. Operators will venture to change threats in to opportunities and weaknesses in to strengths. The developing countries will continue to lag behind and if they cannot beat the situation, they will continue to pull resources with the mega carriers. Mergers and acquisitions will continue with some airlines moving out to make way for new entrants with new technology and new management methods.

VI. Conclusion

This paper has endeavoured to show that the concepts of deregulation, liberalization and globalization in international air transport are phenomena that nations will have to reckon with in the decades to come. The propensity for protectionism in the developing countries and the SIDS and the obsolete approach to the industry will have to change. Although we no longer speak of first, second and third world anymore, as far as air transport is concerned it is a fallacy to believe that because of globalization, freedoms of the air, bilateral and multilateral agreements, all countries are on a level playing field. Airlines of developing countries and the LDCs will have to deregulate in a progressive way and go in to mergers with the big airlines that are still willing to carry them to greater heights.

References Références Referencias

1. Alamdari E. F., Doganis, R. and Lobbenberg, A. (1995) *Efficiency of the World's Major Airlines.* Cranfield Research Report, No. 4, march
2. Alamdari E. F and Morell, P (1997) *Airline Labour Cost Reduction: Post-Liberalisation experience in the USA and Europe, Journal of Air Transport Management,* Vol. 3, No. 2, pp.53-66
3. AEA (1993) Association of European Airlines, Brussels Bowen, J. T. and Leinbach, T. R. (1995) The State and Liberalisation: the Airline Industry in the East Asian NICs, the Association of American Geographers.
4. Button, K.(1990) The Deregulation of U.S Interstate Aviation: an Assessment of Causes and Consequences, Transport Reviews Button, K. (2009) *The Impact of US-EU "Open Skies" Agreement on Airline Market Structures and Airline Networks, Journal of Air Transport Management 15, 59-71* Cali, M., Ellis, C. and Willem de Velde, D. (2008) *The Contribution of Services to Development: The Role of Regulation and Trade Liberalisation, Overseas Development Institute, London* Cranfield (1997) *Single Market Review 1996: Impact on Services –Air Transport,* Kogan Page for the European Commission March 1997
5. Crans (1992) Centre for Research and Application of Non-Linear Systems, Patras Dempsey, P. (1995) Sysfunctional Economics and the Airline Industry, handbook of Airline Economics, Aviation Week Group, McGraw-Hill pp 185-200, Hooper (1998) Associated Press, Utah Kirkby, M. (1981) Domestic Airline Regulations: The Australian Debate, Centre for Independent Studies Morrison, S. and Winston, C. (1990) The Evolution of the Airline Industry, The Brookings Institutions, Washington D.C.
6. Pfaff, W. (2006) Deregulation Gone Bad, New York Times (Paris) April 03
7. Pickrel, D. (1991) Airline Deregulation. International Experiences, Claridon, London Sullivan, A and Sheffrin, S. M (2002) *Economics: Principles in Action,* Pearson Prentice Hall Taibbi, M (2009) *The Big Take Over,* Rolling Stone
8. US Department of Transportation (1996) *The Low Cost Airline Service Revolution,* April.
9. Wells, A. T. and Wensveen, J. G. (2004), Air Transport: a Management Perspective, 5th Edition, Thompson, New York

Website References
1. About SIDS, *United Nations Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States* (www.unohrlls.org/esa/sustdev/sids/sidslist.htm)
2. AOSIS Members, *Alliance of Small Island States* (www.sidsnet.org/aosis/members)

GLOSSARY
ATK – Availble tonne/km
APPENDIX A
List of Small Island Developing States (SIDS)

Carribean	Pacific	AIMS
Anguilla 3, 4, 7	American Samoa 2, 6, 7	Bahrain 3, 6
Antigua and Barbuda	Cook Islands 7	Cape Verde 6
Aruba 3, 5, 7	Federated States of Micronesia	Comoros 1
Bahamas	Fiji	Guinea-Bissau 1, 6
Barbados	French Polynesia 3, 4, 7	Maldives 5
Belize	Guam 2, 6, 7	Mauritius
British Virgin Islands 3, 4, 7	Kiribati 1	Sao Tomé and Príncipe 1, 6
Cuba 6	Marshall Islands	Seychelles
Dominica	Nauru	Singapore 6
Dominican Republic	New Caledonia	
Grenada	Niue 7	
Guyana	Northern Mariana Islands 3, 6, 7	
Haiti 1	Palau	
Jamaica	Papua New Guinea	
Montserrat 3, 7	Samoa 1	
Netherlands Antilles 2, 5, 7	Solomon Islands 1	
Puerto Rico 3, 5, 7	Timor-Leste 1, 3, 5	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Tonga	
Saint Lucia	Tuvalu 1	
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Vanuatu 1	
Suriname		
Trinidad and Tobago		
United States Virgin Islands 2, 6, 7		

1. Also s least developed country
2. Observer of the Alliance of Small Island States
3. Not a member of the Alliance of Small States
4. Associate member of regional cooperation body
5. Observer of regional cooperation body
6. Not a member or observer of regional body
7. Not a member of the United Nations

Haryanvi Wives: Changing Expectations of Their Husbands

By Vijender Singh

Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra, Haryana, India

Abstract - This paper offers an analysis of changing expectations of the husbands from their wives in Haryana state of India. This paper explores the alterations in gender relationship pattern in the Haryana region that has experienced major socio-political and economic changes in the last two decades. Positional survey research design was used for the present study through interview schedule comprising open ended questions. Husbands from different socio-economic background reported the continuing influence of traditional values that still govern the gender relationships in the family particularly husband-wife relationship.

Keywords : Gender, Power, Family, Patriarchy, Expectations.

GJHSS C Classification : FOR Code: 160805, 200205, 200209,

HARYANVI WIVES CHANGING EXPECTATIONS OF THEIR HUSBANDS

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Haryanvi Wives: Changing Expectations of Their Husbands

Vijender Singh

Abstract - This paper offers an analysis of changing expectations of the husbands from their wives in Haryana state of India. This paper explores the alterations in gender relationship pattern in the Haryana region that has experienced major socio-political and economic changes in the last two decades. Positional survey research design was used for the present study through interview schedule comprising open ended questions. Husbands from different socio-economic background reported the continuing influence of traditional values that still govern the gender relationships in the family particularly husband-wife relationship.

Keywords : Gender, Power, Family, Patriarchy, Expectations.

I. INTRODUCTION

For the past two decades, a remarkable shift in gender roles within the family is witnessed in Indian societies and gender relationship became an important object of academic study. Gender relationship is a vital practice that influences the lives of men and women in any society. It is so important that it affects the roles we play and the relative power we wield, it determines the opportunities and privilege we have. Walby (1990:26) asserts that the concepts of private and public patriarchy may be especially useful in understanding the relationships and mechanisms by which male members of household and the state shape the lives of women. Private patriarchy is based upon household production as the main site of women's oppression, and public patriarchy is based principally in public sites such as employment and the state.

Researchers emphasized the influence of broader social changes and the transformations of intimacy on the changes in the familial life in the late modernity (Giddens 1992). Scholars from different disciplines started to analyze the interaction between husband and wife and its effects on them, children and society. According to the research conducted in the United States of America, young educated couples are the ones who most often attempt to create egalitarian relationships and an egalitarian family (Thornton and Young-DeMarco 2001).

A women and men's attitude towards each other is an appropriate measurement of family traditionalism and egalitarianism. David J. Maume (2006: 861) argues that the best way to examine egalitarianism of a family is to compare measures which prompt people to evaluate family and work responsibilities and chose in favor of one or the other.

Foucault (1980) advocates a radically different way of conceptualizing power. According to him, modern power is 'capillary' because it is exercised strategically at all levels of society from the 'macro-practices' to the 'micro' everyday social practices.

Family Sociologists have long been interested in investigating women status in private sphere. The husband-wife relationship in the family not only reflects and reproduces the cultural understandings of family, love, personal satisfaction but also structures gender, class and race relationships. A husband's marital power over his wife is recognized as legal in many countries, while a 'wife's power over her husband does not seem to exist in any language in the world, let alone in law' (TomaSevski, 1998:550). The researchers also showed that the husband-wife relationship in the family reproduces gender as a social category and reinforces male and female roles, identities and attitudes. It has been observed that although all women lack power in relation to men, in general. Duggan (1997:103) argued that 'households are the nucleus of women's subordination, e condition that may change in form but which survives shifts from agricultural to industrial societies and from feudal to capitalist modes of production'.

Egalitarian attitudes are significant predictors of men's involvement in housework. Wives with more liberal attitude are more likely to have role-sharing husbands (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). Studies find that the more husbands and wives hold similar egalitarian views of marriage, the more household responsibilities are shared, although unevenly (Antill & Cotton, 1988). Notably, however, that couples in which both spouses have egalitarian beliefs are not the norm. Men are much more likely than women to espouse traditional values (Hochschild, 1989).

In the light of the above, this study aims at finding out if this traditional husband-wife behaviour pattern has changed over years, given the influence of education and awareness in our community. Finally, this work consistently leads to new research questions and agenda that can enhance our knowledge and understanding of the culture, power relationship among

Author : Assistant Professor Department of Sociology , Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra, Haryana, India.
Telephone: +919466067188 , E-mail : sbazard@gmail.com

couple and how these affects role expectations, child bearing and rearing practices in India. The perception of women as being merely at the receiving end especially in their domestic roles as wives, is however very superficial because wives, even in an patriarchal society like India, constantly seek subtle ways to influence the process of family life in spite of the pervasive cultural inhibition and society's expectation of them as obedient and dutiful wives. This, points to the fact that wives are rational social actors who constantly evolve various strategies of coping with their subordinate position in their marital homes.

II. Review of Literature

This section sets the scene by attempting a critical appraisal of previous discursive and empirical studies from India as well as those from other parts of the world that are generally relevant to the current research. Ideas about gender equality, linking women's sexuality with family honor, male dominance, and condoning violence against women might not equally prevalent among men across the diverse cultures and societies of the world. Likewise, men's differential faith to the traditional ideas about treating women differently in different aspects of gender relations may determine varying conduct with them in families.

sbazard@gmail.com Obbo (1980) based her study on data collected from low income women in Kampala, Uganda, and rural women from neighbouring villages, and found that in reaction to dominant behaviour of men, the women, rather than engage in direct confrontation with the men, evolved some power strategies, which made men feel quite uncomfortable and threatened. Husbands consistently saw the need to control women.

Lloyd (1965) observes that a good number of Yoruba women traders share economic responsibilities of their households with their husbands, and have much economic power, yet they practice obedience when approaching their husbands. They would kneel to serve their sitting husbands food and for drink. Thus, although a woman may be dominant in other spheres she must be publicly seen as submissive to her husband. Even men who try to tolerate dominant wives do so only so long as such wives defer to them in public.

Cohen (1967) notes that Kanuri women of North Eastern Nigeria would publicly despise men who in principle have authority over them and that in such circumstances, men would anyway allow the women to have their way in order to avoid the embarrassment of being exposed as lacking control over their wives. He also observes that threats of divorce by married Yoruba women often serve to force their husbands to become more caring and attentive.

Caldwell and Caldwell (1987) observe that the patriarchal system in most of West Africa leaves the role of reproductive decision-making within the household to men while the wives are left to bear the economic burden arising there from. Furthermore, Adams and Castle (1994) examined reproductive decision-making within and beyond the households in rural West Africa and identified the complex of gender power relations which determines women's control over resources as one of the factors that influence women's reproductive options and behaviour.

Denich (1974:259) equally argues that 'keeping the behaviour of women in line with group unity involves a problem of control, and the elaboration of coercive mechanisms shows that women are not by nature submissive, but must be prevented from acting in their individual interests'. Their mode of socialization makes them 'less individuated than men'

Wolf (1974:159) observes how traditional Chinese women cope with their subordinate position in a highly androcentric and male-dominant society. The customary patrilocal rule of residence ensures that a good daughter-in-law respects the 'three obedience'- to her father before marriage, to her husband after marriage and to her son as a widow'. Yet many women are in control of their own fates and often of their husbands and at the same time, they expect and receive the obedience of their adult sons.

Chinweizu (1990:11) argues that despite their lack of access to those public structures which form the domain of male power, there are other modes and centers of power which women monopolize. For Chinweizu, woman is the ultimate boss because women rule the men who rule the world. He mentions 'five pillars of female power' namely; the womb, the kitchen, the cradle, psychological maturity, and biological make-up are rather what constitute the source of men's super-ordination over women especially as husbands. These are the very tools that men use to suppress their wives and to restrict them to the confines of the house as domestic beasts of burden.

From her empirical study in New Mexico and Arizona, Lamphere (1974) theorizes that a direct relationship exists between the power structure of the family unit and the relationship between women within the relevant domestic group. That is to say that where power and authority are shared between men and women in the family, women are usually able to co-operate and form close ties with one another. However, where men alone monopolize power and authority, individual women work secretly to influence the men.

In his study Conklin (1973) stated that couples are acquiring new roles and developing new relations and that changes are closely related to education, urbanization, and the possibility of acquiring non-farming jobs.

Kapadia, K.M. (1964) approved the view that Hindu marriage is a sacrament as is extracted from Hindu system of marriage idealized which has aims of 'Dharma' (Duty), 'Pooja' (Worship) and 'Rati' (Pleasure). This is a chronological position of aims in marital life. He considered marriage as not ordinary; not profane thing

but 'Panigrahan' makes it a sacred affair. Marriage is sacramental for three reasons one sacred rites performed, second, marriage is essential for women since rites are to be performed with her husband throughout his life and third, irrevocable marriage that can't be dissolved and believably sustains in next birth, like previous birth. However, wife and husband try to adjust their taste and tamper, ideals and interests with zeal and sacrifice.

I.P. Desai (1964) introduced familial relationship and its range, types, the rights and obligation towards each other in families particularly in joint families. He further attempted to analyze the interdependency in various set of relationships – parents and offspring, husband and wives, and in-laws dependency. He emphasized the jointness of family as a structural element fixed by norms. Dube, S.C. (1990) investigated gender relationships taking structural approach and with reference to the presence of the ideology of subordination of women pervasive among Hindus which influence the whole Indian society. According to him, the principle area of woman control is the sexuality, the man keep vigil and enforces regulation of her sexual purity. This situation makes man every time skeptical, that means some restrictions are in operation that shapes the relationship. However, male gets some relaxation in his sexual conduct and wife takes it as pardonable. Dube attributed patriarchy as major characteristic feature of Indian family system which clearly means male domination and female subordination.

Sociologists and social anthropologists around 2000 have come to touch corners and sectors in pieces that indicate and explain the wife-husband relationship. The approach behind these studies has been empowerment of women in relation to men. Hence, frequent reference has been made to patriarchy, power and authority.

III. OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

The whole idea of the study is to investigate the changing expectations of husbands from their wives in Haryana. The study also seeks to observe the changing pattern of interaction between husband and wife in the family situations. The study has the following immediate objectives:

- To examine the changing expectations of husbands from their wives in the area of study.
- To explore the present attitude of Haryanvi men towards their wives.
- To identify the reshaping of husband-wife relationship in families of Haryana.

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Positional survey research design was used for the present study through interview schedule comprising open ended questions to explore the expectations of husbands from their wives. The researcher personally interviewed the respondents and statistical sophistication is avoided in data analysis.

To select the respondents, simple random sampling method has been used. Total 100 married men from nuclear families have been interviewed in equal proportion from rural and urban dwelling. All the respondents are literate and from the age group of 24-45 years.

V. THE STUDY AREA

Haryana is a landlocked state in northern India. It is located between 27°37' to 30°35' N latitude and between 74°28' and 77°36' E longitude. The altitude of Haryana varies between 700 to 3600 ft (200 metres to 1200 metres) above sea level. An area of 1,553 km2 is covered by forest. Haryana has four main geographical features. I)The Yamuna-Ghaggar plain forming the largest part of the state ii) The Shivalik Hills to the northeast iii) Semi-desert sandy plain to the southwest iv) The Aravalli Range in the south.

According 2011 Census of India, Haryana's population has reached 25,353,081 comprising male 13,505,130 and female 11,847,951 respectively. Haryana feeds approximately 2.09% of India's total population. As per report of Census 2011, Haryana has literacy rate of 76.64% which is above national average of 74.04 percent. In 2001, Haryana had 67.91% literacy rate. Hindus are majority in Haryana and are about 90% of the population, Sikhs 6.2%, Muslims 4.05% (mainly Meos) and Christians 0.10%.Haryana is a State which astonishingly combines both-antiquity and plenty. It has been a cradle of Indian culture and civilization. The people of Haryana are simple, straight-forward, enterprising and hard-working. They are still conservative and continue to follow old practices as a matter of routine and custom. Hindi has traditionally been the dominant language spoken by the people of Haryana. Punjabi is second official language of Haryana. In towns and cities, English is still to be adopted as the household lingo, but is spoken in a hazy mixture of Haryanvi. Despite recent industrial development, Haryana is primarily an agricultural state. About 70% of residents are engaged in agriculture Wheat and rice are the major crops. Haryana is self-sufficient in food production and the second largest contributor to India's central pool of food grains.

VI. DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS

a) Gender

The concept of gender is used in this study to mean socially defined and imposes characters for females and males and socially defined functions and attributes of being a woman or a man in a society.

b) *Power*

'The probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests' (Weber).

c) *Family*

Family is used here in its nuclear form to mean a man, his wife and their dependent or unmarried children (whether biological or adopted). The family is characterized by ties of marriage and blood; division of labour including gender roles; and a common domestic management- Each member considers a particular household as a common home and decisions made here are considered as binding on the collectivity. The concepts of family and household are used interchangeably in this study.

d) *Patriarchy*

It is a social and ideological construct which considers men (who are the patriarchs) as superior to women. Sylvia Walby in "Theorising Patriarchy" calls it "a system of social structures and practices in which men dominate, oppress and exploit women" (Walby, 1990).

e) *Perception*

The subjective view or opinion of an individual as regards a particular subject, in this case, women's direct participation in household decision-making.

f) *Expectations*

Expectation is what is considered the most likely to happen. An expectation, which is a belief that is centered on the future, may or may not be realistic. A less advantageous result gives rise to the emotion of disappointment. If something happens that is not at all expected it is a surprise. An expectation about the behavior or performance of another person, expressed to that person, may have the nature of a strong request, or an order.

VII.   FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted to investigate the changing expectations of husbands from their wives in the study area. The respondents were personally interviewed by the researcher and inquired about their expectations from their wives regarding some daily activities like cooking of food, washing of clothes, cleaning and maintenance of house, child care, dressing, outside stay and interaction with outside male.

Male supremacy is embedded in the gender division of labour. Indian men continue to work mainly in the public sphere while women work often remains restricted to domestic sphere (Kishwar:1991). There is much type of activities in the household performed mainly by the women. It is interesting to identify the Type of domestic work in which respondents' husbands expect as some of the activities are absolutely

distinguished for women only. Table-1 below shows that 2/3rd of husbands expects from their wife that she should cook food for him and family.

Table 1: Expectations regarding Cooking of Food.

Responses	Frequency
Wife should cook the Food	65
Both can cook Jointly	5
Any One can cook	30
Total	100

The second question was asked about the expectations of husbands regarding another major work traditionally performed by wives in indian society i.e. washing the clothes. Table-2 denotes that more than ½ of the respondents expect from their wife that they should wash the clothes.

Table 2 : Expectations regarding washing the Clothes.

Responses	Frequency
Wife should wash the clothes	55
Husband can wash	3
Both can Wash Jointly	35
Any One can Wash	7
Total	100

Thirdly responses are taken regarding maintenance and cleaning of the house and data in table no. 3 depicts that 57% of the respondents assign this work to their wives while slightly more than 1/3rd are agree to share this responsibility with her wife.

Table 3 : Expectations regarding Maintenance/Cleaning of the House.

Responses	Frequency
Wife should Maintain the House	57
Both can Maintain Jointly	35
Any One can Maintain	8
Total	100

In the next question respondents are asked about their expectations from their wives regarding child care tasks pertaining to personal care of children- bathing, feeding, care during illness, playing with children and education of the children. The data in table no. 4 reveals that half of the respondents agreed that they will share this liability with their wife while 37% expect that their wife should take care of their children.

Table 4 : Expectations regarding Child Care

Responses	Frequency
Wife should Care the Children	37
Husband Can Care	6
Both Care Jointly	50
Anyone	7
Total	100

Many studies regarding domestic work (Chakraboraty,1978; Rani, 1976) concluded that husbands are beginning to increase their domestic work, although wives continue to have primary responsibility for family work. The above mentioned findings of this study are similar to these studies but there are additional considerations i.e. a greater reluctance is found in Haryanvi husbands in sharing the domestic work. They consider these works as womenly duties and expect from their wives to perform these tasks.

Srinivas (1974:61) concluded that 72.6% of the women in Haryana perfom the purdah (Veil). It denotes that a strict code for dressing behaviour of women prevailed in the region and data given below in table no. 5 indicate that less than ½ of the respondents expect wearing of traditional Indian Dress and near about 1/3rd of the respondents expects Western Dress. It means Haryanvi wives are getting more freedom from their husbands in the context of dressing choices.

Table 5 : Expectations regarding Dressing and Wearing Clothes.

Responses	Frequency
Saree and Salwar Suite (Indian Dress)	46
Skirt,Top and Jeans (Western Dress)	30
As She like to Wear	24
Total	100

Derne, Steve (1994:208) in his study on Indian Hindu men described that all the men he interviewed wants their wives' behaviour outside the home to be restricted in some ways. To protect their family's honor, husbands expect their wives to be modest, shy, ashamed and docile when they venture in public. In his study he reported that many men restrict their wives public movements because of their overriding concern with avoiding negative public opinion. The data in table no.6 also shows similar result where majority of the husbands denied the outside stay of their wife in the night even for working or employment liabilities.

Table 6 : Expectations regarding her Stay Outside home in the Night.

Responses	Frequency
She shouldn't stay	70
She can Stay Outside	30
Total	100

Sharma, Ursula (1980:3) reports that Men tells their wives they may venture out only if accompanied by another family member, and also restrict them from acting too openly outside te home and warn daughters against jeopardizing their marriage prospect and the family's honour by talking with boys and laughing too much. Our date is in accordance with above report reveling that more than 3/4th of the husband don't expect their wife should have any interaction with outsider male.

Table 7: Expectation regarding the interaction with outsider man.

Responses	Frequency
No	81
Accepted to Some Limit	12
No Problem	7
Total	100

Traditionally women's domain is private sphere that means home while public sphere is male's domain. Several forces like education, employment, politics etc. are now pushing the women in male's domain. But in this era also Haryanvi husbands expecting that their wives will restrict themselves to the household and maintain the family's honor.

VIII. Conclusions

In this study we have examined the expectations of Haryanvi Husbands in Indian settings and explore further the perception of husbands about their wives in traditional society that is now undergoing social and economic changes. On the basis of analysis of data collected the following conclusion can be drawn:

1. Our main objective was to examine the changing expectations of husbands from their wives and found that husbands reflecting their traditional orientation tend to agreed on the gender based division of labour.
2. The continuing influence of traditional values which still govern the gender relationships in the family particularly husband-wife relationship.
3. Husbands see their status superior to wives and wanted to maintain their supremacy by practicing some restriction on wives. In contrast few husbands are showing liberal approach.
4. Haryanvi husbands show more care towards their children.

5. Husbands are still expecting the continuation of the patriarchy as an institution.

The findings of this study are limited in the sense that the sample is small comprised husbands belonging to different socio-economic background. In order to make meaningful generalization about Indian society, future studies should focus on large sample.

References Références Referencias

1. Antill, J., & Cotton, S. 1988. Factors affecting the division of labor in households. Sex Roles, 18, 531-553.
2. Barnett, R., & Baruch, G. 1987. Determinants of fathers' participation in family work. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 49, 29-40*.
3. Caldwell, J. and Caldwell, P. 1987. 'The cultural context of high fertility in sub-Saharan Africa' *Population and Development Review* Vol I3 No. 3 Pp. 409-437.
4. Chinweizu. 1990. Anatomy of Female Power: A Masculinist Dissection of Matriarchy Lagos: Pero press.
5. Cohen, R. 1967. The *Kanuri* of *Bornu* New York: Rinehart and Winston.
6. Denich, B. 1974. 'Sex and power in the Balkans' In M. Z. Rosaldo and L. Lamphere (Eds.) Pp. 243-62.
7. Derne, Steve. 1994. Hindu Men Talk About Controlling Women: Cultural Ideas as a Tool of the Powerful in *Sociological Perspective Vol.37 No.2, pp.203-227.*
8. Desai, Neera & Thakkar, Usha. 2001. *Women in Indian Society.* New Delhi: National Book Trust, pp. 77-78.
9. Dube, S.C. 1990. *Indian Society.* New delhi: National Book Trust.
10. Duggan, L. 1997. 'Introduction to part two' In N. Visvanathan, L. Duggan, L. Nisonoff, N. Wiegersma (Eds.) *The Women, Gender* and Development Reader London and New Jersey: Zed Books; Dhaka: University Press; Bangkok: White Lotus; Halifax: Fernwood; Cape Town: David Philip. Pp. 103-11.
11. Foucault, M. I980. *Power/Knowledge: selected interviews and Other Writings* New York: Pantheon.
12. Giddens, Anthony 1992. *The Transformation of Intimacy: Sexuality, Love and Eroticism in Modern Societies*. Cambridge: Polity.
13. Hochsehild, A. 1989. *The second shift.* New York: Viking Penguin.
14. Kishwar, Madhu & Vanita, R. 1991. In search of Answers: Indian women's voices from Manushi. New Derlhi, Horizon Indian Books.
15. Lamphere, L. 1974. 'Strategies, co-operation and Conflict among women in domestic group' In M. Z. Rosaldo and L. Pamphere (Eds.) Pp. 97-112.
16. Lloyd, P. 1965. 'The Yoruba of Nigeria' In J. Gibbs JR. (Ed.) *Peoples of* Africa London: Macmillan. Pp. 549-82.
17. Maume, David J. 2006. "Gender Differences in Restricting Work Efforts Because of Family Responsibilities," *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 68 (November): 859–869.
18. Obbo, C. 1980. African Women: Their Struggle for Economic Independence, London, Zed Books
19. Sharma, Ursula. 1980. Women Work and Property in North-West India. London:Tavistock
20. Srinivas, M.N. 1974. Towards Equality. New Delhi: Government of India. Committee on the Status of Women in India.
21. Thornton, Arland, and Linda Young-DeMarco 2001. "Four Decades of Trends in Attitudes Toward Family Issues in the United States: The 1960s Through the 1990s," *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 63 (November): 1009–1037.
22. TomaSevski, K. 1998. Rights of women: from prohibition to elimination of discrimination, *International Social Science Journal Vol.L No.4 (Dec.) pp. 545-58.*
23. Walby S. 1990. Theorizing Patriarchy, Cambridge, Blackwell Publishing.

Sources, Availability and Use of Information for Sustainability of Petty Trade in Ikenne Local Government Area, Ogun State, Nigeria

By Dr. K.I.N. Nwalo, Ezinwanyi Madukoma

University of Ibadan , Ibadan

Abstract – This study surveyed the sources, availability and use of information for sustainability of petty trade in Ikenne Local Government Area, Ogun State, Nigeria. Observation had shown that petty trade in rural areas of Nigeria has not been given attention as to their growth and sustainability which is achievable through the availability and use of information at their disposal. Descriptive survey method was adopted for the study. The population was estimated to be about 500 petty traders at Ikenne Local Government Area. Sample size was 300 which are 60% of the estimated population. Stratified random sampling technique was use in selecting the sample size. Structured questionnaire was the instrument used in collecting data. Out of 300 copies of the questionnaire distributed to the respondents, 280(93.3%) were duly completed and returned. Descriptive statistics involving frequency count and percentages was employed to analyze data. The study established that petty traders lack access to proper and adequate information as information sources available, utilized and preferred by the petty traders were market association information, minutes of various meetings and radio.

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Sources, Availability and Use of Information for Sustainability of Petty Trade in Ikenne Local Government Area, Ogun State, Nigeria

Dr. K.I.N. Nwalo [α] , Ezinwanyi Madukoma [σ]

Abstract - This study surveyed the sources, availability and use of information for sustainability of petty trade in Ikenne Local Government Area, Ogun State, Nigeria. Observation had shown that petty trade in rural areas of Nigeria has not been given attention as to their growth and sustainability which is achievable through the availability and use of information at their disposal. Descriptive survey method was adopted for the study. The population was estimated to be about 500 petty traders at Ikenne Local Government Area. Sample size was 300 which are 60% of the estimated population. Stratified random sampling technique was use in selecting the sample size. Structured questionnaire was the instrument used in collecting data. Out of 300 copies of the questionnaire distributed to the respondents, 280(93.3%) were duly completed and returned. Descriptive statistics involving frequency count and percentages was employed to analyze data. The study established that petty traders lack access to proper and adequate information as information sources available, utilized and preferred by the petty traders were market association information, minutes of various meetings and radio. There is need therefore to sensitize the petty traders of the importance of making effective use of information sources for the development of their trade. Public libraries and information centers for example, are in the position of meeting the traders information needs once they are patronized this could be achieved through information outreach, seminars and workshops in Yoruba, the native languages used, as this will go a long way to assist in the development and sustainability of petty trade for national development.

I. INTRODUCTION

Information is an indispensible instrument of planning, decision-making and control especially in all spheres of life including businesses. The smooth running of any business or market oriented economy is based on availability , accessibility and use of timely , reliable , complete and efficient information. More and Stele (1991) viewed information as an ingredient of social change because the degree for sustainability of the nation's economy is subject to the accurate and appropriate information readily made available to the populace. Harande (2009) noted that the development of countries globally cannot be achieved without the development of the rural community. Hence this cannot be possible without access to prompt and relevant information to the petty traders in this rural areas.

In Nigeria at present, the provision of information to the rural populace is not to be reckoned with. Information is needed to be able to understand what is going on in our environment, to acquire basic needs of life, as well as to react properly in every situation. Information sources availability and use is a very critical factor to the sustainability of national development. To meet consumer demands, many businesses now require critical information system in order to be successful (Martin, 2003). The availability of these critical information resources has assumed importance even in petty trade for sustainability of national development. The achievement of this largely depends on the availability and use of this information by the petty traders.

Objectives of the study

This study seeks to determine:
1. The information sources available to petty traders in Ikenne Local Government
2. The major information sources utilized by petty traders in the Local Government.
3. The information sources preferred by the petty traders in the Local Government.
4. The perceived effect of information use on petty traders in Ikenne Local Government Area.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What information sources are available to petty traders in Ikenne Local Government?
2. What major information sources do the petty traders in Ikenne Local Government utilized?
3. What information sources do petty traders in Ikenne Local Government prefer?
4. What are the perceived effects of information use on petty traders in Ikenne Local Government?

Author [α] *: Department of Library, Archival and Information Studies University of Ibadan, Ibadan*
Author [σ] *: Babcock University Library, Ilisan-Remo, Ogun State.*
E-mail : Ezimadu1@yahoo.com

Statement of the problem

The primary concern of any business organization today is profit making. Every business organization is also concerned with the sustainability of gains made over time. Business men, individuals and organizations seek information that will be of critical benefit to the fulfillment of their objectives and goals. It is observed that petty trade in the rural areas of Nigeria has not been given attention as to their growth and sustainability which is achievable through the availability and use of information at their disposal. Perhaps, this is because the traders are largely illiterate and so can hardly appreciate the need for and use of information for greater success in their business. It is in the light of this that this study is undertaken to know how far the petty traders use information for business, the sources of their information and the effect of information availability and use on sustainability of petty trade in Ikenne Local Government, Ogun State.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

a) Information

Information is something that reduces uncertainty in decision-making Aiyepeku (1992). Buckland (1991) defines it as a process which occurs in the mind when a problem is united with data that can help solve it. Ojedokun (2007) submitted that information is the meaning assigned to data within some context for the use of that data. According to Popoola (2008), information is part of a process of converting messages received into knowledge. The survival of petty trade in Ikenne local government even in all spheres of human life depends largely on the availability and use of information. Information can be characterized by manner /mod of presentation, content and originality and proximity to the source or origin.

As a manner of presentation – when words are spoken not written, it is referred to as oral information. It can be delivered face-to-face, on in form of radio/TV programmes, audio and video presentations. However, when words are in print or written, it is referred to as textual information and can be delivered in the form of books, reports, etc. Other manners of presentation include; graphics such as pictures, diagrams, charts, maps and atlases and numeric, which is data in form of number, example, collection of statistics.

Information by content – statement of things done, known to have occurred or to be true or existing, is regarded as facts. Examples are dictionaries, atlases, handbooks, directories, etc.

Originality and proximity to the source or origin – This can be classified in three forms: primary, secondary and tertiary form of information. Information in its original form such as raw data or statistics that have been collected but not yet analyzed or first reports of research studies or eye witness account of events is

referred to as "primary information". Primary information includes diaries, letters, newspapers, articles reported from records, speeches, surveys, etc. It is actual evidence presented without any analysis or interpretation (University of Tennessee Libraries, 2005). When information is removed in some way from its original form and repackaged, it is referred to as "secondary information". According to the University of Tennessee Libraries (2005), Secondary information source is a literature that analyzes, interprets, relates or evaluates a primary source or other primary sources. It includes textbooks, encyclopedias, dictionaries, any book or article which is an interpretation of events, or of primary sources. Tertiary information according to Oyedokun (2007) are sources which provide information for an overall feel of the subject or initial stages of searching but provide little substance to support academic statements. Examples of tertiary information sources include dictionaries, encyclopedias, indexing and abstracting tools used to locate primary and secondary sources, etc, all these may also be secondary sources.

b) Information Sources

Uhegbu (2007) identified four (4) sources of information as:

Individual (Oral)
Corporate Bodies (Institutional sources)
Printed Materials
Libraries and Information Centers.

Individual (Oral Media): Individuals are well known as custodians of information and constitute what information scientists and librarians regard as primary sources. Before the use of paper and later technologies, individual via their oral tradition were the chief source of information. Individual sources include information emanating from parents, relatives, friends and even strangers. This source is largely free of charge and often comes unsolicited.

Corporate Bodies (Institutional Sources): This is another veritable source of information. Corporate bodies include companies, industries, banks and other financial institutions, universities and other educational or research institutions, churches and non-governmental organizations (NGOS). A lot of information is generated in the course of carrying out their normal functions. Written rules and regulations, internal memoranda, sermons constitute sources of information. Uhegbu (2007) believes that corporate bodies as sources of information have the advantage of disseminating mostly authentic and factual information. The degree of reliability of information from this source is much higher compared to individual sources because information is not released to the public until it is properly authenticated.

Printed Materials: Some of the well-known sources of information are books and other published

materials. Other published materials include: journals, newsletters, newspapers and magazines. The amount of time and care taken to prepare and proofread these materials before publication make them more reliable.

Libraries and Information Centres: Many citizens of Nigeria cannot afford to buy books, journals or newspapers and magazines due to economic difficulties. In order to ensure that information recorded in books and other published materials are made available to these people, the library performs the duty of acquiring, organizing, packaging and making these materials available to them.

c) Information Use

The use of information is dependent on the need for that information. It must be recognized that an information need exists, and the need defined. Information is an imperishable wealth. According to Haliso and Okwilagwe (2003), it is an asset that everyone should acquire. The level of information consciousness depends on individual perception and need. The information available to users also determines their use. The need and uses would normally be defined based on, but not limited to, when such terms and conditions are not convenient or attainable, the users may decide not to use the information. Choo, (1995), opined that information use is a dynamic, interactive social process of inquiry that may result in the making of meaning or the making of decisions, the inquiry cycles between consideration of parts and the whole, and between practical details and general assumptions. Participants clarify and challenge each other's representations and beliefs. Choices may be made by personal intuition, political advocacy, as well as by rational analysis. He further expatiated that managers as information users, for example, work in an environment that has been described as information overloaded, socially constrained, and politically laden. As new information is received and as the manager reflects and acts on the problem situation, the perception of the situation changes, giving rise to new uncertainties. The problem situation is redefined, the manager seeks new information, and the cycle iterates until the problem is considered resolved in the manager's mind. So, information is an essential ingredient in all spheres of life.

Choo (2001) observed that organizations develop their own culture of information seeking and use, establishing values and norms about, for example, how accurate the data should be, how much search is necessary, what kind of editing and manipulation is permissible and so on. We may refer to those aspects of an organization's values, norms, and practice that influence the seeking, evaluation and use of information as information culture (Choo 2006). Thus, development can only be effective if rural dwellers have access to the relevant, diverse information for their activities. Efforts must be made to give access to knowledge and information by non-literates who constitute the majority of rural dwellers (Alegbeleye and Aina, 1985). As noted by Okiy (2003:1), "rural development is a basis for economic development and information is an important ingredient in development process. People in rural areas whether literate or not should have access to any kind of information which will help them to become capable and productive in their social and political obligations, to become better informed citizens generally". In the same vain, Diso (1994:143) is of the opinion that information must as a matter of policy, be seen as a basic resource for development if durable structure are to be provided for effective access and utilization, which entails information capturing, coordination, processing, and dissemination. However, Harande (2009) asserted that the information received by the rural dwellers is either not reliable or distorted in the process of transmission. According to him, this unhealthy situation constitutes a major impediment, which keeps the rural communities in Nigeria and other developing countries far away from development indicators as effective information service in the rural community enhances development.

d) Information Availability

Availability is about information being accessible as needed when needed, where needed. The objective of availability is to enable access to authorized information or resources. Lipson and Fisher (1999) states that the problems of greatest concern today relates to the availability of information and continuity of services. The problem of information availability and use extends beyond the logical and physical domains. Petty traders assumably are depending upon the availability of information to successfully execute business. According to Etebu (2009), information dissemination and accessibility have reduced the world to a global village. Africa, like the rest of the world, is experiencing change in all aspects of life: from basic cultural values to technology, which has changed not only the mode of communication, but the concept of time. To make information useful in development, it is important to take a closer look at information seeking behavior of rural people who are used to oral tradition. Meyer (2003) noted in his study of a group of traditional farmers producing food for their consumption, that incoming information was better understood and accepted when the messages were communicated in a way which they could identify with.

Etebu (2009), quoting Alegbeleye (1998) expatiated that it is clear from available research and from the experience of library professionals that:

- Rural communities have information needs that are not satisfied by existing library services
- Information needs differ from one locality to another depending on existing socio-economic and political

conditions

- Information must be directly relevant to the lives of the people if it is to be used
- Information transfer must simulate existing indigenous mode of communicating information.

Harande (2009) hold the view that information is raw material for development for both urban and rural dwellers. Prosperity, progress, and development of a nation depend upon the nation's ability to acquire, produce, access and use pertinent information. According to him, access to information and advice is a key resource for local people in maintaining active and independent lives. Information is the lifeblood of any society and vital to the activities of both the government and private sectors. Quoting Bell (1979), the dependence upon information to create innovation and change, places a high premium on the ability of (developing countries) nations to access and use information to create advances in society. The development of countries globally cannot be achieved without the development of the rural communities. This is because according to him, 75 – 80 percent of the people in developing countries live in the rural areas and need positive, relevant and prompt attention in their daily activities. Development can only be effective if rural dwellers have access to the relevant, diverse information for their activities. Rural development is a basis for economic development and information is an important ingredient in development process. Petty traders, whether literate or not should have access to any kind of information which will help them to become capable and productive in their business and to become better informed citizens generally. Harande (2009) further noted that the use of information by rural communities determines their level of awareness, progress, and success in life and success of rural development programmes depends on effective use of information in daily activities. This view is applicable to petty traders in rural communities.

Cooperative actions should be taken to ensure the availability of information and use for sustainability of petty trade.

e) Information Use and Sustainability of Petty Trade

Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary defined trade as "the business of buying and selling, to engage in the exchange, purchases, or sale of goods". Therefore, petty trade is the buying and selling of goods or services in a small scale. It also defined sustainability as "of, relating to, or being a method of harvesting or using a resource so that the resource is not depleted or permanently damaged". Sustainability as the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. This concept of sustainability encompasses ideas, aspirations and values that continue to inspire individual, public and private organizations to become better stewards of the environment and promote positive economic growth and social objective (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency).

The lives of individuals and families depend to a certain extent on the quality of information at their disposal and the purpose for which it is used. Accessibility to appropriate information is equally important for its use on daily activities. According to Aboyade (1987), information is very important in strengthening the link and achieving the integration of various social groups so they can develop together as a cohesive and well organized community. The author further stressed that one of the more pervading characteristics of underdeveloped countries is the heterogeneity (diverse constituents) of conditions found in them. Many of them remain under-developed because they have not been able to integrate effectively a sufficient mass population to achieve the type of change-generating interaction needed to move the social system to new and desirable heights. In order to reduce the high degree of heterogeneity, there must be constant flow of information availability and use at the disposal of the people to cover such processes of national integration. It is this recognized capacity of information availability, accessibility and use that facilitates and brings about significant structural changes within country that makes it so vital in the development process, of which integrated rural development is an important aspect.

Popoola (1998) observed that the growing importance of information to the operation of economic activity and the flexibility offered by the use of information and communication technologies had led many researchers to comment on actual or potential integration of economy on a global scale. To achieve sustainability in petty trade, there should be emphasis on the flow of information and use in every dimension. Information should flow down from the very top policy makers to the grass root level, and vice versa, upward from the masses to the policy makers to facilitate continuous interaction. The different groups involved in the development process such as policy makers, project managers and staff, change agents and the rural people themselves will need to have information about each other so they do not work at cross purposes. They also require adequate information about their own particular assignment or objects of focus. Aboyade (1987) states that farmers need to have information on specific supplies required on their farm. They need to know where, when and how to obtain fertilizer, pesticides, seeds, mechanical equipment and other farm inputs through purchase or lease. They will need to know prices, the names of suppliers in their areas and how to satisfy other conditions for obtaining them. They will also require information on the sustainability of different types of their products. These conditions are very applicable to petty traders who require information on different goods or product they are dealing on, how

to raise capital and increase their market: how to attract customers; where, when, and how to make maximum profit; and method of advertising their market as well as being able to sustain their trade. Therefore, it calls for availability and use of information to be able to achieve these objectives.

VI. Methodology

Descriptive survey research was adopted in the study. The population is made up of petty traders in Ikenne Local Government, Ogun State Nigeria, estimated to be about 500. The sample size for the study was 300 which are 60% of the estimated population. The stratified random sampling technique was used in selecting the 300 participants in the study.

Research data was collected with a structured questionnaire which was distributed and collected by the researchers. Out of 300 copies of the questionnaire distributed to the respondents, 280 (93.3%) copies were dully completed and returned. Descriptive statistics involving frequency count and percentages was employed to analyze the data.

V. Findings

The main objective of this study is to establish the sources, availability and use of information by petty traders in Ikenne Local Government Area, Ogun State Nigeria. Precisely, a total of 300 questionnaire were administered to the respondents, 280 copies of the questionnaire were duly completed and returned representing 93.3% of the respondents.

Table 1: Showing the distribution of the respondents by sex

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	85	30.4
Female	195	69.6
Total	180	100.0

Majority of the respondents were female 195(69.6%)

Table 2 : Indicating distribution of respondents by marital status.

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	170	60.7
Single	110	39.3
Total	180	100.0

There were more married 170(60.7%) than single respondents 110(39.3%).

Table 3 : Showing the age distribution of the respondents.

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20 – 30years	60	21.4
31 – 40years	63	22.5
41 – 50years	70	25
51 – 60years	45	16.1
60years and above	42	15
Total	180	100.0

Table 3 indicates that the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 41 – 50years, followed by ages 31 – 40years, and 20 – 30 years.

Table 4 : Distribution of respondents by qualification

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage.
SSCE, WAEC, GCE, NECO	142	50.7
OND, HND, NCE, Diploma	88	31.4
Degree	28	10.0
Primary School Living Cert.	22	7.9
Total	280	100.0

Notes: **WEAC:** West African Examination Council; **GCE:** General Certificate of Education; **NECO:** National Examination Council; **SSCE:** Senior School Certificate Examination; **OND:** Ordinary National Diploma; **HND:** Higher National Diploma; **NCE:** National Certificate of Education and First School Living Certificate.

Majority of the respondents were **SSCE, WAEC, GCE, NECO** 142(50.7%) and **OND, HND, NCE,** and **NECO** holders 88(31.4%).

Research Question 1: What Information Sources are Available to Petty Traders in Ikenne Local Government?

Table 5 : Showing the Information Sources Available to the respondents

Information Sources	Very Readily Available	Readily Available	Occasionally Available	Not Available
Reports	72(25.7%)	48(17.1%)	60(21.4%)	100(35.7%)
Voucher	52(18.6%)	56(20%)	82(29.3)	90(32.1%)
Minutes of meetings	72(25.7%)	124(44.3%)	60(21.4%)	24(8.6%)
Newspapers	58(20.7%)	56(20%)	78(27.9%)	88(31.4%)
Policy Papers	86(30.7%)	122(43.6%)	50(17.9%)	22(7.8%)
Television	55(19.6%)	63(22.5%)	82(29.3%)	80(28.6%)
Radio	90(32.1%)	82(29.3%)	80(28.6%)	28(10%)

Magazines	34(12.1%)	49(17.5%)	62(22.1%)	135(48.3%)
Market Association	146(52.1%)	93(33.3%)	21(7.5%)	20(7.1%)

Information sources very readily available to the respondents were market association 146(52.1%), radio 90(32.1%) and policy papers 86(30.7%).

Research Question 2: What Information Sources Do Petty Traders in Ikenne Local Government Area Utilized?

Table 6 : Presenting information sources utilized by the respondents

Information Sources Used	Very Highly Utilized	Highly Utilized	Utilized	Not Utilized
Reports	50(17.9%)	44(15.7%)	46(16.4%)	140(50%)
Voucher	50(17.7%)	45(16.0%)	50(17.9%)	135(48.2%)
Minutes of meetings	148(52.9%)	32(11.4%)	58(20.7%)	42(15%)
Newspapers	37(13.2%)	93(33.2%)	70(25%)	80(28.6%)
Policy Papers	64(22.9%)	90(32.1%)	92(32.9%)	34(12.1%)
Television	51(18.2%)	89(31.8%)	46(16.4%)	94(33.6%)
Radio	64(22.9%)	70(25%)	79(28.2%)	67(23.9%)
Magazines	84(30%)	66(23.6%)	87(31.0%)	43(15.4%)
Market Association	130(46.4%)	68(24.3%)	45(16.1%)	37(13.2%)

The above table shows that information sources highly utilized by the respondents were minutes of meetings 148(52.9%) , market association 130(46.4%), and magazines 84(30%).

Research Question 3: What are Information Sources Preferred by the Respondents?

Table 7: Presenting information sources preferred by the respondents

Information Sources Preferred	Highly Preferred	Preferred	Not Preferred	Undecided
Reports 68(24.3%)	52(18.5%)	129(46.1%)	31(11.1%)	
Voucher 50(17.8%)	74(26.4%)	119(42.5%)	37(13.3%)	
Minutes of meetings	87(31.1%)	76(27.1%)	72(25.7%)	45(16.1%)
Newspapers	64(22.9%)	66(23.6%)	123(43.9%)	27(9.6%)
Policy Papers	70(25%)	105(37.5%)	78(27.9%)	27(9.6%)
Television	56(20%)	102(36.4%)	83(29.6%)	39(13.9%)
Radio	82(29.3%)	72(25.7%)	87(31.1%)	39(13.9%)
Magazines	83(29.6%)	76(27.1%)	67(23.9%)	54(19.3%)
Market Association	131(46.8%)	84(30%)	40(14.3%)	25(8.9%)

The respondents highly preferred market association information 131(46.8%) to minutes of meetings of various association 87(31.1%), and radio and magazines 82(29.3%) in that order.

Research Question 4: What are the Perceived Effect of Information Use on Petty Traders in Ikenne Local Government Area?

Table 8: Showing the Perceived Effect of Information Use on the Respondents

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Information use has made my trade to grow.	115(41.1%)	104(37.1%)	13(11.1%)	30(10.7%)
It assists in increasing my profit.	135(48.2%)	82(29.3%)	33(11.8%)	30(10.7%)
It assists in obtaining loan to support my business.	98(35%)	100(35.7%	49(17.5%	33(11.8%)
It helps me to attract more customers.	91(32.5%)	98(35%)	47(16.8%	44(15.7%)

It assists me to organize my daily business activities.	92(32.9%)	79(28.2%)	61(21.8%)	48(17.1%)
It helps me to avoid giving credits to customers.	94(33.6%)	93(33.2%)	46(16.4%)	47(16.8%)
Information has helped me to make more savings.	115(41.1%)	32(11.4%)	82(29.3%)	51(18.2%)
Information helps me in solving critical business problems.	104(37.1%)	69(24.6%)	52(18.6%)	55(19.6%)
It helps me in taking critical decisions.	106(37.9%)	69(24.6%)	45(16.1%)	60(21.4%)

The perceived effect of information use on the respondents as indicated in table viii, shows that they strongly agree that information use assists in increasing their profit 135(48.2%); it helps their trade to grow and help them to make more savings 115(41.1%); it also helps them in taking critical decisions 106(37.9%) and solving critical business problems 104(37.9%).

VI. DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS

It is obvious as revealed in this study that petty traders lack access to proper and adequate information as the study shows that information sources available, utilized and preferred by the respondents were market association information, minutes of various meetings and radio. As the implication of this is that sustainability of petty trade and development in rural areas will not be achieve. As observed by Alegbeleye and Aina (1985) that development can only be achieved if rural dwellers have access to the relevant, diverse information for their activities. Also Okiy (2003) who noted that rural development is a basis for economic development and information is important ingredient in development process. People in rural areas whether literate or not should have access to any kind of information which will help them to become capable and productive in their social and political obligations to become better informed citizens. Etebu 's (2009) viewed in his statement that to make information useful in development, it is important to take a closer look at information seeking behavior of rural people used to oral tradition. Also Meyer (2003) observed that incoming information was better understood and accepted when the messages were communicated in a way which they could identify. To this end, sustainability of petty trade cannot be achieved without access and utilization of information.

VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The availability and utilization of information sources is a very important issue which should be given undivided attention for development and sustainability of the nation especially in the rural areas. It offers great opportunities to improve the quality of petty trade.

The main sources of information available, preferred and utilized by the petty traders in Ikenne Local Government of Ogun State, Nigeria were market association, minutes of various meetings and radio. There is, therefore, the need to sensitize the traders of the importance of making effective use of other information sources for the development of their trade. Public libraries and information centers, for example, have potentials for meeting the traders' information needs once they are patronized. To achieve this, information outreach, seminars and workshops in Yoruba, the native languages, display of posters that will encourage information use, as this will go a long way to assist in the development and sustainability of petty trade for national development.

REFERENCES RÉFÉRENCES REFERENCIAS

1. Aboyade, B.O. (1987). The provision of Information for Rural Development Ibadan : Fountain Publications. pp 16.
2. Aiyepeku, W.O. (1992). The Human Resource Africa. 6th IFLA General Conference, August 16 Information System – A paper presented at the National Conference on Health Management Information System, Abuja. pp. 1-16.
3. Alegbeleye, G.O. (1998). Paradigm shift in the provision of library and information services in 21, 1995. http://www.ifla.org/iv/ifla64/145-78e.htm. – 42(5). 351 360.
4. Bell, D. (1979). Communication technology: for better, for worse. Harvard Business Review 57(95) 4.
5. Buckland, M.K. (1991). Information as thing. Journal of the American Society for Information Science, Requirements of a National Health Management
6. Choo, C.W. (1995). Information Management for the Intelligent Organization: Roles and Implications for the Information Professions. Paper Presented at the 1995 Digital Libraries Conference, March 27 – 28, Singapore.
7. Diso, L.I. (1994). Information policies and government guidance in Nigeria: What hope for Communities? Resource Sharing and Information Networks, 9(2): 141-151.
8. Etebu, A.T. (2009). Information for rural communities: a solution for sustainable development in Niger Delta. Library Philosophy and Practice.
9. Information Need and Seeking Behaviour of Students in Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria: A Case Haliso, Y.L. and Okwilagwe, O.A. (2003). Today: Journal of the Faculty of Education & Humanities, Babcock University Nigeria.
10. Harande, Y.I. (2009). Information services for rural

community development in Nigeria. Library Philosophy and Practice.

11. Lipson, H.F. and Fisher, D.A. (1999). Sustainability; A New Technical And Business Perspective on Security (Election Version). Proceeding of the 1999 workshop on New Security Paradigm, Canada. p. 33-39.

12. Martin, A.P. (2003). Key Determinants of Information Availability: A multiple case study. A Thesis Presented to the Dept. of Inf. Systems. And Quantitative Analysis and the Faculty of the Graduate College University of Nebraska.

13. Meyer, H.W.J. (2000). The transfer of agricultural information to rural communities. Unpublished Tertiary Education Students in Africa Ibadan: Third South Africa.

14. Ojedotun, A.A. (2007). Information Literacy for doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, World Information Services Ltd. Pp. 14-20.

15. Okiy, R.B. (2003). Information for rural development: Challenge for Nigerian rural public libraries. Library Review, 52(3): 126-131.

16. Onasanya, S.A. (2004). The History of Ilisan-Remo 1450-2004 AD and Bakode University 1959-2004. pp. 7 and 8.

17. Popoola, S.O. (1998). Planning and Management of Information Sector for Sustainable Development in Nigeria. Journal of Research in Education, 2(1). pp. 128-136.

18. Popoola, S.O (2008). The Use of Information Sources and Services And its Effect on the Research Output of Social Scientists in Nigerian Universities. Library Philosophy.and Practice. SUNGARD: Availability Services "Information Availability: Finding The Solution that Works for You.

19. Uhegbu, A.N. (2007). The Information User: Issues and Themes. Okigwe: Whytem Publishers Nigeria. pp 105 -108.

20. The University of Tennessee Libraries (2005) Communication Studies 210: Finding Information for Speeches, Types of Information Sources. John C. Hodges Library.

21. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency "Sustainability" HYPERLINK http://www.epa.gov /sustainability/basicinfo.htm.

Social Knowledge and the Role of Inductive Inference: An Appraisal of Two Contemporary Approaches

By Kevin Kimble

National Chung-Cheng University Taiwan

Abstract – Part of the intellectual legacy left behind by David Hume is a powerful skeptical argument which casts doubts on the validity (or, more appropriately, justification) of a basic form of inductive inference. Brian Skyrms and Laurence Bonjour have outlined several possible defenses of what they call the inductive principle **(IP),** in response to the broader Humean challenge. In this paper I elaborate Skyrms' inductive justification and pragmatic defense of **IP,** as well as Bonjour's novel a priori argument for **IP.** In the course of critically assessing the cogency of these three strategies, I argue that each one is problematic and fails to provide an adequate defense of **IP.** I conclude by briefly considering what would beminimally required for a serious rebuttal to the skeptical argument.

GJHSS C Classification : FOR Code: 160801, 180115

SOCIAL KNOWLEDGE AND THE ROLE OF INDUCTIVE INFERENCE AN APPRAISAL OF TWO CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Social Knowledge and the Role of Inductive Inference: An Appraisal of Two Contemporary Approaches

Kevin Kimble

Abstract - Part of the intellectual legacy left behind by David Hume is a powerful skeptical argument which casts doubts on the validity (or, more appropriately, justification) of a basic form of inductive inference. Brian Skyrms and Laurence Bonjour have outlined several possible defenses of what they call the inductive principle **(IP)**, in response to the broader Humean challenge. In this paper I elaborate Skyrms' inductive justification and pragmatic defense of **IP**, as well as Bonjour's novel a priori argument for **IP**. In the course of critically assessing the cogency of these three strategies, I argue that each one is problematic and fails to provide an adequate defense of **IP**. I conclude by briefly considering what would be minimally required for a serious rebuttal to the skeptical argument.

I. Introduction: The Humean Challenge

Part of the intellectual legacy left behind by David Hume is a powerful skeptical argument which casts doubts on the validity (or, more appropriately, justification) of one our basic forms of reasoning. In science as well as in every day affairs, we find it both necessary and useful to make predictions, or to draw inferences based upon observation and experience. For instance, I believe that another morning will be followed by another night, or that the food which has nourished me in times past will also nourish me when I partake of my next meal. In general, the process which underlies such reasoning goes something like this: all other things being equal, given that m/n observed instances or events of type **A** are or have been **B**, we can infer that m/n **A**'s are (or have) **B**. Lets call this the Inductive Principle **(IP)**. Very roughly put, unobserved cases or instances of a certain type will resemble observed cases or instances of the same or similar type. The basic inferential structure of inductive reasoning will be captured by a principle such as **(IP)** (or, maybe more accurately, a family of related principles). Systems of inductive logic formulate rules which assign inductive probabilities to arguments based on the strength of the evidence or degree of support that the premise(s) provide for the conclusion. Arguments which are assigned a high inductive probability will yield true conclusions from true premises most of the time.

Now Hume claims that making inductive inferences is a habit or custom which is part and parcel of the way we reason. Whether self-consciously or unreflectively, we utilize this process in acquiring, maintaining, revising, and discarding beliefs about what is either unobserved or as yet future to us. But what justifies us in reasoning this way? Is there any rationale for thinking that drawing inferences on the basis of **(IP)**, or assigning high inductive probabilities to arguments from some system of inductive logic **S** having rules **R**, will give us conclusions that are likely to be true given that the premise(s) are true (or that the probability of a certain conclusion, given that the premise(s) are true, is at least greater than it would be otherwise)? This in a nutshell is the traditional problem of induction. In section IV of An Enquiry Concerning Human understanding, Hume offers an argument (maybe more than one) which purports to show that there is no rational justification for inductive reasoning. One key passage goes as follows:

"[Past experience] can be allowed to give direct and certain information of those precise objects only, and that precise period of time, which fell under its cognizance; but why this experience should be extended to future times, and to other objects, which for aught we know, may be only in appearance similar; this is the main question on which I would insist... The consequence seems nowise necessary... I shall allow, if you please, that the one proposition may be justly inferred from the other; I know, in fact, that it always is inferred. But if you insist that the inference is made by a chain of reasoning, I desire you to produce that reasoning. The connexion between these propositions is not intuitive."

Relations among matters of fact are not necessary. It is always possible that the future be unlike the past, or that unobserved cases of a certain sort not resemble observed cases of a similar sort. So it is clear that no piece of demonstrative reasoning can establish either **(IP)** or any inductive conclusion. Similarly,

"When a man says, 'I have found, in all past instances, such sensible qualities conjoined with such secret powers; [thus] similar sensible qualities will always be conjoined with similarly secret powers', he is not guilty of a tautology, nor are these propositions in any respect the same. You say that the one proposition is an inference from the other. But you must confess that the inference is not intuitive; neither is it demonstrative. Of what nature is it, then? To say it is experimental, is begging the question. For all inferences from experience suppose, as their foundation, that the future will

Author : National Chung-Cheng University, Taiwan

resemble the past, and that similar powers will be conjoined with similar sensible qualities. If there be any suspicion that the course of nature may change, and that the past may be no rule for the future, all experience becomes useless, and can give rise to no inference or conclusion. It is impossible, therefore, that any arguments from experience can prove this resemblance of the past to the future; since all these arguments are founded on the supposition of that resemblance."

Although Hume's focus is narrower in the sense that he is primarily concerned with inferences from cause to effect, his argument can be construed more broadly. On the one hand, Hume says that we cannot justify (IP) or inductive reasoning by means of any a-priori demonstration. In a valid deductive argument, the conclusion can make no factual claim that is not already implicitly contained in the premises. But the premises of an inductive argument contain only information about past and present events or states of affairs which have been observed. Thus a deductively derived conclusion cannot go beyond this to make claims about future or unobserved happenings. But it is precisely these sorts of claims that characterize (IP) and inductive reasoning; so it looks like there is no way (IP) or any inductive system S can be justified deductively.

On the other hand, as the second half of the passage quoted above contends, induction cannot be justified by means of an inductive argument either. Any inductive argument will have to assume in advance that (IP) or S is reliable in order to prove that (IP) or induction is justified, and this amounts to circular reasoning. One might argue that (IP) or S is justified because it has a good track record, and since it has worked in the past it will continue to work in the future. But this argument is an inductive argument which itself either incorporates some form of (IP), or has been assigned a high inductive probability by certain rules of S, the system whose justification is the very point at issue. It might be said that the argument does not appeal to (IP) but rather to the principle of the uniformity of nature (UN); however, even assuming that an adequate version of this principle could be formulated, the only way (UN) itself could be justified is by prior appeal to (IP) or S.

So the Humean challenge can be viewed as a kind of dilemma which runs roughly as follows:

P1: If inductive reasoning is to be rationally justified, such justification must take the form of either a valid deductive argument or else a strong inductive argument.
P2: It is impossible to justify induction by means of a valid deductive argument.
P3: It is impossible to justify induction by means of a valid inductive argument.
C: Therefore, inductive reasoning is not rationally justified.

What are we to make of the skeptical argument? In a lecture delivered in1926, C. D. Broad described the failure of philosophers to solve the problem of induction as "the scandal of Philosophy." In more recent times, there have been various attempts to block the argument which have focused on denying one or more of the above premises. In general, there have been four very different sorts of strategies proposed as solutions to the problem of how to justify inductive reasoning: the inductive justification, the pragmatic justification, the ordinary language justification, and the a-priori justification. We will now take a closer look at each of these in turn.

II. The Inductive Justification

a) Skyrms' proposal

An inductive strategy attacks P3 head on and purports to show that an inductive justification for inductive reasoning can be given which is non-question begging. The claim is that such a justification only appears to beg the question, because it is easy to overlook a distinction between different levels of inductive argument. At the first level inductive arguments are applied to things and events in the world, at the second level inductive argumentation is applied to arguments on the first level, at the third level induction is applied to arguments on the second level, and so on. Each of these levels constitutes a "distinct, logically autonomous mode of argument" employing its own distinct inductive principles, so that the arguments on each level can be justified in a non-circular way by appealing to arguments at the next higher level. What this amounts to is that whereas level 1 will consist of inductive arguments about phenomena in the world, every level k greater than 1 will consist of inductive arguments about other inductive arguments on level $k-1$ (that is, arguments justifying the "success" of the rules used on level $k-1$), plus rules for assigning inductive probabilities to arguments on its own level, k. So a system S of inductive logic is rationally justified if for every level k of rules of S, there is an argument on level $k+1$ which i) is adjudged inductively strong by the rules of level $k+1$, and ii) has as its conclusion the statement that S's rules at level k will continue to assign high inductive probabilities to arguments whose conclusions turn out to be true. In justifying inferences made at any level, appeal is made to inductive rules at the next higher level which are not numerically the same as the rules used on the original level. For instance, in justifying the rules of level 1, the proponent of the present argument does not presuppose that these particular rules R1 will continue to work, but rather she advances an argument on level 2, together with its corresponding rules R2, to show that rules R1 will continue to work. Thus none of the arguments employed in the inductive justification of induction presuppose what they are trying to prove, and so this method of justification does not technically beg the question.

b) Problems with the inductive justification

Does the inductive strategy successfully rebut the charge of circularity? It seems clear that there is no circular argument in the technical or formal sense. Let's say that, roughly, an argument is circular when R, S, T, etc. are statements which (allegedly) jointly support some conclusion C (one or more of R, S, T may be explicit premises, or they may be suppressed premises or assumptions which are necessary for the argument to go through), and at least one member of R, S, T... just is C (expresses the same proposition as C). Given the way in which the above strategy is deployed, the inductive rules or principles used on the various levels of argumentation are numerically distinct. An argument at some level k would beg the question (technically) only if it employed the exact same rule or principle it was trying to justify. Yet notice that in the present strategy, the rules are distinct only in a trivial way. For any level k greater than 1, the inductive arguments on that level will all have the following form:

Level k argument:

Arguments on level k-1, which according to rules Rk-1 are inductively strong, have yielded true conclusions from true premises most of the time.

Therefore, arguments on level k-1 will yield true conclusions next time.

The sole difference between arguments on any two levels is their reference to arguments of the exact same type on the level right below them. Apart from the purely trivial difference that the arguments are assigned a certain "level", the arguments are exactly alike. They differ not one iota in form or content. And since the "rules" are strictly about the arguments themselves, they too differ only trivially. Any two levels of rules Rk and Rk-1 differ only in that they are assigned a unique number corresponding to the "level of argument" on which they are employed; there is no intrinsic or qualitative difference between the arguments or rules themselves at the various levels. In fact, the "rules" at each level are merely instances of a more general rule, e.g. 'for any inductive rule R which assigns inductive probabilities to arguments on some level k, if R worked well in the past, then R will work well next time.' All of the "level-specific" rules are instances of this general rule and presuppose it; and the only way to justify this general rule is by appealing to the very rule itself. If the general rule stated above is not epistemically justified, then none of its specific instances are justified either. Perhaps I follow a "rule" about bicycle riding which tells me 'When you're on Maple street and want to veer left, gradually turn your handle bars to the left and lean left,' and another "rule" which says 'When you're on Elm street and want to veer left, gradually turn your handle bars to the left and lean left.' But in the end aren't they either the same rule or else instances of a more general rule, such as 'When you're on a level, well-paved road and want to veer in a certain direction, gradually turn your handle bars in that direction and lean in that direction'? And if the more general bicycle rule is not "justified", then how can the two specific instances be "justified"? So it still appears that the inductive justification of induction is circular in a way that undermines its cogency.

Maybe the foregoing discussion is really much ado about nothing; for there is another reply which many take to be a decisive refutation of the inductive strategy. Recall how the inductivist posits a distinction between various "levels" of argument and and the unique rules of inference which operate at each particular level. A system of inductive logic is justified if there is an argument on each level which is adjudged inductively strong by rule(s) on the same level, and has as its conclusion the statement that the rule(s) which are employed on the level directly below it will continue to assign high inductive probabilities to arguments whose conclusions turn out to be true. But couldn't a completely different (and even incompatible) system of inductive logic utilize this same procedure in justifying its system? There might be a system which presupposes the denial of (UN); call this a system of counterinductive logic. Such a system will assign high inductive probabilities to level 1 arguments which instantiate the following argument form: Many A's have been observed and they have all been B; therefore, the next A will not be B. Then an inductive justification could be given for the rules of level 1 by offering this level 2 argument: level 1 rules of counterinductive logic have not worked well in the past; therefore, level 1 rules will work well next time. Based on the counterinductivist's own level 2 rules, this level 2 argument is inductively strong and can in turn be justified by a similar argument on level 3, and so on. In general, for each level of argument k, there will be counterinductive rules on level k which assign high inductive probabilities to arguments of the following type: Rules of level k-1 of counter- inductive logic have not worked well in the past; therefore, level k-1 rules will work next time. Thus, an inductive justification of a counterinductive system S' of rules and arguments can be carried out in parallel fashion, and will meet the same criteria laid out for the system S of (scientific) inductive logic. Yet the fact that S and S' are inconsistent with one another shows that this method of justification is sorely inadequate. The inductive justification of induction is an example of a self-validating procedure, and while such procedures may not always be suspect, the case of induction shows that it can validate something illigitimate. Thus the inductive justification of induction fails.

One final objection to the inductive approach is that appealing to various levels of rules and arguments leads to an infinite regress of inferences, so that there is ultimately no justification for induction. The ready reply to this is that if every level of rules is justified, then the whole system is justified, and it makes no sense to demand justification for the system over and above

each of its parts. I find this sort of answer, in spite of its "Russellian" ring, to be quite implausible. One reason might be that justification is an epistemological notion, involving one's actual beliefs and noetic structure. Justification is always for someone. Now no one, except God perhaps, is capable of holding an infinite chain of beliefs. Returning to the inductive justification of induction, since a person can only hold a finite number of inferences, his beliefs can only stretch back to some level, say the nth level of argument for induction. So the nth level and thus every level below it will fail to be justified, in virtue of the fact that he doesn't hold the n+1th level of argument, which would be required to justify his believing n. But at second glance this reasoning seems somewhat dubious. For although one could not actually, psychologically form or hold a chain of beliefs proceeding to infinity, could not one simply claim that there is such a series of inferences, and that since he understands how the reasoning at each step goes, he is thus able to grasp the chain of argument itself as a whole, and is thereby justified in believing its conclusion? I don't see why not.

Maybe the following line of argument is a bit more tenable. In the inductive justification of induction, epistemic justification is transferred via the inferences from beliefs about arguments on one level to beliefs about arguments on the next level below it. The transfer of justification is a transitive relation. But justification itself is not generated or increased by virtue of this linear transfer of warrant or justification. Each belief must already possess a certain amount of warrant or justification in order to transfer that justification. But what then is the ultimate source of this warrant? It must be a basic belief or set of beliefs which are already epistemically justified and which form the starting point of the inferential chain. It follows from this that an infinite (linear) chain of beliefs and inferences can never generate the warrant or justification that is allegedly transmitted along that chain. Now it is not difficult to see that the inductive justification approach accounts only for warrant transfer, in as much as it posits an infinite linear chain of inferences in order to justify induction at each level, but has no way to account for the initial generation of the warrant that is transfered between beliefs within the chain. Thus none of the inferences in the overall argument are epistemically justified, and so the inductive strategy fails.

Another way of highlighting the same basic point is to see that an infinite epistemic chain could be imagined which provides justification for any proposition or belief **B** whatsoever, no matter how absurdly false the belief might be. Let **B** be the belief that Chris can run 50 miles per hour. It would be easy enough to imagine a linear series of beliefs to support **B**. I could do this, for instance, by claiming to hold the following belief **C**: If Chris can run 51 miles per hour, then he can run 50 miles per hour. Then I could affirm the antecedent of **C** and go on to back that belief up with yet another belief

D: If Chris can run 52 miles per hour, then he can run 51 miles per hour. And so on, the argument would go. The point is that if my series of beliefs could be infinite, there would be no way to "catch" me with a claim that I couldn't back up. So I would be justified in believing the original **B**, namely that Chris can run 50 miles per hour. Thus it seems prima facie unreasonable to count as rationally justified any argument or inferential process that contains an infinite, linear series of beliefs or inferences which provide the sole justification for that argument.

III. THE PRAGMATIC AND ORDINARY LANGUAGE JUSTIFICATIONS OF INDUCTION

a) Skyrms and Bonjour's defense of the pragmatic argument

Another way to disable the Humean argument is to deny the second premise. This is the tact taken by proponents of the pragmatic justification of induction. Both Bonjour and Skyrms focus their discussion on a version of the solution originally developed by Hans Reichenbach. Many of our beliefs, decisions, and predictions can be likened to a bet made in a gambling situation. We do not know that our inductive inferences lead to conclusions that are likely to be true. (IP) presupposes that the proportion of **A**'s that are **B**'s will converge in the long run on some mathmatical limit m/n as the number of observed instances of **A** approaches infinity. The problem is that no one knows whether such a limit really exists, or whether the proportion will simply vary at random and not approach m/n (because we don't know that nature is uniform). But what we can know, according to the proponent of **PJI**, is that if there is such a limit, then the inductive method will discover it. In other words, we can give a kind of "conditional" justification of a (scientific) system of induction **S** by showing that if any method of induction will be successful, then **S** will also be successful. Suppose that some inductive method **X** were successful in a chaotic universe. Then the universe would exhibit uniformity in this one way (i.e. the uniformity of **X**'s success), so that sooner or later **S** would discover **X**'s reliability and "license" **X** as a method of induction. Thus if any inductive method will be successful, then **S** will. So **S** is rationally justified because it seems rational to bet on the method that will work if any method will.

b) Problems with the pragmatic justification

What should we say about **PJI**? First, as its proponents are willing to grant, it only shows that scientific induction is at best conditionally justified. But what is the justification for, or the likelihood that the antecedent of the conditional conclusion is true? If there is no reason for first believing that some inductive method will succeed, then there can be no justification for thinking that **S** will. Thus even if the above argument for **PJI** is sound, it does nothing to answer the original

Humean worry about induction; **P2** of the skeptical challenge emerges unscathed. As Bonjour argues, the conclusion of **PJI** is fully compatible with the "deepest degree of skepticism" concerning matters of reasoning and scientific inquiry. This strategy yields absolutely no reason at all for thinking that inductive conclusions are to any degree likely to be true; thus it does not even begin to address the basic skeptical worry about induction.

Second, it appears that the argument advanced by the proponents of **PJI** fails to establish its conclusion after all. Suppose that method **X** assigns high inductive probabilities to level 1 arguments whose conclusions are usually true when the premises are true. Then in the longer run, as its premise comes to be verified as true, S will produce the following argument on level 2: 'Level 1 rules of **X** have been reliable in the past; therefore, level 1 rules of **X** will be reliable in the future.' So what the argument for **PJI** shows is that if **X** has rules that work well on level 1, then **S** can provide justification for those rules on level 2. But this falls drastically short of the conclusion of the present argument, which is that if **X** works well on level 1, then **S** will also work on level 1. More generally, what the supporter of **PJI** needs to demonstrate is 'For every level **k**, if any method of induction will be successful at level **k**, then scientific induction will be successful at level **k**.' But what the pragmatist has succeeded in showing is only the weaker claim that 'For every level **k**, if any method of induction is successful at level **k**, then scientific induction will license an argument at level **k+1** which justifies the method used on level **k**.' And the former is clearly not entailed by the latter. It is still possible that scientific induction work on one level and yet fail to work on the level below it. Thus the argument offered for the pragmatic justification of induction (**PJI**) fails to demonstrate its conclusion.

c)   The "ordinary language" defense of Induction

Another type of strategy attempts to refute **P1** of Hume's argument by "dissolving" the problem of induction, claiming that no argument is needed to justify inductive reasoning. According to this view, the traditional problem of induction is a "pseudo-problem" that goes away once it is realized that it makes no sense to demand a justification for induction. One reason sometimes given is that such a demand tacitly requires the defender of induction to provide some logical guarantee that inductively strong arguments will give true conclusions from true premises all the time. However, demanding this type of proof or certainty is outrageous and unreasonable, because inductive logic by its very nature falls short of deductive validity. Inductive arguments are measured in terms of inductive strength or probability, a type of standard which is legitimate in its own right and capable of conferring positive epistemic status on arguments which conform to it to a high enough degree. Once this is seen, the demand for a justification of induction is ridiculous.

Now this type of dissolution of the problem of induction exhibits a considerable amount of confusion and blatantly misrepresents the Humean challenge. In order for some account to qualify as a rational justification of the inductive method, the skeptic is in no way demanding that arguments which are judged to be inductively strong by some inductive system should always produce true conclusions. Rather, the skeptic only claims that what is needed for justification is that arguments with high inductive probability produce true conclusions from true premises most of the time. What he wants is a sound reason for thinking that inductively strong arguments will not often lead to false conclusions. And this does seem like a reasonable request on the part of the skeptic, and one which accepts at face value the legitimacy of autonomous standards for evaluating arguments that do not satisfy the conditions for deductive certainty.

Another type of linguistic approach argues that it is senseless to ask for a justification of induction, either because part of the meaning of 'being rational' just is accepting inductive reasoning, or because inductive reasoning is an essential part of the machinery for rational discussion. Suppose that a person were to base his inferences and decisions on counterinductive logic, or on visions of the future that come upon him while asleep. We would certainly judge that person to be irrational, and our assessment of him would be at least partially based on the fact that he does not form his expectations and decisions in accordance with the inductive method. These examples show that inductive reasoning is a standard of rationality, part of what we mean by being rational. To ask the question "Why is it rational to accept inductive reasoning?" is a lot like asking why someone's father is male; anyone who really understands what is involved would never pose the question.

Bonjour examines a version of this type of argument originally put forth by Strawson:

1)   Believing in accordance with strong evidence is believing reasonably.
2)   Believing in accordance with inductive standards is believing in accordance with strong evidence.
3)   Therefore, believing in accordance with inductive standards is believing reasonably.

Strawson claims that the two premises are analytic in virtue of the ordinary usage of the expressions in question. As Bonjour points out, however, the conclusion can't be analytic if it is to have any force. If the conclusion is not analytic, then the phrase 'believing reasonably' might have the epistemically strong sense of 'good reason to think the belief likely to be true' (lets call this epistemically strong sense 'being **S-rational**'); but taking it that way would beg the question. On the other hand, if the conclusion is analytic, then 'believing reasonably' cannot be construed in the strong sense above, and therefore

does not offer a real reply to the skeptic. So either one of the premises is not an analytic truth, or else the argument is guilty of equivocation. Thus there is a serious flaw in the argument. But just where exactly has the argument gone wrong?

One possibility, suggested by Bonjour, is that the argument equivocates on the phrase "believing in accordance with strong evidence". For (1) to be analytic (given Bonjour's epistemically "strong" ("S-rational") sense of "believing reasonably"), the phrase must be construed as "believing in accordance with evidence that actually establishes a strong likelihood that the belief is true" (lets call this "strong" sense 'believing in accordance with S-evidence'); whereas for (2) to be analytic the phrase must mean "believing when the evidence is strong according to generally accepted standards" (lets call this the "weak" sense). Taken this way, (3) does not validly follow from (1) and (2). And if the second phrase in (2) is given the same sense as suggested for (1), the argument is made valid but ceases to be analytic and ends up begging the question; for the point at issue in the whole debate is whether or not following the inductive method provides evidence strong enough to establish the likelihood of the conclusion given that the premises are true.

d) Assessment of the "ordinary language" approach

Whether the skeptical question is "meaningless" depends in part on what is meant by the multifarious term "rational". Bonjour concedes that if the phrases "believing in accordance with strong evidence" and "believing reasonably" are taken in their "weak" senses throughout the argument, then the whole argument will go through. In this case, though, the argument loses it appeal, because this "weaker" conclusion is compatible with a thorough-going skepticism about induction. But why can't the argument go through if we retain the "strong" senses of the phrases given above throughout the argument? Remember, this is an argument about ordinary language. And our usage of the phrase "believing in accordance with inductive standards" means "believing in accordance with inductive standards which make a belief likely to be true" (or, we shall say, 'believing in accordance with S-inductive standards'). Who would take the phrase any other way? With this modification, and retaining the "strong" senses of each of the other phrases as construed above, we get the following argument:

(1*) Believing in accordance with S-evidence is believing S-rationally.
(2*) Believing in accordance with S- inductive standards is believing in accordance with S-evidence
(3*) Therefore, believing in accordance with S-inductive standards is believing S-rationally.

The revised argument is valid and all three statements are analytic. It might be objected that (2*) begs the question by defining inductive method in terms of yielding beliefs which are likely to be true. But that is how we use the term. Our association of the "strong" sense of 'evidence' with 'S-inductive standards' (and the reason why (2*) is analytic) is due to the fact that our notions of evidence and induction already imply the notion of truth conduciveness. We don't question or raise doubts in ordinary contexts about whether inductive standards yield true beliefs most of the time. The wording of (2*) accurately reflects the ordinary usage of 'inductive standards' and 'evidence'. Thus, following inductive standards or inductive reasoning is part of what we mean by rational belief (in the strong sense) after all, and so it is meaningless to ask for a rational justification of induction. So it looks like there is a "philosophically interesting" sense in which the linguistic argument is correct.

But someone might raise the query as to what justifies us, or how we know, that our use of the term 'inductive standards' corresponds to what actually is the case. Question 1: How do you know that inductive standards really are truth-conducive? Answer: because they have been in those cases which we can confirm by experience. Question 2: But how do you know that inductive standards will continue to be truth-conducive? Here we are right back to the original worry raised by Hume. We can simply leave out the term 'rational', and formulate the Humean challenge as a related question which can be meaningfully raised, and which highlights the central issue of the classical problem of induction: does inductive reasoning which assigns high probability to certain arguments actually yield true conclusions from true premises most of the time-- past, present and future? The linguistic argument does not provide an answer to this meaningful question; it stares us in the face regardless of how we proceed to define 'rational'.

A legitimate question can still be raised as to whether or not I am in fact obligated to demonstrate how I know that the inductive method is truth-conducive, that is, whether or not I must prove that it is in order for me to be S-rational. Perhaps I am epistemically obligated in some sense to provide an answer to Question 1 without being obligated in the same way to answer Question 2. Isn't it enough that it simply be true that strong inductive arguments will continue to yield true conclusions most of the time? Why do I need to produce any argument at all for this thesis if I am to be S-rational? What obligates me to do so? We shall return to this question at the end of the paper.

Skyrms seems to argue that in order for one to be "fully" rational, she needs to be able to offer some sort of answer to Question 2. It is not good enough for her to call herself 'rational' just because part of the definition of being rational simply is reasoning inductively. The Omegas have their own form of 'rationality' which they call brationality. He uses this example to show that on the linguistic solution you can

define rationality in any way you want and thereby insulate yourself from criticism and rational discussion. And surely it is dubious at best to claim that your inductive policies are "rational" just because of the way they are built into your definition. But, Skyrms says, this is just what the ordinary language approach implies. If you let language define what it means to be rational, then you have no independent criterion by which to convince the Omegas that rationality is superior to brationality. But just how is this relevant to the problem of induction? Skyrms seems to be making two claims here. First, to be ideally rational or fully justified in accepting inductive logic, one should be able to convince others why they should accept induction. Second, one should have some independent criterion, which is not part of the definition of rationality itself, by which to do the convincing. Both of these claims can be plausibly denied. Skyrms' example does not show that I must be able to prove to anyone that rationality is superior to brationality in order for me to be S-rational. One's epistemic position with respect to some belief B appears to be independent of his ability to convince others to embrace B. Suppose that the Omegas are cannibals. Must I be able to articulate a convincing argument for the conclusion that killing and eating human flesh is wrong before I can be S-rational in believing that the practice in question is wrong? I think not. Moreover, I can be fully rational even if I have no neutral or independent criterion by means of which to assess the superiority of one system of "rationality" over the other. Perhaps there is no such criterion which is not already included in or implied by my own conception of rationality; so just how does that prevent me from being S-rational? Also, I do have a way from the inside by which to evaluate brationality-- I can say to the Omegas that induction generally has worked in those cases which can be confirmed from experience, whereas brationality has not (in other words, I have an answer to Question 1) . If I can show them that induction has been right more often than the predictions of their witch doctor, then surely that counts as something that sets rationality over brationality, even if I can't prove that being rational will work better in the future (or, even if I don't have a satisfactory answer to Question 2). Or perhaps we can confront the Omegas and appeal to their own natural propensities; they seem to believe in the future success of their witch doctors in spite of their bout of bad luck. Perhaps we can get the Omegas to see that they would be even more convinced of the success of their witch doctors if they were to consistently make successful predictions rather than be saddled with all that bad luck. Thus we could point out to them that they too have a natural inclination to follow some sort of rational inductive procedure. The upshot is that I don't need to be able to show that rationality will continue to work in the future in order to have good reason for thinking that rationality is superior to brationality, and I am certainly not obligated to convince anyone of this matter in order to be S-rational.

IV. Bonjour's A Priori Justification of Induction

a) Bonjour's a priori argument

We have seen that the inductive and pragmatic strategies of justifying induction fail in accomplishing the task set before them, while the ordinary language argument provides a partial solution, but fails to address a related epistemically significant question, and one which is at the very core of Humean skepticism about induction. Can an a-priori approach to justifying induction fare any better?

In chapter 7 of In Defense of Pure Reason, Bonjour sets out to build a case for an a-priori solution to the problem of induction. He begins the section with some preliminary comments concerning certain misconceptions about the nature of an a-priori justification of induction. First, contrary to what many people think, an a-priori approach need not (and indeed should not) attempt to prove that conclusions of inductive arguments follow from their premises with deductive certainty. Second, such a solution need not involve the implausible claim that some such principle as (IP) or (UN) is itself an a-priori truth (for how can one rule out a-priori the possibility of a chaotic universe?). Third, Bonjour rejects the appeal to the notion of "containment" which says that since inductive conclusions are not "contained" in their premises, they cannot be justified by a-priori reasoning. Bonjour contends that the only intelligible sense in which the conclusion of an a-priori argument must be contained in the premises is that it must genuinely follow from them. Finally, Bonjour notes that the concept of analytic truth, defined as one whose denial is a contradiction, should not be construed so narrowly as to rule out the possibility that the denial of an inductive conclusion which follows probabilistically from its inductive premise(s) might turn out to be necessarily false.

Bonjour begins the next section by outlining the basic ingredients that are required for an a-priori solution to the problem of induction: an a-priori reason for thinking that the conclusion of a standard inductive argument is likely to be true if the premises are true, which consists of two claims, a) there is some explanation for why the proportion of observed A's that are B's converges on some relatively constant value m/n, and b) there is some sort of objective regularity which best accounts for the phenomenon described in (a). Bonjour then goes on to lay out and defend in some detail a three step argument which purports to be an a-priori justification of induction. His first premise is:

(I-1) In a situation in which a standard inductive premise obtains, it is highly likely that there is some explanation (other than mere coincidence or chance) for

76

the convergence and constancy of the observed proportion.

Contrary to what many philosophers have assumed, Bonjour finds no compelling reason why such a meta-thesis, about the likelihood of a certain other thesis, cannot be an a-priori truth. Indeed, there might be possible worlds (including the actual world itself) in which a chance explanation could regularly be found for the truth of standard inductive premises. Yet as long as this situation is infrequent within the total class of possible worlds, it would still remain true in every world that it is likely that there is a non-chance explanation for the truth of a standard inductive premise. Hence (I-1) would still hold in every possible world and thereby be true necessarily.

Bonjour's second step in the argument involves articulating what sort of non-chance explanation for the observed proportion is most plausible:

(I-2)   [Excluding the possible influence of observation] the most likely explanation for the truth of a standard inductive premise is the straight inductive explanation, namely that the observed proportion m/n accurately reflects a corresponding objective regularity in the world.

Bonjour does not take lightly the possibility that certain factors involving observation itself might affect the proportion that is actually observed, and so turn out not to accurately reflect the overall proportion of A's that are B's in the world. However, as he sees it, that is a different question; and the problem of induction simply does not address the issue. The classical problem of induction is about whether generalization from observed to unobserved cases is justified when such observational influences are absent; and to this problem Bonjour thinks he has a solution.

In defense of his second premise, Bonjour considers what other possible explanations, besides the straight inductive explanation, could account for the inductive evidence in question. He calls such an explanation a normal non-inductive explanation. In the simplest case, the relation between the presence of two objects or properties A and B is still a lawful regularity, but there is some further characteristic or factor C that combines with the A's and B's to produce a situation in which i) m/n of observed A's are B's, but ii) the presence or absence of C affects the proportion of A's that are B's, so iii) it is false that even approximately m/n of all A's are B's. For instance, it might be the case that there is a certain overall proportion of A's that are C's, which leads to a certain overall proportion of A's that are B's; but that the actual observations of A involve a higher (or lower) proportion of C cases as compared to non-C cases, thus resulting in an observed proportion of A's that are B's which is significantly different from the overall true proportion. Or the occurrence of C in relation to A might not be regular overall, with no objectively correct proportion of A's that are B's; nonetheless, observations of A might include a relatively uniform

proportion of C's, resulting in a certain observed proportion of A's that are B's. In either case, the observed proportion will fail to reflect the actual overall proportion in such a way as to falsify the standard inductive conclusion. Now Bonjour contends that it is a-priori highly unlikely that either of these two situations be realized through sheer coincidence or chance. So a normal non-inductive explanation is extremely unlikely to be true. It follows, then, that the best explanation for the observed constant proportion of A's that are B's is the straight inductive explanation. Thus (I-2) is established, and the a-priori justification of induction is complete. From the above two theses, Bonjour concludes

(I-C)   Therefore, it is likely that if a standard inductive premise is true, then the corresponding standard inductive conclusion is true also.

b)   Why Bonjour's a priori defense fails

Bonjour proceeds to address several worries that might be raised about the argument. First, his argument is compatible with Reichenbach's insistence that from an a-priori standpoint, it is neither impossible nor unlikely that the world is chaotic rather than orderly. Where Reichenbach and others were mistaken was in thinking that this insistence is incompatible with there being an a-priori reason to affirm the likelihood of the truth of a standard inductive conclusion given that its empirical standard inductive premise is true. What Bonjour's argument allegedly shows is that the relevant sort of objective order or regularity asserted by an inductive inference is a-priori likely relative to the existence of empirical inductive evidence. A related worry is that Bonjour's argument only demonstrates that an objective regularity of the sort indicated by an inductive argument has existed in the observed past, with no guarantee that the same will be true of the unobserved future. Bonjour claims that an adequate metaphysical theory which explicates a robust conception of objective regularity or necessary connection would have the resources to handle this objection.

In regard to Bonjour's response to the first worry: if it is no more likely a-priori that the world is orderly rather than chaotic, then why should the existence of any inductive evidence make any difference? Why is the sort of objective order that would legitimize drawing a standard inductive inference more likely (a-priori) to obtain given the existence of some standard inductive evidence? To take a well-worn example, why should one's observing flocks of black crows make it more likely a-priori that all crows are black? Bonjour's answer, following (I-2), is that it is an a-priori truth that the most likely explanation for the truth of a standard inductive premise is the straight inductive explanation rather than some normal non-inductive explanation. It is highly improbable that a factor or condition C would by "sheer chance" cause the observed proportion of A's that are B's to differ in any uniform way from the actual overall proportion.   But why

think that the deviation in question must be attributed to mere chance or coincidence? Maybe the deviation caused by "factor C", along with the presence or absence of the factor itself, has some non-chance explanation which cannot be discovered by the inductive method. The variation could be due to some unknown but built in feature of our world which allows standard inductive explanations to be successful up to a certain limit but no further. In fact, there could be innumerable possible worlds that contain certain features which make it inappropriate to follow the sorts of inductive procedures we follow, that is, worlds in which reasoning by straight inductive explanations would be on the whole unsuccessful, although they would succeed up to a point. (There could be possible worlds in which following certain normal non-inductive practices are in the long run more successful). Now on the one hand, if there are such possible worlds (even if ours is not), then how do we know that there aren't many of them? And if there are many, then it is not a-priori likely that the best explanation for the truth of an inductive premise is the straight inductive explanation. On the other hand, if our world is a "straight inductive" world, then the only way to know this is by empirical investigation. Either way, Bonjour has not established the a-priority of (I-2).

Furthermore, it is hard to see how Bonjour's line of response can allay his second worry so easily. Let's see how things stand. Even granting the plausibility of (I-1) along with the claim that the sorts of normal non-inductive explanations Bonjour discusses are a-priori unlikely, the most that one can conclude (a-priori) given the occurrence of certain inductive evidence is that the observed proportion m/n reflects an objective regularity that existed in the observed past. Now let's define a spatio-temporal world segment (STWS) as a certain tightly defined spatial region and segment of the temporal order, whose outer boundaries are demarcated by either (i) the specific events and phenomena referred to by a given standard inductive premise, or (ii) the specific events and phenomena referred to by the corresponding standard inductive conclusion. We shall call an STWS which satisfies specification (i) a P-bounded STWS, and an STWS which satisfies (ii) a C-bounded STWS. In addition, let's say that inductive evidence obtains when certain observations are made and empirical data gathered which come to constitute standard inductive evidence. Now what follows from Bonjour's analysis is not (I-2), but rather this revised thesis:

(I-2*) [Excluding the possible influence of observation] the most likely explanation for the truth of a standard inductive premise is that the observed proportion m/n accurately reflects a corresponding objective regularity in the spatio temporal world segment in which the standard inductive evidence obtained.

Now (I-1) together with (I-2*) clearly do not entail (I-C). What is required to derive (I-C) is the addition of a third premise, such as

(I-3) It is a-priori likely that objective regularities which hold in a P-bounded spatio-temporal world segment will hold in its corresponding C-bounded spatio-temporal world segment.

What good reason do we have for thinking that (I-3) is true? We can't marshall support for this premise by pointing out that objective regularities which have held for P-bounded STWS's in the past have tended to hold for their corresponding C-bounded STWS's, for that would assume the truth of (I-C) and thus beg the question. Bonjour's suggestion is that if we can set forth some plausible metaphysical theory which gives an account of a robust conception of objective regularity in nature, the traditional problem of induction would be solved. It is important to note, however, that in order for the argument to go through, not just any plausible metaphysical theory will do, but one which a) is a-priori likely to be true, b) gives an account of objective regularities that is a-priori likely to be true, and c) entails that these objective regularities hold (for the most part) in the unobserved past, present, and future. In other words, Bonjour needs to make a further revision to his argument by adding the following premise:

(MT) There is some (a-priori likely) metaphysical thesis M which entails that objective regularities which hold in any P-bounded spatio-temporal world segment will probably hold in the corresponding C-bounded spatio-temporal world segment.

In other words, Bonjour needs a theory which both entails that nature is substantially uniform at all times and which is a-priori likely to be true. Where would we find such a metaphysical thesis that could do this incredible amount of foot-work? And how could we know a-priori that the truth of such a theory is even remotely probable? Bonjour contends that the difficulties involved here do not seem to be insurmountable. Now perhaps such faith in the philosophical enterprise is well-placed; regardless, faith is not nearly enough to show that (MT) is to any degree plausible. And without establishing the plausibility of (MT), Bonjour's argument cannot go through and his a-priori justification fails.

V. Concluding Reflections

So all of the standard answers to Hume's query are unsatisfactory. Where does the burden of proof lie in responding to Humean skepticism? Do I need an argument to show that induction is likely to continue to give me true beliefs in the future? The issue is not so much whether or not the question "is induction rational?" meaningless, but whether I am even obligated to give an argument for an affirmative answer to Question 2, i.e. whether I have an epistemic duty to show that induction will continue to be truth-conducive.

Perhaps it is the defenders of Hume who owe us an argument. We don't require the same kind of justificatory proof for basic laws of logic such as non-contradiction or excluded middle; the laws of logic cannot be given any non-circular justification. (But it must also be said that they are a-priori whereas inductive procedures are not). Nor do we require this kind of justification for other types of cognitive processes which we take to be reliable, such as perception or memory, none of which can be justified non-circularly. Why can't I be a reliabilist who holds, roughly, that a belief is justified if and only if it is formed in accordance with certain reliable belief forming processes, and just accept induction as one of those basically reliable processes? After all, the buck has to stop somewhere. And why must I be tagged as 'irrational' if the best I can do in defending some of those basic processes is to make use of the processes themselves and thereby reason circularly?

Perhaps my belief in **(IP)** can be what Plantinga calls a basic belief, grounded in the overwhelming propensity of all humans to accept it. Inductive reasoning doesn't seem to have arisen out of custom or habit as Hume claimed; for the reduction of the process of induction to habit is not consistent with what we know about the way in which habits become established. What typically occurs when a habit is being formed is that things which at first have to be done consciously and deliberately come gradually to be done effortlessly and almost automatically. In learning to ski, for example, we begin by conciously applying certain rules or principles. But when the operations in question have become a matter of habit, we are hardly aware of (or maybe not aware at all) of applying the rules. Nothing comparable to this seems to occur in the case of induction. I don't at first induct deliberately and with much effort, and then gradually come to do it with ease and little effort. The propensity to draw inductive inferences does not seem to be a habit established by repitition. I don't learn induction in the same way I learn skiing. I simply find myself applying inductive procedures instinctively, although I may at a later time reflect on them or study the processes and learn more about them.

References Références Referencias

1. Bonjour, Laurence. 1998. In Defense of Pure Reason. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press)
2. Hill, Chris. 1999. "Process Reliabilism and Cartesian Skepticism", in Warfield and DeRose, eds., Skepticism: A Contemporary Reader (New York: Oxford University Press).
3. Hume, David. 1988. An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding. Edited by Antony Flew. (La Salle, IL: Open Court)
4. Plantinga, Alvin. 1993. Warrant: The Current Debate. (New York: Oxford University Press)
5. Skyrms, Brian. 1986. Choice and Chance: An Introduction to Inductive Logic. (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth)
6. Warfield, Ted, and Keith DeRose. 1999. Skepticism: A Contemporary Reader (New York: Oxford University Press)

Toward an Understanding of the Discourse of Advertising: Review of Research, and SpecialReference to the Egyptian Media

By Hosney M. El-Daly

United Arab EmiratesUniversity, Al-Ain, U.A.E.

Abstract – This study examines the nature of the discourse of advertising. The focus is on the consumer advertising, which is directed towards the promotion of some product or service to the general public. The study, however, is not meant to exhaust all the aspects of this particular discourse, or present an answer to all the problems it poses. Rather, it aims at uncovering the basic elements of the most pervasive, influential and inescapable discourse of the 21st century; the advertising text. It focuses on the interaction of language, image and layout, and examines advertising persuasive strategies. In doing so, it draws on various linguistic (particularly pragmatic, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic) theories. In addition this study provides analyses of some ads, using different ways of interpretations; and ends with a discussion on the interrelationship between culture (schemes) and advertising discourse. In this connection, instances from the Egyptian media, and their analyses are provided, with a view to clarifying some rhetorical categories in Arabic Advertising, and showing that texts construct meaning through interaction with other types of discourse, and inseparable from the culture of the advertising text.

Keywords : Discourse of Advertising, Egyptian Advertisements, Review of Research.

GJHSS A Classification : FOR Code: 150502, 150505, 150503

![Barcode]

TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE DISCOURSE OF ADVERTISING REVIEW OF RESEARCH, AND SPECIALREFERENCE TO THE EGYPTIAN MEDIA

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

![Open Association of Research Society, USA logo]

Toward an Understanding of the Discourse of Advertising: Review of Research, and Special Reference to the Egyptian Media

Hosney M. El-Daly

Abstract - This study examines the nature of the discourse of advertising. The focus is on the consumer advertising, which is directed towards the promotion of some product or service to the general public. The study, however, is not meant to exhaust all the aspects of this particular discourse, or present an answer to all the problems it poses. Rather, it aims at uncovering the basic elements of the most pervasive, influential and inescapable discourse of the 21st century; the advertising text. It focuses on the interaction of language, image and layout, and examines advertising persuasive strategies. In doing so, it draws on various linguistic (particularly pragmatic, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic) theories. In addition this study provides analyses of some ads, using different ways of interpretations; and ends with a discussion on the interrelationship between culture (schemes) and advertising discourse. In this connection, instances from the Egyptian media, and their analyses are provided, with a view to clarifying some rhetorical categories in Arabic Advertising, and showing that texts construct meaning through interaction with other types of discourse, and inseparable from the culture of the advertising text.

Keywords : Discourse of Advertising, Egyptian Advertisements, Review of Research.

I. Introduction

Advertising is so familiar to modern readers that it may seem odd to ask what an advertisement is. Although advertising is all around us, we do not often pause to think about its nature as a form of discourse, as a system of language use whereby, on a daily basis, huge numbers of readers fleeting conversations' with the writers of countless texts (Goddard, 1998: 5). The term 'advertising' comes down to us from the medieval Latin verb 'advertere' to direct one's attention to. It is any type or form of public announcement intended to direct people's attention to the availability, qualities, and/or cost of specific commodities or services. Advertising can be seen to fall into three main categories: (1) consumer advertising, which is directed towards the promotion of some product or service to the general public; (2) trade advertising, which is directed to dealers and professionals through appropriate trade publications and media, and (3) public relations advertising, which is directed towards society by citizens or community groups, or by politicians, in order to promote some issue of social concern or political agenda. The focus of this paper is on the first category; namely, consumer advertising.

II. Statement Of The Problem And Purpose

Many studies of advertising do separate out components of ads, concentrate on one or a few and ignore the others. There are also studies which describe the pictures of advertising without paying any attention to language. Describing advertising as discourse is both more complex and more difficult than any of these approaches. It must be borne in mid, then, that there is a danger of dilution in analysis which attempts to tackle too much. Discourse, especially discourse as complex as advertising, always holds out more to be analyzed, leaves more to be said. But this needs not to be a cause for despair. As Cook (2001: 5) points out, it would be both depressing and self-deceptive to believe that one could exhaust all the aspects of the genre, and presents an answer to the entire problem it poses. This study examines the nature of the discourse of advertising. The focus is on the consumer advertising, which is directed towards the promotion of some product or service to the general public. The study, however, is not meant to exhaust all the aspects of this particular discourse, or present an answer to all the problems it poses. Rather, it aims at uncovering the basic elements of the most pervasive, influential and inescapable discourse of the 21st century; the advertising text. It focuses on the interaction of language, image and layout, and examines advertising persuasive strategies. In doing so, it draws on various linguistic (particularly pragmatic psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic) theories. In addition, this study provides analyses of some ads, using different ways of interpretations; and ends with a discussion on the interrelationship between culture (schemes) and advertising discourse. In this connection,

Author : Associate Professor of Linguistics Department of Linguistics Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences United Arab Emirates University P.O.Box: 17771, Al-Ain, U.A.E.
E-mail: hasan.mostafa@uaeu.ac.ae.

instances from the Egyptian media, and their analyses are provided, with a view to clarifying some rhetorical categories in Arabic Advertising, and showing that texts construct meaning through interaction with other types of discourse, and inseparable from the culture of the advertising text (See Nunan, 2011).

III.   Advertising: A Social Discourse With Rhetorical Force

Advertising is referred to as a form of discourse in the sense that it has influenced not only the structure of language and the modality of lifestyle, but also the content of routine daily acts of communicative exchanges. The messages of advertising have permeated the entire cultural landscape. Printed advertisements fill the pages of newspapers and magazines. Commercials interrupt TV and radio programs constantly. As Beasley and Danesi (2002: 1) pointed out, "brand names, logos. trademarks, jingles, and slogans have become part and parcel of the 'mental encyclopedia' of virtually everyone who lives in a modern- day society" (See Wodak, 2006a, 2006b; Wadak, 2007).

Advertising has progressed beyond the use of simple techniques for announcing the availability of products or services. It has ventured into the domain of persuasion, and its rhetorical categories have become omnipresent in contemporary social discourse. Because of the growing effectiveness of its persuasion techniques, advertising has become entrenched into social discourse by virtue of its wide spread diffusion throughout society. Everywhere one turns, one is bound to find some ad message designed to persuade people to buy a product. All this leads to the inescapable conclusion that advertising has developed, since the first decades of the 20th century, into a privileged form of social discourse that has unparalleled rhetorical force. With the advent of industrialization in the 19th century, style of presentation became increasingly important in raising the persuasive efficacy of the ad text. Accordingly, advertising started to change the structure and use of language and verbal communication. Everything from clothes to beverages was being promoted through ingenious new techniques. As the 19th century came to a close American advertisers in particular were, as Dyer (1982: 32) points out, using more colloquial, personal and informal language to address the customer and also exploiting certain effective rhetorical devices to attract attention to a product. So persuasive had this new form of advertising become that, by the early decades of the 20th century, it started becoming a component of social discourse, starting to change some of the basic ways in which people communicated with each other and in which they perceived commodities and services. From the 1920s onwards, advertising agencies sprang up all over, broadening the attempts of their predecessors to build a

rhetorical bridge between the product and the consumer's consciousness (See Sayer, 2006; Saussure & Schulz, 2005; Segalowitz, 2011; Tyler, 2011).

The language of advertising has become the language of all, even of those who are critical of it. As Twitchell (2000: 1) puts it "language about products and services has pretty much replaced language about all other subjects". It is no exaggeration to claim that today most of our information, intellectual stimulation, and lifestyle models come from, or are related to, advertising images. Since the 1920s, positioning and image – creation have become the primary techniques of what has come to be known as the era of persuasion in advertising. This is an era in which advertising messages have moved away from describing the product in itself to focusing on the consumer of the product, creating product imagery with which the consumer can easily identify (Woodward and Denton, 1988: 192). Ads and commercials now offer the same kinds of promise and hope to which religions and social philosophies once held exclusive rights: security against the hazards of old age, better positions in life, popularity and personal prestige, social advancement, better health, and happiness. To put it simply, the modern advertiser stresses not the product, but the benefits that may be expected to ensue from its purchase. In this regard, Beasley and Danesi (2002: 15) points out that the advertiser is becoming more and more adopt at setting foot into the same subconscious regions of psychic experience that were once explored only by philosophers, artists, and religious thinkers. However, not all advertisements make perfect sense. Not all of them promote or imply acceptance of social values that everyone would agree are what we should hope for, in an enlightened and civilized society. Some advertisements appear to degrade our images of ourselves, our language, and appear to move the emphasis of interaction in our society to even more consumerism. In this regard, Sells and Gonzalez (2002: 166) points out that there is no doubt that advertising promotes a consumer culture, and helps create and perpetuate the ideology that creates the apparent need for the products it markets (Iten, 2005; Jazczolt, 2005; Ang et al., 2007).

In a discussion of what kind of benefit an advertisement might offer to a consumer, Aitchison (1999: 49) provides the following quote from Gray Goldsmith of Lowe & Partners, New York: "I do not think you need to offer a rational benefit. I think you need to offer a benefit that a rational person can understand". Relatedly, Sells and Gonzalez (2002) argue that it is often said that advertising is irrational: but this is where the crossover between information and persuasion becomes important. An advertisement does not have to be factually informative but it cannot be factually misleading. In addition, Cook (2001: 1) points out that in a world beset by social and environmental problems, advertising can be seen as urging people to consume

more by making them feel dissatisfied or inadequate, by appealing to greed, worry and ambition. On the other hand, it may be argued that many ads are skillful clever and amusing, and that it is unjust to make them a scape goat for all the sorrows of the modern world. Thus, to ask someone their opinion of advertising in general, or of particular ad, can be to embark upon an emotionally and ideologically charged discussion, revealing their political and social position. With the above in mind, it can be argued that attitudes to advertising can be indicative of our personality, or social and ideological position. Advertisements are forms of discourse which make a powerful contribution to how we construct our identities (Ang et al., 2006; Musolff, 2005; Toncar et al., 2001; Van Mulken et al., 2005; Widdon, 2004).

IV. LINGUISTICS AND THE DISCOURSE OF ADVERTISING

Studies of the discourse of advertising with a linguistic focus remain relatively rare. In the sense that they constitute departures from the study of more elaborated linguistic form, they are all indebted, directly or indirectly, to Straumann's (1935) pioneering work on the unusual syntax of telegrams and headlines, for which he coined the term block language (Bruthiaux, 1996: 24). Crystal and Davy's (1969) analysis of the language of newspaper reporting is primarily a taxonomy of major linguistic features found in just two contrastive news articles on the same topic but published by two different newspapers in much the same tradition but much more narrowly focused is Mardh's (1980) analysis of the language of headlines in two British newspapers from opposite ends of the spectrum, from low-brow to high–brow. In addition to providing a comprehensive review of previous studies of the syntax of headlines, Mardh describes in some detail the use made in headlines of familiar linguistic features such as nouns and nominal groups articles, and verbs. She also considers the number and length of words, the number and type of clauses, and the number of modifiers in noun phrases. In addition, she discusses the readability of headlines by discussing such factors as reader familiarity and text visibility (See Robinson & Ellis, N., 2011).

Turing to studies of the language of advertising itself, we see that there are occasional examinations of the topic in more general works on genre analysis. Among scholarly examples of this type of treatment is Bhatia (1993). A useful pedagogical review of the subject can be found in O'Donnell and Todd (1991). Still of great value, however, is Leech's (1966) much – quoted study, which surveys the types of linguistic devices used by British writers and designers of display advertising. Like Straumann (1935) in relation to the language of headlines, Leech is primarily concerned with analyzing the specialized grammar of advertising.

He notes the disjunctive nature of much of this language, and he details some of its salient features. Among these are the low frequency of function words such as articles, auxiliaries, and pronouns; a preference for nouns over verbs and adjectives; and heavy nominalization over predicative constructions. Working within a tradition of literary criticism, Leech also describes advertising language as a "subliterary" genre, arguing that, as in literature, the advertisement writer often relies on unexpected strategies of novel and creative exploitation of language within predictable linguistic patterns and techniques. Thus the writer's rhetorical aim (attracting and sustaining the reader's attention; making the advertisement memorable, and prompting the reader into appropriate action) is met by systematically setting off a familiar pattern against inventive use. Even today, Leech's study continues to provide a useful catalog of the defining features of this language variety. As Bruthiaux (1996: 26) argues, it [Leech's study] is one of the first attempts to explicitly link in a full-length study the functional parameters of the advertising genre with its linguistic manifestations, or in other words, to apply the notion of systematic register variation to the language of advertising". In a more extensive study, Geis (1982) concentrates on the linguistic devices favored by producers of television commercials. He reviews some of the linguistic features that recur in the language of TV advertising in the United States. This includes a detailed study of comparatives similes, noun compounds, and count versus mass nouns. Geis addresses not only how advertisers use language but also how consumers are expected to interpret it. While this allows him to claim that his focus is essentially psycholinguistic in character, his study could be more appropriately described as pragmatic since what offers is primarily a theory of communication rather than actual psycholinguistic experiments that might test the comprehensive of TV commercials. Goleman (1983) goes beyond a description of the language of advertising itself. She sets out to address psycholinguistic aspects of the interaction between the encoder and the decoder in an attempt to explain how consumers of advertising come to understand what they do. What makes her study especially noteworthy is her examination of the role played by phonology and prosody in conveying the advertiser's intentions. But like Geis, she mostly addresses issues of comprehension from a pragmatic angle. In particular, she argues that viewers need to make two distinct but complementary types of inference. One type of inference, which might have been termed linguistic, is based on the audience's knowledge of the structure and conventions of the advertising genre. The second type of inference, which might be described as pragmatic requires a willingness to abide by a Gricean Cooperative Principle (Grice, 1975) in assuming, for example, that content will be favorable to the product.

Vestergaard and Schroder (1985) bring an explicit ideological agenda to their analysis of the language of advertising. Their work comes close to analyses of the language of journalism by exponents of critical linguistics such as Van Dijk (1988) or Fowler (1991). They aim to go well beyond a formal description of the medium. But they stay largely clear of pragmatic considerations and set out instead to expose "the individualized collective deceit of advertising" (p.174) and to reveal "the really insidious ideological processes which treat a phenomenon as so self-evident and natural as to exempt it completely from critical inspection and to render it inevitable" (p. 145) Thus, while advertising can be an agent of change, it is also a means to prevent social change or even to assume that change is impossible. In another study, Toolan (1988) follows Leech (1966) in concentrating on the stylistics of conventionalized and formulaic aspects of the language of advertising in the British press. Like Leech, Toolan sets out to uncover the recurrent structural patterns of the variety, without which, he argues, advertising language would not be recognizable as a distinct variety. Nair (1992) examines a corpus of personal ads drawn mostly from the Indian press. She justifies her attempt to combine the study of form with that of ideology in the classified advertising on the grounds that both overt and covert ideologies associated with particular literary forms and gender, genre and grammar intersect in especial ways in culturally specific varieties of the "matrimonial column" (p. 231). Tanaka (1994) proposes to explain how consumers come to understand advertising messages. Using as her data a selection of display advertisements from the British and Japanese press, she argues against purely semiotic accounts of communication, which regard the polysemous nature of linguistic and nonlinguistic messages as a misfortune and an obstacle to communication. Instead she notes that the normal process of utterance interpretation involves potentially problematic reference assignment, disambiguation, and enrichment. The question, Tanaka argues, is not whether but how preexisting bodies of knowledge play a role in determining the way in which advertisements are understood. In other words, how decoders recognize encoders' intentions. To answer this question, she appeals to "relevance theory". Sperber and Wilson (1986), which proposes a maxim of relevance as the single principle of real importance in disambiguating messages. In addition, Bruthiaux (1996) provides a detailed analysis of linguistic forms and communicative functions in four types of ads: automobile sales, apartment rentals, job vacancies, and personals. Besides similarities among diverse 'simple' registers, he notes differences in the kinds of simplicity characteristic of ad types and links them to communicative functions. In a broader survey of British advertising in the printed press, billboards, and television, Cook (2001) expands

the narrow linguistic formulations of the discourse of advertising in general. His aim is to show that texts construct meaning through interaction with other types of discourse. He examines the interface of linguistic form with visual, musical, and paralinguistic features. But the most original aspect of Cook's work is his analysis of the social implications of advertising language. He shows how texts can create, evoke, and reinforce dominant social types, especially sexual ones; and he argues that a sense of self as both an individual and participant in social activities is to be found within the form of discourse, not outside it and independently from it, in the language of advertising as in all language use (Blommaert, 2005; Bara, 2005; Cutica et al., 2008; Koller, 2005; Saussure, 2007; Hua, 2011; Gregorious, 2011).

V. Linguistic Concepts and Analyses of Advertisements

An extremely useful and relevant survey of concepts from linguistics that can be used in the analysis of advertising can be found in Vestergaard and Schroeder (1985). Among the most important concepts are (1) cohesion and coherence in text; (2) given and new information; (3) presupposition; (4) the sign: a signifier and a signifie, and (5) icon vs. index vs. symbol. Cohesion is a term from the work on textual structure by Halliday and Hasan (1976), given to the logical linkage between textual units, as indicated by overt formal markers of the relations between texts. Each piece of text must be cohesive with the adjacent ones for a successful communication. However, readers are very creative interpreters, and formal properties of cohesion are typically not marked overtly. Vestergaard and Schroeder (1985) introduce the notion of coherence as a way of talking about the relations between texts, which may or may not be indicated by formal markers of cohesion. Advertising language tends not to use clear markers of cohesion, but is interpreted as being coherent. As with all the other linguistic concepts surveyed here, the notion of coherence extends to the relation between text and image.

It is commonplace in the analysis of the meaning contribution of a linguistic unit such as a sentence to split the information into Given information and New information. It is possible for a sentence to be all - New, but all - Given sentences are (by definition) uninformative, and therefore have only specialized or restricted usages. Each sentence has an opportunity to present new information, or at least highlighted information. A common strategy in advertising language is to use very short potential utterances as sentences, to maximize the amount of highlighted information that is being presented. In addition to these linguistic concepts, there are two key concepts that can be used in the analysis of advertisements from modern - day linguistic theory, namely 'presupposition' and 'relevance'.

These two concepts are important because they allow us to see the primary means by which advertisements can communicate much more information than what is explicitly presented in them (See Walker, 2011; Sebba et al., 2011).

The pragmatic interest in the implicit meaning dimensions of language use has been extended to include meanings which are logically entailed on the language use by the user of a particular structure. Presuppositions are implicit meanings which are subsumed by a particular wording in the sense that its interpretation is conditional upon the tacit acceptance of the implicit meaning (pre-supposition = 'an assumption that comes before'). For example, a sentence such as "The cold war has ended" presupposes that the existence of the entities it refers to, in this case the 'cold war'. Therefore the study of presuppositions often concentrates on meaning dimensions which are 'taken for granted' in an utterance or a text and hence this area of pragmatic research offers an instrument which is well-suited for examining the links between language and ideology (Elison et al., 2009; Belinda, 2010; Francis, 2008; Buccarelli, 2010; Kimmel, 2010; Fetzer, 2008). Presupposition is a kind of pragmatic inference "based more closely on the actual linguistic structure of sentences" (Levinson 1989: 167). It is classified as a type of pragmatic inference by Strawson (1952). It must be emphasized, here, that the notion of presupposition required in discourse analysis is pragmatic presupposition that is, defined in terms of assumptions the speaker makes about what the hearer is likely to accept without challenge (Givon, 1979: 50). The notion of assumed 'common ground' is also involved in such a characterization of presupposition and can be found in this definition by Stalnaker (1978: 321). Presuppositions may be even more critical in television advertising (Geis 1982) than in print advertising. However, even in print advertising, presuppositions are an important component of the overall message. As the name implies, a presupposition is a necessary precondition for the processing of any communication. Presuppositions typically involve the existence of some object or idea (See LoCastro, 2011; O'Keeffe & Clancy, 2011).

To summarize, presuppositions are a crucial part of advertising as they can cause the reader to consider the existence of objects, propositions, and culturally defined behavioral properties: for example, "Have you had your daily vitamins?" presupposes that you take or need "daily vitamins", thereby creating and perpetuating the idea that the behavior of taking vitamins daily is part of our culture. Similarly, "What's great about Chuck Wagon dog food ?" (Geis 1982, 45) presupposes that there is something great about the dog food though exactly what is left open.

Relevance is a key concept in understanding advertisements, because it is a primary component of all aspects of human communication. The term was introduced by Sperber and Wilson (1986), building on earlier work in pragmatics, in particular the work of Grice, Sperber and Wilson's approach to communication is based on the observation that much natural communication does not involve sequences of totally directly informative utterances, or questions followed by literal answers. However, speakers and hearers in a conversation each assume that the others are rational and cooperative participants, and therefore conversation moves forward as each hearer finds the relevance of what was just said. The idea of Relevance goes back to the foundational work on pragmatics by Grice (1975), who proposed four "Maxims of communication"; guidelines which hearers presume that speakers are adhering to. Simplifying slightly, they are: (1) Quantity: make your contribution just as informative as is required, (2) Quality: do not give false or unsubstantiated information; (3) Relation: give relevant information, and (4) Manner: be persipicuous. Grice showed that communication proceeds by a hearer using these guidelines to interrupt what a speaker is presenting, possibly creating implications (or, the formal term, "implicatures"). For example, "there were a million people in that room!" is blatantly false, but assuming that the utterance meets the maxims of Quality and Relation, we can understand that the speaker means that there was an unusually large crowd in the room relative to the known size of the room. Most importantly, the utterance need not be rejected, but is interpreted as being rationally conceived and presented as relevant to the ongoing conversation. Sperber and Wilson (1985) argued that every aspect of rational and cooperative behavior ascribed by the hearer to the speaker can be thought of in terms of relevance. Relevance has to be calculated, through assumptions and inferences. This has the consequence that there is no definite amount of information that the hearer can calculate, with that part of the conversation then considered to be over. By adding more contextual assumptions further relevant implications can be derived. So, a rational speaker will provide enough information for the hearer to be able to calculate the main points that are intended. But it is important to note that there is no such thing as "the meaning" of any utterance, when that utterance is presented in context. Rather, there are some aspects of meaning that are directly asserted, some which are fairly straightforwardly deducible, and others which are more esoteric or context-specific. Needless to say, any kind of communication, including an advertisement, is unsuccessful if the hearer or reader cannot grasp the implied primary components of meaning.

There are varying degrees of relevance. Sperber and Wilson claim that there is an inverse correlation of effort and relevance. In other words, the more processing it takes to work out what a speaker intends by an utterance, the less relevant that utterance is. As

various critics have pointed out, this begs the question "relevant to what" ? (Clark, 1987) and "relevant to whom?" (Wilks, 1987). In 'Relevance', human beings are viewed as information processors with an inbuilt capacity to infer relevance. This single capacity is assumed to be the key to human communication and cognition. In addition, the human mind is conceived to be a 'deductive mechanism' which has the capacity to manipulate the conceptual content of assumptions from a range of sources. Sperber and Wilson's favorite metaphor for the human mind is the computer. They limit their object of enquiry accordingly to how the human mind functions as a computer (Talbot, 1994: 3526). For example, in 29 Range Rover (Dunhill, Rolling Stone, 2002: 16) the text is "Work hard. Be successful. Go someplace where none of that matters". The meaning of this advertisement is as follows: Work hard. And if you do, you will be successful. And if you are successful you can buy a Range Rover. And then you can go in it to someplace where none of that matters. The question, now, is where do the parts of meaning shown above come from ?. In this case, Coherence provides the links between the sentences (e.g. and if you do ...... "). Relevance is what determines that we can buy a Range Rover and go in it to somewhere, for the context of the whole advertisement including image for a Range Rover. And the presupposition here is that there is somewhere out there where none of that matters. In other words, that some utopian place exists for us to aspire to travel t, in our Range Rover. There may be any such actual place "rational" communication, though in this particular advertisement, it is implied that there is.

VI. The Semiotic Approach To Advertising

The term Semiotics (spelled originally 'semeiotics'), from the Greek "Semeion" which means mark, sign, was coined by the founder of Western medical science, Hippocrates. In this sense, medical science is basic semiotic science, since it is grounded on the principle that the symptom is a trace to an inner state or condition. The fundamental thing to notice about the semeion is that it is interpretable in terms of two dimensions, namely the discernible symptom itself, with all its physical characteristics, and the probable condition it indicates, with all its predictable consequences. The two are inseparable; that is, there is no symptom that is not caused by some bodily conditions, and vice versa, there is no condition that does not produce symptoms. The semeion is a natural sign; that is, it is produced by Nature. Humans, also, produce their own signs such as words gestures or symbols. These signs are called "conventional signs". Like natural signs, conventional signs consist of two dimensions: (1) a physical dimension such as the sounds or letters that make up a word; and (2) the object that the physical part has been created to stand

for whether it be real or imagined. The physical dimension is called the signifier in Saussurean semiotics and representation in Peircean semiotics. The conceptual dimension (2 above) is called signified and "object" in the two methods respectively. The particular kinds of meanings that the association of a signifier with a signified (or set of signifieds) generates in social situation is called "signification". Conventional signs are classified as verbal and nonverbal. Examples of verbal signs are words and other linguistic structures, whereas drawings, gestures, etc. are examples of non verbal signs (See Cobley, 2011; Leeu-wen, 2011).

It is obvious that the use of signs to create messages and meanings entails an interpretation of what they mean. The problem is that the rang of interpretations always varies from individual to individual. There is no one meaning that can be extracted from a human-made text. In addition, the sign's primary meaning is called its denotation. This is the meaning or referential connection established between signifier and signified. But this meaning can be extended freely to other domains of reference. This extensive process is known as connotation. The French semiotician Ronald Barthes inspired the first true semiotic works analyzing the implicit messages of advertising. The semiotic investigation of advertising and marketing has become widespread. And, some interesting studies have been produced such as Harris (1995); Goldman and Papson (1996); Berger (2000), and Danesi and Perron (2000). The major theme that stands out from this line of inquiry is that many brand names, logos, ads and commercials are interpretable at two levels; a surface level, and an underlying one. The surface level involves the use of specific types of signs in a highly creative manner to create a personality for the product (images, words, colors, etc.). These are 'reflexes' of, and 'traces' to, the underlying level. Relatedly, the goal of semiotics in the study of advertising is to unmask the arrays of hidden meanings in the underlying level, which form what can be called "signification system". As Bell (1990: 1) has observed, the semiotic notions used in the study of advertising are powerful because they allow us to bring to the surface the hidden meanings of advertising texts. The word "text", as it is used in semiotic theory, means something very specific. It literally designates a putting together "of signifiers to produce a message, consciously or unconsciously. The text can be either verbal or nonverbal, or both. In the modern theory of texts, the underlying, connotative meaning on which a text is anchored is commonly referred to as its subtext. The incorporation of other textualities present in the culture, through direct citation or indirect allusion, is called intertextuality (See Chandler, 2011).

The process of uncovering a subtextual meaning in an ad text is commonly referred to as decoding. It encapsulates what is involved; namely, the

identification of the code or codes utilized to generate a signification system in the ad. The use of several codes to create the subtext can be called intercodality (Beasley and Danesi, 2002: 71). Product textuality is one of the persuasion techniques used by advertisers to promote product and service recognizability. It works on two levels; a surface and an underlying one. Finally, let us examine the magazine ads used in various countries to promote fashionable high-heel shoes for young women. The original purpose of shoes was to protect the feet and to allow people to walk on hurtful and injurious terrain. But high-heel shoes seem to contravene this function. They are uncomfortable and awkward to wear. However, millions of women wear them. The thousands of ads for expensive high heel shoes that are published in magazines almost weekly are usually constructed through the process of mythologization. Typically, some attractive young woman is portrayed as wearing the shoes. She is shown with an expression that commonly conveys a kind of sensual rapture that comes from wearing the shoes. The way in which such ads have been put together is strongly suggestive of a "sexualization" of the female body. But semioticians would not stop at this fairly straightforward analysis of such ads. As Beasley and Danesi (2002: 28) point out, they would go one step further. The world of sex has a long-standing tradition of portrayal in western mythology. In representational sense, therefore, these ads are the modern-day advertiser's versions of ancient sexual myths. Many evoke the myth of Persephone, the Greek goddess of fertility and queen of the underworld. Persephone was the daughter of Zeus and Demeter. When she was still a beautiful maiden, Pluto seized her and held her captive in his underworld. Though Demeter persuaded the gods to let her daughter return to her ,Persephone was required to remain in the underworld for four month because Pluto had tricked her into eating a pomegranate (food of the dead) there. When Persephone left the earth, the flowers withered and the grain died, but when she returned, life blossomed anew (Beasley and Danesi, 2002). With the above in mind, the wearing of high heels as s sexual prop has become an entrenched signified in western culture. High heels force the body to tilt, thus emphasizing the female's sexuality. They also accentuate the role of feet in sexuality. As Rossi (1976: 54) explains, across many cultures feet are perceived as sexually desirable. Putting on stocking and high heels on feet is everywhere perceived to be a highly erotic act. To a male, high heel shoes are erotically exciting. Therefore, in terms of the signification systems that such ads attempt to tap into, the high heels worn by ad models send out powerful and highly charged sexual signals (See Rader et al., 2002; Hart et al., 2007; Johnson-Laired et al., 2004; McQuarrie et al., 2005; Goddard & Geesin, 2011).

VII. ADVERTISING FROM A PSYCHOLINGUISTICS' PERSPECTIVE

Psychologists have been extremely interested in the persuasion techniques used by advertisers. The school of psychoanalysis, founded by Sigmund Freud, has been particularly active in studying advertising. The main contribution of this field has been that it has exposed how the persuasion techniques used by advertisers are directed to the unconscious region of the human mind. This region contains our hidden wishes, memories, fears, feelings, and images that are prevented from gaining expression by the conscious part of the mind. In addition, this unconscious region, as the Swiss psychologist Carl Jung suggested can be divided into two regions: a personal unconscious, containing the feelings and thoughts developed by an individual that are directive of his/her particular life schemes and a collective unconscious, containing the feelings and thoughts developed cumulatively by the species that are directive of its overall life pattern (Beasley and Danesi, 2002: 32).

Psychologists and social scientists generally ask questions such as the following: Does advertising influence attitudes and behavior? Is it a valuable contributor to the efficiency of a free market economy ? Is it a form of artistic expression ? Such questions have led to a spate of studies that have examined advertising from the broader psychological and cultural perspectives that such questions presuppose. Advertising has also been the target of numerous major analytical, critical, and technical investigations (Beasley and Danesi and Perron, 2000; Quin, 2005; Oakley, 2007; Pragglejazz, 2007). The implicit question that most of such studies have entertained is whether advertising has become a force molding cultural mores and individual behaviors, or whether it constitutes no more than a "mirror" of deeper cultural tendencies within urbanized contemporary societies. Although this question was not answered in any definitive fashion, it may be safe to say that the one thing which everyone agrees is that advertising has become one of the most recognizable and appealing forms of social communication to which everyone in society is exposed. The images and messages that advertisers promulgate on a daily basis delineate the contemporary social landscape. Relatedly, the question that imposes itself here is that "Is advertising to be blamed for causing virtually everything, from obesity to street violence ?"

There is no doubt advertising plays a definitive role in shaping some behaviors in some individuals. The highly inflated amount of consumption of fast foods, tobacco, and other media - hyped substances is probably related to the slick promotion plays utilized by magazine ads and television commercials. However, even though people mindlessly absorb the messages

promulgated constantly by advertisements, and although these may have some subliminal effects on behavior, we accept media images, by and large, only if they suit our already established preferences. It is more accurate to say that advertising produces images that reinforce lifestyle models. Advertisers are not innovators. They are more intent on reinforcing lifestyle behaviors than in spreading commercially risky innovations. In this sense, advertisements are not in themselves disruptive of the value systems of the cultural mainstream; rather, they reflect shifts already present in popular culture. And if they are really psychologically effective, it is primarily because they tap into deeply-ingrained mythical and metaphorical structures of the mind (Johnson-Laired, 2004; Mothersbaugh et al., 2002). Moreover, advertising has affected not morality but the cognitive style with which people process and understand messages. Cognitive style was defined as the mode in which, and the degree to which, the senses are used in processing information (McLuhan, 1964). Advertising has rendered our cognitive style of information processing much more visual based on visual images and, thus, more compact and holistic. Since the embedding of advertising as a form of social discourse, people have much more inclined to process information quickly and unreflectively.

VIII. The Psychology Of Advertising

The major purpose of this section is to shed some light on the psychology of advertising. As Seglin (1989: 22) explains, "there is a new hunger to understand what advertising does". Relatedly, "the psychology behind the work you produce is even more important than a well turned phrase or a nifty new television optical ... That is what it is all about: getting inside people's heads and getting them to act" (Bailey, 1987: 1). It should be kept in mind that different ads do different things; so not every ad works the same way. However, most advertising works its way through the same general process. The steps in this process can be referred to as perception, communication, learning and persuasion. While these are steps in a process, they also identify the primary effects of an advertisement on a view. In other words, certain features of an ad are there to aid in the viewer's perception, communication learning and persuasion. First, perception is the process by which the viewer receives messages through the various sense, interprets the message, and files them away in memory. There are three concepts that are important in the perception of advertising: (1) attention, (2) interest, and (3) memorability.

Attention is a mental state indicating some level of awareness, that the mind is engaged, and that it is focused on something; in other words, tuned in. Advertising that grabs attention is intriguing, novel, unusual or surprising. Relatedly, the biggest perceptual problem for advertising is inattention. Many advertising messages simply wash over viewers without any attention being paid to them. Another problem is divided attention, when the audience is doing something else and is only half listening or half watching the ad. Many ads get half the mind and one eye. Accordingly, if the ad does not give noticed, it is very difficult, then for the message to make any impression. As Scorse (1987: 18) points out, "you can not save souls in an empty church". Therefore, most advertising is designed to be intrusive. In advertising an intrusive message is one that is hard to ignore. Two points should be considered in this regard: (1) the amount of intrusiveness needed varies with the medium, the product category, and the interest level of the consumer; (2) an ad can be intrusive without being bold and brash. Moreover, when more messages are presented to people than they are able to concentrate on, they have to sort out the messages some way. Selection Perception is the term used to describe how we sort those messages, according to what interests us or what we agree with. We filter out the items that do not interest us and that we do not agree with, and we simply do not pay any attention to those messages (See Field, 2011).

The next level of perception is interest, which can be defined as a state of absorption in the message. It differs from attention in that there is an element of curiosity, concern, or fascination bonding the viewer to the message. Interest, therefore, occurs when a message is relevant to people; that is, it addresses them with something that they care about. The problem, however, is that interest is a momentary thing and it dies easily as attention shifts. A message that is interesting is one that has 'holding power' rather than stopping power. It stimulates curiosity in order to maintain interest and make the viewer want to know more (Gibbs, 2002; Given, 2005; Svanlund, 2007; Philips, 2000; Mc Quarrie et al., 2003). The last level of perception is memorability. It is very important to advertisers not only that their messages are heard, but also that they have "sticking power"; the power to lock into the mind. Ads are effective when "they get in your head and stay there" (Editor's Galley: 1988: 2).

Psycholinguistics research has shown that the human memory is like a filing cabinet. Advertisements are filed according to some personal pattern of organization using slots, or files, that contain related information. Ad messages are usually compressed and restructured to fit into the individual filing system. Sometimes the message is changed beyond recognition. In this connection, Bernbach (1980: 206) points out that "most readers come away from their reading not with a clear, precise detailed registration of the contents on their minds, but rather with a vague, misty idea". Sometimes, most information is filed as fragments or traces. These fragments are pulled back to the 'top' of the mind by the use of cues; which are certain words or visuals that will elicit previously learned information. Accordingly, in order to be memorable, the

message has to be easy to compress for filing. That is why writers develop key phrases like slogans and key visuals for television. Also, psychologists know that it is easier to remember things that are grouped rather than separate elements. This is important for advertising designers who use the graphic principle of grouping to bring things together physically that belong together, by using placement and space. In addition, repeating an advertisement helps reinforce the message and locks it into the mind. As psychologists argue, people need to hear something three times before it crosses the threshold of perception and enters into memory. The ad that gets through the perceptual process is described as having impact. Impact refers to an advertisement's ability to control the viewer's perceptual process overcoming audience indifference, grabbing attention, maintaining interest, and anchoring the product firmly in memory.

The second element of the advertising process is communication. As mentioned before, an advertisement is a message about a product, service or an idea that attempts to motivate or persuade people in some way. Next, I will discuss three characteristics of communication that works: clarity, completeness, and organization. If advertising is to communicate effectively, it must present its message clearly. This is harder than one might think because clarity can be compromised both at the sending end and the receiving end. Clarity is measured by the level of understanding of the viewers. The ad is clear if it is free from impediments and obstacles to communication, such as undefined terms, unfamiliar references, poor organization, and faulty logic. One way to strengthen the clarity of an advertisement is to make it single-minded. Many ads suffer from a kitchen sin strategy with too many points crammed into too little space. As Stauderman (1985: 4) explained, "it is virtually imperative that we take just one aspect of the product (the most important one) and talk only about that. It is hard enough job ... getting just that one point into the viewers head". In addition, one of the most difficult problems in communication is to know how much to say and when to quit. If you say too much, you may bore your audience. If you say too little, you over simplify the topic until it does not make sense. The amount of completeness needed varies with the message. Finally, the way a message is put together, both words and visuals, determines how the viewer proceeds through it. Ineffective communication can result from poor order.

The third element of the advertising process is "learning". To advertising professionals, learning means becoming informed or gaining knowledge about the product or service being advertised. That is, advertising provides information; it teaches people about products and services. There are two primary schools of thought in psychology about how society acquires knowledge. The connectionists believe people learn things by making associations for which they receive rewards; the

cognitive theorists believe people learn by acquiring insight, understanding, or comprehension of the whole picture. As for advertising is concerned both schools are right. Advertising seeks to develop both associations and understanding. The process of making connections and linking ideas, called associations, is particularly important to how advertising works (Preston 1982: 5). Advertising frequently tries to link a product or service to a certain situation, activity, lifestyle, or type of person. Image transfer occurs when a product takes on characteristics of these associations. The idea is that when people think if these situations, they also think of the product. Some products, like BMW and Rolex watches, are linked with successful executive lifestyles.

On the other hand, cognitive learning explains how understanding is developed from pieces of information that serve as cues. It focuses on comprehension and understanding based on insight. In other words, people acquire little pieces of information until all of a sudden they see the big picture. Advertising uses cognitive understanding to follow the logic of an argument, make discriminations and see differences, compare and contrast features, comprehend reasons, and, in general make sense of important ideas. When something is learned, that means the information or experience has been anchored in memory. Consumers who have tried a product and linked it have learned something positive from the experience. They likely will use it again. That how "brand loyalty" is built up from a series of satisfactory experiences. As Caples (1975: 47) points out, "people who buy once are best proposals for buying again".

The last element of the advertising process is "persuasion". Persuasion is defined as a conscious intent on the part of one person to influence another. More specifically, persuasion affects the structure of people's beliefs, opinions, attitudes, convictions and motivations; these, in turn, motivate people to act. An attitude is a state of mind that is positive, or negative, or natural. Changing an attitude is very difficult. Attitudes are entrenched deep in people's psyches and are interwoven with lots of other related values and opinions. When people's emotions are touched, they experience a strong personal feeling or some other kind of passion. Ads use appeals to the emotions. In addition, a successful persuasive message builds conviction a strong belief in something. Conviction usually results when proof is provided or an argument is delivered effectively. Advertising is believable when product claims are proved. Also when an advertisement provides reasons to buy a product or service, it is meant to develop conviction (Bucciarelli, 2007; Barsalou, 2003; Mautner, 2011).

IX.   Strategies Of Advertising

The ultimate goal of creating an appropriate image for a product is to embed it into social consciousness. The three primary strategies used today to enhance product recognizability are known generally as repetition, positioning and image creation. Repetition is a basic marketing technique. An advertiser for example, can capture the attention of prospective customers by repeated appeals to buy some product. Positioning, on the other hand, is the placing or targeting of a product for the right people.

Creating an image for a product is fashioning a personality "for it with which a particular type of consumer can identify. The idea behind creating an image for the product is, clearly, to speak directly to particular types of individuals, not to every one, so that these individuals can see their own personalities represented in the lifestyle images created by advertisements for certain products. Two techniques can be used to entrench the image associated with certain kinds of products; the first can be called mythologization, and the second is ' logo' design. Mythologization is the strategy of imbuing brand names, logos, product design and commercials intentionally with some mythic meaning. As Beasley and Danesi (2002: 12) explains, the quest for beauty, the conquest of death, among other mythic themes, are constantly being woven into the specific textualities that advertisers create for certain products .?   Another way in which advertisers entrench product image effectively is through logo design. For example, the McDonald's golden arches logo. Most people today go to fast-food restaurants to be with family or with friends, so as to get a meal quickly, and /or because the atmosphere is congenial. Most would also admit that the food at a McDonald's restaurant is affordable and so the service is fast and polite. Indeed, many people today probably feel more "at home" at a McDonald's restaurant than their own households. This is, in fact, the semiotic key to unlocking the meaning that the McDonald's logo is designed to create. The arches reverberate with mythic symbolism, beckoning good people to march through them triumphantly, into a paradise of law and order, cleanliness, friendliness, hospitality, hard work, self-discipline, and family values. In a sense, McDonald's is comparable to an organized religion. From the menu to the uniforms McDonald's exacts and imposes standardization, in the same way that the world's organized religions impose standardized interpretations of their sacred texts and uniformity in the appearance and behavior of their clergy. The message created unconsciously by the golden arches logo is therefore that, like paradise, McDonald's is a place that will do it all for you, as one of the company's slogans so aptly phrases it.

X.   "Schemas" And Advertising (Cultural Background)

"Schemas", or "schemata" as they are sometimes called allow us to identify immediately the type of text we are dealing with. In Widdowson's view (1983: 34) they are "cognitive constructs which allow for the organization of information in long-¬term memory". Thus we are able to relate the general (and specific) type of language used in a given discourse, such as advertisements, to a general schematic framework. We can relate this to the Arabic situations by saying that when we see the endline Daz yaghsil akthar bay adan "Daz washes whiter" (for "Daz" washing powder), our schematic knowledge confirms that we are dealing here with language of advertising, since in conventional discourse the comparative form should be linked to a following noun phrase, which is absent here. In this particular example we may ask: Daz washes lighter than what ?   Of equal interest with regard to schematic knowledge is the (sociocultural) aspect of behavior in the target culture. In other words, we should not just be able to identify and interpret certain facts about the information conveyed in an advertising discourse but we should also "be aware of a range of different attitudes to them, even if we do not personally share those attitudes" (Wallace, 1987: 38). As an example of this we may cite the Egyptian television commercial for a brand of tea called al-Arousa "(the) bride", in which there is neither a dialogue nor a voice-over presentation. The scene is one of a young woman dressed in white representing purity, that is, of the tea. Whereas in a Muslim culture the impact of a bride dressed in white connotes absolute purity, this connotation has been partially lost in many Western cultures as a result of contemporary social values. In this commercial, the following caption which finally unfolds on the screen lends further credence to the view that the meaning we derive from texts are "largely socially determined" (ibid..: 38):

yasil ila haythu la yasil ayy shay akhar"

It reaches the parts other teas cannot reach"

By elevating the quality of this brand of tea above all other brands, one is left in little doubt about the importance of tea in (in this case) Egyptian society. The advertising technique employed in this example leads us to think immediately of the concept of intertextuality which was introduced earlier. Intertextuality has been described neatly as texts [which] are recognized in terms of their dependence on other relevant texts. Essentially it amounts to the relationship between text and the various language or signifying practices of a culture and its relation to those texts which articulate for it the possibilities of that culture. Therefore, one reason for the success of an advertisement or commercial may well be the underlying

relationship between its presentation and a literary association familiar to the target audience.

In summary the context of situation, that is, the social situation in which a statement occurs, is a vital element in our interpretation of the message of advertisements. The addresses must "draw on different levels of contextual knowledge to interrupt them" (Wallace, 1987: 29). Indeed, advertisements are one of the most prominent culture-specific (ibid: 17) forms of discourse. But it is not only the situational context of a statement that determines its form, and the way it is interpreted, as Foucault (1992) has shown. The verbal context, that is, the position of a given statement in relation to other statements which precede and follow it, is also a fundamental consideration in this regard. In the words of Fairclough (1992: 47-48), "one must take a step back to the discursive formation and the articulation of discursive formations in orders of discourse to explicate the context-text-meaning relationship". This relationship will be born in mind in the next section of the paper which deals with some rhetorical categories in Arabic advertising.

XI. Rhetorical Devices In Arabic Advertising

Leech (1966: 175) selects rhyme, alliteration and parallelisms as "special patterns of regularity" in advertising language. This section will examine the occurrence of a number of rhetorical devices in Arabic advertising, in particular those of rhyme and rhythm. It seems especially appropriate do discuss these "schemes" (ibid : 186) with regard to Arabic, since the language boasts such a rich tradition of oratory dating back to pre-Islamic times.

a) Parallelism

Parallelisms, or "formal schemes" (ibid: 190), appear to be as much a characteristic of Arabic advertising as they are of English. In Leech's view (ibid: 146) parallelism is one of the devices of co-ordination at group rank "level which he considers to be" an especially cohesional factor in advertising language", particularly in disjunctive language situations where "the group tends to be the largest unit to play a significant role in communication". The main effect of this device would seem to be a reinforcement of the qualities of a product in an almost mnemonic fashion through a repetition of linguistic patterns.   There are many examples of parallelism to be found in Arabic television commercials and press advertisements. As in English, this device is normally assisted by lay-out. Examples of parallelism in Arabic are exemplified by the following phrases taken from the advertisement for "Sparkle" shampoo:

li-l-shaar al-duhni   "for oily hair"

li-l-shaar al-jaaff "for dry hair"

li l-shaaral-aadi   "for normal hair"

A similar example was found in a press advertisement for "Toyota" vehicles. The technique is enhanced by the printing of the adjective iqti sadiyya   - "economical"

Iqti sadiyya hina tashtarehaa "economical when you buy it"

Iqti sadiyya hina tastakhdimuhaa "economical when you use it"

Iqti sadiyya hina tab ouhaa "economical when you sell it"

Parallelism may take a number of forms. Consider, for instance, the following example taken from an advertisement for a hair removing appliance called "Feminin":

Jawda la tuqaaran … siar la yunafas   "in comparable quality … unbeatable price"

In this example, the parallel effect is created less by repetition of a key attribute of the product than by rhythm and parallelism of the two passive verbs and the negative particle (1a).

The following example of parallelism is taken from a television commercial for "Milkyland" yoghurt :

Miya f l-miyya haei "one hundred percent real"

Miya f l-miyya tabii   "one hundred percent natural"

Miya f l-miyya tazig "one hundred percent fresh"

The placing of two adjectives in succession with similar forms, (hae ei and tabii), is important for the continuity of rhythm and rhyme. Moreover, what can only be appreciated from listening to the voice-over is the rhythmic effect created by the precise staccato reading of each line.

b) Rhyme and Rhythm

When assessing rhyme and rhythm in Arabic advertising, two possible associations immediately come to mind. First, the rhyming effect in many advertisements is created by a combination of long vowel plus consonant at the end of each line or each half of a two part slogan. One of many such examples can be seen in a press advertisement for "Braun" food processors: Kull al - taqdir fi jawdat al-tandir - "[your guests'] appreciation comes entirely from the quality of preparation"

Of particular interest here is not just the rhyme created by the long "i" vowel plus final syllables of taqdir and tandir, but also the assonance occasioned by the morphological symmetry of the verbal nouns. It was noted above that Arabic lends itself well to this type of scheme. A second technique used by the copywriters is based on rhyming and rhythmic prose techniques (saj) of the classical and neo-classical periods. In advertising we find examples such as two morphologically similar words occurring in close contiguity. An example of this can be found in the following press advertisement for

"Si-Si" shampoo:

min al- in aya li I-him aya "from care to protection"

Many examples of this kind can be found in both television commercials and press advertisements. Here is the signature line for the advertisement for "GMC" water heater:

kaamul al-ijaada ...... taani a I- riyaada

"total excellence has made us pioneers"

Another interesting example is taken from the commercial for a brand of butter called "Shahiyya":

shahiyya zibda taza ...miyya miyya "Shahiyya is one hundred percent fresh butter" zibda shahiyya …… iz-zibda ill hiyya "Shahiyya butter is the real thing"

Worthy of note here is that the word 'miyya' been pronounced in its SA form, namely, miea, it would not have been possible to create a perfect rhyme with the SA feminine singular free-standing pronoun hiya. However, the ECA variant 'hiyya' rhymes perfectly with miyya. In this connection, there are other occasions when the choice of ECA as the register for an advertisement may well have been influenced by the ensuing rhyme. It is clear that an effective rhyme can be important promotional device for a product. Consider, for instance, the following commercial for "Gawhara' tea:

sh ay ah ay ah ay ... shout taomuh kam l a zz ay

" tea, tea, tea ... see how wonderful it tastes"

An important aspect of this example is that very few appropriate words in SA would rhyme with the word 'sh ay', but the expression 'izz ay' provides the copywriter with a solution since it not only rhymes perfectly with 'sh ay', but it also fits neatly here in its normal post-posed syntactic position (Gully 2003: 14).

c) Alliteration

In its strictest sense alliteration only occurs where there is repetition of the initial consonant or consonant cluster, as in this example taken from Leech (1966: 187): "Built Better by Burco for you". Leech observes, however (1969: 92) that it is the main stressed syllable of a word which generally carries the alliteration not necessarily its initial syllable". Only one example of conventional alliteration was found in the material used for this preliminary study, a disappointingly low number compared to, say, English advertising where alliteration is a common device. The following example is from the endline for the television commercial for Snack "chocolate wafers":

snack ...il-vvayfir ish-shaeiyya ish-shahiyya min k adbir

"Snack ...the naughty, tasty wafer from Cadbury" The alliteration here is created by the initial sh-phonemes of the words shaeiyya and shahiyya. Leech (ibid.: 92) calls this an example of "reverse rhyme", in which words share an initial vowel sound in addition to the sound of the initial consonant or consonant cluster.

XII. CONCLUDING REFLECTIONS

This paper adopts the view that discourse, especially discourse as complex as advertisin , always holds out more to be analyzed , leaves more to be said. It has been argued that advertising must be looked at as a social discourse with rhetorical force. That is, it has influenced not only the structure of language and the modality of lifestyle, but also the content of routine daily acts of communicative exchanges. It has ventured into the domain of persuasion, and its rhetorical categories have become omnipresent in contemporary social discourse, And, because of the growing effectiveness of its persuasion techniques, advertising has become entrenched into social discourse by virtue of its widespread diffusion throughout society. Everywhere we turn, we are bound to find some ad message designed to persuade people to buy a product. What needs to be emphasized, here, is that even though we absorb the messages transmitted by ads and commercials, and although these may have some unconscious effects on our behavior, we accept media images only if they suit our already established preferences. If we complain about the shallowness of our television and advertising culture, we really have no one to blame but ourselves. The language of advertising has also had an effect on the language of ordinary communication. Advertising language reduces thoughts to formulas stock phrases, jingles, slogans.

Accordingly, we must be aware of the subtexts that ads and commercials generate because when the human mind is aware of the hidden codes in texts, it will be better able to fend off the undesirable effects that many texts may cause. Accordingly, interdisciplinary approach may be of great value in reaching accurate understanding of the ads' messages. Ideas from the semiotic theory, pragmatics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics can help to demystify advertising creativity. Only in this way consumers can buy products, not for the magical qualities suggested by such advertising, but by relying on critical thought.

References Références Referencias

1. Aitchison, J 1999. Cutting Edge Advertising. Prentice Hall, Singapore.
2. Ang, Swee Hoon, Lee, Yih Hwai, Leong, Siew Meng. 2007. The ad creativity cube: conceptualization and initial validation. Journal of Academy of Marketing Science 35, 220-232.
3. Ang, Swee Hoon, Lim, Elison A.C. 2006. The influence of metaphors and product type on brand personality perceptions and attitudes. Journal of Advertising 35, 39-53.
4. Bailey, H. 1982. The Copywriter's Biggest Job. Adweek.
5. Bara, Bruno, G. 2005. Cognitive Pragmatics. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.
6. Barsalou, Lawrence W. 2003. Situated simulation in

the human conceptual system. Language and Cognitive Processes 18, 513-562.

7. Beasley, R and Danesi, M. 2002. Persuasive Signs. Berlin. New York.

8. Belinda, C. 2010. Discourse connectives in genres of financial disclosure: Earnings presentations vs. earnings releases. Journal of Pragmatics, 42.

9. Bell S. 1990. Semiotics and Advertising Research. A Case Study. Marketing Signs, 8: 1-6.

10. Berger, A. 2000. Ads Fads, and Consumer Culture: Advertising's Impact on American Character and Society. Lanha Littlefield.

11. Bernabach, B. 1980. A creative Credo for the Advertising Business. Advertising Age.

12. Bhatia, V. 1993. Analysing Genre: Language use in professional Settings. London: Longman.

13. Blommaert, J. 2005. Discourse. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

14. Bosco, Francesca M., Bucciarelli, Monica., Bara, Bruno G. 2006. Recognition and repair of communicative failures: A developmental perspective. Journal of Pragmatics 38, 1398-1429.

15. Bruthiaux, P. 1996. The Discourse of Classified Advertising. Oxford University Press.

16. Bucciarelli, M. 2010. Proffering a discourse in different communicative contexts. Journal of Pragmatics, 42.

17. Bucciarelli, Monica. 2007. How mental models improve learning. Mind & Society 6 (1), 67-89.

18. Caples, J. 1975. 50 Things I have Learned in 50 Years in Advertising. Advertising Age.

19. Chandler, D. 2011. Semiotics: The Basics. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

20. Clark, H. 1987. Relevance to what ? Behavioral Brain Sciences,10 (4): 714 -15.

21. Cobley, P. 2011. The Routledge companion to semiotics. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

22. Cook, G. 2001. The Discourse of Advertising. London and New York.

23. Crystal, D & Davy, D. 1969. Investigation English Style. Bloomington: Indian University Press.

24. Cutica, Ilaria, Bucciarelli, Monica. 2008. The deep versus the shallow: Effects of co-speech gestures in learning from discourse. Cognitive Science 32, 921-935.

25. Danesi, M & Perron, P. 2000. Analyzing Cultures. Bloomington: Indian University Press.

26. Dyer, G. 1982. Advertising as communication. London: Routledge.

27. Elison, A., Swee, H., Yih, H., Siew, M. 2009. Processing idioms in advertising discourse: Effects of familiarity, literality and compositionality on consumer ad response. Journal of Pragmatics, 4.

28. Fairclough, N. 1992. Discourse and Social Change. Cambridge: Polity Press.

29. Fetzer, A. & Aijmer, K. 2008. Pragmatic and discourse-analytic approaches to present-day English. Journal of Pragmatics, 4.

30. Field, J. 2011. Psycholinguistics. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

31. Fowler, R. 1991. Language in the News: Discourse and Ideology in the Press. London: Routledge.

32. Francis, C. 2008. How indexicals function in texts: Discourse, text, and one neo-Gricean account of indexical reference. Journal of Pragmatics, 40.

33. Geis, M. 1982. The Language of Television Advertising. New York: Academic Press.

34. Gibbs, Raymond, W. 2002. A new look at literal meaning in understanding what is said and implicated. Journal of Pragmatics 34, 457-486.

35. Givon, T. 1979. On Understanding Grammar. New York: Academic Press.

36. Givon, Talmy. 2005. Context as other minds. The Pragmatics of Sociality, Cognition and Communication. John Benjamins, Amsterdam/Philadelphia.

37. Goddard, A 1998. The Language of Advertising. London and New York.

38. Goddard, A. & Geesin, B. 2011. Language and Technology. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

39. Goldman, R & Papson, S. 1996. Sign Wars: The Cluttered Landscape of Advertising. New York: The Guilford Press.

40. Goleman, J. 1983. Syntax and Semantics. Vol. 3: Speech Acts. New York: Academic Press.

41. Gregorious, C. 2011. Language, ideology and identity in serial killer narrative. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

42. Grice, P. 1975. Logic and Conversation. In Cole, P. & Morgan, J. (eds.) Syntax and Semantics Vol. 3: Speech Acts. New York: Academic Press.

43. Gully, A. 2003. The Discourse of Arabic Advertising: Preliminary Investigation. Journal of Arabic and Islamic Studies.

44. Halliday, M. & Hasan, R. 1976. Cohesion in English. London: Longman.

45. Harris, A. 1995. Absolutely a Semiome: Visual and Linguistic Manipulation in Print Advertising. In Spinks C. and Deely, J. (eds.), Semiotics. New York: Peter Lang.

46. Hart, Christopher, Lukes Dominik (Eds.). 2007. Cognitive linguistics in critical analysis: Application and theory, Cambridge Scholars Press, Newcastle.

47. Hua, Z. 2011. The language and intercultural communication reader. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

48. Iten, C. 2005. Linguistic meaning, truth conditions and relevance: The case of concessive. Basingstoke: Palgrave-McMillan.

49. Jaszczolt, K.M. 2005. Default semantics: Foundations of a compositional theory of acts of communication. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

50. Joohnson, Lairs, Philip, N., Girotto, Vittorio, Legrenzi, Paolo. 2004. Reasoning from

inconsistency to consistency. Psychological Review 111, 640-661.

51. Kimmel, M. 2010. Why we mix metaphors (and mix them well): Discourse coherence, conceptual metaphor, and beyond. Journal of Pragmatics, 42.

52. Koller, V. 2005. Critical discourse analysis and social cognition: Evidence from business media discourse. Discourse and Society 16, 199-224.

53. Leech, G. 1966. English in Advertising London: Longman.

54. Leeuwen, T. 2011. Introducing social semiotics. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

55. Levinson, S. 1989. Pragmatics. Cambridge University Press.

56. LoCastro, V. 2011. Pragmatics for language educators. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

57. Mardh, I. 1980. Headlines: On the Grammar of English Front Page Headlines, Malmo, Sweden.

58. Mautner, G. 2011. Language and the market society. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

59. Mc Quarrie, Edward E., Phillips, Barbara J., 2005. Indirect persuasion in advertising: How consumers process metaphors presented in pictures and words. Journal of Advertising 34, 7-20.

60. McLuhan, M. 1964. Understanding Media. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

61. Mothersbaugh, David L., Huhmann, Bruce A., Franke, George R. 2002. Combinatory and separative effects of rheotorical figures on consumers' effort and focus in ad processing. Journal of Consumer Research 28, 589-602.

62. Musolff, A., 2006. Metaphor scenarios in public discourse. Metaphor and Symbol 21 (1), 28-38.

63. Nair, B. 1992. Gender and Generative Grammar: Deconstructing the Matrimonial Column. In Toolan, M. (ed.), Language, Text and Context. London: Routledge.

64. Nunan, D. 2011. Language and Culture. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

65. Oakley, Todd. 2007. Image Schema. In: Geeraerts, Dirk (ed.). The Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics. Oxford UP, University Press, p. 214-235.

66. O'Donnell, W. & Todd, L. 1991. Variety in Contemporary English London: Harper/Collins Academic.

67. O'Keeffe, A. & Clancy, B. 2011. Introducing pragmatics in use. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

68. Phillips, Barbara J. 2000. The impact of verbal anchoring on consumer response to image ads. Journal of Advertising 29, 15-24.

69. Pragglejazz Group. 2007. MIP: A method for identifying metamorphically used words in discourse. Metaphor & Symbol, 22-139.

70. Preston, I. 1982. The Association Model of the Advertising Communication Process. Journal of Advertising 11(2): 3-15.

71. Quinn, Nazomi, 2005. Finding culture in talk: A collection of methods. New York/Basingstoke.

72. Rader, Aaron, W., Sloutsky, Vladimir, M. 2002. Processing of logically valid and logically invalid conditional inferences in discourse comprehension. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 28, 59-68.

73. Robinson, P. and Ellis, N. 2011. Handbook of cognitive linguistics and second language acquisition. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

74. Rossi, W. 1976. The Sex Lives of the Foot and Shoe. New York: Dutton.

75. Saussure L. de and Schulz P. (eds.) 2005. Manipulation and ideologies in the twentieth century: Discourse, Language, Mind. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

76. Saussure, L. de. 2007. Procedural pragmatics and the study of discourse. Pragmatics and Cognition 15/1 (Special issue, 'Pragmatic Interfaces'): 139-160.

77. Sayer, A. 2006. Language and significance, or the importance of import: Implications for critical discourse analysis. Journal of Language and Politics 5 (3), 449-471.

78. Scorse, G. 1987. Ogilvy Versus Bernbach. Advertising Age.

79. Sebba, M. & Mahootian, S. and Johnson, C. 2011. Language mixing and code-switching in writing. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

80. Segalowitz, N. Cognitive bases of second language fluency. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

81. Seglin, J. 1989. The New Era of Ad Measurement. Adweek's Marketing Week: 22-25.

82. Sells, P. & Gonzalez, S. 2002. The Language of Advertising. http: www.stanford.

83. Sperper, D. & Wilson, D. 1988. Relevance: Communication and Cognition. Oxford: Blackwell.

84. Stalnaker, R. 1978. Assertion. In Cole, P. (ed.), Syntax, Semantics, Semantics, Pragmatics. New York: Academic Press.

85. Stauderman, B. 1985. Do You Say What you Mean ? Advertising /Marketing Review.

86. Stauderman, H. 1935. Newspaper Headlines: A Study in Linguistic Method. London: Allen & Unwin.

87. Strawson, P. 1952. Introduction to Logical Theory. London: Methuen.

88. Svanlund, Jan. 2007. Metaphor and convention. Cognitive Linguistics 18, 47-89.

89. Talbot, M. 1994. Relevance. In Asher, R. and Simpson, J. (eds.). The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics. Vol. (2): Pergamon Press.

90. Tanaka, K. 1994. Advertising Language. A pragmatic Approach to Advertisements in Britain and Japan. London: Routledge.

91. Toncar, Mark, Munch, James. 2001. Consumer response to tropes in print advertising. Journal of Advertising 30, 55-65.

92. Toolan, M. 1988. The Language of Press Advertising. In Ghadessy, M. (ed.). Registers of Written English: Situational Factors and Linguistic Features. London: Pinter.

93. Twitchell, J. 2000. Twenty Ads that Shock the World. New York: Crown.

94. Tyler, A. 2011. Applying Cognitive Linguistics. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

95. Van Dijk, T. 1988. News as Discourse. Hillsdale, NJ Lawrence Eribaum.

96. Van Mulken, Margot, va Enschot-van Dijk, Resnke, Hoeken, Hans. 2005. Puns, relevance and appreciation in advertisements. Journal of Pragmatics 37, 707-721.

97. Vestergaard, T. & Schroder, K. 1985. The Language of Advertising. Oxford: Blackwell.

98. Wallace, C. 1992. Reading. Language Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education Series. Oxford University Press.

99. Walker, J. 2011. Variation in linguistic systems. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

100. Widdowson, H. 1983. Learning, Language Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education Series. Oxford: University Press.

101. Widdowson, Henry G. 2004. Text, context, pretext, critical issues in discourse analysis. Blackwell, Oxford.

102. Wilks, Y. 1987 .Relevance must be to someone. Behavioral Brain Sciences, 10 (4): 735-736.

103. Wodak, R. 2004b. Critical discourse analysis. In C. Seale, G. Gobo, J.F. Gubrium and D. Silverman (eds.). Qualitative Research Practice. London: Sage, 197-213.

104. Wodak, R. 2006a. Mediation between discourse and society: assessing cognitive approaches in CDA. Discourse Studies 8, 179-190.

105. Wodak, R. 2007. Pragmatics and critical discourse analysis. A cross-theoretical inquiry. Pragmatics and Cognition 15/1 (Special issue 'Pragmatic Interfaces'): 203-234.

106. Woodward, G. and Denton, R. 1988. Persuasion and Influence in American Life. Prospect Heights. III: Waveland.

Global Journals Inc. (US) Guidelines Handbook 2012

FELLOW OF ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY IN HUMAN SCIENCE (FARSHS)

- FARSHS' title will be awarded to the person after approval of Editor-in-Chief and Editorial Board. The title 'FARSHS" can be added to name in the following manner. eg. Dr. John E. Hall, Ph.D., FARSHS or William Walldroff Ph. D., M.S., FARSHS
- Being FARSHS is a respectful honor. It authenticates your research activities. After becoming FARSHS, you can use 'FARSHS' title as you use your degree in suffix of your name. This will definitely will enhance and add up your name. You can use it on your Career Counseling Materials/CV/Resume/Visiting Card/Name Plate etc.
- 60% Discount will be provided to FARSHS members for publishing research papers in Global Journals Inc., if our Editorial Board and Peer Reviewers accept the paper. For the life time, if you are author/co-author of any paper bill sent to you will automatically be discounted one by 60%
- FARSHS will be given a renowned, secure, free professional email address with 100 GB of space eg.johnhall@globaljournals.org. You will be facilitated with Webmail, SpamAssassin, Email Forwarders, Auto-Responders, Email Delivery Route tracing, etc.
- FARSHS member is eligible to become paid peer reviewer at Global Journals Inc. to earn up to 15% of realized author charges taken from author of respective paper. After reviewing 5 or more papers you can request to transfer the amount to your bank account or to your PayPal account.
- Eg. If we had taken 420 USD from author, we can send 63 USD to your account.
- FARSHS member can apply for free approval, grading and certification of some of their Educational and Institutional Degrees from Global Journals Inc. (US) and Open Association of Research,Society U.S.A.
- After you are FARSHS. You can send us scanned copy of all of your documents. We will verify, grade and certify them within a month. It will be based on your academic records, quality of research papers published by you, and 50 more criteria. This is beneficial for your job interviews as recruiting organization need not just rely on you for authenticity and your unknown qualities, you would have authentic ranks of all of your documents. Our scale is unique worldwide.

- FARSHS member can proceed to get benefits of free research podcasting in Global Research Radio with their research documents, slides and online movies.

- After your publication anywhere in the world, you can upload you research paper with your recorded voice or you can use our professional RJs to record your paper their voice. We can also stream your conference videos and display your slides online.

- FARSHS will be eligible for free application of Standardization of their Researches by Open Scientific Standards. Standardization is next step and level after publishing in a journal. A team of research and professional will work with you to take your research to its next level, which is worldwide open standardization.

- FARSHS is eligible to earn from their researches: While publishing his paper with Global Journals Inc. (US), FARSHS can decide whether he/she would like to publish his/her research in closed manner. When readers will buy that individual research paper for reading, 80% of its earning by Global Journals Inc. (US) will be transferred to FARSHS member's bank account after certain threshold balance. There is no time limit for collection. FARSHS member can decide its price and we can help in decision.

MEMBER OF ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY IN HUMAN SCIENCE (MARSHS)

- MARSHS title will be awarded to the person/institution after approval of Editor-in-Chef and Editorial Board. The title 'MARSHS' can be added to name in the following manner: eg. Dr. Thomas Knoll, Ph.D., MARSHS

- MARSHS can submit one paper every year for publication without any charges. The paper will be sent to two peer reviewers. The paper will be published after the acceptance of peer reviewers and Editorial Board.

- Free 2GB Web-space will be allotted to 'MARSHS' along with sub Domain to contribute and participate in our activities.

- A professional email address will be allotted with free 1GB email space.

- MARSHS will be authorized to receive e-Journal GJHSS for lifetime.

ANNUAL MEMBER

- Annual Member will be authorized to receive e-Journal GJHSS for one year (subscription for one year).
- The member will be allotted free 1 GB Web-space along with subDomain to contribute and participate in our activities.
- A professional email address will be allotted free 500 MB email space.

PAPER PUBLICATION

- The members can publish paper once. The paper will be sent to two-peer reviewer. The paper will be published after the acceptance of peer reviewers and Editorial Board.
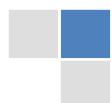
Process of submission of Research Paper

The Area or field of specialization may or may not be of any category as mentioned in 'Scope of Journal' menu of the GlobalJournals.org website. There are 37 Research Journal categorized with Six parental Journals GJCST, GJMR, GJRE, GJMBR, GJSFR, GJHSS. For Authors should prefer the mentioned categories. There are three widely used systems UDC, DDC and LCC. The details are available as 'Knowledge Abstract' at Home page. The major advantage of this coding is that, the research work will be exposed to and shared with all over the world as we are being abstracted and indexed worldwide.

The paper should be in proper format. The format can be downloaded from first page of 'Author Guideline' Menu. The Author is expected to follow the general rules as mentioned in this menu. The paper should be written in MS-Word Format (*.DOC,*.DOCX).

 The Author can submit the paper either online or offline. The authors should prefer online submission.<u>Online Submission</u>: There are three ways to submit your paper:

(A) (I) First, register yourself using top right corner of Home page then Login. If you are already registered, then login using your username and password.

(II) Choose corresponding Journal.

(III) Click 'Submit Manuscript'. Fill required information and Upload the paper.

(B) If you are using Internet Explorer, then Direct Submission through Homepage is also available.

(C) If these two are not convenient, and then email the paper directly to dean@globaljournals.org.

Offline Submission: Author can send the typed form of paper by Post. However, online submission should be preferred.
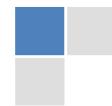
Preferred Author Guidelines

MANUSCRIPT STYLE INSTRUCTION (Must be strictly followed)

Page Size: 8.27" X 11'"

- Left Margin: 0.65
- Right Margin: 0.65
- Top Margin: 0.75
- Bottom Margin: 0.75
- Font type of all text should be Swis 721 Lt BT.
- Paper Title should be of Font Size 24 with one Column section.
- Author Name in Font Size of 11 with one column as of Title.
- Abstract Font size of 9 Bold, "Abstract" word in Italic Bold.
- Main Text: Font size 10 with justified two columns section
- Two Column with Equal Column with of 3.38 and Gaping of .2
- First Character must be three lines Drop capped.
- Paragraph before Spacing of 1 pt and After of 0 pt.
- Line Spacing of 1 pt
- Large Images must be in One Column
- Numbering of First Main Headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman Letters, Capital Letter, and Font Size of 10.
- Numbering of Second Main Headings (Heading 2) must be in Alphabets, Italic, and Font Size of 10.

You can use your own standard format also.
Author Guidelines:

1. General,

2. Ethical Guidelines,

3. Submission of Manuscripts,

4. Manuscript's Category,

5. Structure and Format of Manuscript,

6. After Acceptance.

1. GENERAL

Before submitting your research paper, one is advised to go through the details as mentioned in following heads. It will be beneficial, while peer reviewer justify your paper for publication.

Scope

The Global Journals Inc. (US) welcome the submission of original paper, review paper, survey article relevant to the all the streams of Philosophy and knowledge. The Global Journals Inc. (US) is parental platform for Global Journal of Computer Science and Technology, Researches in Engineering, Medical Research, Science Frontier Research, Human Social Science, Management, and Business organization. The choice of specific field can be done otherwise as following in Abstracting and Indexing Page on this Website. As the all Global

Journals Inc. (US) are being abstracted and indexed (in process) by most of the reputed organizations. Topics of only narrow interest will not be accepted unless they have wider potential or consequences.

2. ETHICAL GUIDELINES

Authors should follow the ethical guidelines as mentioned below for publication of research paper and research activities.

Papers are accepted on strict understanding that the material in whole or in part has not been, nor is being, considered for publication elsewhere. If the paper once accepted by Global Journals Inc. (US) and Editorial Board, will become the copyright of the Global Journals Inc. (US).

Authorship: The authors and coauthors should have active contribution to conception design, analysis and interpretation of findings. They should critically review the contents and drafting of the paper. All should approve the final version of the paper before submission

The Global Journals Inc. (US) follows the definition of authorship set up by the Global Academy of Research and Development. According to the Global Academy of R&D authorship, criteria must be based on:

1) Substantial contributions to conception and acquisition of data, analysis and interpretation of the findings.

2) Drafting the paper and revising it critically regarding important academic content.

3) Final approval of the version of the paper to be published.

All authors should have been credited according to their appropriate contribution in research activity and preparing paper. Contributors who do not match the criteria as authors may be mentioned under Acknowledgement.

Acknowledgements: Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned under acknowledgement. The specifications of the source of funding for the research if appropriate can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with address.

Appeal of Decision: The Editorial Board's decision on publication of the paper is final and cannot be appealed elsewhere.

Permissions: It is the author's responsibility to have prior permission if all or parts of earlier published illustrations are used in this paper.

Please mention proper reference and appropriate acknowledgements wherever expected.

If all or parts of previously published illustrations are used, permission must be taken from the copyright holder concerned. It is the author's responsibility to take these in writing.

Approval for reproduction/modification of any information (including figures and tables) published elsewhere must be obtained by the authors/copyright holders before submission of the manuscript. Contributors (Authors) are responsible for any copyright fee involved.

3. SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS

Manuscripts should be uploaded via this online submission page. The online submission is most efficient method for submission of papers, as it enables rapid distribution of manuscripts and consequently speeds up the review procedure. It also enables authors to know the status of their own manuscripts by emailing us. Complete instructions for submitting a paper is available below.

Manuscript submission is a systematic procedure and little preparation is required beyond having all parts of your manuscript in a given format and a computer with an Internet connection and a Web browser. Full help and instructions are provided on-screen. As an author, you will be prompted for login and manuscript details as Field of Paper and then to upload your manuscript file(s) according to the instructions.
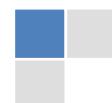
To avoid postal delays, all transaction is preferred by e-mail. A finished manuscript submission is confirmed by e-mail immediately and your paper enters the editorial process with no postal delays. When a conclusion is made about the publication of your paper by our Editorial Board, revisions can be submitted online with the same procedure, with an occasion to view and respond to all comments.

Complete support for both authors and co-author is provided.

4. MANUSCRIPT'S CATEGORY

Based on potential and nature, the manuscript can be categorized under the following heads:

Original research paper: Such papers are reports of high-level significant original research work.

Review papers: These are concise, significant but helpful and decisive topics for young researchers.

Research articles: These are handled with small investigation and applications

Research letters: The letters are small and concise comments on previously published matters.

5. STRUCTURE AND FORMAT OF MANUSCRIPT

The recommended size of original research paper is less than seven thousand words, review papers fewer than seven thousands words also.Preparation of research paper or how to write research paper, are major hurdle, while writing manuscript. The research articles and research letters should be fewer than three thousand words, the structure original research paper; sometime review paper should be as follows:

 Papers: These are reports of significant research (typically less than 7000 words equivalent, including tables, figures, references), and comprise:

(a)Title should be relevant and commensurate with the theme of the paper.

(b) A brief Summary, "Abstract" (less than 150 words) containing the major results and conclusions.

(c) Up to ten keywords, that precisely identifies the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.

(d) An Introduction, giving necessary background excluding subheadings; objectives must be clearly declared.

(e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition; sources of information must be given and numerical methods must be specified by reference, unless non-standard.

(f) Results should be presented concisely, by well-designed tables and/or figures; the same data may not be used in both; suitable statistical data should be given. All data must be obtained with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage. As reproduced design has been recognized to be important to experiments for a considerable time, the Editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned un-refereed;

(g) Discussion should cover the implications and consequences, not just recapitulating the results; conclusions should be summarizing.

(h) Brief Acknowledgements.

(i) References in the proper form.

Authors should very cautiously consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate efficiently. Papers are much more likely to be accepted, if they are cautiously designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and be conventional to the approach and instructions. They will in addition, be published with much less delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

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

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

Format

Language: The language of publication is UK English. Authors, for whom English is a second language, must have their manuscript efficiently edited by an English-speaking person before submission to make sure that, the English is of high excellence. It is preferable, that manuscripts should be professionally edited.

Standard Usage, Abbreviations, and Units: Spelling and hyphenation should be conventional to The Concise Oxford English Dictionary. Statistics and measurements should at all times be given in figures, e.g. 16 min, except for when the number begins a sentence. When the number does not refer to a unit of measurement it should be spelt in full unless, it is 160 or greater.

Abbreviations supposed to be used carefully. The abbreviated name or expression is supposed to be cited in full at first usage, followed by the conventional abbreviation in parentheses.

Metric SI units are supposed to generally be used excluding where they conflict with current practice or are confusing. For illustration, 1.4 l rather than 1.4 × 10-3 m3, or 4 mm somewhat than 4 × 10-3 m. Chemical formula and solutions must identify the form used, e.g. anhydrous or hydrated, and the concentration must be in clearly defined units. Common species names should be followed by underlines at the first mention. For following use the generic name should be constricted to a single letter, if it is clear.

Structure

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals Inc. (US), ought to include:

Title: The title page must carry an instructive title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) wherever the work was carried out. The full postal address in addition with the e-mail address of related author must be given. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining and indexing.

Abstract, used in Original Papers and Reviews:

Optimizing Abstract for Search Engines

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or similar. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. This in turn will make it more likely to be viewed and/or cited in a further work. Global Journals Inc. (US) have compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Key Words

A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

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

Search engines for most searches, use Boolean searching, which is somewhat different from Internet searches. The Boolean search uses "operators," words (and, or, not, and near) that enable you to expand or narrow your affords. Tips for research paper while preparing research paper are very helpful guideline of research paper.

Choice of key words is first tool of tips to write research paper. Research paper writing is an art.A few tips for deciding as strategically as possible about keyword search:

- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
- One should avoid outdated words.

Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

Numerical Methods: Numerical methods used should be clear and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Acknowledgements: Please make these as concise as possible.

References

References follow the Harvard scheme of referencing. References in the text should cite the authors' names followed by the time of their publication, unless there are three or more authors when simply the first author's name is quoted followed by et al. unpublished work has to only be cited where necessary, and only in the text. Copies of references in press in other journals have to be supplied with submitted typescripts. It is necessary that all citations and references be carefully checked before submission, as mistakes or omissions will cause delays.

References to information on the World Wide Web can be given, but only if the information is available without charge to readers on an official site. Wikipedia and Similar websites are not allowed where anyone can change the information. Authors will be asked to make available electronic copies of the cited information for inclusion on the Global Journals Inc. (US) homepage at the judgment of the Editorial Board.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals Inc. (US) recommend that, citation of online-published papers and other material should be done via a DOI (digital object identifier). If an author cites anything, which does not have a DOI, they run the risk of the cited material not being noticeable.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals Inc. (US) recommend the use of a tool such as Reference Manager for reference management and formatting.

Tables, Figures and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be few in number, cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g. Table 4, a self-explanatory caption and be on a separate sheet. Vertical lines should not be used.

Figures: Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always take in a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g. Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in electronic form by e-mailing them.

Preparation of Electronic Figures for Publication

Even though low quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (or e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Do not use pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings) in relation to the imitation size. Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement Form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution (at final image size) ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs) : >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.
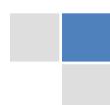
Color Charges: It is the rule of the Global Journals Inc. (US) for authors to pay the full cost for the reproduction of their color artwork. Hence, please note that, if there is color artwork in your manuscript when it is accepted for publication, we would require you to complete and return a color work agreement form before your paper can be published.

Figure Legends: Self-explanatory legends of all figures should be incorporated separately under the heading 'Legends to Figures'. In the full-text online edition of the journal, figure legends may possibly be truncated in abbreviated links to the full screen version. Therefore, the first 100 characters of any legend should notify the reader, about the key aspects of the figure.

6. AFTER ACCEPTANCE

Upon approval of a paper for publication, the manuscript will be forwarded to the dean, who is responsible for the publication of the Global Journals Inc. (US).

6.1 Proof Corrections

The corresponding author will receive an e-mail alert containing a link to a website or will be attached. A working e-mail address must therefore be provided for the related author.

Acrobat Reader will be required in order to read this file. This software can be downloaded

(Free of charge) from the following website:

www.adobe.com/products/acrobat/readstep2.html. This will facilitate the file to be opened, read on screen, and printed out in order for any corrections to be added. Further instructions will be sent with the proof.

Proofs must be returned to the dean at dean@globaljournals.org within three days of receipt.

As changes to proofs are costly, we inquire that you only correct typesetting errors. All illustrations are retained by the publisher. Please note that the authors are responsible for all statements made in their work, including changes made by the copy editor.

6.2 Early View of Global Journals Inc. (US) (Publication Prior to Print)

The Global Journals Inc. (US) are enclosed by our publishing's Early View service. Early View articles are complete full-text articles sent in advance of their publication. Early View articles are absolute and final. They have been completely reviewed, revised and edited for publication, and the authors' final corrections have been incorporated. Because they are in final form, no changes can be made after sending them. The nature of Early View articles means that they do not yet have volume, issue or page numbers, so Early View articles cannot be cited in the conventional way.

6.3 Author Services

Online production tracking is available for your article through Author Services. Author Services enables authors to track their article - once it has been accepted - through the production process to publication online and in print. Authors can check the status of their articles online and choose to receive automated e-mails at key stages of production. The authors will receive an e-mail with a unique link that enables them to register and have their article automatically added to the system. Please ensure that a complete e-mail address is provided when submitting the manuscript.

6.4 Author Material Archive Policy

Please note that if not specifically requested, publisher will dispose off hardcopy & electronic information submitted, after the two months of publication. If you require the return of any information submitted, please inform the Editorial Board or dean as soon as possible.

6.5 Offprint and Extra Copies

A PDF offprint of the online-published article will be provided free of charge to the related author, and may be distributed according to the Publisher's terms and conditions. Additional paper offprint may be ordered by emailing us at: editor@globaljournals.org .

the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area? If the answer of these types of questions will be "Yes" then you can choose that topic. In most of the cases, you may have to conduct the surveys and have to visit several places because this field is related to Computer Science and Information Technology. Also, you may have to do a lot of work to find all rise and falls regarding the various data of that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information.

2. Evaluators are human: First thing to remember that evaluators are also human being. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So, present your Best.

3. Think Like Evaluators: If you are in a confusion or getting demotivated that your paper will be accepted by evaluators or not, then think and try to evaluate your paper like an Evaluator. Try to understand that what an evaluator wants in your research paper and automatically you will have your answer.

4. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

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

6. Use of computer is recommended: As you are doing research in the field of Computer Science, then this point is quite obvious.

7. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable to judge good software then you can lose quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various software programs available to help you, which you can get through Internet.

8. Use the Internet for help: An excellent start for your paper can be by using the Google. It is an excellent search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question how to write my research paper or find model research paper. From the internet library you can download books. If you have all required books make important reading selecting and analyzing the specified information. Then put together research paper sketch out.

9. Use and get big pictures: Always use encyclopedias, Wikipedia to get pictures so that you can go into the depth.

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

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

12. Make all efforts: Make all efforts to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in introduction, that what is the need of a particular research paper. Polish your work by good skill of writing and always give an evaluator, what he wants.

13. Have backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either in your computer or in paper. This will help you to not to lose any of your important.

14. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several and unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating "hotchpotch." So always, try to make and include those diagrams, which are made by your own to improve readability and understandability of your paper.

15. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history or current affairs then use of quotes become essential but if study is relevant to science then use of quotes is not preferable.
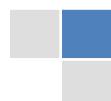
16. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense, to present those events that happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate future happening events. Use of improper and wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid the sentences that are incomplete.

17. Never use online paper: If you are getting any paper on Internet, then never use it as your research paper because it might be possible that evaluator has already seen it or maybe it is outdated version.

18. Pick a good study spot: To do your research studies always try to pick a spot, which is quiet. Every spot is not for studies. Spot that suits you choose it and proceed further.

19. Know what you know: Always try to know, what you know by making objectives. Else, you will be confused and cannot achieve your target.

20. Use good quality grammar: Always use a good quality grammar and use words that will throw positive impact on evaluator. Use of good quality grammar does not mean to use tough words, that for each word the evaluator has to go through dictionary. Do not start sentence with a conjunction. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Ignore passive voice. Do not ever use a big word when a diminutive one would suffice. Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. Prepositions are not expressions to finish sentences with. It is incorrect to ever divide an infinitive. Avoid clichés like the disease. Also, always shun irritating alliteration. Use language that is simple and straight forward. put together a neat summary.

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

22. Never start in last minute: Always start at right time and give enough time to research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

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

24. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if evaluator has seen it anywhere you will be in trouble.

25. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend for your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health then all your efforts will be in vain. For a quality research, study is must, and this can be done by taking proper rest and food.

26. Go for seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.

27. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give rest to your mind by listening to soft music or by sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory.

28. Make colleagues: Always try to make colleagues. No matter how sharper or intelligent you are, if you make colleagues you can have several ideas, which will be helpful for your research.

29. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, then search its reasons, its benefits, and demerits.

30. Think and then print: When you will go to print your paper, notice that tables are not be split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

31. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information, like, I have used MS Excel to draw graph. Do not add irrelevant and inappropriate material. These all will create superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should NEVER take a broad view. Analogy in script is like feathers on a snake. Not at all use a large word when a very small one would be

sufficient. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Amplification is a billion times of inferior quality than sarcasm.

32. Never oversimplify everything: To add material in your research paper, never go for oversimplification. This will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be more or less specific. Also too, by no means, ever use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions aren't essential and shouldn't be there used. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands and abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas, that are, not necessary. Parenthetical words however should be together with this in commas. Understatement is all the time the complete best way to put onward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

33. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. Significant figures and appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibitive. Proofread carefully at final stage. In the end give outline to your arguments. Spot out perspectives of further study of this subject. Justify your conclusion by at the bottom of them with sufficient justifications and examples.

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

INFORMAL GUIDELINES OF RESEARCH PAPER WRITING

Key points to remember:

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

Final Points:

A purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people to interpret your effort selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, each section to start on a new page.

The introduction will be compiled from reference matter and will reflect the design processes or outline of basis that direct you to make study. As you will carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed as like that. The result segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and will direct the reviewers next to the similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you took to carry out your study. The discussion section will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implication of the results. The use of good quality references all through the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness of prior workings.

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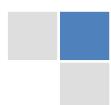
General style:

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

To make a paper clear

· Adhere to recommended page limits

Mistakes to evade

- Insertion a title at the foot of a page with the subsequent text on the next page

- Separating a table/chart or figure - impound each figure/table to a single page
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence

In every sections of your document

· Use standard writing style including articles ("a", "the," etc.)

· Keep on paying attention on the research topic of the paper

· Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding for the abstract)

· Align the primary line of each section

· Present your points in sound order

· Use present tense to report well accepted

· Use past tense to describe specific results

· Shun familiar wording, don't address the reviewer directly, and don't use slang, slang language, or superlatives

· Shun use of extra pictures - include only those figures essential to presenting results

Title Page:

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

Abstract:

The summary should be two hundred words or less. It should briefly and clearly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript--must have precise statistics. It should not have abnormal acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Shun citing references at this point.

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

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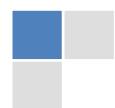
shortening the outcome. Sum up the study, with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to maintain the initial two items to no more than one ruling each.

- Reason of the study - theory, overall issue, purpose
- Fundamental goal
- To the point depiction of the research
- Consequences, including definite statistics - if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account quantitative data; results of any numerical analysis should be reported
- Significant conclusions or questions that track from the research(es)

Approach:

- Single section, and succinct
- As a outline of job done, it is always written in past tense
- A conceptual should situate on its own, and not submit to any other part of the paper such as a form or table
- Center on shortening results - bound background information to a verdict or two, if completely necessary
- What you account in an conceptual must be regular with what you reported in the manuscript
- Exact spelling, clearness of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else

Introduction:

The **Introduction** should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable to comprehend and calculate the purpose of your study without having to submit to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give most important references but shun difficult to make a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. In the introduction, describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will have no attention in your result. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here. Following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study
- Shield the model - why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? You strength remark on its appropriateness from a abstract point of vision as well as point out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. Status your particular theory (es) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Very for a short time explain the tentative propose and how it skilled the declared objectives.

Approach:

- Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done.
- Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point with every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need a least of four paragraphs.
- Present surroundings information only as desirable in order hold up a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read the whole thing you know about a topic.
- Shape the theory/purpose specifically - do not take a broad view.
- As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (Methods and Materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A sound written Procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replacement your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt for the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to spare your outcome but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section. When a technique is used that has been well described in another object, mention the specific item describing a way but draw the basic

principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to text all particular resources and broad procedures, so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step by step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

- Explain materials individually only if the study is so complex that it saves liberty this way.
- Embrace particular materials, and any tools or provisions that are not frequently found in laboratories.
- Do not take in frequently found.
- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

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

Approach:

- It is embarrassed or not possible to use vigorous voice when documenting methods with no using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result when script up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.
- Use standard style in this and in every other part of the paper - avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from

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

Results:

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

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Carry on to be to the point, by means of statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.You must obviously differentiate material that would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matter should not be submitted at all except requested by the instructor.

Content

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

What to stay away from

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surroundings information, or try to explain anything.
- Not at all, take in raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
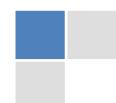
- Do not present the similar data more than once.
- Manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate the identical information.
- Never confuse figures with tables - there is a difference.

Approach
- As forever, use past tense when you submit to your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.
- Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report
- If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results part.

Figures and tables
- If you put figures and tables at the end of the details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attach appendix materials, such as raw facts
- Despite of position, each figure must be numbered one after the other and complete with subtitle
- In spite of position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other and complete with heading
- All figure and table must be adequately complete that it could situate on its own, divide from text

Discussion:

The Discussion is expected the trickiest segment to write and describe. A lot of papers submitted for journal are discarded based on problems with the Discussion. There is no head of state for how long a argument should be. Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implication of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and hold up for all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of result should be visibly described. Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved with prospect, and let it drop at that.

- Make a decision if each premise is supported, discarded, or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."
- Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work
- You may propose future guidelines, such as how the experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
- Try to present substitute explanations if sensible alternatives be present.
- One research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind, where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

- When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from available information
- Submit to work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.
- Submit to generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

<center>ADMINISTRATION RULES LISTED BEFORE

SUBMITTING YOUR RESEARCH PAPER TO GLOBAL JOURNALS INC. (US)</center>

Please carefully note down following rules and regulation before submitting your Research Paper to Global Journals Inc. (US):

Segment Draft and Final Research Paper: You have to strictly follow the template of research paper. If it is not done your paper may get rejected.

- The **major constraint** is that you must independently make all content, tables, graphs, and facts that are offered in the paper. You must write each part of the paper wholly on your own. The Peer-reviewers need to identify your own perceptive of the concepts in your own terms. NEVER extract straight from any foundation, and never rephrase someone else's analysis.

- Do not give permission to anyone else to "PROOFREAD" your manuscript.

- Methods to avoid Plagiarism is applied by us on every paper, if found guilty, you will be blacklisted by all of our collaborated research groups, your institution will be informed for this and strict legal actions will be taken immediately.)

- To guard yourself and others from possible illegal use please do not permit anyone right to use to your paper and files.

CRITERION FOR GRADING A RESEARCH PAPER (COMPILATION)
BY GLOBAL JOURNALS INC. (US)

Please note that following table is only a Grading of "Paper Compilation" and not on "Performed/Stated Research" whose grading solely depends on Individual Assigned Peer Reviewer and Editorial Board Member. These can be available only on request and after decision of Paper. This report will be the property of Global Journals Inc. (US).

Grades			
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

INDEX

A

abatement · 44
access · 28, 30, 31, 32, 41, 51, 66, 68, 72, 78, 81, 83, 88
adjudged · 92, 93
advancement · 45, 104
Advertising · 1, 101, 103, 105, 107, 108, 109, 110, 112, 113, 115, 117, 118, 119, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125
aesthetic · 51
afford · 15, 81
alliances · 67, 69
analytic) · 96
anxiety · 7, 55
Appraisal · 58, 60, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100
appreciation · 5, 118, 125
attaining · 24
attributable · 25, 41

C

cognitive · 3, 4, 100, 113, 115, 117, 124, 125
commensurate, · 55
competence‖ · 50
Complementarities · 1, 38
connotative · 110
contingency · 12
contractual · 18, 20, 23
convincing · 97
correlates · 15

D

deductively · 92
Descriptive · 78, 85
detected · 54
disproportionately · 64
disseminating · 80
docile · 34, 76
dwindling · 17

E

EFFICIENCIES · 42
Egalitarian · 71
emission · 40, 41, 44, 45
Emphases · 38, 40

Emphasis

Emphasis · 1, 62, 64, 65, 68
encoders · 107
encyclopedia' · 103
enhancing · 56
entrenched · 103, 112, 115, 119
exception · 28
exposure · 49, 50, 56, 58, 60

F

FREQUENT · 43

G

guarantor · 21, 22, 23, 25, 26

H

hired · 21, 22, 23, 26

I

inaccessibity · 61
inception · 32
infrastructures · 28, 32, 35
intentional. · 20
interdependency · 73
interpretation · 47, 80, 107, 109, 110, 118
iterates · 81

J

jeopardizing · 76

K

knitted · 10

L

liberalisation · 62, 65, 66
linguistic · 3, 4, 47, 50, 95, 96, 101, 105, 107, 108, 109, 110, 118, 125

save our planet

Global Journal of Human Social Science

9   2

70116 58698   61427>

ISSN 975587