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On the Value of Chongqing Back-Feeding Agriculture Legislation in China

By Zhao Qian

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Abstract - The purpose of this study is to find out the value of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture legislation in China by method of literature analysis so as to provide the guidance for establishing the related legislative regulations. The purpose value of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture legislation in China is to establish the trial legislation for back-feeding agriculture in China based on the systematical analysis of basic theories, institutional arrangement and operational mechanism. The moral value of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture legislation in China is to ensure the fairness in entities and procedures, and the efficiency in orders and benefits. It is concluded that the legislation of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture in China is quite necessary regards to the two type values, i.e., purpose and moral values.

Keywords : Back-feeding agriculture; purpose value; moral value; value of legislation.

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I. THE THEORETIC BASIS OF THE VALUE OF CHONGQING BACK-FEEDING AGRICULTURE LEGISLATION IN CHINA

III "Value" is a word that refers to nondifferential ordinary human labor condensed in goods in terms of economics, and usefulness or specific positive effects of objective things in the general sense. "The value analysis means the cognition and evaluation of the value relations between phenomena or things as objects and people as subjects (a certain class, stratum, group and individual), namely the embedded and proper value factors in particular objects. It is very necessary and of great significance to apply value analysis in the study of jurisprudence for the value cognition and evaluation of laws phenomena."^[1] The discussed value of back-feeding agriculture legislation is to apply the method of value analysis to see through "the usefulness or specific positive effects" of back-feeding agriculture legislation and to make clear its superficial purpose value and deep moral values, then it may be possible to make appropriate, timely and accurate guidance for establishing the related legislative regulations.

Before analyzing the value of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture legislation, it's necessary to define

what's "value of legislation" which is a controversial issue in the judicial field. For example, "generally the value of legislation doesn't refer to legislative function or usefulness of legislation, but the correlations between needs of legislative subjects and legislative objects (the objects that the law will adjust) shown by moral rules and interests that legislative subjects pursue to realize through legislative activities."^[2] "The value orientation of legislative decision-making is the idea, common principle, goal, etc approved in general and deserved to be pursued by people while making legislative decisions. Value orientation is determined by the character of the particular practical activities of legislative decision-making, not extra added."^[3] "It is the unique character of the distinct phenomenon of legislation procedure that determines the value orientation of legislation procedure, which is actually the common principles and goals approved at large and greatly pursued by people while formulating legislation procedures. They are the factors beyond the scope of laws that may exert an influence on legislation, policy application, judicial decision, etc. The logic reason that people choose legislation procedure is its satisfaction to human ideal and the pursued common principles."^[4] "The value of legislation indicates the relation between legislation subjects (legislature with legislative power) and legislation objects (objects adjusted laws) existing in legislative actions, reflecting the wish of 'good laws and kind governance' the whole of social members run after and hope the wish can be to some extent suitable for, close to or corresponding with changing and developmental legislation objects in order to satisfy their requirements for realizing code of conduct such as moral standards, custom requests and scientific rules."^[5] "The value orientation of legislation refers to the idea, common principles, aim, etc acknowledged generally and pursued by people while carrying through legislative activities, including two kinds of implication, one is the purpose or social benefits every country wants to obtain while making laws, the other is the ultimate choice of value goal when contradictions turn up in various value goals that laws seek."^[6] Although these viewpoints has their own merits, they doesn't define completely the essence of "the value of legislation". Hence, the analysis can be made by referring to the classical standpoint of Jeremy Bentham, the chief representative of utilitarian theories of laws.



Bentham regards "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" as the value orientation of legislation, "the greatest happiness of all the interests-related people is the only right, proper and expected in general purpose of human actions".^[7] "The general purpose all laws have or usually should possess is to increase the total of social happiness, and the four specific purposes are subsistence, equality, richness and safety."^[8] Bentham's thesis actually defines the value of legislation from 3 aspects which are motive, goal and value. "Subsistence, equality, richness and safety" are human lower needs of instinct desires to ideal community life, that is motive; "increasing the total of social happiness" is the expression of human needs with certain characters of reason based on instinct desires, namely the goal; "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" is the moral guidance to the ideal community life surpassing instinct desires, i.e. , value. The former two aspects are binary expressions of superficial value of purpose, subjects' needs and interests which can be calculated via number. If legislation reduces its conflicts only for coordinating the interest of "subsistence, equality, richness and safety", it is merely "positive legislation"; if legislation ascends to the degree of "increasing the total of social happiness" for realizing maximum interests, it can become "active legislation". The latter can be called the incisive proverb of deep value of morality and it can not be calculated according to number. "The greatest number" means the gradual approach of relative "fairness" in procedure to absolute "fairness" in entity that can be realized; "the greatest happiness" shows the pursuit of efficiency, and it needs to start with society and the subject himself in order to realize efficiency, and outside social order provides the environment of realization, the subject himself means the accomplished outcome. "The value of legislation is the code of ethics that legislation subjects need to realize through legislative activities, then the satisfaction of the needs and interests of legislation subjects can be realized through the outcome of legislative activities under the effect of this code."^[9] We might as well analyze the value of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture legislation from purpose and morality on the basis of this definition.

II. THE PURPOSE VALUE OF CHONGQING BACK-FEEDING AGRICULTURE LEGISLATION IN CHINA

"Back-feeding" is a bionic concept, first originating from "when a little bird grows up, it feeds food to its mother." in The Story of Beginning to Learn: the Ode to Bird. It is endowed with new connotation when it is applied in the public policy of "back-feeding agriculture". That is to say, industries and cities have

been developed after taking in agriculture's feeding, and they should feed back to agriculture. The issue of back-feeding agriculture in China was first put forward by the General Secretary Hu jintao while expounding the "Two Tendencies" in The CPC's Fourth Plenary Session of The Sixteenth Central Committee in 2004. "In the development course of some industrialized countries and the initial stage of industrialization, generally agriculture supported industry and provided accumulation for industry; but after industrialization developed into quite a degree, industry fed back to agriculture and cities supported the countryside, realizing the coordinated development between industry and agriculture, urban and rural areas was also a universal trend."^[10] "In 1986 Fei xiaotong came up with the 'back-feeding' theory of industry to agriculture after investigating cities like Suzhou and Wuxi. The rising of industry depends on the accumulation of agriculture, yet once industry gets preliminary development, it will support agriculture constantly, 'make supplement for agriculture' and 'construct the countryside', thereby promoting the sustainable development of agriculture and the countryside."^[11] It is the stage veer of "agriculture fosters industry" and "the countryside fosters cities", "industry feeds back to agriculture, cities support the countryside" is a significant regulation of development strategy which China's economy is confronted with after entering into the medium term of industrialization."^[12] Regurgitation-feeding agriculture is the general rule of each country's economic development in the medium term of industrialization across the world, and industrialized countries mostly achieved the policy swerve from "agriculture support industry" to "industry supports agriculture" via related legislations, such as the American Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1938, British Agricultural Law of 1947, German Planning of Agricultural Structure Reform of 1953 and Japanese Agricultural Fundamental Law of 1961, marking the country's entering into the phase of large-scale back-feeding agriculture. The theory, system and practice of back-feeding agriculture also exist in foreign countries, however, there isn't corresponding words and phrases for expression, "back-feeding agriculture" is the unique policy concept of Chinese characteristics.

At present, China has entered into the stage of back-feeding agriculture on the whole, and all parts of the country are vigorously exploring approaches and mechanism of back-feeding agriculture. There are now five sorts of mature modes of back-feeding agriculture, including Pearl River Delta Mode, Mode of Zhejiang Province, Mode of Shanghai, Mode of Beijing, and Mode of Qingdao. Recently new types of back-feeding agriculture appeared in cities such as Shenyang in Liaoning Province, Suzhou in Jiangsu Province, Xinyu in Jiangxi Province, Huizhou in Guangdong Province,

Nanning in Guangxi Province and Tongren in Guizhou Province. As a whole, Chongqing has had the basic requirements of "industry feeds back to agriculture, cities support the countryside". In Chongqing of 2008, the gross of GDP came up to 509.666 Yuan (RMB) and per capita GDP reached to 2573 dollars; but rural per capita net income was only 4126 Yuan, while urban per capita disposable income has 15709 Yuan. During years from 2007 to 2010, GDP had been maintaining a growth around 15% ; per capita GDP grew constantly to 2000 , 3000 and 4000 dollars for three years. In 2010 financial general budget revenue increased by nearly 49%, and in the first half of 2011 the rate of growth exceeded 50%. However, the Gini coefficient of 2010 was 0.438, reflecting that under the background of economic high-speed growth Chongqing had a large residents' income gap, especially the income gap between urban and rural areas still got no effective solution. In July of 2011, the Ninth Plenary Session of the Third Chongqing Municipal Committee of CPC (the Communist Party of China) passed the "Decision Concerned with Narrowing down the Three Gaps and Promoting Common Prosperity by Chongqing Municipal Committee of CPC" and put forward 12 specific measures about unifying towns and the countryside and promoting the coordinated development between urban and rural areas, for realizing towns' support for the countryside and industry's regurgitation-feeding to agriculture. The objective is as follows: by 2015, the economic aggregate of Chongqing will multiply synchronically with the resident income, narrowing down the income gap between urban and rural residents to the ratio of 2.5 to 1 approximately, and Gini coefficient to around 0.35; basically complete the important growth pole of the western regions, the economic center of the upper reaches of Yangtze River and the municipality directly under the central government with the urban and rural overall development, thus to be the first to realize overall well-off life in the western regions.

For the past few years, the law circle had made research on the issue of regurgitation-feeding agriculture from many perspectives. A number of scholars defined its meaning, basic principles, all kinds of misunderstanding, the do's and don'ts, and particularly made detailed explanation of its real significance to the economic and social development in various regions. Some scholars explicitly pointed out that China has entered into the of stageback-feeding agriculture and put forward the judging basis such as "reality need, international experience, realistic conditions" and so on. Many scholars made detailed analysis of the restriction factors to the back-feeding agriculture (like the constraints of system, population, finance, structure and organization) and all kinds of specific difficulties. The most studies are concerning the specific solutions to solve the back-feeding agriculture problem, mainly comprising studies of method, system

and mode. Besides, some scholars made a comparative analysis of the regurgitation-feeding agriculture experience of the U.S.A., Germany, France and South Korea combining the practice of China. In a word, Chinese academic circle's study on back-feeding agriculture has formed a comprehensive system in a short period of time, but few scholars do research on this proble from the aspect of the science of law especially legislation. Among all the hierarchy normalizative documents of law, only the principled regulations of Chapter 6 and 7 in the Agricultural Law of the People's Republic of China (PRC) touch upon the matter of "regurgitation-feeding agriculture" to some extent, lacking operable detailed rules and regulations. Moreover, most of the relevant laws and regulations are concerned with the protection of agricultural resource, and less involve the related fields like agricultural production and management, agricultural production elements, price of agricultural products, consumption and reserve of agricultural products, finance (credit) support, system of imports and exports, promotion of agriculture science and technology and protection for peasants' interests.

Hence, there is need to construct China's legislation system of regurgitation-feeding agriculture so as to provide necessary system security for carrying out the practice of back-feeding agriculture. We should first make experiments prudently in some local places, and then build unified and high-hierarchy legislation of back-feeding agriculture in China on the basis of summarizing experimental places' experience. Chongqing, as state-level experimental site of connecting urban and rural comprehensive supplementary reforms, has accumulated some valuable experience about promoting the development of agriculture with industry and leading the countryside by city. So it may as well take the lead in innovating local legislation as to the issue of back-feeding agriculture with industry in the experimental site of Chongqing and formulating the Regulations of Regurgitation-feeding Agriculture in Chongqing by the Standing Committee of People's Congress in Chongqing, in order to establish the basis for setting up the legal system of China's back-feeding agriculture. The purpose value of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture can be clearly defined as having a try on making local legislation of back-feeding agriculture based on systematically analyzing the basic theory, system arrangement and operation mechanism of China's back-feeding agriculture; and then increasing the total of "social happiness" concerned with back-feeding agriculture for maximizing the interests; and gradually making Chongqing back-feeding agriculture work standardized and legalized for pushing forward the definite realization of "Decision Concerned with Narrowing down the Three Gaps and Promoting Common Prosperity by Chongqing Municipal Committee of CPC".

III. THE MORAL VALUES OF CHONGQING BACK-FEEDING AGRICULTURE LEGISLATION IN CHINA

The moral values of Chongqing back-feeding agriculture legislation are mainly embodied in the fairness and efficiency this legislation brings for the society, namely ensuring the impartiality on entity and procedure in the back-feeding agriculture activities and the efficiency on order and benefits. The former as the inherent moral value of back-feeding agriculture legislation decides the essential attributes of this legislation; the latter determines the existence form of this legislation because it let people have specific perception of reality as the extrinsic moral value.

a) *Inherent value of fairness*

The value of fairness requires that each legal subject should enjoy equal status and can allodially take part in certain activities in the allowed band of laws. Pursuing the fairness value of back-feeding agriculture means seeking for the justice idea of balanced urban and rural development and common prosperity, the justice of back-feeding agriculture activities entity and procedure must be achieved.

Firstly, the justice of entity indicates that the three aspects of back-feeding agriculture's guiding idea, basic principles and practice outcome meet the demand of justice value. First of all, in term of the guiding idea, we must promote agricultural modernization and realize mutual promotion between industry and agriculture and mutual prosperity of urban and rural areas on the whole from the perspective of facilitating social progress in line with the maximum interests of the overwhelming majority. Specifically speaking it needs improving long-term agricultural production capacity, increasing farmers' income to let the great majority of people get benefited, integrating urban and rural differentiation to promote healthy development of urbanization, and protecting environment etc. Then, as to the basic principles, we can set up principles of resource attraction, moderation and gradual advance, "hematopoiesis", industrial double win and protection. Practically speaking, carrying out back-feeding agriculture activities according to local conditions must live up to natural law of development, social and economic development rule. Lastly, as far as the practice outcome, it is primarily concerned with that the practice result of back-feeding agriculture activities can obtain expected benefits and let the subject of property rights, the subject of investment and supervision justly enjoy the benefit, and then realize the diversified effective management of agricultural and rural sustainable development. The government should be the pusher of back-feeding agriculture activities, encouraging more investment subjects to play a part in

through guiding financial support for agriculture department; farmers are both the subject and the object of back-feeding agriculture activities, enjoying the right to be fed back while doing their duty; social organizations are the important assistants of back-feeding agriculture activities, organizing farmers' training for improving their technological and cultural quality, promoting rural economic development by providing fund and technology support with their own conditions, and helping stand up for farmers' rights with professional knowledge like laws; industrial and commercial enterprises are the direct participants of back-feeding agriculture activities, needing to increase the financial strength of supporting the agriculture or enhancing the ability to accept rural surplus laborers with their own development, or by offering industrial products of high quality and low price and agricultural means of production for agriculture, or by increasing the demand of agricultural products, or by increasing financial contribution.

Secondly, the fairness on procedure means that the operating procedure of back-feeding agriculture should embody the justice of procedure based on the examination of justice, so as to let subjects of many parties carry out related activities in accordance with their own will under the permission of laws in the process of back-feeding agriculture. The legal system of back-feeding agriculture should establish authorized standard in order to fully guarantee right owners' right to freedom and to realize the active participation during the whole course in the policy-making, operation and performance evaluation of back-feeding agriculture of the various subjects of back-feeding agriculture and especially farmers in vulnerable position. In the preparation stage, related subjects must join in the project demonstration and consult to the full as to the scheme, feasibility, design, ownership adjustment and budget formation of back-feeding agriculture specific items, for reaching the uttermost common view; in the implementation stage, the implementation must be carried out in compliance with the established plan and project design organizationally, for ensuring the project operation accord with the schedule request and design intention; in the evaluation stage, it must pledge that specific items of back-feeding agriculture attain expected goal, complete established task and produce proper results.

b) *The extrinsic value of efficiency*

The value of efficiency calls for with the least legislative, law-enforcing and judicial cost achieving the best distribution of rights and duties of subjects of legal relation and guiding rational allocation of social resources and then building ideal social order. The pursuit of the efficiency value of back-feeding agriculture is to bring about the maximum benefits of back-feeding back-feeding agriculture with motivating measures and

agriculture activities based on constructing perfect agricultural legal order.

On one hand, as far as the order is concerned, the legal order of back-feeding agriculture is the general term of ordered actions and social relations generated from social life by the interaction of relevant legislations of back-feeding with social, political and economic elements in the operational process. It aims to keep a look out of the disorder and chaos in the back-feeding agricultural activities and realizing ordered national governance, economic development and social progress. It is comprised of the two elements of order of back-feeding agriculture action and order of back-feeding agriculture relation. The order of back-feeding agriculture action requires the actor to put actions into effect in accordance with legal setting or guided mode. For instance, the above stated principles regulations of Chapter 6 and 7 in the Agricultural Law of People's Republic of China define back-feeding agriculture action as compound actions of management and self-governing. The nature of action decides the composite back-feeding way with government input and market allocation under the dominance of government that should be establish in the back-feeding agriculture activities. The government should formulate the mechanism of fund input, technology regurgitation-feeding and human capital formation; the market should form industrial back-feeding mechanism to guide business enterprises to invest, produce and operate in agriculture or rural areas, for bring about fund, technology and modern production elements such as advanced operation idea, marketing mode and management methods for agriculture and the countryside. The order of back-feeding agriculture relation refers to the specific legal relation of back-feeding agriculture generated on the basis of legal regulations, mainly about the relations between rights and duties of the three parties which are the subject of property right, the investment subject and the supervision subject of back-feeding agriculture. The subject of property right is composite, consisting of the ownership adjustment among rural collective land and between state-owned land and rural collective land, and the operational power adjustment among peasants' contracted land, and adjustment of other rights occurred from adjusting the proprietary right or the right to use in the operational process of back-feeding agriculture specific items. The subject of investment is polynary, including national direct investment, farmers' autonomous input, business enterprises' participation and collective financing, etc. The supervision work is complicated, including dividing the supervision limits of authority, redistributing and redefining ways and procedure of related ownership adjustment, ownership examination and property right, supervising the performance of the operation procedure of back-feeding agriculture specific item, supervising the announcement

of back-feeding agriculture specific items' scheme, and normalizing and confirming the agreed supervision between the implementation party and relevant rights subjects.

On the other hand, as far as the benefit is concerned, the benefit of back-feeding agriculture activities demands under the legal order of back-feeding agriculture the purpose of all the back-feeding agriculture activities is to achieve social sustainable development by making the best of natural resources and increasing social wealth to the hilt. The maximum benefits of back-feeding activities realized under the legal order of back-feeding agriculture cover the maximum economic benefit, social benefit and environmental benefit. The main part of realizing economic benefit is to achieve optimized disposition of relevant resources, and the standard of evaluation contains back-feeding agriculture specific items' economic rationality and the contribution degree to local economic development; achieving social benefit is mainly reducing Gini coefficient, improving peasants' income level, promoting the employment of rural laborers and increasing the rate of household registration in cities; realizing environmental benefit principally points to improving the producing and living surrounding of agriculture and the countryside, building new villages of farmers, raising the coverage rate of green vegetation, forest and grass, preventing soil erosion and land deterioration, perfecting landscape, eliminating environmental pollution and so on. The final maximum benefit of realizing back-feeding agriculture means obtaining the relative balance of urban and rural economic aggregate, promoting urban and rural unified sustainable development and building the overall well-off society.

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Urbanization and Future of Cities in Africa : The Emerging Facts and Challenges to Planners

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Abstract - This article unveils the circumstances surrounding urbanization and city development in Africa. With histo-demographic antecedents as background and specific examples from different parts of the continent, the article describes the trend, reasons, pattern, and consequences of city development in Africa. It opines that the future of African cities may not be bleak as orchestrated by a certain school of thought if the planning and management of physical environment is made to curtail urban sprawl and encourage a system of moderate-sized urban centres and urban villages with relatively diversified rural or semi-urban economies, and if the urban economy of the continent is made to be less marginalized in the global economy.

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URBANIZATION AND FUTURE OF CITIES IN AFRICA THE EMERGING FACTS AND CHALLENGES TO PLANNERS

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I. INTRODUCTION

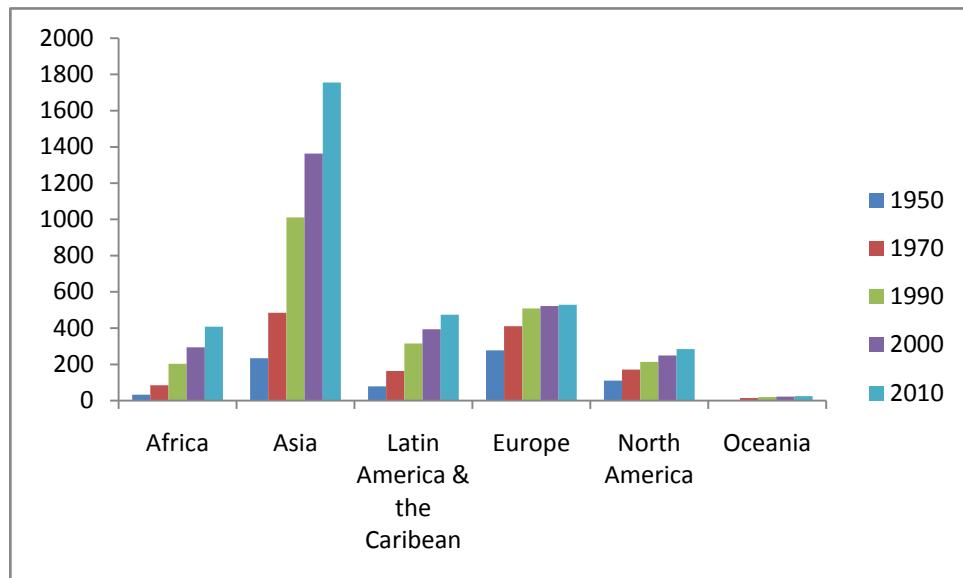
In the future the population of the developed world will stop growing and the population of the rural areas of the developing world will soon stop growing as well. That means the next three billion people added to the planet are mostly going to live in cities in poor countries. And most of those cities don't have the resources or ability to absorb this large influx of people. Many of these people will therefore end up living in slum areas with poor housing and limited services and infrastructure. - Bongaarts(2001)

As pessimistic as the view above may appear to the patriotic Asian, Latin American and African - the developing world - it is a general and popular view in the literature, and therefore constitutes a hypothesis and important background for the analysis and discussion in this paper. This is in recognition of the myriad of socio-economic, demographic, political and environmental problems facing the African continent, as in other poor sister regions of the world, and which have become evident in, or fueled by her ever increasingly growing cities. This paper, however, is aimed not only at unveiling the ugly and interesting circumstances surrounding the increasing trend of city development in Africa, but also projecting into the future to see what it holds, and more importantly identifying what measures to avert undesirable effects of urbanization; and what to be done to enhance positive results of city development. Some peculiar but interesting dramatic turnaround in the pattern of urban development in Africa is also examined. Of particular importance is the fact that attention of

planners in the continent is called to the emerging issues and the need to address them as well as the roles to be played by planners for a better urban development in Africa.

II. URBANIZATION IN AFRICA : HISTO-SPATIO-DEMOGRAPHIC ISSUES

Urbanization shall be defined simply here as referring to the process of increasing agglomeration of people in a human settlement such that the settlement graduates from a particular level of complexity (economic, social, etc) to the other. Around the world, populations are experiencing unprecedented demographic changes. The world population, which stood at 1billion in 1800 and grew slowly to 2.5 billion in 1950 is observed to have reached 6.1billion in 2000 (Bongaarts, 2001: 53). And going by the projections made by the United Nations, World Bank, and other international agencies, the growth will continue, reaching about 7.5 billion in 2020. The disheartening thing about this analysis is that the future growth is foreseen to occur in cities in the developing world (of course, including Africa) with an estimate of 80 percent of the total world urban population in 2030. By this time, Africa and Asia will include almost 7 out of every 10 urban inhabitants in the world (UNFPA, 2007: 8) while the developed world, including Australia, Europe, Japan and North America, is expected to have its population relatively stable. More so, it has been observed that developing countries as a whole would account for 93 percent of the increase in urban population in the 21st century, while Asia and Africa only would account for 80 percent of the total population increase for the period (Pieterse, 2010:9)

Figure 1 : Inter-Regional Analysis of Global Population Distribution (1950-2010, in Million).

Source : Lee, 2007:7

It is clear from figure 1 above that: (1) population is highest in Asia, (2) it has been increasing at different rates for different regions, (3) the gradient of the slope is highest (very steep slope) for Asia, followed by that of Africa and Latin America (developing countries) occasioned by their high growth rates, while Europe and North America have relatively gentle slopes explained by their comparatively low growth rates, and relatively stable in Oceania.

Africa which used to be, and perhaps is still, the least urbanized continent, has her cities' growth rates close to, if not the fastest in the world. In 1950, for instance, there were only three sub-saharan African cities of more than halve a million; in the late1980s the number of cities of that category increased to twenty-nine (Palen, 1987). Today, in virtually every part of the continent new cities have emerged, while the old ones have drastically expanded, some of which have become mega-cities. And more than halve of the sub-saharan Africa's population of 700 million people are projected to be living in urban areas by 2030 (George, 2006). This

suggests the reason why Africa is considered the most rapidly urbanizing continent in the world (World Bank, 2009). It has the highest average annual growth rate of 3.3 percent between 1990 and 2000 and 4.5 percent between 2000 and 2005, growth rate, which is, by any calculation expected not to have reduced.

As in other regions of the developing world, the demographic changes over time in Africa have resulted into growth of cities; and the trend is expected to continue regardless of the fact or fallacy that the region is seriously affected by the AIDS epidemic. These demographic changes and city growth, whose pattern across the continent may interest one, is also observed to be influenced by such general factors as increased and uncontrolled birth rate, incessant rural-urban migration, poor infrastructural and/or economic base of the rural communities, among others.

It is important to mention here the regional variations in the levels and rates of urbanization and city development in Africa.

Table 1: Levels of Urbanization of Sub-Regions and Countries in Africa.

Sub-Region	Country	% Urban	Country	% Urban	Average/Remark
Central Africa	Chad	27.6	Angola	58.5	53.61(High)
	D.R. Congo	35.2	Congo	62.1	
	C. Afr. Rep	38.9	S. Principe	62.2	
	Cameroon	58.4	Gabon	86	

East Africa	Burundi	11	Tanzania	26.4	29.24 (Very Low)
	Uganda	13.3	Madagascar	30.2	
	Ethiopia	17.6	Zambia	35.7	
	Rwanda	18.9	Mozambique	38.4	
	Malawi	19.8	Seychelles	55.3	
	Eritrea	21.6	Djibouti	88.1	
	Kenya	0.222	Mauritius	42.6	
North Africa	Egypt	42.8	Algeria	66.5	59.4 (Very high)
	Sudan	45.2	Tunisia	67.3	
	Morocco	56.7	Libya	77.9	
Southern Africa	Swaziland	25.5	Botswana	61.1	42.64 (Moderate)
	Lesotho	26.9	South Africa	61.7	
	Namibia	38			
West Africa	Niger	16.7	Senegal	42.9	39.65(Low)
	Burkina Faso	20.4	Togo	43.4	
	Guinea-Bissau	30	Nigeria	49.8	
	Mali	33.3	Cote d'Ivoire	50.1	
	Guinea	35.4	Ghana	51.5	
	Sierra Leone	38.4	Gambia	58.1	
	Mauritania	41.4	Cape Verde	61.1	
	Benin	0.42	Liberia	61.5	
Average					41.8

Source : Adapted from UN-Habitat, 2007; Parnell and Simone, 2010.

The North Africa, as the most urbanized, with countries bordering the Mediterranean Sea, has close to three-fifths (59.4%) of its population in cities (Palen, 1987:381; Table 1). This could be as a result of trade opportunities and concentrations of populations in available small areas to avoid less habitable desert and mountainous areas of the sub-region, and promotion of farming, particularly growth in the production and marketing of cash crops in the fertile region of Nile Valley. Towering well above average in the region are such countries as Libya, Tunisia, and Algeria, in that order, with 77.9%, 67.3% and 66.5% respectively as the proportions of urban population

Central Africa is next in the descending order of urbanization, especially with such countries as Gabon, Saotome Principe, Congo, Angola and Cameroon with percentage of urban population of 86, 62.2, 62.1, 58.5 and 58.4 as against the average urbanization level of

53.61 percent for the sub-region. Of particular interest here is the relative large range between the least and the most urbanized countries of the sub-region, Chad (27.6%) and Gabon (86%) respectively. The reason for the pattern is not far-fetched; coastal cities of such countries as Gabon, Saotome Principe, Cameroon and Angola have made use of their economic importance to attract population and urban development, as against those in the landlocked ones such as Chad and Central Africa Republic.

Southern Africa is next with an average of 42.64% as urban population. With a highly skewed population distribution, most highly urbanized countries in this region are South Africa and Botswana in that order with 61.7% and 61.1%, while Swaziland, Lesotho and Namibia have percentages of urban population to be as comparatively low as 25.5, 26.9 and 38. The reason for the wide disparity may not be unconnected

with the industrial base of particularly South Africa, which has established itself as industrial headquarters of the sub-region, and which has had more than half of her population as urban dwellers even as of late 1980's (Palen, 1987)

The East Africa is observed to be the least urbanized part of the continent. For example, only Zimbabwe and Zambia had, as of late 1980s, as much as one-sixth of their populations in cities, while only fourteen percent of Tanzanians lived in cities. The development of relatively a few cities in East Africa may not be unconnected with growth of tourism in the sub-region. The Republic of South Africa is a bit different from other sub-saharan countries. Being a relatively industrialized nation in the continent, more than half of her population is urban dwellers even as of late 1980s (Palen, 1987).

The pattern and distribution of major cities in Africa notwithstanding, two broad categories of cities may be observed in the continent. These include the pre-colonial cities, which had developed before European colonization and post-colonial cities, which developed during and/or after imperialism. While the pre-colonial cities' development could be attributed to sub-Sahara trade, post-colonial ones are products of either or both of colonial road and rail development in their quest to ease movement of major cash crops and discovery, exploration and exploitation of mineral resources, leading to major development projects in the affected settlements, new or old, which later grew rapidly into cities.

III. THE TRADITIONAL NATURE AND CONSEQUENCES OF CITY DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

Much has been said on the circumstances that surround city development (urbanization) in Africa in the literature (Hammer and Linn, 1987; Hardoy and Satterhwaite, 1986; Mabogunje, 1968; Oyesiku, 1992; World Bank, 1993; etc). Common to all the views expressed is the fact that, city development in Africa, as in other regions of the developing world, is a product of such factors as: (1) increasing birth rates and decreasing death rates, (2) uncontrolled rural-urban migration, (3) change of attitude in favour of "urbanism", (4) creation of more state capitals and local government headquarters, industrial towns and other related growth and service centres, and (5) comparatively low attention to the rural areas and rural economies on the part of the government, among others. All these have had serious consequences, not only for the deprived rural communities, but also, and more importantly, for the seemingly "favoured" cities, some of which are better described as rural cities, for the lack of "strength" necessary to absorb or cater for the increasing populations.

Just as in cities of the sister regions of the developing world (including Pune and Saharanpur in India, Buenos Aires in Latin America, among others), African cities, for example, Lagos and Kano in Nigeria, Nakuru in Kenya, Luzaka in Zambia, and Cairo in Egypt, have witnessed unprecedented growth rates and the resultant urban problems over the years. For example, Lagos whose population rose from 267,407 in 1952 to about 665,246 in 1963 and about 1.5 million and 4.5 million in 1975 and 1984 respectively (Onibokun, 1986), and is observed to have grown much faster, is described as one of the dirtiest cities in the world (Adedibu, 2004). It is a mega-city where inadequate infrastructure and services, housing shortage, traffic problems, thuggery, violence and other social vices are highly pronounced.

In the same vein, the dramatic increase in Nakuru's (Kenya) population has presented several challenges, especially the falling standard of urban services. The city, which according to Mwangi (2000), used to be "the cleanest town" in East Africa is observed to have metamorphosed into a home of diverse environmental maladies. The story is not different in Cairo in Egypt and Luzaka in Zambia. Cairo is perceived as a giant city choked by over-population due to uncontrolled influx of "fallahin" (peasants), which has triggered "urban ruralization", "social disease" and "abnormal behaviour" (Bayat and Denis, 2000). Luzaka, whose population is observed to grow at the rate of 4.9 percent per year, is besieged with such problems as inadequate housing and social infrastructure and increasing population of squatters and slum dwellers (Olokesusi, 1987). Similar situations are observed in most, if not all, other African cities.

What has been evident in the foregoing analysis is the fact that city development in Africa has been associated with diverse and multi-faceted urban problems, ranging from housing shortage, inadequate and mal-functioning infrastructure and services to the resultant environmental problems of waste management, crimes and related social problems, traffic and transportation management, and unsustainable physical and economic development. Thus the central role of cities, as observed by Drakakis-Smith (1966), while amplifying the work of Brooks (1990), as "bringing about sustained development within the context of expanded or continued economic growth" is undermined in Africa.

All the above may be observed, in consonance with Agbola (1987), to have resulted from: (1) lack of concern for physical planning, (2) lack of formal physical planning tradition (3) absence of urbanization policy, (4) neglect of rural areas, and (5) unstable leadership and poor attitude of the same in implementing appropriate policies and programmes.

It is important to mention that several attempts, as obtained from the literature and as evident in cities,

have been made to reduce urban problems in Africa. These range from various urban renewal, environmental management and community development programmes to diverse urban sustainable programmes of local, national and international initiatives. While some of the programmes are fruitless exercises that appear to have worsened the situations meant to be rescued, others have yielded positive results to a reasonable extent. The rates at which urban problems mount on daily basis in African cities, however, suggest that they have defied solutions, and unless something drastic is done, African cities in the latter half of this century will be homes of no peace-loving persons.

Suffice it to say that the pessimistic thinking above will promote a desperate search for not only how to make African cities more livable, but also how to make rural communities more vibrant, productive, enjoyable and attractive. This article observes that the process has begun, and may be enhanced if the associated elements of urbanization are put under control. This is idealized in the following section to reflect the view that creation of more moderate-sized cities or "urban villages" with enhanced and relatively diversified economies is more desirable for Africa than uncontrolled expansion of the existing cities in the quest for provision of more housing units and infrastructure and services which may not be sustainable.

IV. NEW DIMENSION TO CITY DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

It has been observed in the foregoing analysis that African population will continue to increase in the future. The future of Africa has also been foreseen that the proportion of urban dwellers will increase tremendously with time. This implies that the associated negative consequences of urbanization, which are predicted to be out of hand in the near future, are closer to reality than theory. In contrast, however, city development is inevitable, as the economic future of the developing countries, according to Urban Foundation (1993), lies in the productivity of its cities.

African governments cannot, therefore, discourage city development. They should rather be pre-occupied by how to have and maintain urban centres of moderate sizes whose negative tendencies are controllable, but large enough to ensure a well diversified economy, buoyant enough to meet their populations' needs, including housing, infrastructure and services. The future of African cities, therefore, lies in their ability to attain equilibrium between negative consequences of urbanization and economic growth and development. What is the new trend to or turn around in urban development in Africa?

Today, two processes of city development are observable in Africa. These include: (1) increase in sizes and complexities of the existing large towns and cities,

(2) increase in sizes and decrease in simplicity of certain rural settlements with development potentials. Although there is no clear-cut, in terms of population size or spatial extent, between a village and a small town and between a large town and a city, a growing village is easily identified and distinguished from a large town or city by its resource and/or economic base, which is usually agro-based. Some of them are satellite towns serving larger cities while some others are local government headquarters or rural market centres. These growing rural communities do or could be made to attract populations from the existing over-sized urban centres with over-stressed infrastructure and services.

In Egypt, for example, Bayat and Denis (2000) observe that contrary to the prevailing idea of a continuous rural-urban influx, the urbanization process has been both stabilized and diffused. They report that the increase in Egyptian population of 23 million between 1976 and 1996 (which is equal to the total population of Egypt in 1956) is interestingly associated with an end to urban polarization. They describe the new pattern as "urbanization" of large villages and rapid growth of small towns. This, as Bayat and Denis observe, has resulted into loss of proportions of populations of such cities as Cairo, Alexandria, Tanta and Mansoura, among others.

While much documented evidence on similar experience of declining proportions of cities' populations in Africa is not available, the emerging trend of "rural urbanization" is not a new phenomenon in other African countries. Evidences from rural service centre programmes or rural local government headquarters (as the case may be) in such countries as Cote De Voire, Malawi, Nigeria, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe suggest that that they are growing rural communities with relatively diversified and thriving economies. Odo-oba in Oyo State and the satellite settlements of the Federal Capital Territory of Nigeria, and Uhuru in Tanzania, are good examples of thriving, "urbanizing" rural economies. The growth of such rural economies, as observed in the literature and in reality, may be associated with: (1) provision of basic infrastructure and services, (2) rural-poverty reduction strategies (3) coordination of economic growth, (4) redress of existing regional imbalances in development potentials, and (5) decentralization of administration, among others.

The future of African cities, therefore, may not be bleak as predicted by Bongaarts (in the opening quote) and other scholars. It depends on the ability of respective governments to put in place policies and programmes, and implement same to prevent the existing cities and emerging ones from continuing uncontrolled urban sprawl, and encourage revitalization of the rural economy. This may be achieved through what is described here as controlled "urbanizing or diversifying rural economies" and guided, moderate-sized urban centres, all of which are growth centres.



The above is pointing to the fact that urbanization of African communities may not be undesirable, but aided, controlled and guided physical and economic development is inevitable. Thus, the promise or ruin of "The Future African City" rests on the shoulders of all stakeholders involved in the planning, management and implementation of policies and programmes affecting city development in the continent.

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The Politics of Fuel Subsidy, Populist Resistance and its Socio-Economic Implications for Nigeria

By Simon Odey Ering & Felix U. Akpan

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Abstract - The study examines the politics of fuel subsidy removal in Nigeria. The descriptive nature of the study has necessitated the extensive use of desk research. The paper argues strongly that the policy derives its instrumentality from the theory of development racism, which only benefits the rulers of the country and multinational companies and not the citizen. This explains the massive protests by the Nigerian Labour Congress, Civil Liberty Organisations and the masses of Nigerian that usually accompanied fuel subsidy removal. We have recommended that for the smooth operation of the petroleum sub-sector, government must always engage the people in policies that will affect them. We also recommended for the building of more refineries in order to make the product more available to the people and at an affordable pump price. This could be done through private/public partnership.

Keywords : *Development Racism, socio-economic development, public policy.*

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THE POLITICS OF FUEL SUBSIDY, POPULIST RESISTANCE AND ITS SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS FOR NIGERIA

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Simon Odey Ering ^a & Felix U. Akpan ^c

Abstract - The study examines the politics of fuel subsidy removal in Nigeria. The descriptive nature of the study has necessitated the extensive use of desk research. The paper argues strongly that the policy derives its instrumentality from the theory of development racism, which only benefits the rulers of the country and multinational companies and not the citizen. This explains the massive protests by the Nigerian Labour Congress, Civil Liberty Organisations and the masses of Nigerian that usually accompanied fuel subsidy removal. We have recommended that for the smooth operation of the petroleum sub-sector, government must always engage the people in policies that will affect them. We also recommended for the building of more refineries in order to make the product more available to the people and at an affordable pump price. This could be done through private/public partnership.

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I. INTRODUCTION

This essay comes from the spirited efforts to come to terms with one of the vexed paradoxes of the Nigerian state: Fuel subsidy. In other words, the attempt of the writers is to further the critical discourse on the ugly side of Nigeria's political life.

To anyone remotely acquainted with Nigerian politics, oil resources occupy the prominent place in power politics. The struggle for power is clearly a struggle to control the oil resource and improve the lots of one's ethnic group through development opportunities. Politics in Nigeria cannot be divorced from oil. National and personal dreams, hope and aspiration are built around oil. It remains the benchmark of Nigeria's socio-economic, education, foreign and defence policies. No doubt the intensity with which the local elites struggle for power is, in part, evidence of our failure to divorce politics from oil and oil from politics. Given this scenario, it should be easy to understand the politics of fuel subsidy in Nigeria. The implication is that oil politics or the politics of oil is a very delicate matter. Available evidence in extant literature shows that Nigeria is the largest in Africa and the sixth largest oil producing country in the world. The country's economic strength is derived largely from its oil and gas wealth, which contribute 99 percent of government revenues and 38.8 per of GDP (2010, National budget). Despite these

positive developments, successive Nigerian governments have been unable to use the oil wealth to significantly reduce poverty, provide basic social and economic services her citizens need. This study therefore examines critically the politics of fuel subsidy in Nigeria and its implication for the socio-economic development of the country.

II. THEORETICAL EXPOSITION OF FUEL SUBSIDY REMOVAL

Several theoretical orientations exist that can be used to intellectualize the politics of fuel subsidy in Nigeria. The leading ones include elites theory, rental state theory and the dependency school. However, the theory of development racism popularized by Ken Saro-Wiwa will be our theoretical scheme for this study.

According to Saro-Wiwa (1995) qt in Akpan (2004) development racism is a situation where a rent seeking state collaborates with extractive industries (multi-national oil companies for instance) to exploit its own people in a resource based economy. Nigeria, Liberia, Sudan (before the split) and Democratic Republic of Congo supplies ample evidence in this regard.

The underlying assumption of the theory is that conflict is inevitable in resource based economy because the rulers in such states usually connived with foreign base extractive industries to exploit their own people. The attempt by the people to resist such exploitation usually leads to conflict. Furthermore, the proceeds from the resources are not utilized for the benefit of the citizenry. This explains the evidential high rate of poverty, unemployment and lack of basic social infrastructure associated with resource based economy of the Third World countries. Applying this theory to Nigeria, there are ample evidence in extant literature to show that despite the huge resources the country has realized from crude oil, Nigeria ranks 156 out of 187 countries on the Global Human Development Index (HDI) in the 2011 Human Development Report released by the United Nation Development Programme. The HDI is a comparative measure of life expectancy, literacy, education and standards of living for countries worldwide. The HDI further reveals that non-oil producing countries like Tunisia, Gabon, Egypt, Namibia, South Africa and Togo ranked better than Nigeria on all HDI indicators. It is against this background that Nigerians are opposed to any policy

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that would further increased their misery index such as the removal of fuel subsidy.

The general perception in the public sphere is that the removal of fuel subsidy has not significantly improved their lives on all the HDI indicators. Rather each time government removes subsidy their standard of living plummeted. Furthermore, that the policy, which started in 1978 has only benefited successive rulers in Nigeria and their cronies parading as contractors and multinational companies.

III. HISTORY OF FUEL SUBSIDY REMOVAL IN NIGERIA

The history of fuel subsidy removal in Nigeria is rather a long one particularly with the negative effects it has on the polity. Specifically, the story of subsidy removal dates back to 1978 when the then military government of Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo reviewed upward the pump price of fuel which was at 8.4 kobo to 15.37 kobo. The concern was for government to generate enough money to run the administration particularly when it was preparing for the 1979 democratic elections and also to cater for the social needs of Nigerians.

In January 1982, the civilian regime of Alhaji Shehu Shagari also raised the pump price to 20 kobo from 15.37 kobo. Money realized from the fuel increase was used by members of the regime to buy properties in major capitals of European nations (USA, UK, Spain, France and others), as against using same to put in place social services that Nigerians badly needed then. The inept leadership of the then NPN national government and the corruption that bedeviled the administration led to its overthrow.

Then came the military junta of General Babangida who also increased the pump price of fuel to 39.50 kobo in March 31st, 1986. This regime was notorious for numerous pump price increases. On April 10th, 1988, the regime increased it to 42 kobo from 39.50 kobo per litre and then again to 60 kobo for private cars on January 1st, 1989. These increases came at the time the regime chose to adopt a home grown Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) as against external borrowing. His decision was greeted with massive protests by Nigerian. The economic down turn coupled with the increases made life really unbearable and Nigerians reacted angrily.

Again, on the 6th of March, 1991, the Babangida administration raised the pump price from 60 kobo to 70 kobo. Not too long the Nigerian nation was subjected to another round of fuel increase, when in November 8, 1993, the pump price was raised to N5.00 and confronted with mass protests across the length and breath of Nigeria, the price was reduced to N3.25 on November 22, 1993. A year later, on October 2nd, 1994, it was again raised to N15.00 only to be reduced

two days later to N11.00 by the Gen. Abacha's regime. The reduction was as a result of mass protests and coupled with the need to win the support of Nigerians. On December 20, 1998, the pump price was also increased to N25 but again reduced to N20 on January 6th, 1999 just a month later. This was during Gen. Abdulsalam Abubakar brief transitional reign as a military ruler. He like others before him did not spare Nigerians the pains of fuel price increase. The decision witnessed sustained protests by Nigerians, the organized labour and the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs).

It is necessary at this point to place on record that it was only the military junta of Buhari/Iddigbo and Umaru Shehu Yar'adua that Nigerians were spared the ordeal of price increase. Others before and after them inflicted enormous pains on Nigerians as a result of the increases in fuel prices. This however may be because of the brief tenure of the regime and ill health of Buhari and Yar'adua respectively, and its focus on fighting corruption and indiscipline in the Nigerian society.

Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo second coming as a civilian president, did not help matters as he unleashed a rain of terror on Nigerians. In his eight years reign, the nation witnessed several rounds of fuel price increases. The first started on June 1st, 2000, where the petrol price per litre was raised to N30.00 but only to be reduced to N25 one week after due to massive protests by organized labour, civil society organizations and the ordinary Nigerians. Five days later, on June 13, 2000, the pump price was further adjusted to N22.00 per litre.

On January 1st, 2002, Obasanjo regime increased the price from N22.00 to N26.00 and to N40.00 on June 23, 2003 just one year after. In June, 2007, also the same regime raised the price of fuel per litre to N70, but the Yar'adua's regime later reviewed it downward to N65 on assumption of office in May 2007. This was how it remained until President Goodluck Jonathan regime's decision at an outright removal of fuel subsidy. Interestingly the then Nigeria Labour Congress, President, Comrade Adams Oshiomole who had led several fights against fuel subsidy removal including fighting Olusegun Obasanjo, and as a sitting governor of Edo State, joined his fellow governors and the Federal Government to argue strongly for the complete removal of fuel subsidy.

The issue was that, while the nation wide consultations and discussion on fuel subsidy removal was still going on, the Petroleum Product Pricing Regulatory Agency (PPPRA) on January 1st, 2012, announced the outright removal of fuel subsidy. This decision by the Goodluck Jonathan administration did not go down well with the masses of Nigerians. It resulted in massive strike actions and protests by the Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC), Trade Union Congress of Nigeria, PENGASAN, Civil Society

Organisations, Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and the generality of Nigerians. The mass protests almost transformed into the "Nigerian spring" which would have brought down the regime. The regime quickly entered into a negotiation with the

organized labour and rescinded its decision of an outright removal to a partial removal and reduced the pump price to N97. Table 1 provide a clearer picture of the different pump prices by the different administrations from 1978 to Jan. 2012.

Table 1 : Data on Petroleum Price Increases/Adjustments in Nigeria (1978 – 2012).

S/N	Date	Administration	Price	Percentage Change
1	1978	Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo (as military ruler)	15.37k	
2	1982	Alh. Shehu Shagari	20k	
3	1990	Gen. Ibrahim Babangida	60k	300%
4	1992	Gen. Ibrahim Babangida	70k	17%
5	1992	Gen. Ibrahim Babangida	N3.25k	364%
6	1993	Gen. Ibrahim Babangida	N5.00	54%
7	1994	Chief Ernest Shonekan	N11.00	120%
8	1994/98	Gen. Sani Abacha	N11.00	-
9	2000	Olusegun Obasanjo (as civilian ruler)	N20.00	82%
10	2000	Olusegun Obasanjo (as civilian ruler)	N22.00	10%
11	2001	Olusegun Obasanjo (as civilian ruler)	N26.00	18%
12	2003	Olusegun Obasanjo (as civilian ruler)	N40.00	54%
13	2004	Olusegun Obasanjo (as civilian ruler)	N45.00	13%
14	2007	Olusegun Obasanjo (as civilian ruler)	N70.00	56%
15	2007-	Alh. Umaru Shehu Yar'uda	N65.00	0.07%
16	2012	Dr. Goodluck Jonathan	N141.00	117%

Source : Communiqué by South-South Elders and leaders, 2012.

Data in table 1 show that the Nigerian public have been subjected to a number of fuel increases since 1978, when the General Olusegun Obasanjo regime effected a change upward in the pump price of

gasoline from 8.4 kobo to 15.37 kobo. However, Generals Babangida and Obasanjo are reputed to have made the most increases within each of their eight years in office.

Table 2 : Petrol Prices in selected oil producing countries.

S/N	Countries	Pump Prices in US dollars
1	Algeria	0.41
2	Bahrain	0.27
3	Brunei	0.39
4	Egypt	0.31
5	Iraq	0.38
6	Kuwait	0.22
7	Libya	0.17
8	Nigeria	0.87
9	Oman	0.31
10	Qatar	0.22
11	Saudi Arabia	0.16
12	UAE	0.49
13	Venezuela	0.023

Source : Compiled by Germans Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and published by Wikipedia, 2012.

While it will be difficult to really get a comprehensive list of countries and their fuel pump prices a few instances as captured by the German Technical Cooperation are analysed here (see table 2). The table clearly shows that fuel price in Nigeria is more expensive than in other countries similarly placed. The argument here is that Nigerians have no business to pay the price they are subjected to by the corrupt members of the political elite. This is because of the lack of seriousness and endeavour among the ruling elite which had made it difficult to summon the enterprise, political will required to build the future on the template of the

future. Just as the appalling lack of enterprise manifested in the inertness that crippled the building of power stations for the future, this attitude also manifested even more cynically in the deliberate refusal to build refineries or maintain the existing ones.

IV. THE IMPLICATIONS OF FUEL SUBSIDY REMOVAL ON THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC LIVES OF NIGERIANS

There are contending arguments on the merits and demerits of fuel subsidy increases or removal. The

protagonists argued that fuel subsidy removal was a step in the right direction and in the interest of Nigerians. They maintained that it will help eliminate incentives for corruption and excess profiteering by an unpatriotic cabal in the petroleum sub sector. It will minimize borrowing and save money for investing into job creation, power and transport infrastructure and others. It will eliminate capital flight and build Nigeria's foreign reserve in order to position the economy for speedy growth and global competitiveness. Fuel subsidy removal Jonathan and his cohorts argue that it will trigger private sector investment in a deregulated downstream petroleum sector and enthroned efficiency and catapult the development of the nation's productive sector such as agriculture and industries. And according to the 2012 – 2012 Medium Term Fiscal Framework (MTFF) and the Fiscal Strategy Paper (FSP) which President Jonathan sent to the national assembly, he stated among other things, that fuel subsidy will free up to about N1.3 trillion, that is, about \$8 billion dollars in savings. This money he added will be deployed into providing safety nets for segment of the society which will help to ameliorate the effects of subsidy removal.

Furthermore, subsidy removal and the money generated would guarantee the success of the (MTFF). Money realized will be used to build more refineries and buy buses that will help cushion the effect of the subsidy removal. The point however is that since the protests were called-off the strategies that were initially rushed have suddenly disappeared.

The antagonists of the fuel subsidy removal present a contrary view. They argued that the total amount that will be generated and the actual sharing has not been revealed by the federal government. In other words what will actually go to the states and local governments and what will be left for the federal government has not been worked out. The effect this will have on the infrastructural development as being put by the president and his economic advisers has not really been clear. Therefore, it was premature to speak of the benefits of the removal of subsidy. Fuel subsidy removal will automatically lead to increases in the pump price of fuel. This was shown by the difference pump prices witnessed across the country when the subsidy removal was announced and these ranged from N141 to N200 naira per litre. In some other states of the country, a litre of petrol was sold for as much as N250 naira. Other marketers created artificial scarcity in order to raise the pump price.

Fuel subsidy removal affected transport fares and motorists doubled transport charges. And since this happened during the Xmas period when many Nigerians and their families had traveled to celebrate the Xmas with their families including extended families, many were stranded. Those who could afford it did so by abandoning their families in their villages. For many Nigerian these were indeed interesting times requiring

interesting approach to life. Although the pump price of petrol has been reduced to N97 naira the costs of transport as well as other products and services are yet to reflect the reduction thereby forcing people to rethink on their life style and mode of transportation as a strategy for surviving the hard times. For instance, people now ride on horse-powered taxis, some choose cow-powered land cruisers and even do motorcycle-powered tourist wagon, all in an attempt to avoid the use of petrol and its cost.

Increases in transportation always have ripple effects on other social issues. The prices of food stuff also went up. The logic here was that food sellers use transportation to bring in food items and cars and vehicles have to struggle to get fuel at very exorbitant prices. The result was that the food sellers had to factor in the increment in order to make marginal gain. School fees and charges were not spared, as school fees have increased. Most parents were left with no choice than to withdraw their children and wards from schools.

House rents across the country have increased dramatically and the argument is that fuel price increase had affected the prices of cement astronomically. Before the fuel subsidy removal there were indications that cement price may crash following the take-off of Dangote, Lafarge Cement Company in Ogun State. But the withdrawal of subsidy on January 1st, 2012, catapulted the price of cement to over N2000 naira per bag thus affecting the prices of house rent. According to Iroegbu-Chikezie (2012) a cement dealer he argued that he had to raise the price of the product because he was made to pay double the cost of transporting cement to his shop. Fuel subsidy removal also affected the cost of haulage of basic building materials such as iron rods, roofing sheets, flouring materials and others.

Agboola (2012) maintained that the Organised Private Sector (OPS) were not happy with the removal of fuel subsidy. It described the policy as a deliberate move by the federal government to worsen the decaying industrial sector. The organised Private Sector (OPS), he argued may be forced to pay more for providing generating plants at its factories. Similarly, the Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) will be generally affected since most of them use petrol for their relatively smaller power generating plants. The group, according to its Director General, Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA) Mr. Segun Oshinowo, members were neither invited nor represented in its institutional capacity at the meeting held with government and business operators. The concern is that government should have fixed or put in place a number of measures and infrastructures before going ahead to remove fuel subsidy. That is, the problem of power should have been fixed so that Nigerians would have to contend only with the fueling of their cars instead of also looking for ways to power offices, industrial generations plants and other things. New

refineries should have been build and the older ones put into functioning so that the availability of the product locally will impact on the economy and play a role in bringing down the price of the pump price.

Table 3 shows that fuel prices per litre and the minimum wage for both OPEC and non OPEC countries. A comparative analysis of the pump price shows that Nigeria has the highest fuel pump price and the lowest minimum wage. Moreover, the basis for Nigeria's political elite to compare the pump price of fuel to other countries was not there. The reason is not far

fetched, in most of the countries listed there is stability of basic utilities like stable power, availability of portable water, good roads and other factors. More so, and as seen on table 3, the minimum wage of N18,000 and even at this, a number of states are yet to implement it. The minimum wage of a country to a large extent defines the purchasing power of individuals. In the case of Nigeria, available statistics show there are among the lowest paid in the world.

Table 3 : OPEC and non OPEC countries and their fuel prices per litre and minimum wage.

S/N	Countries	Fuel price per litre	Minimum wage N
1	Venezuela	3.61	95,639
2	Kuwait	34.54	161,461
3	Saudi-Arabia	25.12	99,237
4	Iran	102.05	86,585
5	Qatar	34.54	101,250
6	UAE	70.18	103,112
7	Algeria	63.55	55,937
8	Libya	26.69	23,813
9	Iraq	59.66	25,813
10	Nigeria	141.00	18,000

Non OPEC

S/N	Countries	Fuel price per litre	Minimum wage N
1	USA	157.00	197,296
2	UK	334.41	295,644
3	Oman	48.67	91,583

Source : The Nation, 2012. Monday January 6, pp.40.

Besides, scholars like Soremekun 2012 and Olukayode (2012) have argued that the issue of fuel subsidy essentially originated from governments in ability to process the crude oil within the country. Oil subsidy simply means import-inspired deregulation in an oil-producing country. It is a clear indication of governments failure and bankruptcy, in terms of running the industry.

There is also the psychological effect of fuel subsidy increases and removal. Scholars have maintained that it could lead to cases of depression and suicide. The CBN official statistics show that over 70 per cent of Nigerians live below the poverty line (CBN, 2011). Poverty line refers to the value of income or consumption necessary for a minimum standard of nutrition and other necessities of live (Todaro 2005). It is normally computed as those living below one US dollar per day. The implication here is that fuel subsidy removal will further cause emotional trauma and torture on the psyche of those who are struggling to feed and to some extent may commit suicide. This fact is corroborated by the report of International Labour Organisation (ILO) a UN agency which maintains that 900 million workers are living below \$2 a day, worldwide.

Similarly, the removal of subsidy and its attendant consequences discussed above could result in broken homes and increase cases of divorce. When people cannot fend for themselves and their families, there is the likelihood that husbands and wives would separate. This may consequently lead to discomfort, anger and even death.

There is also the serious dimension that the removal of fuel subsidy may result to. It could lead to rebellion against government and anarchy. This was exemplified by the massive protests that took place across Nigeria, after Jan, 1st, 2012 announcement by Petroleum Product Pricing Regulatory Authority (PPPRA). The fear was that it was evolving into the "Nigerian Spring" to borrow from the "Arab Spring" that is the massive social protests that engulfed the Arab nations of Tunisia, Egypt, Yemen, Libya, Qatar and Syria to mention but these few.

The fact remains that, the removal of fuel subsidy have had a number of negative socio-economic consequences on the Nigerian populace. Even when the federal government has promised and taken a number of rushed and unsustained remedial measures (palliative) to cushion the effects of the fuel subsidy

removal on Nigerians, there are not far reaching enough. The effects of the palliatives are not being felt; the argument is that these so called palliatives should have been put in place before the removal of the subsidy.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the study have necessitated the need to make the following recommendations.

Government must fast track the turnaround maintenance of the four refineries and encourages the building of new ones. This will help reduce the dependence on importation of refined products and protect the economy from the volatility of global oil prices. Government could partner with the major oil companies (Shell BP, Chevron, Exxon-Mobil, Total, other major marketers and investors) to build refineries in Nigeria.

- i. Allied to (1) above, government should provide legislative template for investors and create a conducive environment for investors both within and outside to come and invest in the country. In other words, the power sector and its problems and other utilities must be properly addressed and fixed. Government should accelerate the implementation of power sector reform programmes to reduce reliance on petroleum products as principal source of energy in the economy
- ii. Government must put in place an effective regulatory framework to protect the citizens from exploitation by petroleum marketers. Therefore, the Petroleum Product Pricing Regulatory Agency (PPPRA) must be urgently reorganized. Subsidy as a social security is the rights of Nigerian particularly the under privileged. . The ordinary Nigerian must be protected and money aimed at ameliorating the lives of the poor must be protected and debated.
- iii. The governance structure should be more cost-effective and corruption must be more effectively tackled. Government must sustain the momentum of dialogue and enlightenment to stabilize the polity and ensure accountability and transparency in the use of the savings from the policy decision for the benefit of the people. There is a seeming agreement among Nigerians that the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) is corrupt and needs a complete reorganization and persons found to be guilty be appropriately punished.
- iv. There is need for the president to restructure the polity by reducing the size of ministers and aides. The way the government is structured presently is over bloated and very expensive to maintain particularly against the present economic realities, it will be difficult to sustain. The allowances of members of the cabinet including the national assembly members should be drastically reduced and their activities checked.
- v. The national assembly could be radically structured into a unicameral legislative (having one house of National Assembly) from the present bi-cameral legislature (house of Reps and Senate). Nigeria cannot afford the cost of running an overbloated legislature with all its paraphernalia, and therefore the need to fashion out a home grown system without necessarily copying the American presidential system.
- vi. Decision making must be participatory. Government must sufficiently involve the citizenry in the process of decision and policy making particularly on issues and policies that affect their lives. This could be through town hall meetings with all segments of society and making the necessary contacts with members of the grassroot and civil society organizations. To do this, government could employ the services of NGOs and National Orientation agencies across the country.
- vii. Finally, social services must be put in place and seen to be working. Such social services are, power supply, portable water supply, roads, health services, housing and enabling policies put in place to ensure adequate food supply for local consumptions and for export. Government must also tackle the problem of security of lives of people in the country. Peace and progress of any society is not just the absent of a shooting war and political insurgents but is a function of the availability and functioning of such social services for the benefit of the people.

VI. CONCLUSION

The politics of fuel subsidy removal has showed that Nigeria is a country of paradox. How can citizens of an oil producing country pay more for fuel which is found in abundance in the country. The study has also shown that successive Nigerian governments collaborate with natural resource extraction companies to exploit their own people. This explains why despite the contribution of oil to the Nigeria's economy, over 60% of citizenry live in abject poverty occasioned by high unemployment rates, poor infrastructural facilities and widespread insecurity. These are the evidential causes of protest and strike actions that usually accompanied fuel subsidy removal in Nigeria.

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Tourism as a Poverty Eradication Tool for Rural Areas in Selangor, Malaysia

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Abstract - This paper presents an understanding of the contribution made by tourism towards poverty eradication in selected rural areas in Selangor, Malaysia. Rural homestay programmes as a viable tourism product in Malaysia is comparatively small in scale and still remains a slow growth market even though various incentives are being offered to the operators by the government to develop this market. Poverty is the root cause of many social ills such as illiteracy, crime, drug abuse and high rate of divorce. Although tourism has been adopted as a strategy for poverty eradication in Selangor, it has not been fully exploited by the rural community and those that have, are finding it difficult to sustain. This research is undertaken with the aim of putting together a model (or identifying variables) that will ensure the economic sustainability of rural homestay programmes in Selangor, Malaysia. Through factor analysis the variables of the communities' involvement in tourism activities were identified.

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TOURISM AS A POVERTY ERADICATION TOOL FOR RURAL AREAS IN SELANGOR, MALAYSIA

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Ravindra Kumar ^a , Sarjit S. Gill ^a & Puvaneswaran Kunasekaran ^a

Abstract - This paper presents an understanding of the contribution made by tourism towards poverty eradication in selected rural areas in Selangor, Malaysia. Rural homestay programmes as a viable tourism product in Malaysia is comparatively small in scale and still remains a slow growth market even though various incentives are being offered to the operators by the government to develop this market. Poverty is the root cause of many social ills such as illiteracy, crime, drug abuse and high rate of divorce. Although tourism has been adopted as a strategy for poverty eradication in Selangor, it has not been fully exploited by the rural community and those that have, are finding it difficult to sustain. This research is undertaken with the aim of putting together a model (or identifying variables) that will ensure the economic sustainability of rural homestay programmes in Selangor, Malaysia. Through factor analysis the variables of the communities' involvement in tourism activities were identified. The newly developed scale through factor analysis will be useful to carry out future related researches. As there is tremendous potential for developing this market locally, information was collected to understand the homestay operators' and their employees' perception of developing tourism in their village as an alternative vocation to diversify the rural socio-economy that would eventually lead to community advancement. There is a dire need to revive the declining agriculture-based rural economies due to mass migration of rural residents to urban areas in search of employment opportunities. More specifically, this paper intends to identify the factors that contribute to the failure of rural homestay programmes in the state of Selangor, Malaysia. Keywords—poverty eradication, rural tourism, factor analysis, sustainable tourism

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper presents an understanding of tourism and rural community relationship in the poverty alleviation process. The Government has crafted a blueprint to move the country towards its next stage of development that is based on four key pillars. The first pillar is embodied in the principles of 1Malaysia, People First, Performance Now meant to unite all Malaysians who collectively represent the key stakeholder of the Government. The second pillar is the Government

Transformation Programme (GTP) which will deliver the outcomes defined under the National Key Result Areas (NKRA). The third critical pillar will be the New Economic Model (NEM) resulting from an ambitious Economic Transformation Programme (ETP) meant to transform Malaysia by 2020 into a developed and competitive economy whose people enjoy a high quality of life and high level of income from growth that is both inclusive and sustainable.

The fourth pillar is the 10th Malaysia Plan 2011-2015 (10MP) which will represent the first policy operationalization of both the government and economic transformation programmes (The New Economic Model, National Economic Advisory Council, March 2010). According to the Tenth Malaysia Plan, raising the living standards of low income households is one of six National Key Result Areas. The aim of this research is to contribute towards the achievement of this NKRA. Therefore, this research is of national interest and the findings will contribute to the existing body of knowledge on this subject.

II. ELEVATING THE LIVELIHOODS OF THE BOTTOM 40% HOUSEHOLDS

According to the Tenth Malaysia Plan, since the 1970's, the government focus has been on eradicating poverty regardless of ethnicity. There has been great success in reducing the incidence of poverty from 49.3% in 1970 to 3.8% in 2009. Therefore, focus will now be re-oriented to elevate the income levels of the bottom 40% households. Households within this group, irrespective of ethnicity or location, will be eligible for support and resources, based on their specific needs, such as Bumiputera in Sabah and Sarawak, particularly ethnic minorities and Orang Asli communities in Peninsular Malaysia. Programmes to increase the incomes of rural households will focus on upgrading their skills, linking them to employers in nearby clusters and cities as well as providing support for self employment, micro-businesses and small scale industries. In 2009, the bottom 40% households had a total household income level of less than RM2, 300 per month. There were a total of 2.4 million households in this category, with 1.8% of households within the hardcore poor group, 7.6% within the poor group, and the remaining 90.6% within the low income households group. The mean monthly

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income of the bottom 40% households in 2009 was RM1,440. Programmes will include among others:

- Providing holistic support programmes for micro-enterprises;
- Providing opportunities for business ownership for capable rural entrepreneurs

III. HOMESTAY CONCEPTUALIZATION

Based on the official definition by the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism of Malaysia (1995), 'homestay' is 'where tourists stay with the host's family and experience their way of life in a direct and indirect manner'. There were about 286 households participating officially in this programme throughout Malaysia in 1997. This sector had contributed to five percent of Malaysia's GDP in 2006, (MOTOUR, 2006). Official records show that 2,606 homestay operators from 137 villages had been trained and licensed throughout Malaysia as of July 2008.

C.M. Hall (1994), Hall and Page (2000) confirmed several regional partnerships in Asia – in the Mekong Region and in the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation Countries (SAARC) having taken place. Evidence of academic research on tourism collaboration in Asia was found in the literature entitled 'Asian Tourism Growth and Change: Advances in Tourism Research Series', by Janet Cochrane (2008). This literature mentions a student exchange programme whereby Japanese students were placed at homestays in Selangor to experience the rural culture and lifestyle and the operators had to assume the role of foster family. This resulted from the collaboration between the Ministry of Education, Malaysia and its counterpart in Japan.

The homestay programme in Malaysia has been established for more than 15 years. However, many of these homestay establishments find it difficult to sustain. Only a few successful homestay programmes in Selangor such as Kampung Banghuris, Kampung Sungai Sireh and Kampung Haji Dorani are well managed; however many homestays have lost their ability to sustain. Prospective new entrants are being encouraged to join the bandwagon (Hamzah & Ismail, 2003). The funding for many of these homestay projects has been sought through public and private sources. Several key stakeholders have been involved in these projects but the success rate of these projects has not been monitored and reported. The actual benefit and impact of the homestay programme to the local community are not easily ascertained (Ismail, 2010).

Croes (2006) pointed out that one of the factors that has contributed to the loss in sustainability is the homogenous nature of the Malaysian homestay programmes. According to Croes the lack of scale economies is another factor that contributes to the loss of sustainability. According to Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall,

Gilbert, & Wanhill (2005) small and medium enterprises are usually at a disadvantage owing to their lack of scale economies in both supply and demand. Some efforts have been made in the past to build collaborative networks to derive scale economies through strategic alliances. However, this collaboration was not pursued as a strategy for sustainability and seems to have lost its vigour prematurely.

A more comprehensive research on homestay programmes is needed considering its impact on rural community development. There has been some research done in the past relating to homestay programmes and other factors that illustrate rural community development in these villages but these are limited to selected states in Malaysia. Most of the research done was to measure the satisfaction level of tourists with the services provided by the homestay operators (Ismail, 2010; Amran et al., 2006; Fazliana, 2004; Julaili, 2001), local community participation in the implementation of the homestay programme (Ismail, 2010; Kalsom & Nor Ashikin, 2005) and the current status of the homestay programme implementation in Malaysia (Ismail, 2010; Yahaya, 2004) but thus far, no research has been conducted with the aim of developing a model for community advancement through homestay tourism. Furthermore, research on community-based tourism is limited globally and also its benefits to the local community are not easily ascertained (Ismail, 2010; Goodwin & Santili, 2009; Knight & Schmidt-Renehart, 2002; Richardson, 2002).

IV. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Among the main theories underpinning tourism development based on community, the ones that are applied by many community-based tourism researchers are Murphy's Ecological Model, Community Attachment Theory and the Social Exchange Theory.

a) Murphy's Ecological Model

Beeton (2006) has listed several theories related to community-based tourism planning and development. Beeton has emphasized Murphy's Ecological Model, which was introduced in 1983 and this model is often used to explain the relationship between tourism and local community. Murphy has always stressed more on the local community in comparison to the visiting community by taking a geographical approach when discussing community. In the case of small-scale planning for tourism, more community members should be encouraged to participate in the decision-making process. Murphy's model seems to stress the importance of local community participation in tourism planning. Greater community involvement in all stages of implementation leads to greater community empowerment.

b) Community Attachment Theory

Tourism activity certainly has an impact on the community. In relating attitude or perception of the community members to the impact of tourism, researchers on community-based tourism commonly use two theories which are Community Attachment Theory and the Social Exchange Theory (Andereck et al. 2005). Community Attachment Theory is used to explain the perception that the community has on the influence or contribution of tourism to the well-being of the local community. Andereck et al. proposed three main categories of impact of tourism on the community which are economic impact, socio-cultural impact and environmental impact. Buttell et al. (1979) defined community attachment as giving rise to the feeling of or show of solidarity for or degree of involvement within the community's social network. Mc Cool and Martin (1994) defined community attachment as a form of involvement or social integration in a community lifestyle which gives rise to the feeling of attachment and acting for the community. The level of attachment placed by a community is measured from the aspect of the duration an individual has spent, or grew up in that particular place (Harrill, 2004; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Jurowski et al., 1998; Um & Crompton, 1987).

c) The Social Exchange Theory

Tourism researchers often refer to this theory when doing research on community perception of the impact of tourism on that community. Early authorities on this theory such as Homans (1958), Emerson (1962, 1976) and Blau (1964, 1994) opined that social exchange takes place voluntarily among certain actors within the community for collective benefits through the exchange. In tourism studies, this theory is used as a theoretical framework to understand community perception of tourism (Andereck et al., 2005; Sirakaya et al., 2001; Jurowski et al., 1998). This theory has been also used in other fields of study such as sociology, economy, and social psychology to analyze aspects of social communication and the changes that take place within society (Wang & Pfister, 2008). The perception of a community member on tourism development and his involvement is influenced by the belief that tourism would lead to certain consequences (Kalsom et al., 2008).

V. HOMESTAYS IN SELANGOR

The main objective of this research is to measure community development in selected villages in Selangor, Malaysia that were involved in the homestay programme. Listed below are the more specific objectives of this research :

- To develop indicators for the success rate of homestay programme as well as develop indicators for the attainment of community development in these homestay villages;

- To understand the level of community development attained in these homestay villages;

Homestay is a new tourism product in Malaysia, playing an important role in rural development. The Malaysian government encourages the growth of homestays as a means of expanding the tourism industry in the country.

There are around 15 homestays in Selangor state, with the concept of a holiday village with a host family. According to the Ministry of Culture (1995), homestays offer an insight into local culture and everyday life of a local ethnic group. For the tourists, homestays are the fastest way to get to know Malaysia's culture. The number of tourists has steadily grown over the last years. These days, many of the villages are finding it difficult to accomodate the arrival of the tourists.

The three homestays that were visited in Selangor state were:

- 1) Dorani Home stay
- 2) Banghuris Homestay
- 3) Agro tourism Homestay Sungai Sireh

a) Dorani Home stay

This homestay is situated about one hour's drive away from Kuala Lumpur city. Fishing is one of the main activities in this homestay. The participants can acquire new skills in fishing by the paddy fields. This homestay programme provides an opportunity to stay with the local farmers and provides the experience of paddy planting and batik painting. Dancing Horse shows are one of the attractions in this homestay. The participants also enjoy the trips to the mango orchards, banana chips and cocoa factories.

b) Banghuris Home stay

This homestay is located 97 km from Kuala Lumpur city. There are around 80 home stay houses and 100 rooms. Banghuris is a name representing three villages - Kampung Bukit Bangkong, Kampung Hulu Chuchuh and Kampung Hulu Teris. Banghuris too offers agro tourism activities, such as offering educational tours to the coffee, rubber and orchard plantations. Visits to factories are also lined up, such as visits to the crackers processing factory, and frozen food, noodle and tofu making factories that are part of the itinerary for the participants. Traditional games are played by the local folks such as congkak (an indoor game), long jump and batu seremban. This allows the participants to experience the hospitality of the Banghuris folks as the participants are invited to play the games with the locals.

c) Agro tourism Homestay Sungai Sireh

Agro tourism relates to agriculture and the homestays at Sungai Sireh offer stays with a farmer as host family. Daily activities with the family like working on a farm are part of the home stay. The participants might

find themselves actually planting fruit trees or learning how and when to pick the selected local fruits. There are also live shows of the local traditional musical instruments like the kompong (local drums), cempuling and also martial arts performances. The aim of this agro tourism is to promote sustainable agricultural practices in Malaysia.

VI. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

a) Factor Analysis

To develop the scale for the community's perception on the economic benefits of tourism, factor analysis was used. Questions were rearranged according to the appropriate domains. Exploratory factor analysis was used to explore the interrelationships among the variables (Pallant, 2007).

b) Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
JobOpp1	.610	.528		
savmoney1		.728		
Empsecur1		.883		
purchsinpw1		.449	.613	
migrate1				.885
BusOpp2	.616			
profit2	.618		.469	
busSecur2		.714		
motivateYoung2				.912
villageDevp3	.796			
LivStdrd3	.830			
envConsv3	.822			
Image3	.843			
PubFacility4	.739			
SainitationHyg4	.571		.657	
FamilyUnityPovty4				.769

Extraction Method : Principal Component Analysis.

The table above demonstrates that 16 variables are distributed accordingly in 4 domains. In some cases, the items can be loaded in more than one

component. In this situation and the highest loading will be selected and loading with the values lesser than 0.4 will not be selected. After the reduction, 16 variables selected to be the items in the 4 domains. All 4 domains were renamed according to the suitability of the items loaded:

Component 1 : Job Opportunity at the Rural Homestay Destination (8 items)

- 1) I agree that tourism activities can provide job opportunities in this village.
- 2) I believe that tourism activities in this village can provide business opportunities for the local residents.
- 3) I agree that the local residents can make profit by selling locally-made products.
- 4) I agree that revenue generated from tourism-related activities can contribute to the development of this village.
- 5) I agree that tourism development will enhance the living standards of the local residents in this village.
- 6) I agree that tourism development will promote environmental conservation which will increase the attractiveness of this village.
- 7) I agree that tourism development will enhance the image of this village which in turn will attract more visitors resulting in more income for this destination.
- 8) I agree that tourism development will result in better public facilities for the local residents.

Component 2 : Tourism as a core business (3 items)

- 1) I agree that you would be able to save money from the income gained from tourism-related employment.
- 2) I agree that tourism-related jobs in this village can give you a sense of security.
- 3) I agree that business opportunities generated by tourism activities in this village can give you a sense of security if it is your main source of income.

Component 3 : Quality of Life of the local Residents (3 items)

- 1) I agree that tourism-related employment in this village will enhance your purchasing-power resulting in better quality of life.
- 2) I agree that tourism development will lead to improved sanitation and hygiene standards for the local residents.
- 3) I agree that the improved quality of life from tourism development would promote greater family unity and alleviate poverty among the residents in this village.

Component 4 : Younger generation development (2 items)

- 1) I agree that employment generated by the tourism industry in this village will prevent the younger

generation from migrating to the towns and cities.

2) I agree that tourism-related business opportunities will motivate the younger generation to continue staying in the village.

VII. CONCLUSION

Under the Tenth Malaysia Plan, poverty eradication is the priority for the Government as it is one of six National Key Result Areas. Programmes to increase the incomes of rural households will focus on enhancing their entrepreneurial skills. Entrepreneurship programs will help the rural folks to set up small or medium business and teach them how to access business opportunities by linking them to local producers and suppliers so that their products and services are supplied to these entrepreneurs. Examples of local services that can be outsourced are catering, cultural shows and demonstrations, landscaping, rental of canopy, tables and chairs and local transportation. Examples of some local products that can be produced by these small or medium businesses are handicrafts, batik, woodcarvings and pottery. Entrepreneurship programs could be carried out by RGCs with the support of the state government or central government. This program will help educate rural entrepreneurs, build networks for them and instill a sense of communal attachment and pride for the members of the community besides elevating them from the poverty line.

However, in this study it was also found that homestay programs can contribute to some negative impacts. Unhealthy cultures could be introduced to the rural communities which could lead to a loss of identity for the locals and lead to cultural degradation. It is often difficult though not impossible for the local village communities to meet the high tourist expectations of service quality such as clean and comfortable accommodation, tour guides who are conversant in foreign languages, food that is more palatable for Westerners and a pollution free environment. Finally, the rural youngsters when exposed to outsiders could be influenced to migrate to the urban areas in search of better job opportunities as jobs in the villages are centered on agro tourism.

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Effects of Non-Professionalism in Nigeria Journalism

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Abstract - For a very long time, Nigeria scholars in various fields of endeavours have argued on the trade journalism. This issue bothers on the fact that every dicks and harry dabbles into this profession either to make ends meet, practice for political ambition or easily pick it up at the time of employment recession in Nigeria. Journalism as a profession especially in Nigeria has been hijacked by quacks or subtly put, people from other professional careers at the detriment of this noble profession. In light of this, the paper raised who is a professional journalist and how does non-professionalism affect the practice of journalism in Nigeria. Journalists in Nigeria were used as participants while survey method was used to carry out the research. Frequency distribution involving tables was used to analyse the data while the result showed that Nigeria journalists are non-professionals. So, relevant suggestions were recommended to help journalists develop a sense of professionalism among which are, that the regulatory bodies should enforce the code of ethical conduct and rid of quacks in the profession. It pushes further that proper marriage between formal education and experience along necessary training should form basis for entrance into the profession.

Keywords : Effect, Non-professionalism, Journalism, Professionalism.

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EFFECTS OF NON-PROFESSIONALISM IN NIGERIA JOURNALISM

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Effects of Non-Professionalism in Nigeria Journalism

Felix Olajide Talabi ^a, Benjamin Kayode Ogundehi ^a & Ishola Kamorudeen Lamidi ^a

Abstract - For a very long time, Nigeria scholars in various fields of endeavours have argued on the trade journalism. This issue bothers on the fact that every dicks and harry dabbles into this profession either to make ends meet, practice for political ambition or easily pick it up at the time of employment recession in Nigeria. Journalism as a profession especially in Nigeria has been hijacked by quacks or subtly put, people from other professional careers at the detriment of this noble profession. In light of this, the paper raised who is a professional journalist and how does non-professionalism affect the practice of journalism in Nigeria. Journalists in Nigeria were used as participants while survey method was used to carry out the research. Frequency distribution involving tables was used to analyse the data while the result showed that Nigeria journalists are non-professionals. So, relevant suggestions were recommended to help journalists develop a sense of professionalism among which are, that the regulatory bodies should enforce the code of ethical conduct and rid of quacks in the profession. It pushes further that proper marriage between formal education and experience along necessary training should form basis for entrance into the profession.

Keywords : Effect, Non-professionalism, Journalism, Professionalism.

I. INTRODUCTION

Various professions the world over have identity carved for themselves in which they depend on for pride. Some are known for routinisation, some are famous for their unity of purpose salutation while some are known for their esprit de corps. The Nigerian print media has taken a new turn in this 21st century — though a large percentage of print media ownership is still in the private hands while government clung to monopoly of the broadcast media is gradually giving way. Notwithstanding, concern from the scholars perspective is more on the issue of non-professionalism — which is more rampant in journalism. It is not uncommon for politicians who have no knowledge of journalism to establish one, two, three and even numerous media houses purposely to prosecute their political ambition and sometimes establishing such for financial gains.

The institution of Nigeria does not guarantee specific press freedom, it only guarantees freedom of

expression including the freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart ideas and information. Several professional bodies such as Law, Engineering, Accounting, Medicine, etc today enjoy a high sense of respect because they are clearly identified and defined by Nigeria constitution adhered to ethical values and governing rules. Ironically, the journalism, which is widely seen as the conscience of society is yet to be certified a profession, judging by the yardstick on what a profession should be. The practice of journalism in Nigeria has courted great controversies especially in relation to ethical regulation and adherence to professional precepts. Journalism is an esteemed profession that has a lot to offer in the reformation of the society; unfortunately in Nigeria it has become an all-comers affair.

The former Abuja Bureau Chief of the Tide Newspaper, Alloys Nweke, during the January 2008 Nigeria Union of Journalists (NUJ) Submit in Port-Harcourt frowned at the numerous untrained people bestriding the streets with pen and paper claiming to be journalists. Nweke speech revealed that the number of fake journalists in Nigeria society is higher than the real practitioners, this is really painful and embarrassing because it depicts journalist as beggars and irresponsible whereas, true Nigerian journalists have remained in the forefront of democratic change and social re-ordering through its doggedness and abrasive posture.

Akinfeleye, 1990 quoted an American critic, Dean Rosco Pound who once wrote that every profession is governed by certain rules, and the absence of such rules makes it a vocation (Akinfeleye, 1990). For a very long time Nigeria scholars, professionals and practitioners have argued as to whether journalism is a profession or not in Nigeria. Some scholars and practitioners of journalism in Nigeria say journalism is a trade, others say it is a craft or an occupation while the rest simply say it is a vocation. According to Akinfeleye, (1990,p.6) the confusing state of affairs as whether journalism is a profession or not in Nigeria has been partially brought about by the colonial rulers, particularly Britain where until recently journalism was regarded as "an unqualified profession" (Akinfeleye, 1990, p. 6).

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II. NIGERIA PERSPECTIVE

Every profession is being governed by its ethics and code of conduct. The early and the nationalist press were not governed by any formal ethics and code of conduct. For example, editorial policies didn't exist, from the four paged bilingual Iwe Iroyin to many paged Daily Times. On ethical and code of conduct in early Nigeria journalism practice, Udoakah & Nnadi, (2007, p.447) position that there was no regulation in the profession and anything went through. This accounts for one of the reasons why up till today journalism in Nigeria is still not being seen as a profession since it is all-comers affair.

Responsible regulation came with the ethical code of the Nigeria Union of Journalists in 1962. This was after the press have established themselves as trade unionists on March 15, 1955. It started with 12-point functions and 12-point code for members. Following this on May 21, 1961, the Nigerian Guild of Editors was inaugurated. Both NUJ and NGE in 1962 proclaimed 16-point code of ethics for journalism practice in Nigeria with all forming organizations in January 15, 1979 and signed the ethics and code of conduct which was in operation before a modification in 1998. The 1998 adopted code of ethics emphasizes: the publication of truth, the question of corruption, the question of free access to news, the question of confidentiality, the publication of plagiarism and errors of facts. Colonial rulers in Nigeria and their succeeding "Nigerian-Europeans" regarded journalism education as an unnecessary undertaking. This view partly accounts for the reason why for many years all Nigeria universities did not offer any formal journalism training. Until recent times, Nigerian journalists were being viewed as a bunch of dropouts who had been rejected by other professions. This uncomplimentary view of journalism and journalists in Nigeria has made the profession, trade, craft, or vocation, very unprestigious.

It has now become a truism that low literacy rate contributes to a low degree of journalism training and also to a low standard of journalistic performance. Journalism profession has suffered serious setbacks in its developmental processes in Nigeria because; Nigeria nation has not given priority to degree programmes in journalism. Instead graduates from other disciplines such as Political science, Economics, Sociology, English etc are being given on-the-job training in journalism and these non-professionals do cause serious damage to this noble profession. Just of recent, the immediate ex-NUJ President, Akwu in Port Harcourt, after a deliberation on the profession submitted that journalists should ensure strict adherence to the ethics of the profession in order to change the perception of the world about them. Making comment on the issue of non-professionalism in Nigeria journalism, Gboyega (1989) frowned at the inability of the very many press

barons in Nigeria to make deliberate efforts to transform journalism in the country to an enviable profession that can compete favourably in its organizational structure, effectiveness, thoroughness and virility as in other professions like Legal, Medical, Engineering and Banking professions. In view of all these, this research seminar will critically examine some issues and aim at providing solutions to them.

III. THEORETICAL FRAME WORK

Professionalism is attained when a profession has functional clearly defined or prescribed educational standards, licensing and enforcement of performance of standard by the profession itself. In view of the practice of non-professionalism in Nigeria the researcher tends to use gatekeeping theory to make the research work arrive at a logical conclusion. Kurt Lewin originated this theory in 1947 while Westley-Maclean model visualized the concept of the gatekeeper in the mass communication process. McQuail (2005, P. 512) says the core idea of the theory is that "the news media indicate to the public what the main issues of the day are and this is reflected in what the public perceives as the main issues." The research paper broadly explores gatekeeping process in relation to the regulatory bodies of journalism on what they consider as the criteria for those practicing journalism. The regulatory bodies in this way are the gatekeepers because whatever they objectively lay down will be followed. Secondly, this theory appraises the media content that is, what the media practitioners dished out to the public, how they mediate, select news content, and suppress facts in exchange for materialism.

According to Ekeli as quoted in Folarin (2005, P.120) "gate keeping is nothing but voluntary self-censorship performed by the media themselves". Hence, the employers of media practitioners should strictly adhere to the minimum standard because they are gatekeepers in that sense while journalists themselves should be socially responsible to their readers in whatever materials they package and elevate the virtues of the profession.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are formulated to guide the study.

- Q1 Who is a professional journalist?
- Q2 Does government influence in any way encourage non-professionalism?
- Q3 How does non-professionalism affect the practice of journalism in Nigeria?

V. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

1. To know who is a professional journalist
2. To know if government influence in any way encourage non-professionalism

3. To determine how non-professionalism affect the practice of journalism I Nigeria

VI. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter on literature review will attempt to review the available literature on the practice of professionalism in journalism. It reviews the word profession, journalism as a profession and the attributes that make a journalist qualify as professional vis-à-vis his approved functions in the society.

When does an occupation become a profession? Alfred E. Opubor as quoted in Akinfeleye (1991, P.11) says an occupation must possess the following criteria:

1. Systematic body of theory
2. Professional authority
3. Community sanction
4. Ethical codes
5. Professional culture.

Opubor explains that while some insist that people who practice an occupation themselves should be the determinant of when they have become professionals. Others argue that, to become a professional in any field, a person must undergo a certain minimum period of training or introduction during which the skills and values of the profession are imparted in him. Professionalism is associated with competence, training, relevant education body of knowledge, standards of evolution and improvement.

VII. WHAT IS A PROFESSION?

From historical foundation a profession means the act of professing. According to Webster's New Word Dictionary, a profession is ... "a vacation or occupation that requires advanced education and training and involves intellectual skills".

VIII. PROFESSIONALISM

This is the high standard which is expected of a person who is well trained in a profession/job.

IX. WHO IS A PROFESSIONAL?

One of the American reputable social scientists, William J. Goode states that professionals constitute a homogeneous community whose members share values, identity, definition of roles and interest. He added that members of a profession are bound by sense of identity and they share common values.

According to (Olatunji, 1991), sociologists hold that, in order for a job to qualify as a profession; it must possess the following attributes. First, it must emphasize a unique and essential service. Second, it must perform a unique and essential service. Third, it must have a long period of specialized training to acquire a

systematic body of knowledge, based on research. Fourth, it must be given a broad personal responsibility for their judgments and actions. Sixth, it must place greater emphasis on service than on private economic gain. Seventh, it must develop a comprehensive, self-governing organization. Eight, it must have a code of ethics which has been clarified and interpreted by concrete cases.

Needless to say, no single profession or occupation passes all these tests. A profession, then, is nothing but an ideal type in the sense which does not describe any actual profession, but which is fruitful in the analysis and investigation of actual professions. What we have in reality therefore is a continuum, with zero professionalism at one end, maximum professionalism at the other. Various professions may be plotted at various points along this continuum. It may well be that, on such a continuum, journalism is further from maximum professionalism like law or medicine or even closer to zero professionalism than in law or medicine.

Astor (1991) expresses the thought of the United States of America's Bureau of Labour Statistics which summarizes the qualifications of professions thus, prescribes educational standards, licensing and enforcement of performance of standard by the profession itself. By and large, research conducted by Akinfeleye (1991) explains the features of professional as follows.

a) Solidarity :

A member of a profession believes closely in solidarity with other members and thinks that, it is a good thing to present a solid front to those outside the profession. How far can we say this about the Nigerian journalists? It is a common feature of journalists to scoff their colleagues when in ataxia (topsy-turvy).

b) Trust :

A member of a profession assumes that he can be trusted since he professes to have certain expertise that is not common. To what extent can a Nigerian journalist claim this point and be believed? It is viewed that everybody is a journalist in this country (even if he only features via letter to the editor). The impression created by print media that everybody should become journalist by creating his own news is not helping matters. Though it is acknowledged that there should be democratisation of news via citizen journalism notwithstanding, expertise should still be upheld to make the profession one of the best.

c) Objectivity :

Members of a profession is expected to think objectively and inquiring about matters subject to orthodoxy and sentiment which limit intellectual exploration. This feature of professionalism is dead in Nigeria journalism where emphasis on materialism is placed about intellectual exploration. Majority of

journalists are not interested in story that will not enrich their pocket-so, pocket first others follow.

d) Certification :

Certification and licensing are sacrosanct to the practice of a profession while a member can also expect to be put out of the profession if he does not live up to professional code of ethics. How many times have the Nigerian journalists practised this without any amount of success? Is it not possible for reporter "A" to be punished for a professional misconduct, or professional malpractice and after a few days he is being employed by another media organization who is also a member of the profession that instituted the punishment in the first instance?

e) Training :

A member of a profession is expected to meet the various minimum entrance standards for the profession such as a diploma, degree, or degrees in the professional area. Just what is the minimum entry standard for Nigerian journalists? There is certainly none and as such, everybody moves in and out of the profession. Though the Press Council in its Ilorin Declaration of 1998 specified the minimum entry requirement for journalism in Nigeria but there is no known back-up legal force, rather, it is only being backed-up by professional ethics and codes which are often violated by all.

Okunna, (1991) stated that :

...the merits of higher education for journalists have become widely recognized in all parts of the world. A review of studies in professionalism conducted in both developed and developing countries show that journalists with higher formal education exhibit more professional orientation in the performance of their duties, and are generally classified as high and medium professionals in contrast to their low professional colleagues most of whom have not had formal higher education (P.3).

A high status could ultimately make the journalist become more ethical and professional inclined because the visibility arising from this attribute could engender the journalist the conviction that he or she has a name to protect.

f) Reward :

Astor (199, P.68) says that members of a profession share in a discrete and substantive body of knowledge available to those in the profession. Following this, a member of a profession participates in a system of rewards monetary and or honorary for those who conduct themselves most notably within their code of ethics. Nigeria journalists truly jostle for both monetary and honorary reward but on the platter of laziness. It is on record that there was no winner for the 2011 TV presenter in the just concluded Nigeria National Media Merit Award (NNMMA) held in Akure Ondo State.

g) Code of Ethics :

Code of ethics governing the entrance and practice of members of a profession is a must. This governs their practice to a high degree of group control. There only exist on paper numerous codes of ethics for various Nigerian journalism associations, yet, the actual practice and submission to peer control has not been brought to fruition. The journalists' creed of 1908, media council law of 1988, Ilorin Declaration of 1998 and other code of ethics governing the conduct of journalism in Nigeria only exist on paper.

X. PROFESSIONALISM AND MEDIA ETHICS

McQuail, (2005, P.173) points out that lack of political independence has been identified as one of the effects of professionalism in journalism. This takes various forms, including organization into associations, the formation of press councils and the drawing up of principles of good practice in the form of codes of practice and ethics. The press councils are typically voluntary or at least non-governmental bodies that mediate between the public and the mass media. The function implies the need to have some codes of standard principles to which reference can be made; and in general press councils are instruments of self-regulations for the press that acknowledge a responsibility to the public. There are codes of ethics in Nigeria but it is often flawed — selling conscience at the altar of money.

a) Why Codes of Ethics?

Codes of ethics exist virtually in all professions in order to ensure standard practice and since journalism is not an exception thus, it bends along with dictates of the standard. The phenomenon reflects the general process of professionalism of journalism especially from the threat of external intervention and reduced autonomy. It reveals the values that the media publicly proclaim as guidelines for their work. Common features of the codes includes: the prohibition of discrimination on the basis of race, ethnicity, religion; respect for privacy; and prohibition of bribes or any other benefits. As a matter of fact, truth and objectivity are central to the values of journalism.

XI. IDENTITY OF A PROFESSIONAL JOURNALISTS

Astor (1991) explains that journalist is not a man who can write good, sound, logical English which he has learned at school or which divine providence has put into his head without effort on his part, unless he knows something of the fundamental of the things which he assumes to be calling. Such people are special writer, a contribution to the press.

Surlin (1987) after his study of values of journalism practitioners before and after undergoing course in media ethics opines that the media ethics course had a noticeable and ethically positive effect upon the student value system. Consequently, one might assure that this shift in values will lead to more ethical and responsible decision making by these soon-to-be media professionals.

Ogunsiji (1993) agrees with social "communicologist" that no doubt, professionalism will certainly restrict the ranks of those who practise journalism in Nigeria and that; it will also eliminate quacks from practicing. This will make Nigeria press in general appear more responsible and respectable. In the same vein, Akinfeleye (1990) opines that journalists and pseudo-journalists will find the lure of professionalism very strong because, it would give them the aura of social responsibility and dignity. Astor also ascertains that professional journalist is the foundation stone of the structure without which the seeker for news and the writer thereof, all the vast and intricate mass of machinery of melting post, of dynamos, picture of fleets of motor cars and special trains – all will be useless.

XII. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study employed the use of both secondary data and survey method of research to carryout and elucidates the bane of non-professionalism in Nigeria journalism. The issue of non-professionals bastardizing journalism may not easily yield objective answers and solutions so, the choice of survey method was considered an option to obtain necessary data in order to proffer solutions to the problem.

Osuala, (1982) and Nwadu (2008) submit that survey research method is a vital means of eliciting information from respondents; it facilitates the computation, analyses and interpretation of the findings. The Hope Newspaper was chosen for critical examination.

The population of the study included practicing journalists and since the evaluation did not intend to take the survey of all practising journalists, a representative sample close enough to satisfy whatever heterogeneity that existed was adopted. Included in the survey were editors, sub-editors, reporters and freelancers from The Hope Newspaper. The reason why this medium was chosen by the researcher bothered on the fact that Nigeria Government emphasizes qualify personnel with appropriate certificate in any appointment in all government owned establishments. The Hope is a state owned government newspaper which is supposed to operate at the highest level of professionalism above the private owned newspapers. In this media house there are twenty (20) journalists and all of them were used as sample size while

questionnaire was design to elicit information from the respondents.

Each questionnaire has a set of thirteen questions, twenty copies of questionnaires were administered to twenty journalists in which fifteen representing 75% were recovered while the researcher was unable to cover the remaining five as at the time of collating the data. The fifteen recovered questionnaires stand the chance of hundred percent ($15/15 \times 100$) that is, the fifteen questionnaires represents hundred percent. Due to limited space provided some of the demographic questions have been excluded while only pertinent questions are critically analyzed.

XIII. DATA PRESENTATION IN TABULATED FORM

Question : Education Qualification

Table 1

Response	No of Respondents	Percentage %
SSCE	1	6.7%
ND	5	33.3%
NCE	-	-
HND/B.SC/Above	9	60%
Total	15	100%

Source : field survey 2011

This question seeks to know the academic background of the respondents. One respondent (6.7%) has SSCE; five respondents (33.3%) have ND while HND/B.Sc holders constitute 60%.

Question : Field of study

Table 2

Response	No of Respondents	Percentage %
Mass Comm./Journalism	9	60%
Others	6	40%
Total	15	100%

Source : field survey 2011

Nine respondents which represent 60% studied mass communication/journalism via formal education while other practitioners who represent 40% of the sample are from other fields: yet they practice journalism.



Question : Does experience without formal education make one a professional?

Table 3

Response	No of Respondents	Percentage%
Yes	4	26.7%
No	10	66.6%
Don't know	1	6.7%
Total	15	100%

Source : field survey 2011

This question tries to probe into the relationship between in-house training and formal education in relation to professionalism. From the responses, 26.7% says journalism experience without formal education makes one a professional while 66.6% disagrees with that and 6.7% could not really say which is which.

Question : Who is a professional?

Table 4

Response	No of Respondents	Percentage %
A graduate of Mass Comm. /Journalism	6	40%
One without University education but with journalistic experience	4	26.7%
A member of NUJ	5	33.3%
Total	15	100%

Source : field survey 2011

The research question one wants to know from the practicing journalists' perspective what they use as yardstick for the word "professional journalist" probably if there is different from those in academia. Interestingly, 40% says a graduate of Mass Communication/Journalism qualifies as professional journalist. From this, 33.3% submits that whoever is a member of Nigerian Union of Journalist qualifies as professional while 26.7% says that whoever has journalistic experience even without formal education qualifies as professional journalist.

Questions : Does government influence in anyway encourage non-professionalism?

Table 5

Response	No of Respondents	Percentage %
Yes	6	40%
No	9	60%
Total	15	100%

Source : field survey 2011

Research question two shows that 60% of the respondents said government influence has nothing to do with non-professionalism while 40% say it does.

Question : Relationship between professional and non-professional journalist?

Table 6

Response	No of Respondents	Percentage %
Very Cordial	-	-
Cordial	9	60%
Not cordial	6	40%
Total	15	100%

Source : field survey 2011

Since journalism profession is a mixture of both quacks and professionals this question seeks to know the view of the respondents on activities of non-professionals in this trade and to know if quacks are welcome. From the result, 60% says that the relationship is cordial while 40% disagrees.

Research question three is an open-ended question on the effects of non-professionalism on journalism. Various and even virtually all responses attest that quacks in the profession are the reason while journalism is being relegated among other professions.

XIV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

From the result of this research work it reveals that a large percentage of 80% of the practicing journalists of The Hope Newspaper does not have the minimum requirement to practise which is Higher National Diploma (HND) in Journalism/Mass Communication. So, what is the importance or the effect of Ilorin Declaration of 1998 and other regulatory bodies clamouring for professionalism in journalism? The United State Bureau of Labour Statistics as quoted in Akinfeleye, (1991, P.12) says that to qualify as a professional in a particular field the professional must meet the prescribed educational standard but this is found wanting in Nigeria journalism profession.

Okunna, (1991, P.3) reviews that journalists with higher formal education exhibit more professional oriented in the performance of their duties thus, those with lower formal education will only offer little because even at National Diploma level, a lot of professional courses are not part of the curriculum as such, they are not being taught; such are reserved for the last two years of a four-year programme.

The fact that 40% of the respondents studied non-journalism course is a threat to the profession of journalism. Among this great percentage are editors, sub-editors and reporters who probably learn the profession through on-the-job training. This is the position of Jerry Gana in 2001 when he rejected the call for special salary scale for those in the field of journalism calling them non-professionals.

Goode as quoted in Aston (1990) says that a professional must have attained a specified academic standard in the field or course of the profession before

he can be certified. In view of Goode compared with this research a large percentage of Nigeria journalists are non-professionals. Practitioners themselves according to this research agree that journalism practice without formal education does not make one a professional journalist. Though 26.7% of them say accumulated experience makes one a professional but, such percentage cannot be justified compared to other professions such as Law, Engineering, Medicine and others.

This research wants to know the yardstick being used from practitioners' perspective who a journalist is. Interestingly, 40% said he must be a graduate of Mass Communication/Journalism. From the findings, 33.3% argued that a member of a union for instance NUJ is qualified to be described as professional. Though this is one of the requirements but this should be after obtaining the minimum education standard. The remaining 26% submits that journalism experience is the yardstick but these respondents have the lowest followers.

It has been established that government influence and policies do not favour professionalism. Most of the editors and managing directors of media houses are there based on political appointment just to compensate the helmsmen who supported them during electioneering campaign.

The relationship between professional and non-professional journalists is sixty percent cordial – an element of solidarity, sense of identity and common values are shared in line with Akinfeleye, (1991). But, going by the large percentage of 40% who said the relationship is not cordial, we cannot say Nigeria journalists are professionals because professionals should share a professional culture, believe in close solidarity and share professional ideology Aston, (1991), Opubor, (1991). Hence, all the relevant requirements to qualify as professional are conspicuously absent among Nigeria journalists. Findings from research question three show that, bad headlines, poor production, brown-envelop and other professional misconducts are the effects of non-professionalism in Nigeria journalism.

XV. SUMMARY

The result of this research work shows that Nigeria journalists are yet to attain the standard of professionalism. In this 21st century where every profession requires special skill, minimum education standard, code of ethics, professional authority, community sectional and professional culture, journalism practitioners in Nigeria are still arguing and insisting that someone with journalistic experience should qualify as member of their profession while this issue has been settled long ago in other professions. Respondents from this research confirm that the result of non-professionalism has made the profession to be

all comers' job and this relegates journalism to the background in the committee of professions.

Research question three probes into the consequences of non-professionalism in the profession and respondents furthermore identify excessive lost for brown envelopes, unprofessional and badly written news, reports; badly produced journals and newspapers downgrade the profession in the estimate of other professions. A faulty machine cannot give correct output so is true of half-baked professional; he will certainly malfunction and package irrelevance for public consumption. Often, non-professionals in this trade do produce junk newspapers and magazines which usually have adverse effects on the action and reaction of readers to issues; therefore, objectivity and balance are foreign to their reportage.

From the field survey it is obvious that non-professionalism in journalism has slowed down the pace at which journalism would have moved in this country then, journalists are being deprived of benefits and rights which other professionals enjoy. Responses from this research work show that non-professionals often breach the code of ethics which makes the public to look down on journalists.

XVI. CONCLUSION

Though press has been viewed as the training ground for future leaders, notwithstanding, whoever is going to practice the profession should equip himself/herself with the minimum standard. Peter Enahoro's statement in Duyile (2004, P.396) that the press is the nation's training grand is not an exaggeration, neither is it a boast. The fact still remains that many young people gain their knowledge and experience by writing for the press from where they later discover the great fortunes in life. Obafemi Awolowo reported for Daily Times, Dr. Nnamdi Azikwe learnt his political traits by working in Ghana newspaper; Onabanjo was a journalist and columnist and later ruled Ogun State. Segun Osoba who became Ogun State Governor in 1999 joined Daily Times as a reporter while Tony Momoh formal Nigeria Information Minister worked in Daily Times so is Anthony Enahoro. All of them, (though subject to what was required in their time) went through formal journalism education. There is no doubt that being a journalist prepares one for the greater future, but the right thing must be done.

The death of vibrant and radical journalism is worrisome in Nigeria even those who have attained formal education engage in an unprofessional conduct, turning journalism to "money journalism". Front page which was once an exclusive news page is now being devoted to advertisement because proprietors of media houses are business tycoons who place wealth creation or revenue generation above professionalism. Tell Magazine a Nigeria print medium which was once voted



the most courageous news magazine during the dark days of Gen. Sanni Abacha (former Nigeria Head of State) is now a shadow of itself — so are other newspapers. It is common this day to employ Industrial Training (IT) students in media houses as reporters so that the establishment will only pay token for the services of these students — this is a typical example as shown in table I. The Hope Newspaper (though government owned) refused to report the impeachment story of former Speaker of Ondo State house of Assembly due to directive from the state government. The same thing goes to other government owned newspapers that will never carry any story viewed as unfavourable to the government — this is purely unprofessional.

XVII. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this research, the followings are recommended in other to attain professionalism in Nigeria journalism.

1. There should be special salary for the professional journalists in order to discourage brown envelop syndrome while the minimum entrance requirement which is Higher National Diploma should be strictly adhere to.
2. For journalism practitioners to qualify as professionals, the regulatory bodies; Nigeria Union of Journalists (NUJ), Nigeria Guild of Editors (NGE), Newspaper Proprietors Association of Nigeria (NPAN) and other regulatory bodies should enforce the code of ethical conduct and rid of quacks in the profession.
3. Media houses should constantly organize training programmes for their staff so they will keep pace with the time-changes.
4. Government should lose their grip off the media and let them function as liberal societal structure.
5. Freedom of expression in reality not in theory should be guaranteed while the new Freedom of Information Bill (FOI) should be allowed to function accordingly.
6. Proper marriage between formal education and years of experience along necessary training should form basis for entrance into the profession.
7. The existing faculties that offer journalism in Nigeria tertiary institutions should improve on their curriculum and also equip Mass Communication Department with modern training facilities in order to redeem the dented image of Nigeria universities that turn out half-baked graduates.
8. Government as a matter of seriousness should provide adequate security for journalists during their major assignment.
9. There should be stiffer punishment for any member of the profession that breaches the rule or engages in professional misconduct.
10. Finally, more research should be carried out in this area in order to urgently solve this perennial problem.

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A Comparative Analysis of Gender Related Development Index and Gender Empowerment Measures of Nepal (With Reference to NHDR 1996 to 2009)

By Mukesh Kumar Mishra

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Abstract - Human development paradigm is one of the emerging development models which is widely accepted all over the world. This paper tries to shed light on the methodology applied by Nepal for calculating GDI and GEM and it also focuses on the trend and pattern of GDI and GEM in Nepal. The primary objective of this study is to examine the change in pattern of GDI and GEM of Nepal over the last 10 years from 1996 to 2006. This study is based on the secondary source of information collected from the Nepal Human Development Reports (NHDR) 1998 to 2009A.D. The study indicates that desegregation of GDI and GEM at sub national levels has enormous differences in terms of human development especially from gender perspective. The level of both, GDI and GEM has increased over the time (the value of GDI has improved from 0.267 in 1996 to 0.499 in 2006. Likewise, the value of GEM has also increased from 0.191 in 1996 to 0.496 in 2006) but still it has not reached in satisfactory level, particularly while comparing the status of these two indicators in development regions , there is wide gap. This study can be effective for policy intervention and further planning for women empowerment.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The term 'human development' has come to be accepted in the development literature as an expansion of human choices, an enhancement of freedom and fulfillment of human rights. Human development is the process of enlarging people choices. Enlarging people's choices is achieved by expanding human capabilities and functioning. At all level of development, there are three essential capabilities of human development - to lead long and healthy life, to be knowledgeable and to have a decent standard of living. If these basic capabilities are not achieved, many choices are simply not available and many opportunities remain inaccessible. But human development further goes on; political, economic and social opportunities for being creative and productive to enjoying self respect, empowerment and a sense of belonging to a community.

The human development paradigm is a holistic development model. The development must put people at the center of its concern. The purpose of development is to enlarge all human choices not just

income. The human development paradigm is concerned both with building up human capabilities (through investment on people) and with using those human capabilities fully (through an enabling framework for growth and empowerment). It defines the ends of development and analyses sensible option for achieving them. Human development has four essential pillars - equity, sustainability, production and empowerment.

Since the birth of human development, it was criticized to be less attentive to gender issues. Owing to the criticism, the beginning Human Development Reports were devoted to discover gender issues subjectively. However, the need of gender sensitive development measurement was realized by all development practitioners.

The reason for demanding gender sensitive development measure was sustained, particularly in case of human development which stood on the principle of equity. Equitable human development can be achieved with providing equal opportunities for gender. There are explicit evidences that demonstrate gender differences or/and inequality in both biological and social ground. Biologically, sex ratio at birth is higher for male children, 1.05 per female live birth, but female lives longer than male by about 5 to 7 years on the average (life expectancy at birth). The evidences suggest that if males and females receive similar health care, nutritional opportunities, and so on, women tend to have significantly lower death rates at most age groups, and end up living much longer than men do. On the basis of social, cultural and economical sphere, "women and men share many aspects of living together, collaborate with each other in complex and ubiquitous ways, and end up often enough – with very different rewards and deprivations" (Anand and Sen, 1995).

This is because, unequal treatment in access to food, health care, education, employment and income earning opportunities. There may a systematic anti-female bias in the distribution of health care, nutrition, and other ingredients of living. Gender bias exists, both within the households and in public sphere – in labour market, in access to public health services. At the result, lower life expectancy of females than males in many parts of the world (especially in Asia and North Africa).

Difference between male and female educational achievements is important both because of questions of justice and because of the practical importance – confirmed in many empirical studies – of the long run impact of women's education on the social well-being of both women and men. Therefore, Gender desegregation is necessary in human development. Human development index is well-suited to examining gender inequalities that result from such unequal treatment.

The Human Development Report 1995 highlighted that if development is not engendered, is endangered. In 1995, two composite indexes were constructed to account for gender inequalities. They are Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). In estimating the GDI, a measure is constructed for the overall achievements of women and men in the three dimensions of the HDI- life expectancy, educational attainment and adjusted real income after taking note of inequalities between women and men. In other words, the GDI is the HDI adjusted for gender inequality.

The gender empowerment measure concentrates on participation economic, political and professional. It seeks to determine how much women have been empowered or enfranchised to take part in different aspects of public life in comparison with men. It focuses on only three variables; economic- earning power, share in professional and managerial jobs and share of parliamentary seats.

II. OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study is to discuss the methodology of calculation GDI and GEM followed by Nepal as well as compare these indices over past. The specific objectives are :

- To shed light on the methodology adopted by Nepal to calculate GDI and GEM over past.
- To compare and analyze the level and pattern of GDI and GEM of Nepal between 1996 to 2006 A.D.

III. MEASUREMENT OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

With the annual editions of Human Development Reports (HDRs) that are proving influential in re-orienting development minds to re-found objective. It was increasingly felt that national reports could best reflect national concerns and serve better the identification of state-specific priorities. It was believed that national report helps to search on policies that directly improve the capabilities of people and reduce human deprivation. On the basis of importance of national report, Nepal has produced four NHDRs to date. The first NHDR was published in 1998, second in 2001, third in 2004 and last one published in 2009 A.D. NHDR 1998 and 2004 provide regional as well as district level of measurement of HD, while the reports of 2001

and 2009 provide only regional level measurements with using the latest data available. This report measures the HD using the following measurements - Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Development Index (GDI), Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), Human Poverty Index (HPI) and Human Empowerment Index (HEI).

a) Methodology to Calculate GDI and GEM

i. Gender related Development Index(GDI)

In Nepal, GDI measures achievements in the same dimensions and variables as the HDI (HDI is a composite index based on three indicators – longevity measured by life expectancy at birth; educational attainment measured by combination of adult literacy (two-third weight) and the combined gross primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio (one-third weight); and standard living measured by gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (PPP US\$).), but takes into account inequality in achievements between women and men. The greater the gender disparity in human development, the lower in the country's GDI compared to its HDI. In other words, higher value corresponds to the higher gender equality or higher level of achievements made by both men and women. The GDI is simply the HDI adjusted downwards for gender inequality. GDI falls when achievements levels of both women and men in a country go down or when the disparity between their achievements increases. While calculating GDI, dimension index is computed by transforming original values into normalized scores separately for male and female. The equation is

$$\text{DimensionIndex} = \frac{\text{Actual} - \text{Minimum}}{\text{Maximum} - \text{Minimum}}$$

Using the above relation, three indices are computed – life expectancy (LEI), educational attainment (EAI), and GDP index (GDPI). For EAI, first, compute the dimension index of both adult literacy and combined gross enrolment separately for male and female; then take the average with two-third weight of adult literacy and one-third of gross enrolment or mean years of schooling. The formula is, Educational attainment index = $\{2/3 * \text{ALI}\} + \{1/3 * \text{MYS}\}$, where, ALI is adult literacy index and MYS is mean years of schooling index. At last, Income index is obtained by logarithmic transformation, since income is treated as a proxy of decent living. The formula is; Income index = $\log(\text{Actual}) - \log(\text{Min}) / \{\log(\text{Max}) - \log(\text{Min})\}$. The second step involves computation of "equally distributed index". The formula is

$$\text{Equally Distributed Index} = \left(p_f \times X_f^{-1} + p_m \times X_m^{-1} \right)^{-1}$$

Where, p_f and p_m respectively refer to the proportional share of female and male in the population,

and x_f and x_m respectively the male and female indices computed in the first step.

By using this formula, we have to estimate; an equally distributed index of life expectancy at birth (EDILE), an equally distributed index of educational attainment (EDIEA) and an equally distributed index of

$$GDI = \left(\frac{1}{3} \times EDILE \right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times EDIEA \right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times EDII \right) \text{ OR } = \frac{EDILE + EDIEA + EDII}{3}$$

ii. Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

As the GDI, the GEM seeks to determine how much women have been empowered or enfranchised to take part in different aspects of public life in comparison with men. It measures the relative empowerment of women and men in political and economic activities. Empowerment is measured by participation with decision making power. Percentage share of men and women in parliamentary seats and participation of men and women in local elections at VDC and municipality levels represent political empowerment. Percentage share of men and women in the administrative and managerial positions and in the professional and technical positions and income represent economic empowerment.

It focuses on women's opportunities rather than capabilities. The opportunities are related to economic and public participation and decision-making. Then, the GEM captures gender inequality in three key areas. 1. Political participation and decision making, it measured by female and male percentage shares of parliamentary

income (EDII). The notion of "equally distributed equivalent" achievement between women and men plays an important role in developing gender-equality sensitive indicators.

Finally GDI is calculated as the simple average of these three equally distributed indices, such as;

$$GEM = \frac{EDEIPR + EDEIEP + EDEII}{3}$$

seats in 1998 NHDR reports and female and male percentage shares of parliamentary seats as well as local election in 2001 and 2004 NHDR. 2. Economic participation and decision-making, it is measured by the simple average of two indicators such as female and male percentages shares of positions as legislators, senior officials and managers, and female and male percentage shares of professional and technical positions. 3. Power over economic resources, it is measured as female and male estimated earned income (PPP US\$). The first two dimensions concentrate on the political and economic sphere primarily from the perspective of participation – higher the participation, the higher the empowerment. The third is the power over economic resources.

For estimating GEM, at first Equally Distributed Equivalent Index (EDEI) are calculated for each three index. Equally distributed equivalent index is computed as according to the following formula, assuming that the value of ϵ is 2.

$$\text{Equally Distributed Index} = \left(p_f \times X_f^{-1} + p_m \times X_m^{-1} \right)^{-1}$$

Where, p_f and p_m respectively refer to the proportional share of female and male in the population, and X_f and X_m respectively the male and female indices computed in the first step.

To get final EDEI for participation and decision-making, divide each combined share by 50. The rational for dividing by 50 is an ideal society, with equal empowerment of the sexes, each combined share would equal 50% - that is, women's share would equal men's share. At last, GEM is calculated as the simple average of these three indices as follows;

$$GEM = \frac{EDEIPR + EDEIEP + EDEII}{3}$$

IV. DATA AND METHODS

This article is based on Nepal Human development Reports 1998, 2001, 2004 and 2009 A.D which was published by United Nation Development Programme. The data obtained from the reports have

categorized, tabulated, processed and analyzed using quantitative techniques. Simple statistical tools such as frequency distributions and percentage have used in presentation.

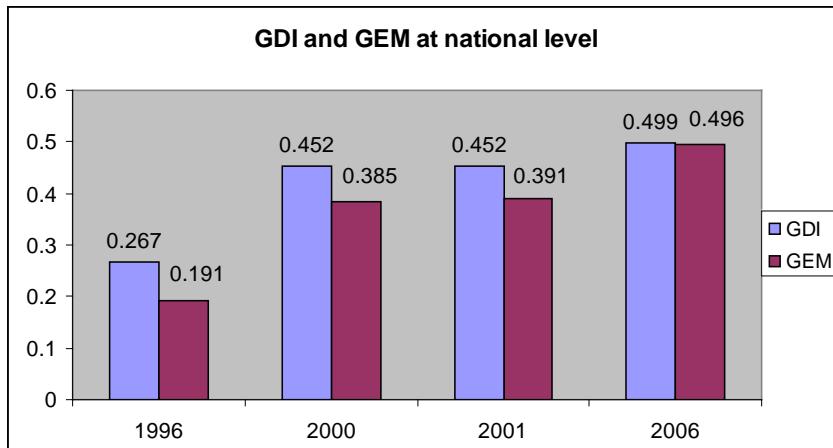
V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

a) GDI and GEM at national level

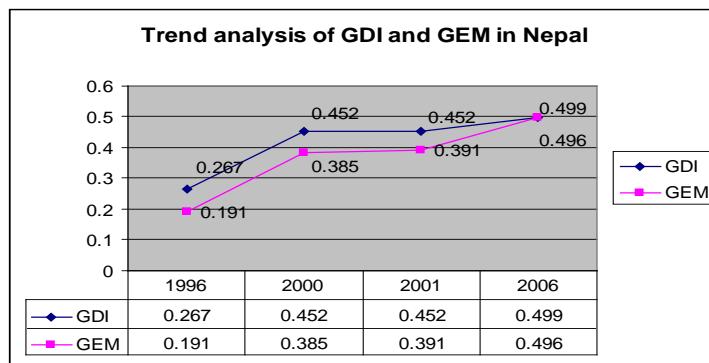
The gender related development index is simply the HDI adjusted downwards for gender inequalities. The greater the value of GDI, the lower the degree of gender disparity in human development. Likewise gender empowerment measure indicates women's empowerment situation in terms of political participation, decision making and economic status in a nation.



Figure 1 : GDI and GEM of Nepal, 1996-2006 A.D.



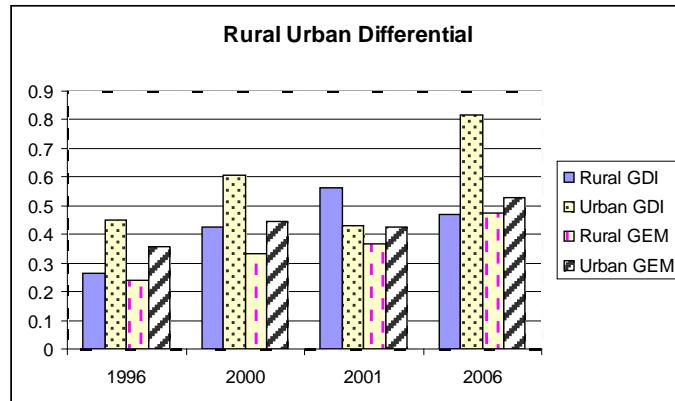
Source : NHDR, 1998, 2001, 2004 & 2009 A.D



The scores of GDI and GEM have improved over the years. The value of GDI has improved from 0.267 in 1996 to 0.499 in 2006 A.D. Likewise the value of GEM has also improved from 0.191 in 1996 to 0.496 in 2006 A.D. The value of GEM has significantly improved from 1996 to 2000. It was due to the methodological change. In 1996, political participation of women was measured by the percentage share of male and female in parliamentary seats. However, after 2000 A.D., it was measured by percentage share in local government election. In 2006, the score of GDI of Nepal 0.499

b) Urban-rural differential in GDI and GEM

Figure 2 : Urban-rural differentials in GDI and GEM, Nepal, 1996-2006 A.D.



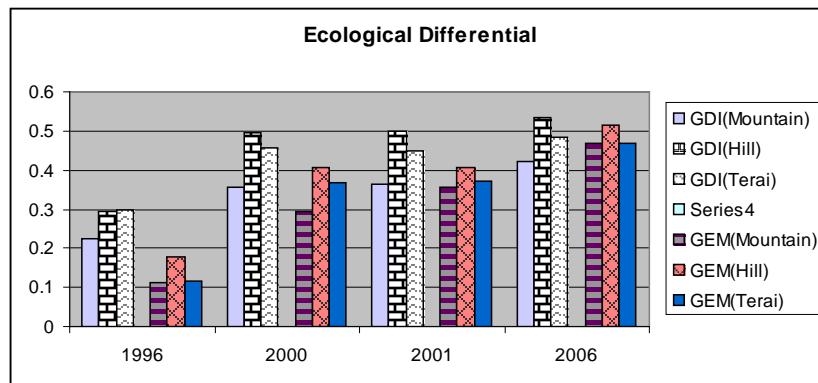
Source : NHDR, 1998, 2001, 2004 & 2009 A.D

The gender inequality is higher in rural areas than that of urban areas as the report of NHDR 2006 shows the rural GDI of Nepal is merely 0.471 where as it is 0.819 for urban areas. Likewise, it also suggests that women in the rural areas are less empowered than that of women in urban areas. The value of GDI and GEM both are high in urban areas in each report in comparison with rural areas. However, the value of the

GDI and GEM has improved in both urban and rural areas over the time period. Urban areas, in general, have higher GDI and GEM than their rural counterparts for obvious reasons, such as; better access to health care, better educational opportunities, income opportunities, opportunities for political participation and decision making

c) *Ecological differential of GDI and GEM.*

Figure 3 : Ecological differentials in GDI and GEM, Nepal, 1996-2006 A.D.



Source : NHDR, 1998, 2001, 2004 & 2009 A.D

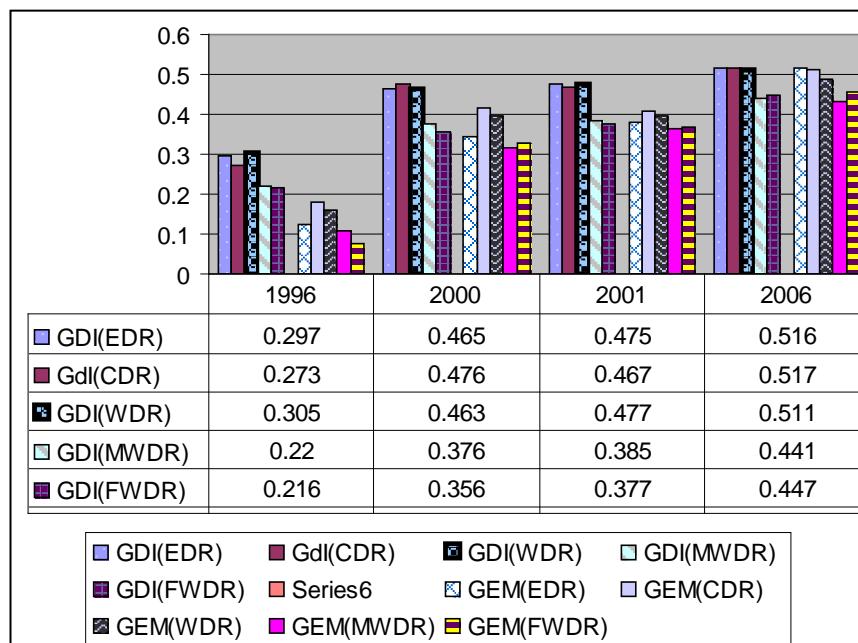
The values of GDI and GEM have improved over the years for each ecological region. The highest value of GDI and GEM was found in Hill region and lowest in Mountain region continuously from the year 2000 to 2006 A.D. It indicates that, there was less gender disparities in Hill region with compare to Tarai and Mountain region. It justifies that the women of

d) *Development regional differential in GDI and GEM*

The comparison between development regions hides the enormous intra regional gender disparities within the Hill, Mountain and Tarai in each development regions.

Mountain and Terai are left behind the main stream of development in Nepal. It may be so because of several socio cultural factors existing in different corners of Mountain and Terai. Data also shows that the differences between the gaps of GDI and GEM have declined over the years in these ecological zones.

Figure 4 : Development regional differentials in GDI and GEM, Nepal



Source : NHDR, 1998, 2001, 2004 & 2009 A.D.

The values of GDI and GEM have improved for each development regions over the time period. The value of GDI was higher for central development region in 1996 and 2000, but in 2001 the value of GDI was higher in western development region but again in 2006 the value of GDI was found Highest in CDR. Likewise, the far western development regions have least value of GDI for each year except in 2006, during this period MWDR had the least GDI.. Similarly, the value of GEM

was higher for central development region till 2001 but in 2006 the EDR had highest value for GEM .Similarly the lowest value was found in mid western development region for each year respectively. It indicates that there was a high gender disparity and women were less empowered in Mid-western and Far-western development region in comparisons to other regions (figure 4).

Table 1 : Eco-development regional differential in GDI and GEM, Nepal, 1996-2006.

Eco-Region	GDI				GEM			
	1996	2000	2001	2006	1996	2000	2001	2006
Eastern Mountain	0.307	0.399	0.462	0.514	0.126	0.369	0.394	0.538
Eastern Hill	0.313	0.497	0.486	0.534	0.142	0.326	0.378	0.529
Eastern Tarai	0.338	0.473	0.469	0.508	0.123	0.355	0.380	0.483
Central Mountain	0.210	0.425	0.410	0.441	0.134	0.376	0.343	0.489
Central Hill	0.332	0.499	0.528	0.589	0.224	0.452	0.435	0.534
Central Tarai	0.256	0.443	0.416	0.463	0.098	0.372	0.349	0.467
Western Mountain	0.280	0.405	0.478	0.414	0.119	0.427	0.511	0.413
Western Hill	0.304	0.472	0.479	0.547	0.172	0.413	0.395	0.518
Western Tarai	0.308	0.411	0.474	0.455	0.136	0.377	0.386	0.391
Mid-Western Mountain	0.185	0.287	0.314	0.325	0.066	0.273	0.325	0.341
Mid- Western Hill	0.238	0.408	0.400	0.439	0.093	0.315	0.334	0.410
Mid- Western Tarai	0.266	0.439	0.422	0.477	0.137	0.364	0.387	0.488
Far- Western Mountain	0.185	0.246	0.319	0.325	0.052	0.322	0.309	0.315
Far- Western Hill	0.181	0.355	0.369	0.421	0.059	0.278	0.312	0.396
Far- Western Tarai	0.273	0.407	0.432	0.492	0.109	0.381	0.346	0.469
Nepal	0.267	0.452	0.452	0.499	0.191	0.385	0.391	0.496

Source : NHDR, 1998, 2001, 2004 & 2009 A.D

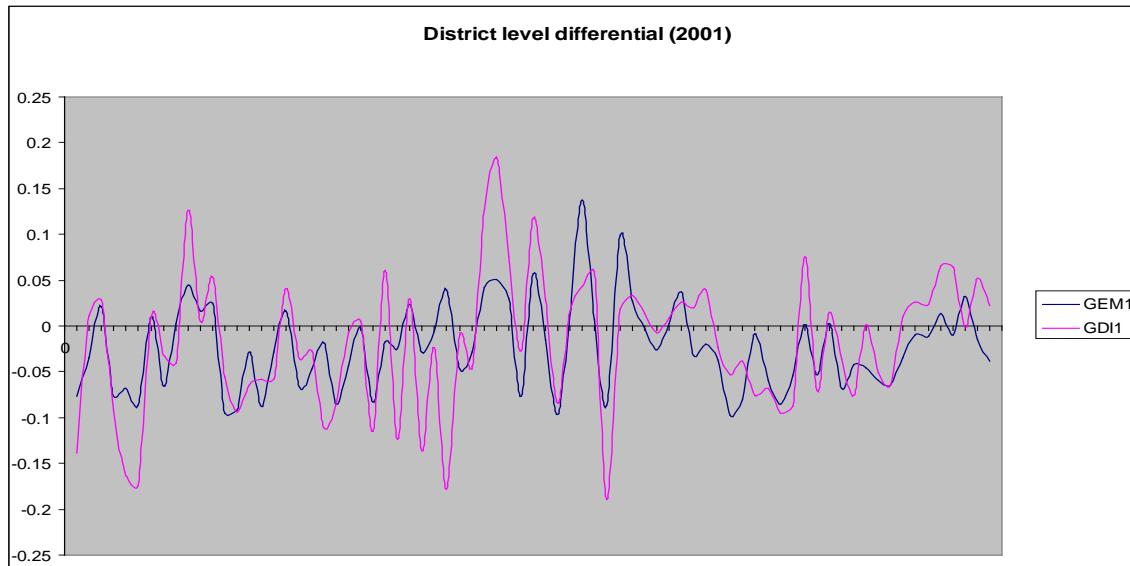
The value of GDI was found highest in Central Hill continuously from 2000 to 2006 A.D. Likewise, the value of GDI was lowest in Far-western Hill, Far- eastern Mountain and Mid-western Mountain for 1996, 2000, 2001 and 2006A.D respectively. Similarly, the value of GEM was highest for central Hill in 2000A.D but it was higher in Western Mountain in 2001 A.D whereas it was found highest in Eastern Mountain in 2006 A.D in

respectively but in 2001A.D the value of GEM was higher in Western Mountain. Likewise, the least value of GEM was found in Far- Western Mountain, Mid- Western Mountain and Far- western Hill for 1996, 2000 and 2001 respectively. There was less gender disparities in Central Hill. It may be due to location of the highly urbanized capital region Katmandu (Table 1)

e) *Districts level differential*

There was variation in values of GDI and GEM at the district level. For the majority of districts, the values of GDI and GEM have below the national level.

Figure 5: Districts by the values of GDI and GEM, Nepal, 2001.



Source : NHDR, 1998, 2001, 2004 &2009 A.D.

The classification shows that the values of GDI for 35 districts are greater than national average and remaining have below the national average. There was less gender disparity in Kathmandu district, followed by Kaski and Lalitpur respectively. Likewise, there is high gender disparity in Bajura, followed by Bajhang and Achham, respectively.

Similarly, the value of GEM for 24 districts is greater than that of national average and the value of remaining (majority districts, 51) is below the national average. Lalitpur has the highest value of GEM (0.448), followed by Kathmandu (0.442) and Kaski (0.433), respectively. Likewise, the women of Pyuthan district are least empowered followed by the women in Mahottari and Dadeldhura. It also indicates that districts having higher value of GEM have higher correspondingly value of GDI, except a few exceptions (Figure 5) (for more see Annex 1).

VI. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Desegregation of GDI and GEM at sub national levels show enormous differences in human development from gender perspective. It can thus be observed that the intensity of discrimination against women at various socio-organizational levels - national, regional and district levels in basic capabilities formation in Nepal is quite high. Nepal, thus, faces the challenges of enhancing a more just distribution of these capabilities among men and women.

It can be inferred from the strong positive association between women's empowerment and their

achievements in basic capabilities, that low GDI is the outcome of a relatively low level of empowerment among women. Although the line of caution between the development of women's capabilities and their empowerment may not be absolute, it appears that the best policy option is to empower women in order to enhance their capabilities even while working to close the gender gaps in capability. To narrow the gender gap further, it is important to concentrate education, especially focusing on girls and women. It is equally important to expand opportunities and make them accessible to all – again, with special emphasis on women's participations.

To address this alarming marginalization, Nepal needs to enhance the education and training of women at higher levels. The government should also consider taking appropriate measures to increase women's participation in the political process and the recruitment of more women into professional and administrative jobs. This can be sustained only by increasing opportunities for women in both education and employment. Expanding economic opportunities will require a shift in the structure of the economy away from subsistence agricultural and thus a rise in income generating scope for both men and women.

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ANNEX

Annex 2 : GDI and GEM at district levels, 2001

	2001	GDI	GEM
Nepal		0.452	0.391
Districts (In alphabetic order)			
Achham	0.314	0.314	
Arghakhanchi	0.463	0.356	
Baglung	0.481	0.412	
Baitadi	0.361	0.314	
Bajhang	0.289	0.323	
Bajura	0.277	0.304	
Banka	0.463	0.401	
Bara	0.420	0.326	
Bardiya	0.411	0.394	
Bhaktapur	0.578	0.436	
Bhojpur	0.457	0.407	
Chitawan	0.505	0.416	
Dadeldhura	0.396	0.296	
Dailekh	0.358	0.300	
Dang	0.388	0.362	
Darchula	0.394	0.303	
Dhading	0.394	0.362	
Dhankuta	0.493	0.407	
Dhanusha	0.416	0.324	
Dolakha	0.425	0.344	
Dolpa	0.341	0.372	
Doti	0.368	0.306	
Gorkha	0.445	0.348	

	2012	2011	2010
Gulmi	0.457	0.388	
Humla	0.337	0.308	
Ilam	0.513	0.374	
Jajarkot	0.328	0.366	
Jhapa	0.482	0.415	
Jumla	0.316	0.362	
Kailali	0.428	0.385	
Kalikot	0.274	0.430	
Kanchanpur	0.442	0.344	
Kapilbastu	0.407	0.362	
Kaski	0.578	0.433	
Kathmandu	0.635	0.442	
Kavrepalanchok	0.527	0.421	
Khotang	0.425	0.314	
Lalitpur	0.569	0.448	
Lamjung	0.480	0.376	
Mahottari	0.368	0.295	
Makwanpur	0.468	0.403	
Manang	0.495	0.528	
Morang	0.511	0.399	
Mugu	0.263	0.304	
Mustang	0.470	0.490	
Myagdi	0.486	0.418	
Nawalparasi	0.466	0.388	
Nuwakot	0.445	0.365	
Okhaldhunga	0.461	0.393	
Palpa	0.478	0.428	
Panchthar	0.472	0.359	
Parbat	0.492	0.371	
Parsa	0.429	0.354	
Pyuthan	0.399	0.293	
Ramechhap	0.414	0.311	
Rasuwa	0.376	0.382	
Rautahat	0.384	0.331	
Rolpa	0.357	0.306	
Rukum	0.364	0.337	
Rupandehi	0.527	0.392	



Salyan	0.382	0.338
Sankhuwasabha	0.467	0.393
Saptari	0.416	0.323
Sarlahi	0.377	0.349
Sindhuli	0.453	0.345
Sindhupalchok	0.401	0.331
Siraha	0.388	0.327
Solukhumbu	0.462	0.356
Sunsari	0.478	0.381
Surkhet	0.475	0.380
Syangja	0.518	0.405
Tanahu	0.516	0.381
Taplejung	0.451	0.423
Terhathum	0.504	0.376
Udayapur	0.474	0.353

Source : NHDR, 2004



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Modern Lifestyle, Non Veg Food and its Impact on Environmental Aspects

By Mukesh Kumar Mishra

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Abstract - Background : Human's life style has changed dramatically over the time. The consumption of meat and meat production has increased radically through out the world. Global demand for food is expected to increase by 70 % by 2050(FAO, 2009). This excessive growth in meat production/consumption brings several impacts on environmental resources. The paper discusses change in people's lifestyle and consumption pattern of non veg food all over the world .The consequences of meat production (live stock farming) on water, land use, rain forest and climate change are discussed.

Materials and methods: Data from U.S Department of Agriculture, Foreign Agriculture Service, 2010 is used for meat consumption analysis. Global data of 1965-2005 obtained from the U.N. Food and Agricultural Organization FAOSTAT livestock database is used for projection.

Keywords : *Meat Consumption, Environmental Impacts, Modern life style, Non veg food, Climate change.*

GJHSS-B Classification: FOR Code: 160507, 160502, 160508



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



Modern Lifestyle, Non Veg Food and its Impact on Environmental Aspects

Mukesh Kumar Mishra (M.phil)

Abstract - Background : Human's life style has changed dramatically over the time. The consumption of meat and meat production has increased radically through out the world. Global demand for food is expected to increase by 70 % by 2050(FAO, 2009). This excessive growth in meat production/consumption brings several impacts on environmental resources. The paper discusses change in people's lifestyle and consumption pattern of non veg food all over the world .The consequences of meat production (live stock farming) on water, land use, rain forest and climate change are discussed.

Materials and methods: Data from U.S Department of Agriculture, Foreign Agriculture Service, 2010 is used for meat consumption analysis. Global data of 1965-2005 obtained from the U.N. Food and Agricultural Organization FAOSTAT livestock database is used for projection. The global population, per capita GDP and Per capita meat consumption is projected for 2050 applying least square regression models. The models developed by Gerbens-Leenes , Nonhebel, and Susan Subak are used for estimation of land required for production of (Beef, Pork, and Broiler) per m² and estimation of CO₂ emission per kg meat. Descriptive and analytical method of data analysis is applied in this study. Data is presented in tabulated as well as graphical forms for analysis. **Results:** Modern lifestyle has affected the meat consumption pattern. With increase in per capita income the consumption rate of meat products has dramatically increased through out the world. The projected population for 2050 will demand 624,530000 metric tons of meat and per capita meat consumption will rise from 41.0 kg to 68.8 from 2005 to 2050. The projected data shows that there in increase in per capita meat consumption with increase in per capita GDP. India having, low per capita GDP in comparison to USA has low meat consumption rate. Australia, North and South America and some parts of Europe have very high meat consumption rate .The total land used for meat production (excluding pasture land) was 2526347 Km² in 2002 whereas it is estimated to be more than double by 2050 i.e. 6594227 Km² and The CO₂E released from livestock farming was 982108000 metric tons in 2002 where as it is going to be almost triple of it (2753452000 metric tons) by 2050. Besides, the water required for meat production was around 20000000000 thousand kilo liters in 1965 whereas it is estimated to be around six times more i.e. 120000000000 thousand kilo liters by 2050. The rain forest and biodiversity are also adversely affected by meat production/ consumption.

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Conclusion: Meat consumption is not economically and ecologically sustainable for Earth. Radical changes in food consumption pattern, emphasizing on vegetarian food is a must for sustainability of our mother Earth.

Keywords : Meat Consumption, Environmental Impacts, Modern life style, Non veg food, Climate change.

I. INTRODUCTION

There is changing trend that is occurring globally in how people eat. As the economic status of people changes, the food consumption pattern changes as well. Communication technology and bombarded advertisements and modern lifestyle have made the best tools for forcing people to shift from vegetarian to non vegetarian. There is a substantial social science literature that examines the factors that influence the meat consumption behavior of individuals (Dietz et al., 1995). Agricultural economists have examined the factors that influence demand for different types of food at the aggregate (Rosegrant et al., 2001). Economic analyses have led to sophisticated models used to project future demand for various food types, including meat. They find that population growth, changing lifestyle due to economic growth, and urbanizations are the key factors influencing global food consumption trends (Rosegrant et al., 2001).

Attraction towards non veg food is high in modern era. The tendency of eating non veg, fast food in hotels, restaurants and at home has become a fashion which has boost up the global market of non veg food. The study of Popkin BM (2001) has suggested that rapid changes in diets resulting from modernization (i.e. improved standards of living and continued development) and market globalization have had a significant impact on lifespan of people. In the present modern life style we do not take care of our eating habits, only when we land into trouble we realize the consequences of the modern life style. The modernization perspective identifies economic development and connection to global markets as key influences on production and consumption processes. The modernization perspective generally assumes that meat consumption are determined by the economic means of a society to acquire these "superior goods"—i.e. it is assumed that as national affluence rises, meat and fish consumption will also rise since they are



desirable, although expensive, food sources (Brown, 1995; Rosegrant et al., 2001). The modern life style with high Per capita Purchasing Power (PPP) has increased the meat production and consumption. The consumption and production of non veg food is rising enormously in developing countries since the per capita income is growing. In fact, in 2007 at least 60 percent of meat was produced in developing nations (Henning S, Pius C. 2007).

Food consumption patterns, particularly meat and fish consumption, have serious consequences for environmental Sustainability (Gerbens-Leenes and Nonhebel, 2002; Goodland, 1997; White, 2000). Meat production is resource intensive and of growing concern in environmental circles. Up to 10 times the quantity of resources (land, energy, and water) is needed to produce meat relative to equivalent amounts of vegetarian food (Durning and Brough, 1991; Dutilh and Kramer, 2000). Beef production in particular has serious environmental consequences, contributing to deforestation, desertification, and global warming (Durning and Brough, 1991). In 2007, meat production remained steady at an estimated 275 million tons; in 2008, output is expected to top 280 million tons. (FAO, 2008) And by 2050 nearly twice as much meat will be produced as today (FAO, Livestock's Long Shadow, 2007).

So far, systematic studies analyzing the meat consumption pattern of world and its consequences on environmental resource have not been carried out. This analysis tends to fill this gap by examining the nexus between meat consumption and environmental degradation. The study estimates population growth, per capita income and per capita meat consumption for 2050 and finds association between per capita income and meat consumption and focuses on exploring the impacts of meat consumption on various environmental aspects.

Overall objective of this study is to identify relation between modern lifestyle and meat consumption, estimate per capita meat consumption by 2050, find its correlation with per capita income and to examine whether meat consumption has any sorts of environmental impacts, in particular, on water, land use, climate change, rain forest and biodiversity and if there is, to what extent?

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The Study is based on secondary source of data. Data from U.S Department of Agriculture, Foreign Agriculture Service, 2010 is used for meat consumption analysis. Global meat production data for 1965-2005 were obtained from the U.N. Food and Agricultural Organization FAOSTAT livestock database. The total production numbers were divided by the U.N. population estimates to obtain per capita meat

production. To project population growth by 2050 the following model was used
The equation used was:

$$\text{Pop} = A + B(\text{Year}) + C(\text{Year}^2) + D(\text{Year}^3)$$

Using least squares regression the resulting estimate was: $\text{Pop} = 46,660,628,985 - 70,374,538(\text{Year}) + 35,343.4(\text{Year}^2) + 5.910(\text{Year}^3)$ $R^2 = .99994$

And to project GDP from 2005 to 2050 the available data for 1965 through 2005 were regressed on Year. The equation was estimated in logarithms, and regression gives average annual growth rate of GDP. The regression result was : $\text{Per Capita GDP} = 2995.3 * e^{0.0154}$ $R^2 = 0.98$

The global per capita meat production was estimated by using following model:

Per Capita Meat Production = A + B (Per Capita GDP)
Both variables were converted to logarithms before the regression was run. The resulting estimated equation for 1965-2005 was Per Capita Meat Production = $-2.842 + 0.758313(\text{Per Capita GDP})$ $R^2 = 0.976$.

The models developed by Gerbens-Leenes , Nonhebel, and Susan Subak are used for estimation of land required for production of (Beef, Pork, and Broiler) per m2and estimation of CO2 emission per kg meat. Both descriptive and analytical method of data analysis is applied in this study. Data is presented in tabulated as well as graphical forms for in-depth analysis.

III. DISCUSSION

The demand of non veg food (beef, pork, and broiler) is growing higher since they are regarded as the chief source of protein. It is essential to find, why non veg food consumption is growing with growth in modernization? Table 1 indicates the reasons for it.

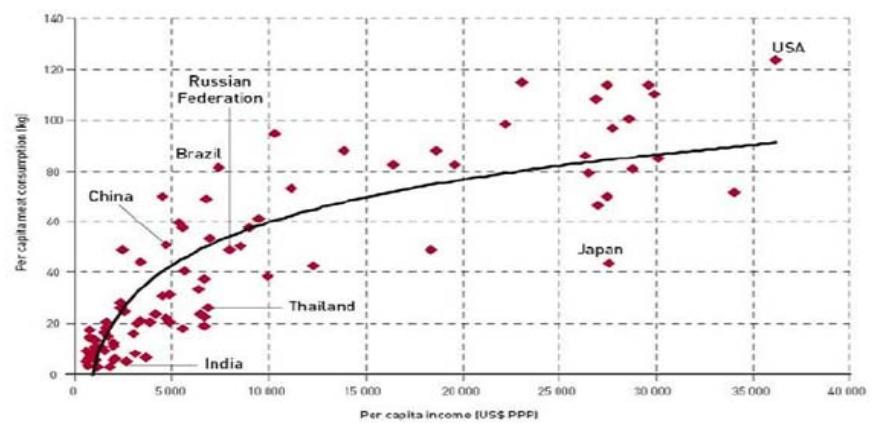
Table 1 : Per Capita and Total Meat Production 2006-2050 Projected.

Year	Per Capita GDP \$2000	Population	GDP \$2000	Total Meat/ 000 Metric Tons	Per Capita Meat in kg
1965	\$2,825	3,337,974	\$9,429,556	84,437	25.3
1970	\$3,299	3,696,588	\$12,194,430	100,624	27.2
1975	\$3,581	4,073,740	\$14,587,570	115,765	28.4
1980	\$3,966	4,442,295	\$17,616,910	136,682	30.8
1985	\$4,136	4,843,947	\$20,032,840	154,421	31.9
1990	\$4,535	5,279,519	\$23,944,060	179,958	34.1
1995	\$4,727	5,692,353	\$26,910,310	206,755	36.3
2000	\$5,217	6,085,572	\$31,745,760	235,121	38.6
2005	\$5,654	6,464,750	\$36,554,731	265,236	41.0
2010	\$6,103	6,842,923	\$41,765,656	296,199	43.3
2015	\$6,588	7,219,431	\$47,562,691	331,138	45.9
2020	\$7,111	7,577,889	\$53,888,672	368,316	48.6
2025	\$7,676	7,905,239	\$60,680,624	407,148	51.5
2030	\$8,286	8,199,104	\$67,934,006	447,475	54.6
2035	\$8,943	8,463,265	\$75,691,056	489,447	57.8
2040	\$9,654	8,701,319	\$83,999,657	533,234	61.3
2045	\$10,420	8,907,417	\$92,817,529	578,429	64.9
2050	\$11,248	9,075,903	\$102,083,102	624,530	68.8
1965-2005 Increase	100.2%	93.7%	287.7%	214.1%	62.2%
2005-2050 Increase	98.9%	40.4%	179.3%	135.5%	67.7%

Modern life style is by and large associated with per capita income. Higher the per capita income, better the life style. Over the time, the Per capita Purchasing Power (PPP) of people have increased with increase in Per capita GDP so the per capita meat consumption has also increased as indicated in table 1 (25.3Kg meat/ person in 1965 to 68.8 kg meat /person in 2050). The

increase in income has brought change in the food consumption pattern. People have attracted towards non veg food (meat) and this situation is going to be more serious in days to come (Galloway et al.). By 2050, the demand of meat will be 624,530000 metric tons. Production of such amount of meat by live stocks will certainly hamper the environment.

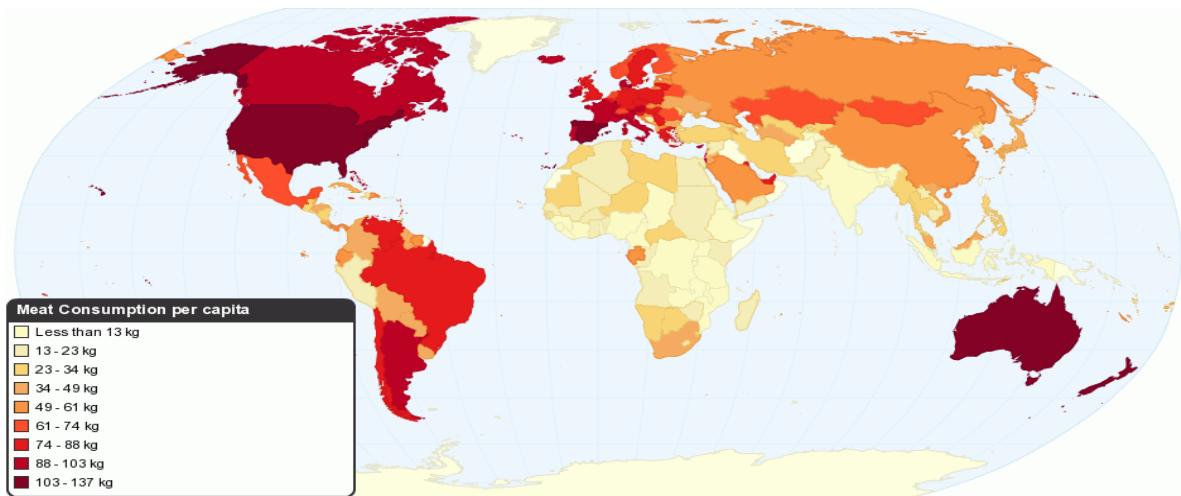
Figure 1 : The relationship between meat consumption and per capita income 2005.



The projected data shows that there is increase in per capita meat consumption with increase in per capita GDP. India having, low per capita GDP in comparison to USA has low meat consumption rate.

capita GDP. India having, low per capita GDP in comparison to USA has low meat consumption rate. USA, Japan, Russia and Brazil has very high consumption rate of meat products (fig.1) .

Figure 2: Meat consumption per capital by country, 2010.



Source : U.S Department of Agriculture, Foreign Agriculture Service, Livestock and Poultry: World Markets and trades, annual 2010.

Fig (2) indicates high per capita meat consumption in Australia, North and South America and some parts of Europe. The per capita meat consumption is less in Africa and South Asia. This also indicates association of meat consumption with Per capita GDP.

With no more, and perhaps less, productive farmland available over the next 50 years this projected growth in meat production represents a major challenge to both farmers and the environment. More meat means more feed and forage will need to be produced, and more land will be required for housing the additional animals that will be on farms. In addition, more production of all crops will be needed, including those used for direct human consumption and for industrial uses.

To support the higher animal product with reference to production level of 2050. It is required that feed crop yields will need to more than double if we are to increase meat production in line with increases in GDP and changing life style. Failure to substantially increase crop yields in line with the meat production projections , will result in increased pressure to push crop production onto more of the world's fragile lands that are not being farmed today. If feed crops production is pushed onto marginal land the result will be a degraded environment, increased soil erosion, increase water pollution, reduced wildlife habitat, and increased use of chemical and fertilizer inputs.

IV. IMPACTS OF MEAT PRODUCTION/CONSUMPTION IN ENVIRONMENT

The findings of Gerbens-Leenes , Nonhebel and Susan Subak has developed a model to measure the $\text{CO}_2 \text{ e} / \text{kg}$ (carbon dioxide equivalent per kg) and land required(m^2)for production of 1 kg meat production .

Table 2: Environmental impact of 1 kg of a given commodity.

Impact type	Beef	Chicken	Pig
CO_2 equivalent (kg)	14.8	0.	0.9
Land requirement (m^2)	20.9	2	7.3
			8.

a) Diminishing Availability of Land for Food Production

According to the United Nations, raising animals for food (including land used for grazing and land used to grow feed crops) now uses a staggering 30 percent of the Earth's land mass. Soybean cultivated in many countries is mostly used for live stock farming rather than human use, causing hunger and starvation in some parts of the world. Soybean production covers around half of Argentina's cultivated land and expansion is spreading into the heavily forested northern states such as Salta and Santiago del Estero – around 415,000 hectares of forest were cleared in Salta between 2002 and 2006(Fuel destruction in Latin America, 2008). According to government figures a total of 250,000 hectares of forest are cleared annually, with 80 per cent of this making way for soy and cattle farming in the Chaco. Brazil is the second largest global producer of soybeans after the United States, followed by Argentina which is mostly used for live stock farming (United Soya republic, 2010). It is obvious that live stock farming has excessive pressure on land. Huge amount of arable land is used for live stock farming and growing crops for live stocks. It eventually affects the human life causing food insecurity as increased livestock farm will reduce the supply of soybean, wheat, maize and other crops to people since these products are used for

livestock rearing. The model developed by Gerbens-Leenes and Nonhebel is used here to estimate the land used for meat production. This estimates the amount of

land needed for feed and other inputs and does not include land usage for pasture and production facilities.

Table 3 : Global Land Requirement for Meat Production.

In 2002	Beef	Pork	Poultry	Total
Land usage (km ²)	1252849	657692	615806	2526347
In 2020				
Land usage (km ²)	2144609	936180	1017447	4098236
In 2050				
Land usage (km ²)	3604887	1324532	1664808	6594227

One of the problems with meat production is the amount of land required. To produce 1 kg of beef, pork and broiler in the Netherlands requires 20.9, 8.9, 7.3 m² of land respectively. (Gerbens-Leenes and Nonhebel 2002). If same model is followed, the total land used for meat production was 2526347 Km² in 2002 whereas it is estimated to be more than double by 2050 i.e. 6594227 Km² (table 3).

b) Green House Emission and Climate Change

Livestock buildings are a major anthropogenic [caused by human activity] source of atmospheric pollutants, such as ammonia, nitrous oxide, methane and carbon dioxide, which contributes to soil acidification and global warming(CM Wathes et al,

1997).Methane and nitrous oxide are the principal outputs of livestock systems that impact on GHG. Emissions arise "directly" and "indirectly". Direct emissions refer to those directly produced by the animal from enteric fermentation of fiber by ruminants, manure and urine excretion. Indirect emissions include those from feed crops used for animal feed, emissions from manure application, CO₂ emissions from fertilizer production for feed and CO₂ emissions from processing and transportation of refrigerated livestock products (IPCC,1997). The greenhouse gas emissions associated with different stages in the animal food chain production cycle are shown in Table4.

Table 4 : Livestock Life Cycle Stage and Associated Emissions (Garnett, 2007).

Life Cycle Stage	Process Creating Emissions	Type Of Emissions
Production Of Animal	Production Of Nitrogenous And Other Fertilizers, Agricultural Machinery, Pesticides Etc	N ₂ o Emissions From Grazing Land, Fertilizer Production; Co ₂ From Fertilizer Production
Housing, Maintenance, Machinery	Heating, Lighting Etc	Co ₂
Digestion (Ruminants)	Enteric Fermentation	Ch ₄
Waste Products	Manure And Urine	Ch ₄ And N ₂ o
Slaughtering, Processing, Waste Treatment	Machinery, Cooking, Cooling, Chilling, Lighting, Leather And Wool Production, Rendering And Incineration	Co ₂ And Refrigerant Emissions
Transnort. Storage, Packaging	Transport, Chilling, Lighting, Packaging Materials	Co ₂ And Refrigerant Emissions
Domestic Consumption	Refrigeration And Cooking	Co ₂ And Refrigerant Emissions
Waste Disposal	Transport, Composting, Anaerobic Digestion And Incineration	Co ₂ , Ch ₄ And N ₂ o



Susan Subak (1999) calculated the environmental effects of methane and CO₂ emissions of cattle. In total, to produce one kg of meat (beef) requires the equivalent of 14.8 kg of CO₂. As a comparison, one gallon of gasoline emits approximately 2.4 kg of CO₂

(EPA 2005). Consuming one kg of meat thus has a similar impact on the environment as 6.2 gallons of gasoline, or driving 160 highway miles in the average American mid-size car. The following table shows meat consumption and emission of CO₂ in environment.

Table 5 : Meat Consumption and Emission of CO₂ by 2050.

In 2002	Beef	Pork	Poultry	Total
CO ₂ equivalent (1000's mt)	887185	81085	13838	982108
In 2020				
CO ₂ equivalent (1000's mt)	1518671	115419	22863	1656953
In 2050				
CO ₂ equivalent (1000's mt)	2552743	163298	37411	2753452

It is obvious from the table (5) that the meat consumption has adverse effect in global warming and climate change. As the demand of meat will grow in future the production of Co₂ Equivalent responsible for climate change will also increase. The CO₂E produced from livestock and poultry farming was 982108000 metric tons in 2002 whereas it is going to be almost triple of it (2753452000 metric tons) by 2050. Such a huge amount of CO₂ Equivalent emission certainly affects the climate change. Methane is 23 times more responsible of global warming than CO₂ and the number one source of methane worldwide is animal agriculture. Methane emission from livestock contribute around 6 percent of global green house gas.(World Agriculture Towards 2015) .Cow , Sheep and Goat emit methane through the digestive process(enteric fermentation), while manure is also high in methane(Table 4). As meat and diary consumption increases, methane emission is predicted to raise by up to 60 percent by 2030.(Livestock's long shadow 2006) which is going to be a burning environmental issues in near future.

c) Global Water Crisis and Meat Production

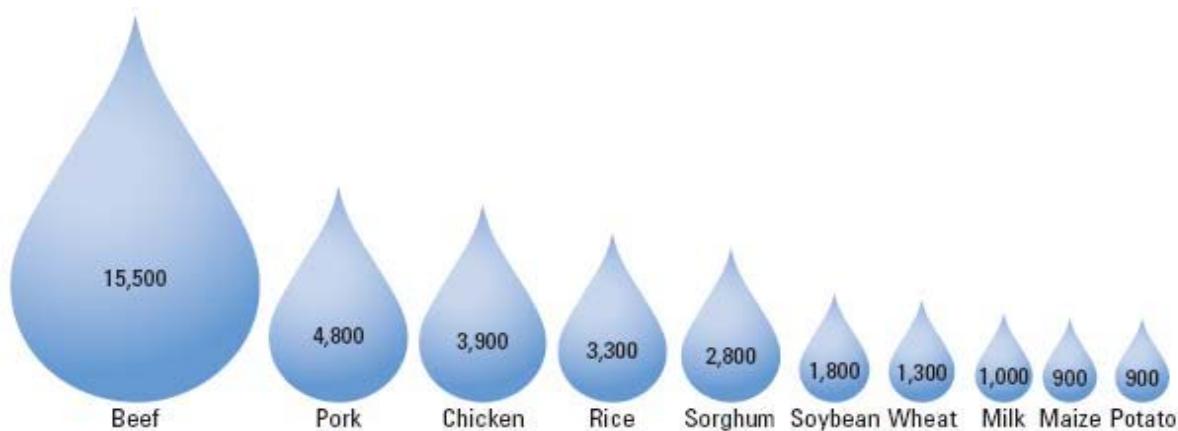
Probably even more crucial than the inefficient feed conversion ratios for animal products is their drain on the world's water resources. For there is now widespread acceptance that water scarcity will become at least as important a constraint on future food production as lack of available land. Demand has tripled in the past two decades and is expected to accelerate further in the next two - considerably more so if predictions for growth in the livestock population prove accurate. Water from dwindling supplies will have to serve both a growing human population and an explosion in the number of livestock.

Between watering the crops that farmed animals eat, providing drinking water for billions of animals each year, and cleaning away the filth in factory

farms, transport trucks, and slaughterhouses, the farmed animal industry places a serious strain on our water supply. Recent projections by the International Food Policy Research Centre (IFPRI) indicate that if current trends in water management continue, we can expect a combined rise of 62 per cent in consumption for domestic, industrial and livestock use in the period 1995-2025. Figures for livestock production, while lower than for industry and domestic use, are predicted to rise by 71 per cent in the same period - 19 per cent in the developed world and more than double in developing nations.(Mark W. et al, 2002) . In India, the pumping of underground water is estimated to be double the rate of aquifer recharge from rainfall.(Janice Cox & Sari Varpama,,2000) . A potentially catastrophic crisis is looming for a country whose human population is already greater than 1 billion in such case wattage of huge amount of water is worthless.

One indication of the relative water requirement per unit of product is provided in Figure (3). The high value attributed to beef is notable. The production of 1 kg potato requires merely 900 liters of water where as 1 kg beef production requires 15500 liters of water. Excessive water used for meat production has lead to. scarcity of water for agricultural land causing less production. Low food productivity is causing malnutrition and untimely death of many children. Less production of meat using more water is irrational, it could be resolved if consumption of meat is stopped.

Figure 3: Water Use for Agricultural Products (liters per kg).



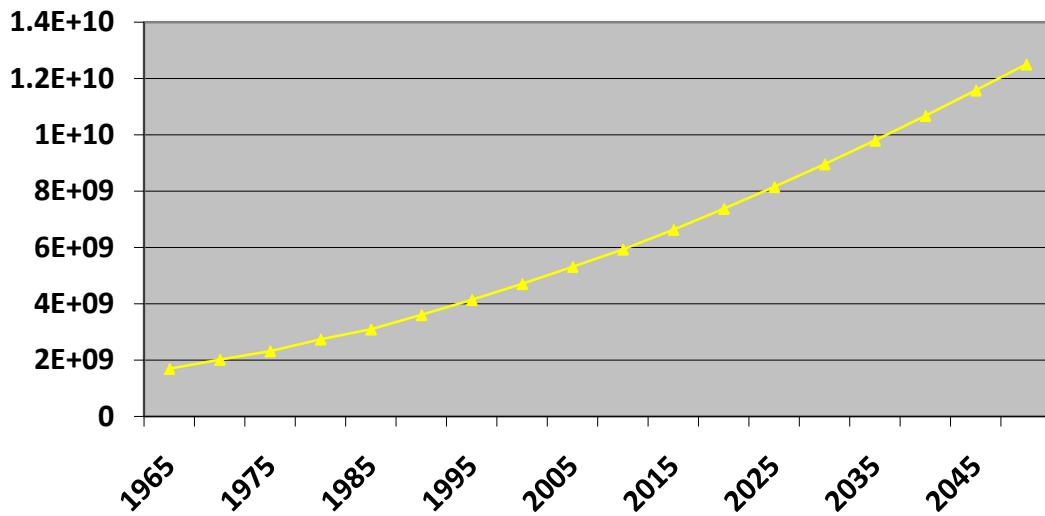
Source: Waterfootprint (<https://www.waterfootprint.org>), accessed May 15, 2009; Gleick 2008.

Note: Figure shows liters of water needed to produce one kilogram of product (or one liter for milk). Water use for beef production only characterizes intensive production systems.

Nearly half of all the water used in the United States goes to raising animals for food. In 2008, John Anthony Allan, a professor at King's College London and the winner of the prestigious Stockholm Water Prize, urged people worldwide to go vegetarian because of the tremendous waste of water involved with eating animals. Livestock operations are major water users and polluters. The irrigation of feed crops for cattle accounts

for nearly 8 percent of global human water use (ibid). It takes more than 2,400 gallons of water to produce 1 pound of meat, while growing 1 pound of wheat only requires 25 gallons. You save more water by not eating a pound of meat than you do by not showering for six months! A totally vegan diet requires only 300 gallons of water per day, while a typical meat-eating diet requires more than 4,000 gallons of water per day.

Figure 4: Water Required for Meat Production in 1000 kilo liters.



As population was less during 1965 and the meat consumption rate was also low. Modernization had not much influenced the human life, the per capita GDP was low thus meat consumption rate had not gone very high in late 20th century but now scenario is different. Water demand for meat production is going on increasing with high demand of meat world wide. The water required for meat production was around 2,000,000,000 thousand kilo liters in 1965 where as it is

estimated to be around six times more i.e. 12,000,000,000 thousand kilo liters by 2050 (fig4).

d) Food Insecurity and Livestock Farming

In spite of the enthusiasm among poorer countries to enter the international trade in animal products, it defies all logic for them to import grain to feed animals which they then export to richer nations. This situation is leading them towards food insecurity within the country. Intensively produced meat cannot



possibly feed the world's poor. Poor nations are unable to provide even the basic foodstuffs (grains) to sustain their poorest people, how can they utilize land to grow grains for animals feeding and sell such animal meat in lower price than the food grains to people? Given that the hungry are hungry because they cannot even grow or afford to buy enough low-priced grain for sustenance. It is far-fetched to suppose that they will suddenly be able to afford relatively high priced mutton, pork and chicken.

Indian broiler industry is one of many that exemplify the problem. It has grown phenomenally from 31 million birds slaughtered per annum in 1981 to 300 million in 1992 and roughly 800 million by the turn of the century. (B. S. Bhattu, 2002). Consumption has tripled in the past decade. Yet as the industry itself acknowledges, this has had no impact upon human hunger. Anuradha Desai, Indian Branch President of the World Poultry Science Association, states that the target audience for the Indian broiler market is 'the fast growing middle class of over 250 million potential customers'. (Dr. M A Ibrahim, 1997). Increase in live stock farming is causing excessive increase in price of food grains since much of the food grains of agricultural countries is exported for livestock farming. Such situation has created food scarcity and increment in food price causing poor people die with starvation. According to very conservative estimates, a 50 per cent reduction in meat eating in developed nations could save 3.6 million children from malnutrition.

e) *Poisoning the Environmental Resources*

Land and water pollution is extremely high with live stock farming. The improper management of manure and over use of insecticide and pesticide on land for production of grains for live stock is poisoning the land and water. Waste from CAFOs is emerging as a leading cause of water pollution in China(Xiayon, 2005). It is estimated that around 90% of industrial farm of China lack adequate pollution control, and that only 5% of waste is actually treated- the remainder ending up in water system.

f) *Deforestation and loss of biodiversity*

As consumer's demand for meat increases, more land is needed. Hundreds of miles of the South American rainforest is burned and cut annually and converted to crop and grazing land (ibid, 2009). The New York Times reported that 1,250 miles of Brazilian rain forest were lost for feed and livestock production in just 5 months.

The Amazon rain forest is one of the world's largest tropical forest which is the habitat of many rare and endangered flora and fauna. Such a valuable forest is being converted in to farm land for cattle rearing. According to Greenpeace, all the wild animals and trees in more than 2.9 million acres of the Amazon rain forest in Brazil were destroyed in the 2004-2005 in order to

grow crops that are used to feed chickens and other animals in factory farms. By 2005 over 6 million hectare had been converted to soy within legal boundaries of Cerrado (Eating up the Amazon, 2006). It is estimated that a further 9.6 million hectares of Amazon forest could be lost to soy expansion by 2020.(The impact of Soy production , 2008).Such a massive deforestation is resulting into excessive destruction of biodiversity.

V. CONCLUSION

It is clear that the current model of livestock production is no longer affordable in environmental or social terms. The climate, water systems, soil and wildlife cannot sustain the damage that is being caused. Impacts of meat consumption on environmental resources are not a small issue, both today and especially in the future. The way the system is currently setup is not sustainable, and so a range of issues must be dealt with by the governments of the world sooner rather than later.

Action to replace livestock products not only can achieve quick reductions in atmospheric GHGs, but can also reverse the ongoing world food and water crises so organizations should consider making advocating vegetarianism a major part of their "Save the Earth" campaigns. At a minimum, environmental advocates should mention vegetarianism in any information about actions individuals can take to address meat consumption and global warming. An alternative could be, food companies producing and marketing such products that are alternatives to livestock products but taste similar, are healthier and easier to cook and made up of grains.

There should be change in Government's food procurement policies, special emphasize should be given to encourage vegetarian diets. Possible mechanisms include an environmental tax on meat, a shift in farm subsidies to encourage plant agriculture over animal agriculture, or an increased emphasis on vegetarian foods in government-run programs like school lunch program.

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Evaluating the ESL Reading Texts for Intermediate Learners of English from the Perspective of Students

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Keywords : *Reading text evaluation; ESL intermediate learners; university-based intensive English programme.*

GJHSS-A Classification: *FOR Code: 160506, 160502, 130204*



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Evaluating the ESL Reading Texts for Intermediate Learners of English from the Perspective of Students

Yee Chiew Ling ^a, Chong Seng Tong ^a & Ng Yu Jin ^b

Abstract - In order to provide an evaluation of the suitability of reading texts from the perspective of students in university-based intensive English programme, this study examined 53 international ESL intermediate learners' perceptions of reading texts for a period of 14 weeks reading proficiency lessons. Features evaluated include content, readability, exploitability, and authenticity of the reading texts. The participants responded to a textbook evaluation questionnaire to express their perceptions with reference to the features of the reading texts. Results indicated the extent of appropriateness of the reading texts incorporated in the programme's reading textbook used by intermediate learners of English. Further consideration must be given to text selection by including the aspect of authentic text presentation.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Textbooks play a vital role in teaching English because they form the fundamental of language input learners acquire in the classroom (O'Neill, 1982 cited in Kirkgoz, 2009, p. 79). For this substantial reason, it is necessary to be aware of the importance of evaluating textbook for reading development, which enables teachers to exploit a textbook effectively for the benefit of their language students. The process of evaluating and selecting textbooks is complex and involves many different levels of authorities. Despite this matter of fact, textbooks are for the learners themselves. The selected textbooks should meet their needs as learners of English in addition to fulfilling the curriculum requirement of English language communication skill content (Byrd, 2001). Therefore, students' involvement in evaluating textbook should not be overlooked. The present study covers four main criteria that influence the selection of a reading textbook: content, readability, exploitability, and authenticity.

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According to Nuttal (2000), the most important criterion in selecting a reading textbook for our students is the suitability of the content, i.e. the reading texts "should interest the readers – preferably enthrall and delight them" (p. 170). The reading texts must have the quality to grasp the students' attention from the first line until the last line of the written discourse. In this respect, the content serves as an attraction in providing the sense of realness where the students are motivated to find out more about the gripping topic in-hand. Undoubtedly, there is a strong tendency for the students to get interested in the post reading activities in the process of gaining more fascinating insight into the topic. To maximize this plus point, teachers play a vital role to ensure the reading texts will generally interest a majority of the students, and at the same time, will not bring a sense of boredom to the other students.

Nevertheless, an interesting content should be accompanied by the criterion of exploitability – the second criterion of selecting a reading textbook. Exploitability emphasizes the important elements of both content and language that are the focus of a reading lesson. In this respect, the selected texts should facilitate students to become an effective reader with "the ability to extract the content from the language that expresses it" (Nuttall, p.172, 2000). Hence, the selected texts should have the potential to be exploited effectively to develop interpretive reading strategies or skills in making sense of any kind of text.

Generally, readability refers to the surface features of a text in terms of structural and lexical complexity, which in fact affects readers' interest and responses to a text. As claimed by Miller (2011), "longer words may demand more decoding of inflections, and longer sentence provide space for more clauses and intricate causal and phrasal embedding, again demanding more of a reader" (p. 36). Heilman, Collins-Thompson, Callan, and Eskenazi (2007) note that, the complexity of sentence length of texts should be increased as part of the reading levels of the intended students of second language, who are nevertheless in the process of mastering the grammatical structures of the target language. A high proportion of new words will discourage students to read more or extensively due to intolerable ease. The recommended number of new



words is seven on a page of A4 size in an effort to provide a well-understood context that facilitates the process of learning new words efficiently (Nuttall, p. 175, 2000).

Finally, Crossley, McCarthy, Louwerse, and McNamara (2007) note that authenticity in language use is crucial in reading in order to introduce students to the real context and natural instances of language. Authentic texts are used instead of simplified texts due to the importance of authentic texts in conveying the real message through the natural use of language. Nuttall (2000) suggests that a true discourse is needed to develop our students' text attack skills such as the capacity to infer unsaid message or meaning presented by the text implicitly.

The central question of the present study focuses on the importance of displaying the four mentioned criteria in selecting a reading textbook. Therefore, the present study aims to evaluate the extent of appropriateness of a reading textbook used by the intermediate learners of English as Second Language in university-based intensive English programme based on content, exploitability, readability and authenticity.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Participants

A total of 53 intermediate learners of English, who were enrolled in Universiti Tenaga Nasional's Intensive English Programme, participated in the present study. Table 1 shows the students' backgrounds according to the categories of gender, age group, and educational background. The male students ($n=47$) made up the majority of the participants as compared to the female students ($n=6$). In terms of age group, young adult participants aged 20 to 40 ($n=44$) dominated the study. Distribution in the category of educational background was approximately balance; High School ($n=14$), Foundation (7), Bachelor (13), and Master's (19). All students were in their first semester of studying in the university before proceeding to the university academic programmes; Foundation, Bachelor, and Postgraduate Programmes.

b) Textbook

The ESL reading textbook (Active Skills for Reading: Book 3) used in the present study was implemented in 2009 as a main course book for the university's English intensive programme reading course. The students evaluated the textbook towards the end of the semester before taking their final examinations. In more detail, the textbook provides students with opportunities for exposure in the form of readings across disciplines in terms of economy, sociology, psychology, and biology. It was designed with a varied of challenging reading texts accompanied by excellent reading skills and vocabulary development exercises.

c) Questionnaire

A textbook evaluation questionnaire was developed with reference to several ESL textbook evaluation checklists (e.g., Skierso, 1991; Byrd, 2001; Miekley, 2005). With guidelines provided by Nuttall (2000), the questionnaire comprises of 17 items deriving from the suggested textbook selection criteria: content, exploitability, readability, and authenticity. Respondents were prompted to indicate their perceptions from a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly agree to Strongly disagree" by placing a tick in the appropriate box. Reliability Test was carried out on the items using the statistical analysis software SPSS version 18 with high reliability score of Cronbach's Alpha 0.821.

d) Data Analysis

The questionnaire data were analysed using a computer software programme. The frequency and percentage of the responses were generated using the descriptive statistic programme of SPSS version 18.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Following is a discussion of results for the ESL reading textbook evaluation based on the perceptions of intermediate students. This section is divided into four subsections in accordance with the investigated textbook selection criteria: content, exploitability, readability, and authenticity.

a) Content

The results presented in Table 2 below illustrate the percentage of response indicating the students' perceptions of the content of the used textbook. More than 65 % of them agree that they enjoy reading the texts and the texts make them want to read to find out more about the topics.

This finding shows that the textbook conforms to the first criterion where the reading texts in the selected reading textbook should interest the students. This might because of the reading texts cover different disciplines such as sociology, psychology, biology and economy.

b) Exploitability

On the other hand, Table 3 below shows the percentage of response that is drawn on by the students in indicating their perceptions of the second criterion, exploitability, of the used textbook.

The pattern is summarized in the table above which suggests that more than 56% of them agree that the reading texts allow them to make inference, apply what they read in their life, identify meaning of unknown words from the context, replace difficult words with simpler words, and new words are repeated for reinforcement. Therefore, this finding shows that this textbook conforms to the second criterion where the reading texts should increase students' knowledge and develop their reading skills at the same time. This

criterion is important in achieving the curriculum goals as well.

c) *Readability*

As can be seen in Table 4 below, more than 50% of the students agree that the passages are not difficult, the words are introduced from simple to complex, the sentence length is reasonable, the structural complexity increase gradually, and the new words are worth learning. Meanwhile, less than 50% of them agree that the new words are too many.

Overall, this finding shows that this textbook conforms to the third criterion where the reading texts are chosen according to both lexical and structural complexity. In other words, an appropriate reading textbook should consist of a reasonable structural and lexical difficulty that would not demand an overwhelming cognitive load from the students or readers. If it is overwhelming, it will definitely demotivate our students to continue reading.

d) *Authenticity*

Results presented in Table 5 below illustrate the percentage of response indicating the students' perceptions of the last criterion, authenticity, of the used textbook.

More than 60% of them agree that the textbook language is used in real world, the reading texts have real-life issues that challenge them to think of their viewpoint, and the texts are accurate and up-to-date. This finding shows that the studied textbook conforms to the last criterion where students are introduced to the real context and natural examples of the target language.

IV. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study as indicated earlier was to examine the extent to which the textbook used in the university-based intensive English programme matches the set of criteria for selecting a good reading textbook. Findings from the present study suggest that the textbook conforms to all the four important criteria of reading textbook selection. It can be concluded that the textbook is appropriate for students reading literacy development. Further research could be done on the aspect of authentic text presentation which has been overlooked by the present study. It is suggested by Nuttal (2000) that the other criterion of reading textbook selection is presentation, "how they (texts) should be presented" (pg. 170). The intention of presenting a text in an authentic appearance is to establish a context of practicality.

Table 1 : Students' Backgrounds (n=53).

Category		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	47	88.68
	Female	6	11.32
Age	17 - 19	8	15.09
	20 - 40	44	83.02
	> 40	1	1.89
Educational Background	High School	14	26.42
	Foundation	7	13.21
	Bachelor	13	24.53
	Master	19	35.85

Table 2 : Students' Perceptions of Content (n= 53)

Content	Percentage of Response (%)				
	SA ¹	A ²	U ³	D ⁴	SD ⁵
I enjoy reading the passages in the textbook.	21	47	21	9	2
The passages make me want to read to find out more about the topic.	19	49	19	9	4

SA¹ – Strongly agree, A² – Agree, U³ – Undecided or Neutral, D⁴ – Disagree, SD⁵ – Strongly disagree

Table 3 : Students' Perceptions of Exploitability (n=53).

Exploitability	Percentage of Response (%)				
	SA ¹	A ²	U ³	D ⁴	SD ⁵
The passages introduce me to new ideas that make think about things I	40	43	8	8	2



haven't thought of before.

The passages help me understand the way others feel or think (e.g. people with different backgrounds, problems or attitudes from my own).	26	43	26	4	0
I was taught how to identify meaning of new words from context.	26	42	23	9	0
I can find out the meaning of some of the new words without the help of a dictionary.	19	38	19	23	2
Some of the new words can be replaced by simpler words.	25	45	21	8	2
I can find the new words in the subsequent chapters.	11	57	21	11	0

SA¹ – Strongly agree, A² – Agree, U³ – Undecided or Neutral, D⁴ – Disagree, SD⁵ – Strongly disagree

Table 4 : Students' Perceptions of Readability (n=53).

Readability	Percentage of Response (%)				
	SA ¹	A ²	U ³	D ⁴	SD ⁵
The passages in the textbook are very difficult.	4	25	30	40	2
The new words are worth learning at this stage.	32	47	13	6	2
The new words are not too many.	6	26	23	36	9
The new words are introduced from simple to complex words.	6	59	26	6	4
The sentence length is reasonable for me.	11	47	34	8	0
The sentence structures gradually increase in complexity.	6	53	38	4	0

SA¹ – Strongly agree, A² – Agree, U³ – Undecided or Neutral, D⁴ – Disagree, SD⁵ – Strongly disagree

Table 5 : Students' Perceptions of Authenticity (n=53).

Authenticity	Percentage of Response (%)				
	SA ¹	A ²	U ³	D ⁴	SD ⁵
The passages use language that is used in real world.	25	38	21	6	11
The passages contain real-life issues that challenge me to think seriously about my worldview.	23	45	26	4	2
The passages are accurate and up-to-date.	17	47	32	4	0

SA¹ – Strongly agree, A² – Agree, U³ – Undecided or Neutral, D⁴ – Disagree, SD⁵ – Strongly disagree

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Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto Regime and Growth of the Baloch Nationalism in 1970s

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Abstract - Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto was the first elected prime minister of Pakistan. His initial strategy of accommodation and power sharing with the regionalists in Balochistan had a positive impact on the national politics. The regionalists started to distance themselves from secessionist tendencies. However, the policy of pacification was short-lived. The central government, instead of addressing political conflicts with consensus, resorted to undemocratic means. The process of democratization in Balochistan was disrupted and the provincial government was dissolved. The autonomists were sidelined and were dubbed as 'anti-state elements'. The extremists, within the autonomists' fold, were infuriated and started the armed insurgency. The central government launched an army operation to cope with insurgents. Bhutto's regime marked a tendency towards executive despotism. Despite provincial government's alleged defiance of federal authority, the central government could have treated them with patience and tolerance visualizing the sensitivity of the Balochistan crisis.

Keywords : *Balochistan; Nationalism; Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto Regime; Military operation; History.*

GJHSS-C Classification: *FOR Code: 160606, 160609*



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Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto Regime and Growth of the Baloch Nationalism in 1970s

Syed Fakharuddin Shah ^a & M. Zubair Khan ^a

Abstract - Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto was the first elected prime minister of Pakistan. His initial strategy of accommodation and power sharing with the regionalists in Balochistan had a positive impact on the national politics. The regionalists started to distance themselves from secessionist tendencies. However, the policy of pacification was short-lived. The central government, instead of addressing political conflicts with consensus, resorted to undemocratic means. The process of democratization in Balochistan was disrupted and the provincial government was dissolved. The autonomists were sidelined and were dubbed as 'anti-state elements'. The extremists, within the autonomists' fold, were infuriated and started the armed insurgency. The central government launched an army operation to cope with insurgents. Bhutto's regime marked a tendency towards executive despotism. Despite provincial government's alleged defiance of federal authority, the central government could have treated them with patience and tolerance visualizing the sensitivity of the Balochistan crisis.

Keywords : Balochistan; Nationalism; Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto Regime; Military operation; History.

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to highlight the ties between Islamabad- Balochistan in a historical perspective. Many historical and political developments have been discussed in this article to manifest the circumstances leading to clash between the Centre and Provincial Government of Balochistan. The study focuses on some pertinent issues.

- The reasons of accommodating the regionalists for the Butto regime after the general elections of 1970 and its repercussions on the politics of Pakistan with special reference to Baloch nationalism.
- The causes of the shift in the Federal government strategy towards the Baloch nationalists and its significant impact on politics of regionalism in Balochistan.
- The implications of third uprising in Balochistan and Centre' response (military action) towards it.

II. FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVE TO ACCOMMODATE THE REGIONALISTS

After assuming the reins of government, General Yahya Khan abrogated the Constitution of 1962 and dissolved the National Assembly and the two Provincial Assemblies (Ahmed, 2004). Yahya Khan announced the Legal Frame Work Order (LFO) on 30th March, 1970, which laid down the basic principles to which constitution confirmed (Soomro, 2006).

Yahya Khan announced the general elections to be held on 5th October, 1970 on the basis of adult franchise (Rashiduzzaman, 1970). Despite strong misgivings against the LFO, the political parties welcomed the decision of Yahya regime to hold elections. They decided to participate in the polls and issued their manifestos (Chandio, Ahmad & Naseem, 2011). The political activities began in January, 1970. All the political parties decided to participate in the elections (Ghazali, 1999).

National Awami Party (NAP) also took part in the elections. It enjoyed considerable backing in Balochistan and NWFP (Mehmood, 2003). NAP had leaning towards socialism (Rashiduzzaman, 1970). It was ardent supporter of provincial autonomy. NAP had played a significant role in the anti-one unit movement. It bitterly opposed President Ayub Khan authoritarian regime for its alleged crimes and cruelties against Baloch (Kutty, 2009). Its election campaign in Balochistan was mostly organized and run by Ghaus Bakhsh Bizenjo, Khair Bakhsh Marri and Attaullah Mengal (Awan, 1985). Another prominent and powerful Sardar of Bugti Tribe, Akbar Bugti, also worked for the NAP. He became his tribe's chief at a youthful age. He joined Republican Party in 1958. He also served as MNA and Minister of state (Banerjee et al. 2005).

a) Regionalists' success in the elections

The elections' result reflected three different centres of powers as Awami league (AL) in East Pakistan, The PPP in Sindh and the Punjab, NAP and Jemiat Uleemae Islam (JUI) in NWFP and Balochistan (Gilani, 2008). The Awami League got an overwhelming majority and won 160 seats out of total 162. It came out as the single largest political party in the National Assembly. Peoples'party emerged as the second largest party and secured 81 seats out of 138 from West Pakistan. The NAP won six seats and Jammat-i-Islami

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captured four seats of National Assembly (Awan, 1985). LFO did not lay down any special majority or consensus among the units in making the new constitution. It required only simple majority which the Awami League had. It could also form the government at the central level. The president could withhold his assent regarding the constitution in case of violation of terms mentioned in LFO. But it was a later question. The ruling junta failed to foresee such possibility of Mujib's victory in the elections (Alvi, 1971). They were also expecting some sort of flexibility and compromise from Awami league on Six Points which were viewed in West Pakistan as amounting to secession points. However, in the post election scenario Mujib adopted very stern and adamant attitude on Six Points. Bhutto's opposition to Mujib's Six Points brought him close to like minded Rawalpindi Generals (Khan, 2006). Bhutto and the ruling generals decided to postpone the session of National Assembly. Yahya Khan's political tactic was to use Bhutto to get out of the self-created situation but due to his ill-planning Bhutto seemed to exploit Yahya to come out as the sole leader of West Pakistan (Khan, 2006).

b) East Pakistan debacle

Bhutto made very sentimental address on the occasion and said "we have to pick up pieces, very small pieces but we will make a new Pakistan" (Khan, 2006). Bhutto assumed the office of Chief Martial-Law Administrator (CMLA) and President of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan on 20 December, 1971 (Ghazali, 1999). At that time, country was suffering from the gravest crisis in the history of Pakistan (Khan, 2006). Bhutto inherited serious problems. Baloch and Pashtun Nationalism was at its climax. The nation was totally demoralized on the humiliating defeat in 1971 war (Amin, 1998). It was looking forward to an end of Martial Law and the formation of permanent constitution. Apart from political problems, economic issues were coming on the surface with great intensity (Hussain & Hussain, 1993). Bhutto had three advantages in bringing life to normalcy under democratic dispensation. First, his political party succeeded in the election in West Pakistan on the promise of Roti, Kapara and Makan. The People had attached a lot of hopes from the new regime. Secondly, the Supreme Court had declared Yahya's rule as illegal and unconstitutional. Thirdly, the status of armed forces had been lowered as a result of its defeat and separation of East Pakistan (Rizvi, 1986). In 1970 polls, Awami League (AL) won majority seats in the East wing, PPP got success in the Punjab and Sindh where as the NAP and the JUI secured most of the seats in Balochistan and NWFP. All political parties were urging for the formation of representative government on the basis of the election results. Bhutto also realized that Martial law could not be imposed for long time and establishment of the constitutional governments are indispensable (Raza, 1997).

c) Required consensus for making of constitution

Bhutto also tried to bring political forces on board to gain consensus vis-à-vis making of new constitution. Bhutto removed the ban on NAP (Raza, 1997). It was banned by Yahya Khan during Indo-Pak war of 1971. Wali Khan and other regionalists welcomed the decision and issued pro-government statement in the Press. At last an accord was negotiated between Bhutto and NAP on 6 March, 1972 (Bhutto, 1972). Its salient features were as follows:

- Martial Law would be lifted from August 14, 1972 and the National Assembly would be convened to consider the draft constitution.
- The central government would appoint the governors in the provinces in consent with the majority parties in NWFP and Balochistan.
- The Governments in the centre and in the provinces would be formed on the basis of parliamentary majority.
- The government at the centre and at province level would be established on the basis of parliamentary majority.
- As mentioned above, in accordance with the negotiated agreement, NAP JUI's nominees, Arbab Sikander in NWFP and Ghaous Bakhsh Bizenjo would be appointed as the Governors of Balochistan.

The agreement faced serious threat in the beginning due to trust-deficit between the two signatories. NAP had serious misgivings about the central government's decision regarding the dismissal of many public officials, belonging to provinces, without giving them access to the court. NAP regarded the central government's decision as an attack on the provincial autonomy. NAP-JUI government threatened to review the decision of the federal government about the dismissal of the civil servants (Khan, 2006). In reaction, Bhutto withheld the appointment of the NAP-JUI's nominees for governor ship in NWFP and Balochistan. In order to settle the differences, different rounds of talks were held between two contending political forces. However, Bhutto decided to lift Martial Law and made its declaration on 14th April at the National Assembly session. The National Assembly also approved unanimously the provisional constitution. NAP-JUI's nominees were sworn in as the Governors of NWFP and Balochistan on 1 May, 1972 and on 28 April, 1972 respectively. The accord, no doubt, saved the country from political quagmire for a short time. Later on, it failed to stop confrontational politics.

d) External objectives

Bhutto was a shrewd politician (Hassan, 2009). He made an agreement with NAP-JUI to buy time and got help for his external objectives like an agreement

with International Monetary Fund (IMF), settlement with India and support on the constitutional draft (Raza, 1997). The government succeeded to get NAP-JUI's support on the above discussed initiatives. Bhutto viewed the formation of governments in Balochistan and NWFP as temporary solution (Waseem, 1994). Afterwards it became obvious when the provincial governments were allowed to remain in power in NWFP and Balochistan just for nine months.

III. CAUSES OF THE FAILURE OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVE TOWARDS BALOCHISTAN

Certain historical facts throw light on the factors that made federal government of Bhutto to drift back from its early initiative to accommodate Balochistan.

a) Jamotes-Mengals Dispute

The relations between the ministry of Attaullah Mengal and central government began to strain due to many reasons (Rahman, 2009). According to central government's version, the provincial authorities had arrested some leaders of Jamote tribe in Lasbela-rivals of Mengals. The Jamotes reacted and launched an armed rebellion against the authorities. Attaullah Mengal took help of his own established lashkar to fight against the Jamotes (Abbas, 2005). The lashkar also had the backing of regular forces. The central government intervened and called upon the provincial government to stop military action against the Jamotes. Upon refusal, federal troops entered Lasbela to halt the lashkar's activities. The provincial government headed by Attaullah Mengal opposed the central government's interference (Kutty, 2009). The nationalists alleged that Bhutto's regime had caused the Jamotes uprising for political gains to dismiss the NAP-JUI's government. They alleged that Bhutto's regime had caused the Jamotes uprising for political gains to dismiss the NAP-JUI's government (The Pakistan Times, December, 1974).

b) Killing of settlers

Marri tribes' men were also blamed for raiding and killing Punjabi settlers in the Pat Feeder area. Balochistan Student's Organization (BSO) was also charged of kidnapping federal railway officers. So far as the disturbance in the Pat Feeder and Lasbela district were concerned, the nationalist writers were of the opinion that they were the handiwork of the central government so as to dislodge the provincial government (Janmahmad, 1988). The nationalists disagreed with the government's accounts. They conceived themselves as loyal Pakistanis, devoted to national integrity and solidarity. They claimed that the criminals of Pat Feeder areas had been rounded up. They also pointed out that it was 8 causalities that had happened and not 42 (Janmahmad, 1988).

c) Political assassinations

The Center-Balochistan's relations further deteriorated due to assassination of Abdus Samad Achakzai of Pashtunkhawa. The deceased was a severe critic of Bhutto's policies. His assassins were never arrested. Second killing was that of Maulvi Shamsuddin, Deputy Speaker of Balochistan Assembly, Wali Khan accused Bhutto of these killings so as to create civil war between Pashtun and Baloch (Harison, 1981).

d) Different initiatives taken by the provincial government

The central government was irritated by the decision of the provincial government to get rid of non-Baloch officials from the provincial bureaucracy. The provincial government also took control of Police and law enforcing agencies and opposed military interference in the provincial matters. Bhutto government did not like the initiatives of the provincial government (Breseeq, 2004). Bhutto regarded Baloch leaders as great obstacle in getting rid of landlordism (Herald, July 1986).

The government of Pakistan also pressed other charges against the NAP's provincial government as that of expulsion of Punjabi employees from different departments such as the railways and education (Government of Pakistan White Paper, 1974). The government of Pakistan viewed the confrontation in some areas of Balochistan originated by some Sardars to maintain their *status quo* regarding their feudal authority (Government of Pakistan White Paper, 1974).

e) Sardari System

It was believed that Sardars were agitating against socio-economic modernization of the province because it would abolish the Sardari system and their hegemony in the area (Government of Pakistan White Paper, 1974). This stance of the government contradicted its own strategy of extending support to "the good Sardars" or "cooperative Sardars". This argument of the government lost its credibility due to its protection and extension of privileges to these Sardars who were in its good books. It was Lawrence Ziring's point of view that Bhutto exploited the Marri and Mengals against the Bugtis. He also sided with the khan of Kalat when the Bugtis were no longer needed (Ziring, 1980).

f) Foreign involvement

Bhutto decided to dismiss ten months old Balochistan government two days after the discovery of Soviet made arms and ammunition from the Iraqi embassy. The weapons were allegedly sent for Iran by Iraq. The federal government professed charges against NAP's leaders. These charges had wider effects. It meant that NAP leadership was not only challenging the constitutional authority but also in collusion with Iraq and Soviet Union had planned to disintegrate both Pakistan



and Iran (Harison, 1981). They considered Shah of Iran's pressure on Islamabad. Tension between Iran and Iraq, and Soviet's support to Iraq in its dispute with Iran were the key factors in the removal of Mengal ministry (Harison, 1981). The NAP leaders categorically denied all the changes. They were of the view that the basic aim of the blame game was to create so-called justification to dismiss the provincial government in Balochistan (Harison, 1981).

g) London Plan

"London Plan" was another allegation charged against NAP's government. In 1972, many veteran political leaders visited London. The political leaders who had gone to London were Nawab Akbar Bugti, Nabi Bakhsh Zehri, a famous member of Qayum Khan's Muslim league, Attaullah Mengal, Ahmad Nawaz Bugti, Wali Khan and Sheikh Mujib ur Rehman (Awan, 1985). National Trust Newspapers and government controlled media reported the conspiracy as "London Plan". According to press report, it was hatched by the gathering of politicians in London. It was allegedly planned to dismember the country. The NAP's leaders issued statement of denial in the strongest terms with regard to the so-called London Plan. Wali Khan said that he was unaware of any such plan. He went on to say that all published material in this regard was false and baseless as an attempt to malign the provincial government of Balochistan which paved the way for its dismissal.

Nawab Akbar Bugti supported the NAP in the elections of 1970. The differences developed between the Nawab and NAP's leaders. The Nawab wanted NAP support for his women candidate for senate which NAP declined to extend. Nawab also disliked the becoming of Ahmad Nawaz Khan, his younger brother, the Minister for Finance in the provincial cabinet (Khan, 2006). Nawab agreed with government allegations against NAP. He also acknowledged his backing to the alleged conspiracy but later on, he claimed to disassociate himself from the said plan. His stand provided a great support to Bhutto's regime in dislodging the provincial government of Balochistan. Bhutto, in return, awarded him the portfolio of Governor of the province (Khan, 2006).

h) Lack of culture of political tolerance

Party in power at the centre did not seem to acknowledge the very concept of political tolerance and culture of pluralism in politics. NAP was considered as emerging potential political rival to PPP at the central level.

IV. IMPACTS OF STRAINED CENTER - BALOCHISTAN RELATIONS

a) Dismissal of Balochistan Government

Bhutto dismissed the provincial government on the night of 14th February. The NAP-JUI's government in

N.W.F.P also resigned in protest. The central government jailed important leaders of the opposition (Government of Pakistan White Paper, 1974; Jalal, 1999).

b) Banning of National Awami Party and Supreme Court Verdict

Bhutto government accused the NAP leaders of creating chaos and unrest in the country. They were also charged of challenging the integrity and entity of the state in collusion with Afghanistan (Khan, 2006). Eventually, the federal government decided to ban the NAP and declared it as unlawful body (Noor, 2008). Its offices were closed down and many prominent leaders of NAP were also jailed. Thereafter, the central government filed a reference to the Supreme Court on 24 February, 1975 in accordance with section 4 of the Political parties act, 1962. The Supreme Court issued notices to the NAP leaders. In response, Wali Khan, Arbab Sikandar Khan, Sardar Khair Bakhsh Marri, Mir Ghaus Bakhsh Bizenjo and Sardar Ataullah Mengal submitted separate written statements in the court. The court held the following acts of NAP as prejudicial to the sovereignty and integrity of the state (Chaudhry, 2011).

- NAP contended that it was no longer bound by the constitution as PPP, the ruling party, had itself not acted upon the tripartite accord. The Court declared it as a subversion of the constitution.
- The Court observed that NAP was actively seeking secession in the name of autonomy.
- If political party talks of changing international boundaries of the State it was clear violation of the concept of external sovereignty of the country.
- Seeking the right of self determination for the tribal areas which had already exercised and opted for Pakistan, is amounted as prejudicial to sovereignty and unity of the state.
- According to Hamid Khan, the judgment of the Supreme Court has the following weaknesses.
- The two judges, on whom objections were raised, should have voluntarily withdrawn because objections were based on valid arguments.
- The court manner in disposing of the objections was seemed to be hostile and unfriendly.
- The courts conclusions against NAP and its leadership were harsh and dependant upon inherently inadmissible evidence.
- The court dismissed the applications of some politicians for being impleaded in the proceeding. "Mr Justice Hamoodur Rehman had been good judge and wrote some outstanding opinions. This judgment and the proceedings on which it was based were certain disappointing (Khan, 2006).

c) Military operation

The central government deployed more than 80,000 troops in Balochistan against 55,000 Baloch guerrillas (Harison, 1981). The government of Pakistan also sought military assistance from Iran to counter the insurgency (Amin, 1998). The Iranian government pursued oppressive and iron-fisted policies to suppress the Iranian Baloch nationalists. It had also a lot of concerns about the effects of the Greater Balochistan Movement in Pakistan on Iranian Baloch (Breseeq, 2004).

V. DISCUSSION

NAP-JUI alliance formed its ministry in Balochistan. Mir Ghaus Bakhsh Bizenjo was appointed as Governor of Balochistan. He belonged to the Bizenjo tribe. He was a politician of negotiations rather than confrontation and conflict (Baz Khan, 1999). Attaullah Mengal, who was the Sardar of the Mengal tribe, became Chief-Minister, whereas Nawab Khair Bakhsh Marri headed NAP in the Provincial Assembly. These Sardars had great status and influence in their respective regions (Breseeq, 2004). The NAP-JUI government in Balochistan expressed its political desire of promoting democratic values, stability, peace, rule of law and individual rights. It also wanted to keep cordial relationship with the central government. Attuallah Mengal, Chief Minister of Balochistan, spoke of making a shinning Balochistan (Khan, 2006).

Provincial government of Balochistan took various steps during its nine months period. National Council of Arts was established at Quetta to promote Baloch Culture. However, Mengal's Ministry was retreated on the language issue and Urdu was adopted as the provincial language (Breseeq, 2004). Perhaps the nationalists adopted Urdu as official language of the province because they could not ignore the Pashtun sensitivities on the language issue (Janmahmad, 1988). The other reason might be to remove diverse pressure from supporters of Balochi, Brahvi and Pashto (Harison, 1981).

Unfortunately, it was not provided a chance to survive and dismissed by the central government on the flimsy grounds. The NAP leaders categorically denied all these allegations. They viewed that the basic aim of the blame game was to create so-called justification to dismiss the provincial government in Balochistan (Harison, 1981). They claimed themselves the loyal Pakistani and committed to the national integrity and solidarity. It believed that Sardars were agitating against socio-economic modernization of the province because it would abolish the Sardari system (Government of Pakistan White Paper, 1974). This stance of the government contradicted its own strategy of extending support to "the good Sardars" or "cooperative Sardars" and its protection and extension of privileges to these

Sardars who were in its good books. Bhutto exploited the Marri and Mengals against the Bugtis. He also backed the khan of Kalat when the Bugtis were no longer needed (Ziring, 1980).

Different versions and explanations have been given in regard to the dismissal of the provincial government of Balochistan. According to Dehwar, a nationalist writer, mistrust of the Bhutto's regime against regionalists caused the removal of the provincial assembly (Dehwar, 1994). Some political analysts pointed out external factors in this regard.

The Bhutto regime failed to accommodate the regionalist forces in Balochistan (Fani et al., 2011). Due to ill-conceived and non-pragmatic strategy of the federal government pushed the extremists within NAP's fold to turn to secessionist activities (Haq, 2006). They lost faith in democracy and democratic set up. The central government could have treated them with patience and tolerance visualizing the sensitivity of the Balochistan crisis. The removal of the elected provincial government made mockery of the federal system envisioned in 1973 constitution. National integration, particular with reference to Balochistan, could neither be achieved nor strengthen by the culture of centralization or authoritarianism. After the dismissal of the Balochistan Government, the Baloch guerrillas started an uprising in Balochistan which subsequently spread to other parts of the province (Guardian, 1975). The army was called in to grapple with the insurgents. This was the great political blunder of the Bhutto regime because it provided a chance to ambitious army to re-enter the body politic (Wirsing, 2008).

Bhutto initially adopted the strategy of sharing power in the province of Balochistan with democratically elected political parties (Mazari, 2003). This brief democratic era had a significant impact on the politics of regionalist in Balochistan. They distanced themselves from secessionist tendencies (Grare, 2006). They clearly asserted to be the loyal citizens and patriotic Pakistanis. Unfortunately, the process of democratization in Balochistan was disrupted by the central government. The central government accused the autonomists as "anti-state elements" (Khan, 2006; Raja, 2012).

As mentioned earlier, the regional actors in Balochistan were demanding regional autonomy before the elimination of democratic institution. They were seeking the creation of a Balochistani majority province and devolution of power from the federation to the provinces. Instead of resolving political conflict with consensus, the central government resorted to military option (Titus & Swidler, 2000). The province was engulfed in civil war. As a result of use of force, the separatist feelings in Balochistan were further intensified. The military operation created further deep-seated hatred, disillusionment, resentment and desire for revenge among the Baloch. It had far-reaching



consequences for Center-Balochistan ties. It intensified the atmosphere of mistrust between the both-the centre and Balochistan province. Bhutto's initial strategy of sharing political power with regionalists had good impact on national politics (Jones, 1980). The Nationalists categorically distanced themselves from secessionist activities. They also adopted Urdu as official language. They also avoided from taking an extreme political line. They assured the federal government of their cooperation. PPP Government undermined the elected government in Balochistan. NAP was totally sidelined and the various guerrilla groups surfaced and took up arms against a strong central army. The insurgency was mostly launched by Balochistan Peoples' Liberation Front (BPLF) and Balochistan Students organization (BSO). The BPLF originated from the Parari organization which was involved in rebellious activities during Ayub Khan's rule (Harison, 1981). During military operation, NAP was the victim of ambivalence on the issue of secession (Ahmad, 1992). NAP was of the opinion that it desired to redress the political conflicts on the negotiating tables but military operation had left no option except to fight against use of unprovoked force (Amin, 1998).

Armed conflict between the Baloch rebels and army was at its peak in the early 1973. The guerrillas mostly took up arms in Sarawan, Jhalawan and Marri Bugti areas (Khan, 2006). The fighters were commanded by Mir Hazar Khan, Mir Lawang Khan, Ali Muhammad Mengal, Safar Khan and Khair Jan Bizenjo. Kalat and Mustang areas were led by Sulaiman Khan Ahmadzai. Insurgency in Muhammad Hasni area was organized by Mir Aslam Khan Gichki. Despite huge deployment of forces, the rebels blocked roads leading Balochistan from Sindh (Amin, 1998). The armed forces were met with stiff resistance at Mali Lawang Khan along with his 35 rebels were killed while fighting against the forces (Ahmad, 1992).

The uprising leaders remained ambivalent about the demand of right of secession. The leftist groups wanted to broaden the nationalist movement by including other nationalities in their democratic socialistic struggle. The tribal groups did not take into account the leftist programme (Amin, 1998). The Baloch guerrillas faced a much larger army. They were not well-equipped and were ill-organized. They were dependent upon the help of Afghan government (Harrison, 1981). The Baluch guerrillas tried to disrupt communication links and deployment movements of the army. Military convoys also came under attacks (Amin, 1998). According to one estimate 6,000 Baloch fighters were killed and army suffered 3,000 casualties in the conflict (Weekly Takbeer, September, 1986; Gazdar, 2006). The guerrillas got assistance mainly from the Marris, the Menglas, Hasnis and the Bizenjos. The Balochi movement tried to form contacts with their co-ethnics in

Afghanistan. Afghan government started to provide support to it but it had to review its strategy, Pakistani Government in order to counter it, started to extend help to Islamic dissident in Afghanistan (Amin, 1998).

Ghous Bakhsh Bizenjo acknowledged Soviet inspiration with regard to the Baloch struggle. It was difficult to find out Soviet intervention but circumstantial evidence showed its interest in the uprising (Amin, 1998). So far as Afghan government interference was concerned, about 2700 Baloch guerrilla fighters built their camps in Afghanistan with its assistance (Harison, 1981). However, it is important to note that Afghan rulers did not agree to the Baloch leaders and regarded Balochistan as a part of their movement for greater Pakhtunisitan (Amin, 1998). The central government also started Hyderabad conspiracy case against 55 persons of NWFP and Balochistan. They were accused of "waging war" against the state. This continued for almost years and ended with the ouster of Bhutto's Government and promulgation of Martial Law in 1977 by General Zia ul Haq.

VI. CONCLUSION

Bhutto's rule marked a tendency towards the central ascendancy and executive despotism. The 1973 Constitution was adopted with the consensus of all units. It envisioned provincial autonomy by establishing institution for an equitable distribution of resources. However, his rule did not promote the culture of tolerating voice of dissent. His regime resorted to hard steps in dealing with the regionalists. He also considered that strong centre could be inevitable for national unity and political stability. He used undemocratic tactics to get rid of NAP-JUI government in Balochistan. Despite provincial government's alleged defiance of federal authority. Bhutto could have treated them with tolerance and moderation realizing the sensitivity of the situation in Balochistan.

Military action, banning the NAP and arresting its leaders created a wave of discontent and sense of deprivation in Balochistan. This untoward, situation could be averted if provisions of the constitution, relating to provincial autonomy were implemented in letter and spirit. The removal of the provincial government and continuance of emergency even under an elected government made mockery of federal System. The centralized and authoritarian political culture provoked a strong reaction in Balochistan. These were undemocratic practices which deprived Balochistan of an effective voice in political institutions and thereby, reducing their interest in the continuity of union. National integration, especially with reference to Balochistan crisis, can neither be achieved nor strengthened by centralization and authoritarianism. National integration grows gradually in an atmosphere of goodwill and mutual trust. Balochistan should have been given equal

participation at federal and provincial policy making levels and decision making. Unfortunately, the central government adopted the strategy of suppression instead of pacification in dealing with provincial government of JUI-NAP in Balochistan. The centre's lack of forbearance in tackling the regionalists evoked the Baloch uprising. The apprehensions of Balochistan about the centre were not uncommon phenomena in the pluralistic societies. But it became most distressing when the mistrust and suspicions turned into a strong sense of insecurity and fear among the people of Balochistan. They sensed that big unit was trying to dominate the smaller one with well calculated and deliberate policy. Without following the principles of federalism in letter and spirit, the centrifugal forces in Balochistan were bound to become stronger and powerful.

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An Analysis of Concept and Role of Civil Society in Contemporary India

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Abstract - This conceptual and literary analysis focuses on history and practice of civil society searching the old and new connotations thereof. The article provides a broader spectrum of the subject matter in time and space. The concept of civil society moved from 'civilized society' to a socially located debating and acting groups emerged now outside the political arena. However, its identity fixes next door to politics. Advancement of democracies pushed the civil society movement on world scene, in both the developing and developed societies equally. India land maintains a great lead in this movement with impinging on administrative and political setup the right to information, human rights, social advocacy, environmental preservation including elimination of corruption from public institutions. Anna Hazare's fast based strategy movement acquired a very pervasive support from all quarters i.e. for Janlokpal (People's Ombudsman) under the banner India Against Corruption.

Keywords : Civil Society, State, NGO, Public Sphere.

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An Analysis of Concept and Role of Civil Society in Contemporary India

Vijender Singh

Abstract - This conceptual and literary analysis focuses on history and practice of civil society searching the old and new connotations thereof. The article provides a broader spectrum of the subject matter in time and space. The concept of civil society moved from 'civilized society' to a socially located debating and acting groups emerged now outside the political arena. However, its identity fixes next door to politics. Advancement of democracies pushed the civil society movement on world scene, in both the developing and developed societies equally. India land maintains a great lead in this movement with impinging on administrative and political setup the right to information, human rights, social advocacy, environmental preservation including elimination of corruption from public institutions. Anna Hazare's fast based strategy movement acquired a very pervasive support from all quarters i.e. for Janlokpal (People's Ombudsman) under the banner India Against Corruption.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Perhaps the utopia and human imagination have not been separate affairs. At every phase of history where men thought about what ought to be in different fields of his concern, this seems that utopia has been a human need (Irfan, Habib and others: 2004).

Conceptions and desirabilities guided men to have 'ought to be' model of society. 'Civil Society' also not only as a renewed or resurgent agenda erected by social and political scientists, but is a current debate about idealized society (Bottomore: 1993, J. Arato and J.C. Alexander: 2001, Krishan Kumar: 1993/97). The idea of civil society is not new but it has roots in sixteenth and seventeenth century's European thinking.

The recently risen interest in civil society, of academician and researchers in civil society, in 2000s is attempted again vis-à-vis conflict of identities, 'clash of civilization' and political pluralism. The theory and practice of civil society have been discussed across the lands taking from America and Europe where civil society established earlier along with maturation of industrial order and to the economically and organizationally non-developed Latin-America, Africa and Asian countries where nation-building appeared late with the development of public sphere and

heterogeneous publics. But in advanced countries, the idea of civil society and its system remained not beyond dispute. Much listened social scientist 'Noam Chomsky' designated America as a 'Rogue-state' in the context of American overstepping in the matter of other nations-like Afghanistan, Iran, Libya and Iraq leaving the idealistic image of civilized society demolished.

II. RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The fastly appearing interest in civil society at this moment of world history and world situation tended many thinkers prepared to recommend the studies in civil society. Alexander, J.C. (2001,p.1993) observed that civil society has been a topic of enormous discussion and dispute throughout the history of social thought and more, he mentions that sociologists have written much about the social forces that create conflict and polarize society about interests and structures of political, economic, racial, ethnic and gender groups. But, they have said very little about the construction, disconstruction and deconstruction of solidarity itself. They are generally silent about the sphere of fellow feeling that makes society into society and about the process that fragments it. He preferred to approach this sphere of fellow feeling from the concept of civil society.

Michael Edwards (2009:67) has raised a question about the state of understanding of civil society thus, "Is civil society the big idea for the twenty first century or will the idea of civil society confused, corrupted or captured by elites prove another false horizon in the search for a better world?" Further he states thus recognizing that civil society is contested territory in both theory and reality is the first step in rescuing a potentially powerful set of ideas from conceptual confusion that threatens to submerge them. Hence it requires further exploration in theory and practice of civil society focusing on certain society sharing present day order.

While analyzing the concepts of civil society, Neera chandhoke (2003) observed that civil space in actually existing democracies like India offers only limited possibilities for re-appropriation or those without capacities or entitlements or those who are outside the organized sectors and going by through her studies of social movements such as Narmada Bachao Andolan and Chatisgarh Mukti Morcha which were the creative movement of India's civil society, She substantiated her

conclusion and she assumed that civil society is contained in India.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review exercise of literature on civil society as a concept and practice was done tracing the origin, meaning and practice of civil society taken from late years of sixteenth century to early years of two thousands. The notion, the quantum and form of practice remained changing along with time passed.

General meaning of civil society was referred to men dwelling in a community. The eighteenth and nineteenth century generated two different meanings of the term. The Scottish theory of eighteenth century referred to the meaning of civil society as a civilized society with a non-despotic rule and a society with polished manners in opposition to a crude and barbaric society, and the most representative author was Adam Ferguson (*Essays on history of civil society*: 1767) in Enlightenment era.

In German tradition that appeared later in Nineteenth century, reveals a break in the historic equation of civil society and the state. Hegel (*Philosophy of right*: 1821/2008) saw the civil society as determined by the free play of economic forces on one hand and self seeking individuals on the other. He placed civil society as the Ethical life between family and the state.

Disagreeing somewhat Marx meant civil society equivalent to the autonomous realm of private property and market relations. (See *Blackwell Dictionary of social Thought*, T.Bottomore"1993-94).

Antonio Gramsci in his book, *Selection from the Prison Notebooks* (1971) while protecting the basic Marxian approach attempted to detach civil society from the economy but linked it to the state and with cultural politics. He identified institutions of civil society were the church, schools, trade union, and other organizations through which the ruling class exercises its hegemony over the society.

By decades 1970's and 80's the changes in Central and Eastern European countries witnessed a turning point to the concept of civil society as a weapon against the claims of totalitarian State e.g. solidarity protest movement in Poland appeared as a model of opposition by building a Parallel 'society' vis-à-vis the state (Krishan kumar, 1993/97). Some intellectuals saw these developments of pluralistic society in post-communist era.

Earlier Habermas, one of the principal exponents of the "second generation" Frankfurt School of critical theorists, in his book *Structural transformation in Public Sphere* (1991) discussed civil society and the public sphere along. The public sphere, he assumed, is created in and out of civil society. The public sphere involved public policy based :

1. On a notion of public goods as distinct from private interest.
2. On social institution (like private property that empower individuals to participate independently in the public share because their livelihood and access to it are not dependent on political power or patronage and).
3. On forms of private life (notably families) that prepare individuals to act as autonomous, rational-critical subjects in the public sphere.

Arato and cohan J.L. (1994) in the book *Civil society and political theory*, searching the condition of utopia of civil society, explore the pre-modern and post-modern situations. They tried to establish contemporary connotation of civil society. The authors concluded that civil society trends are all against statism and further the best way to characterize the new and common contemporary form of self organization and self constitution. They observed that some dramatically changes occurring in Latin America and Eastern Europe suggest the concept of civil society as indispensable if we have to move in these regions towards democracy especially through institutionalized public sphere i.e. parliaments. The positive side of civil society, if rationalized may include institutional domain of family culture and association and the domain of loyalty as well which is important for modern subsystem. They even associated the concept of civil society with the development of Western liberal democracies unlike soviet type societies.

J.C. Alexander (2001) contributed a chapter 'The Binary Discourse of civil society' in the book *The New social theory reader* highlighted the importance and dispute on the subject of civil society. He viewed that the kind of society can be defined in moral terms. He listed the constituents of civil society as the presence of the courts, the institution of mass communication and the public opinion polls. The civil society here is constituted by its own distinctive structure of elite and by those exercise power and identity through voluntary organizations and social movements. Another important point he advanced that is civil society is not merely an institutional realm. It is also a realm of structured, socially established consciousness, a network of understanding. Civil society has a subjective dimension that deserves to be recognized by focusing on symbolic codes of society. Civil society developed through binary process since the democracy depends upon self-control and individual initiative and that means activism and autonomy of people rather than they being passive and dependent and they are seen as rational and reasonable rather than irrational and hysterical. He draws discussion on structure of social motive relationships and of social institutions.

David Lewis (2004) focused on the difficulties of studying civil society by exploring the activities of NGO's in a democratic state of Bangladesh. Lewis finds the concept of civil society in Bangladesh after 1971 expressed in two – old and new traditions. The explorations of N.G.O. activities reveals that relationship between citizens and the state were changing along with the changes in public policy and changes in institutional landscape. He found that there was a little written on civil society in Bangladesh either as an idea/concept or as an empirical reality. He applied ethnographic work as technique, theoretical analysis and historical study he made for purpose. He also highlighted the normative character of civil society as a 'good thing' that becomes a matter of building. However, he counted second problem, the notion of public space where it locates beyond the household and kinship sphere.

Thomas Carothers (1999) assumes NGOs as the Heart of Civil Society and states that not really, At the core of much of the current enthusiasm about civil society is a fascination with nongovernmental organizations, especially advocacy groups devoted to public interest causes--the environment, human rights, women's issues, election reform and monitoring, anticorruption, and other "good things." Such groups have been multiplying exponentially in recent years, particularly in countries undertaking democratic transitions. Nevertheless, it is a mistake to equate civil society with NGOs. Properly understood, civil society is a broader concept, encompassing all the organizations and associations that exist outside of the state (including political parties) and the market. It includes the gamut of organizations that political scientists traditionally label interest groups---not just advocacy NGOs but also labor unions, professional associations (such as those of doctors and lawyers), chambers of commerce, ethnic associations, and others. It also incorporates the many other associations that exist for purposes other than advancing specific social or political agendas, such as religious organizations, student groups, cultural organizations (from choral societies to bird-watching clubs), sports clubs, and informal community groups. Nongovernmental organizations do play important, growing roles in developed and developing countries. They shape policy by exerting pressure on governments and by furnishing technical expertise to policy makers. They foster citizen participation and civic education. They provide leadership training for young people who want to engage in civic life but are uninterested in working through political parties. In many countries, however, NGOs are outweighed by more traditional parts of civil society. Religious organizations, labor unions, and other groups often have a genuine base in the population and secure domestic sources of funding, features that advocacy groups usually lack, especially the scores of

new NGOs in democratizing countries. The burgeoning NGO sectors in such countries are often dominated by elite-run groups that have only tenuous ties to the citizens on whose behalf they claim to act, and they depend on international funders for budgets they cannot nourish from domestic sources.

Neera Chandhoke (2003) in his book State and civil society: explorations in political theory states that the concept of civil society, a companion concept of formal/minimalist/procedural democracy that has been subject to conflicting interpretations in political theory and philosophy, has also become a consensual concept receiving uncritical universal acclaim in the post-communist era. She argues that civil society is the exclusive and exclusionary as it privileges the politically and economically organized groups of society.

The review of Literature suggest following points:

1. Theoretical and empirical study in India appeared not in sufficient number.
2. India reference with regards to civil society is very scanty.
3. Conceptual and empirical study attempted a few.
4. The more attention to the question of civil society especially in developing countries has been recommended to be looked upon.
5. Concept of civil society differ society to society and from one time to another time of history.

IV. THE CONCEPT OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN SOCIOLOGICAL AND OTHER LITERATURE

According to Antony McGrew (1998:69) Civil society refers to those agencies, institutions, movements, cultural forces and social relationships which are both privately and voluntarily organized and which are not directly controlled by the state. In simple terms, civil society refers to the realm of private power and private organizations whereas the state is the realm of public power and public organizations.

J.C. Alexander (2001:193) defined civil society as a sphere or subsystem of society that is analytically and to various degrees, empirically separated from the spheres of political, economic and religious life.

Kaldor (2007: p154) sees civil society as the process through which individuals negotiate, argue, struggle against, or agree with each other and with the centers of political and economic authority.

The concept of civil society may be summarized thus:

- The emerging meaning of civil society is far from old meaning of civilized society.
- Civil society indicates presence and strength of public sphere.
- Civil society is an idealized conception.

- Civil society refers to not only institutions but agencies, movements, cultural forces and social relationship which are privately and voluntarily organized and which are not directly controlled by state.

Civil society in concrete way includes household religious group, trade union, private company, political parties, humanitarian organisations, the women movement, environment group, parent teacher association

V. THE ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN INDIA

Mishra, Kailash K. (2002) explores the roots of civil society in ancient India and concluded that India is a wonderful country where the people of thousands of castes, all major religions and more than 427 odd Tribal communities have been living maintaining an exemplary communal harmony. It is rooted in its traditions. The thousands of years of Indian history confirms that we had civil society right from the Vedic period. Vedic hymns describe about egalitarian and democratic norms of their society. In this context some people's assemblies like vidath, sabha and samiti have been mentioned. Vidath was a general meeting of the jana (whole community), which had redistributive functions. Vedic seers also described about kilvis samprat that means general consensus. In all the Vedic assemblies' decisions were taken on the basis of consensus only. Sabha was a body of village elders and it assisted the janasya gopah. The etymological meaning of janasya gopah is the protector of the people or fellowmen as well as their cattle wealth. But in practice it was used for the rajanya i.e., ruler. Samiti was a general assembly in which all the members of the community participated. Its main function was to elect the ruler. The most remarkable fact about all these assemblies was that women also participated in it. Sabha and samiti had been depicted as the two daughters of Prajapati and especially samiti has been termed as narista that means a place where intellectual discourses or discussions can be made. Sardh, vrat and gana are the three other assemblies about them also we have a number of references. Mention can be made of gosthi that was like a modern days Chaupal in which discussions regarding day today socio-economic problems of village life were discussed. The Vedic seers used a fascinating term, madhyamsiriv i.e., in case of indecision or altercation in the assembly the elders should opt the middle path to maintain the harmony and solve the problems. So, ancient Indian social system assures a balanced and ordered civil society. Later also all rulers, political thinkers and seers tried hard to honor the individual as well as the group liberty.

Popular mobilization within the Indian civil society was evident already in the colonial period but

the formation of both state and civil society in India were different from that of Western Europe (Kaviraj and Khilnani. 2001). While the modern state in the west developed simultaneously with civil society, a process covering centuries and included a gradual shift towards a more powerful and efficient state, but also towards a stronger and more independent civil society, the development of civil society in the rest of the world has not followed the same pattern.

The powers of both the pre-colonial and the colonial state were not absolute: the state co-existed with influential religious and traditional power structures outside its immediate reach and the effects of these alternative power structures were evident also in the formation of the civil society. One example is the tendency of the British colonial state to respect religious differences and to divide the population according to faith. In the Indian case, this practice led to a strong position of the native religious elites, and the strengthening of religious identity in both the private sphere and in civil society (Amir. Ali. 2001).

Numerous religious reform movements were formed throughout the 19th century, some of them with social and political issues on their agendas. While some were influenced by Christianity, others saw the spread of foreign religions as an affront to Hindu culture. The Brahmo Samaj, founded in 1843, worked for the reform of Hindu traditions and practices, as did the Ramakrishna Mission under Swami Vivekananda, and the Theosophical Society in Madras, led by Annie Besant. The Arya Samaj, formed later in the 19th century, had similar features as the other reform movements, e.g. the renunciation of idolatry and polytheism, as well as urging for a unification of all Hindus, but it differed through its aggressive nationalism. All these organizations emphasized Hindu unity, played an important role in the freedom movement, and strengthened Indian civil society.

The national resistance movement, spearheaded by the Indian National Congress (INC), became the main source of civil society activity in early 20th century British India. Partly outside of the INC also other forms of social movements gained in strength during the first half of the 20th century.

Despite the dismantling of the colonial state, the pattern of a state dominated economy remained also after independence. For decades various forms of central planning was promoted, which did not focus on civil society, but rather on state action. After the successful anti-colonial struggle it took some time before civil society was restructured and able to adapt to the new regime.

Ghanshyam Shah (1990) analyses the social movements in India and wrote, In the 1960s, as India was hit by drought, subsequent wars, and a related food crisis, both urban and rural groups started to protest. While the protests addressed material needs

they soon became attached to several larger ideological movements, both Gandhian and revolutionary Marxist, which challenged the Indira Gandhi-led government. The threat became so potent that Prime Minister Gandhi in June 1975 declared the country to be in a state of emergency, which remained until the elections in 1977. While the Emergency meant a breach with the Indian democratic practice, and a severe curtailment of civil and political rights, it also had a vitalizing effect on civil society which after 1977 witnessed an increase of activities within traditional social movements such as peasants, workers and students, but also amongst the so called "new social movements", including environmental groups and women's organizations.

Gail Omvedt (1994) asserts that mobilizing new political identities, many groups challenged the state on local, regional and national level, as these NGOs were often based in strong grass root networks. While the emphasis on environmentalism and gender issues was a global phenomenon of this period the experiences from the Emergency also contributed. First, the oppression of the state provoked social and political forces to organize against the oppression; secondly, the image of a democratic and progressive state was seriously dented. As a consequence, new groups understood the necessity to actively claim their rights and to fight against perceived injustices.

State developmentalism as a project was questioned, and from the 1980s and onward also the Indian state itself have encouraged NGOs to take more responsibility for social development. The numbers of NGOs in India are growing all the time, but one estimate puts the figure to over 30000 (Baviskar, 2001). A general international trend towards more of individual and private initiatives and less of government planning is of course also behind this expansion. The neo-liberal reforms of the IMF and the World Bank which have had such drastic global consequences in the Third World have affected also India where the partial withdrawal of the state has resulted in a more active civil society. Due to their preference to work with NGOs, the presence of international aid organizations have contributed further to this development.

It is apparent that the partial failure of the state to address social and economic needs has had effects on the levels of development, but also on the quality and character of civil society. In some sense this failure has spurred groups and individuals to engage in civil society, but the inability to provide basic education and other forms of social services has seriously hampered the development of civil society, with low levels of literacy being a case in point. As a consequence the Indian state, and various aid agencies, has utilized the competence and infrastructure of civil society in order to encourage social development. NGOs such as women's organizations have been incorporated in the governmental development plans. This of course

compromises the independence of these NGOs and strictly speaking they do not qualify as NGOs or after accepting governmental support. But this form of cooptation, as well as the general trend of state withdrawal, also has important consequences for future plans of social development. While the state is increasingly seen as inefficient and corrupt, the NGOs are defined as committed and accountable. Leaving the negative description of the state aside, the positive image of civil society rests more on an ideological and theoretical definition rather than an accurate appraisal of civil society in India today. Due to the inherent social, religious, ethnic and economic cleavages of Indian society, the civil society is permeated by inequality and various forms of conflict, as noted in the current Indian debate (Mahajan, G. 2001).

The expectations of efficiency, commitment and accountability of civil society should be seen in this light also, as various forms of inequality are likely to influence civil society. A more realistic view would be to define Indian civil society as a public arena in which various interests meet and compete, battling against the state, but also against other groups within civil society. This arena would be affected also by the power relations in society at large, reproducing various cleavages and inequalities.

Berglund, Henrik (2009) concluded that the relative failure of the Indian state created feelings of exclusion amongst large segments of the population, and allegations that the state is not neutral, but biased on the basis of class and caste interests. These alleged biases have in turn created sentiments of apathy and also facilitated negative mobilization and manipulation of various primordial identities such as ethnicity, religion and caste. This segmentation of Indian society has had ambiguous consequences and has led to demands and actions which have seriously undermined the democratic system by the strengthening of exclusivist identities. These are based on religion, caste or ethnicity and are now at the centre of political mobilization, which involves political parties as well as other parts of Indian civil society.

Amir Ali (2001) suggests that the colonial experience included the development of a public sphere, but that the private sphere was left not to the individual citizens, but to the native elites. According to Ali this resulted in the cementing of the community based identities also after independence, which has obstructed a democratization of Indian society, with the current Hindu nationalist challenge as a case in point. The movement uses civil society to strengthen the Hindu identity and to weaken the position of the minorities, undermining the secular Indian democracy. It is in many senses a struggle of ideology and meaning, reminiscent of the Gramscian definition of the continuous battles in civil society where the outcome cannot be explained solely by class interest and

economic power. The Hindu nationalist challenge is also met with resistance from other sectors of civil society, in an attempt to defend the established forms of democracy and minority rights.

It is very difficult to classify the Civil Society Organizations or the NGOs in the country because of the enormous diversity in organizations of the or in the purpose, size, promoters and the size of such organizations; Ramesh Sharan framed a typology of civil society organization in India:

1. Gandhian influenced voluntary groups-there number has fallen.
2. Professional rural development agencies by professionals, by Corporate and by smaller groups
3. Civil and political rights groups
4. Missionary organizations Christian Mission, R.K. Mission
5. Student, worker and women movements related to left and other political parties
6. Independent social movements of dalits, adivasis, women, environmentalists.
7. Movements and groups of minorities (Muslim, Christian, Buddhist etc)
8. Religious movements; both of spiritual and fundamentalist types.

The roles played by the civil society and their importance have now been increasingly been recognized. Civil society is now expected to play important multiple roles. Civil society organizations (CSOs) and networks are important players in national political life, with the potential to improve governance and transform state – society relations. The main objectives of these new social movements led by CSOs are :

- Having a responsive political and bureaucratic system.
- Having appropriate policies for the poor and adequate allocations for the schemes.
- Having participatory, decentralized and efficient implementation of the programs.
- Having transparent and accountable system.
- Having a quick and fair justice where poor can get justice at low cost and quickly.

It may be mentioned here that there has been a general acceptance that governance is very important for economic development. A number of indicators for good governance has been developed which capture six key dimensions of institutional quality or governance:

1. *Voice and Accountability* - Measuring political, civil and human rights.
2. *Political Instability and Violence* - measuring the likelihood of violent threats to, or changes in, government, including terrorism.
3. *Government Effectiveness* - measuring the

competence of the bureaucracy and the quality of public service delivery.

4. *Regulatory Burden* - measuring the incidence of market-unfriendly policies.
5. *Rule of Law* - measuring the quality of contract enforcement, the police, and the courts, as well as the likelihood of crime and violence.
6. *Control of Corruption* - measuring the exercise of public power for private gain, including both petty and grand corruption and state capture.

Indian Civil Society in Action: the Areas:

Several areas can be counted with which civil society interests contributed a lot. The areas of their thought and action follows:

1. *Transparency and Right to Information* - training and sensitizing communities and people for its use and strong mobilizations against diluting the provisions of the Act.
2. *MNREGA* - This limited employment guarantees has been also possible due to the intense pressure of the Civil Society. The important role being played is in dissemination and sensitizing people, social audits and exposing the corruption demanding action.
3. *Education* - CSOs are also playing important role in innovations in teaching methods for children, bringing out of school children in the mainstream both as partners community mobilization.
4. *Policy Advocacy* - participation in policy dialogues with various levels in government, policy focusing youth, women and child, tribal and forest etc.
5. *Implementation of programs* - like watershed, innovations, livelihood programs, Self Help Groups and micro finance.
6. *Demanding accountability* - through public watch reports , social audits and public hearings and budget analysis has important impact on the government functioning.
7. *Environment and resettlement / rehabilitation issues* - making them national and international agenda / sensitizing and dialogues with the government / multilateral funding agencies
8. *Panchayati Raj Institutions strengthening* - voter awareness, helping the most unprivileged to come and participate, and sensitizing people
9. *National Rural Health Mission and Right to health* - Health concern are sparked off the participation and debated the issue.
10. *Human Rights watch Groups* - The Indian Universities came up with curriculum on human rights under UGC special program and, NGO's raising the issue and pleading to minorities, women and other vulnerable groups and individuals.

VI. CIVIL SOCIETY FOR JAN LOKPAL BILL

In India, the civil society movement that forced parliament to accommodate Gandhian activist Anna Hazare's demand for tougher anti-corruption legislation is being seen as a new force impacting Indian politics. In 2011, Anna Hazare, a 74 year-old 'self-styled' Social-Activist, initiated fast unto death Satyagraha movement, using nonviolent means, pressed for passing a stronger anti-corruption Lokpal (ombudsman) bill in the Indian Parliament. The Jan Lokpal Bill (People's Ombudsman Bill) was drafted earlier by N. Santosh Hegde, former justice of Supreme Court of India and Lokayukta of Karnataka, Prashant Bhushan, a senior lawyer in the Supreme Court and with Arvind Kejriwal, a young and enthusiastic social activist under the banner of India Against Corruption organization. The draft incorporated more stringent provisions and gave wider power to the Lokpal (Ombudsman) than the government's 2010 draft. However, bill is still pending in Parliament's upper house.

The peaceful movement led by Hazare was joined by people of all ages. Social activists, including Medha Patkar, Arvind Kejriwal, and former IPS officer Kiran Bedi lent their support. People showed support in social media. In addition to spiritual leaders Sri Sri Ravi Shankar, Swami Ramdev, Swami Agnivesh and former Indian cricketer Kapil Dev, many celebrities supported him. And for the first time in decades it saw the urban middle class emerge spontaneously on the streets in huge number for a para-political cause. Social activists hope this will ensure a tougher law in place of a weaker version presented by the government.

Protests spread to Bangalore, Mumbai, Chennai, Ahmedabad, Guwahati, Shillong, Aizawl and other cities. On 8 April the Government accepted the movement's demands. On 9, April it issued a notification in the Gazette of India on formation of a joint committee. On the morning of 9, April Hazare ended his 98-hour hunger strike. He addressed the people and set a deadline of 15 August to pass the bill.

"Real fight begins now. We have a lot of struggle ahead of us in drafting the new legislation. We have shown the world in just five days that we are united for the cause of the nation. The youth power in this movement is a sign of hope."

During the meetings of the joint drafting committee, the Union government members opposed the inclusion of the prime minister, higher judiciary and the acts of the MPs under the purview of the Lokpal in the draft bill. Anna Hazare and other civil society members decided to boycott the 6 June draft committee meeting to protest the forcible eviction of Swami Ramdev and his followers by the Delhi Police from Ramlila Maidan on 5 June, while they were on a hunger strike against black money of Indians in foreign banks and corruption, doubting the government's seriousness.

On 6 June, the civil society members wrote to Parnav Mukherjee, Draft Committee Chairperson, explaining reasons for their absence and also asking government to go public on the major issues. They also decided to attend only future meetings that were telecast live. On 8 June at Rajghat, describing his movement as the second freedom struggle, Anna criticized the Government for trying to discredit the draft committee and threatened to go on indefinite fast again from 16th August if the Lokpal Bill had not passed. He also criticized the Government for putting hurdles in front of the Bill and for maligning the civil society members.

On 28 July the union cabinet approved a draft of the Lokpal Bill, which kept the Prime Minister, judiciary and lower bureaucracy out of the ombudsman's ambit. Hazare rejected the government version by describing it as "cruel joke" and wrote a letter to Singh announcing his decision to begin an indefinite fast from 16 August at Jantar Mantar, if the government introduced its own version of the bill without taking suggestions from civil society members.

On 16 August, Hazare was arrested, four hours before the planned indefinite hunger strike. Rajan Bhagat, spokesman for Delhi Police, said police arrested Hazare for 'illegal' gathering in a Delhi's park to begin his hunger strike, claiming that Hazare refused to meet police conditions for allowing the protest. The conditions included restricting the fast to three days and the number of protesters to 5,000. Later in the afternoon, Hazare refused bail. The magistrate dispatched him to Tihar jail for seven days. Media reported that about 1,300 supporters were detained in Delhi, including key members of the India Against Corruption movement such as Arvind Kejriwal, Shanti Bhushan, Kiran Bedi and Manish Sisodia. Other reports other protests with people courting arrests in different parts of the country. Opposition parties came out against the arrests by government.

After four hours in detention he was released unconditionally on a request by the police, but refused to leave Tihar Jail. He demanded unconditional permission to fast at Ramlila Maidan (Ground) and refused to leave. Hazare continued his fast inside the jail.

After his arrest, Hazare received tremendous support from people across the country. There were reports of "nearly 570 demonstrations and protests by Anna supporters across the country". Due to the millions of protesters nationwide, the government allowed him to begin a public hunger strike of fifteen days. After talks with public authorities, Hazare decided to hold his protest at Ramlila Maidan, New Delhi. On 20 August Hazare "left the Tihar Jail for the Ramlila Grounds". Hazare promised reporters "he would fight to the 'last breath' until the government gets his team's Jan Lokpal Bill passed in this session of Parliament, which ends on 8 September."



Within a few days of Anna Hazare's first fast demanding a strong Lokpal (on 5 April 2011), supporters started a campaign known as "I Am Anna Hazare". During Anna Hazare's second fast, his topi, the cap which became synonymous with Anna Hazare, became almost a fashion statement. Sales of the topis hit an all-time high.

Independent political analyst Prem Shankar Jha in New Delhi said the success of the anti-corruption movement marks a turning point in Indian democracy. The political class, which analysts say was taken aback by the strength of the movement, appears to be heeding that message. Leader of the opposition Bharatiya Janata Party, Arun Jaitley, told parliament that people's voices will have to be heard while framing legislation.

"In any developing society and any mature society, there will be a role for civil society," he said. "They are a hard reality, they will exist. Some of them may take positions which seem a little excessive, they may not be implementable, but we must realize that their role is one of a campaigner, a flag bearer, a crusader on several issues."

Ashutosh Varshney write in Indian Express that from the cloistered walls of academia, the term civil society has now fully penetrated our everyday discourse, thanks to Anna Hazare and Baba Ramdev. Those working at the local level, sensitive to movement politics, or familiar with the history of Gandhian modes of political conduct, had always known the potency of civil society organizations. He, further, states the distinction between civil and political society, thus, does not make sense. They are deeply intertwined. A more precise definition of civil society has to do with its relationship with the state. Civil society is not necessarily non-political, but it inhabits the non-state space of our life. It deploys any political means it can get to pressure the state to achieve its goals, but it is not part of the state. Indeed, the classic definition of civil society is that it is the organizational space between the family on one hand and the state on the other.

VII. CONCLUSION

Civil society in India has shown considerable response to the political, social and economic problems in the post independent India and has been able to influence policies, demanded accountability and also created social harmony in the wake of communalism and fundamentalism in the country. The growth of the civil society organizations and change in their composition in India can also be traced at the changing scenario. However, a number of internal and external constraints limit the effectiveness of the interventions of civil society in governance for effective delivery of the entitlements for the.

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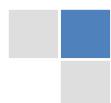
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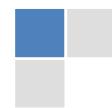
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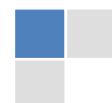
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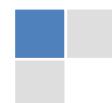
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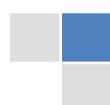
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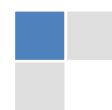
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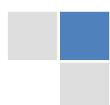
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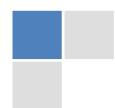
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- If well known procedures were used, account the procedure by name, possibly with reference, and that's all.

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.

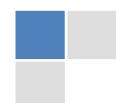
The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Carry on to be to the point, by means of statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently. You must obviously differentiate material that would usually be incorporated in a study editorial 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.

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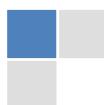
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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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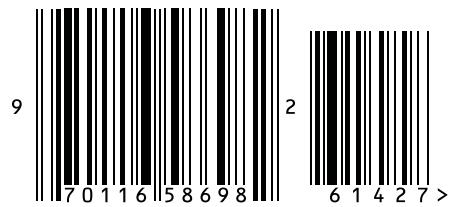


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