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Determinants of Mobile Phone

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Determinants of Mobile Phone Demand among University Students

By A.M.Priyangani Adikari
Rajarata University of Sri Lanka

Abstract - This study examines the determinants of mobile phone among the university students special reference to Rajarata University of Sri Lanka. The sample is selected by using stratified sampling method. The data collected through 10 mixtures of open and closed questions. The study used mainly primary date but secondary data too used in books and internet sources. This research is hypotheses that monthly income is the most effective factor for university students' demand on mobile phone and phone's facility is positively affect to mobile phone demand. Results of the study reveals that there is a possitive and significant relationship between mobile phone demand and income levels among university students and facilities provided by the phone is not possitively affects on mobile phone demand . However, the study suggested that a country level study in this regard will be more helpful for mobile phone producers and their marketing strategies.

Keywords: *demand, mobile phone, stratified sampling*

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Determinants of Mobile Phone Demand among University Students

A.M. Priyangani Adikari

Abstract- This study examines the determinants of mobile phone among the university students special reference to Rajarata University of Sri Lanka. The sample is selected by using stratified sampling method. The data collected through 10 mixtures of open and closed questions. The study used mainly primary date but secondary data too used in books and internet sources. This research is hypotheses that monthly income is the most effective factor for university students' demand on mobile phone and phone's facility is positively affect to mobile phone demand. Results of the study reveals that there is a possitive and significant relationship between mobile phone demand and income levels among university students and facilities provided by the phone is not possitively affects on mobile phone demand . However, the study suggested that a country level study in this regard will be more helpful for mobile phone producers and their marketing strategies.

Keywords: demand, mobile phone, stratified sampling.

I. Introduction

Communication is a common habit among all living beings in the earth. But human beings have more advanced and improved communication channels than animals. Communication methods can be classified as traditional methods and modern methods.Because of the new technology innovation communication is also improving day by day. Being on this environment mobile phone is also obtained as improved way of communication among human beings. The effort made by Richard H.F.and Joel S.E.led the foundation for the development of mobile phone communication(http://www.ideafinder.com/history/inventions/mobilephone.htm).At present mobile phone can be highlighted as one of the most common information sources. According Population Reference Bureau Country Statistics in 2006, mobile phones are one of the most common information access devices with almost 31% of the global population having access.

People are using mobile phones not only voice communication but also other purposes as Short Message Services (SMS), Multimedia Message Services (MMS), recording, calculating, playing games etc.

This study based on determinants of mobile phone demand among university students. Therefore, researcher selected as the study area, Rajarata University of Sri Lanka that the students are from various regions. It is located in Anuradhapura District as well as near to Mihintale. This university started in 1996 and there are five faculties as Faculty of Management Studies, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Faculty of Medicine and Allied Science, Faculty of Applied Sciences and Faculty of Agriculture. Present day, there are 3915 students includes 3390, 189, 100, 2 Sinhala, Muslim, Tamil and other students respectively. There are 995 students in Faculty of Management Studies, 883 students in Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, 713 students in Faculty of Medicine and Allied Science, 662 students in Faculty of Applied Sciences as same as Faculty of Agriculture (Field survey, 2011). The university is located in North Central Province. But, there are many students who come from all over the provinces in Sri Lanka.

II. Research Problem

University students are facilitated common land phone facilities inside university promises and hostels. Most of the university students in Sri Lanka still depend from their parents' income and very little of them are engaging part time jobs or full time jobs. Normally researcher saw that many of students are using Mobile Phones even they are child of the low income level families. Therefore, the research problem can be indicated as: what are the determinants of mobile phone demand among university students.

III. Objectives

The general objective of this research is to study the determinants of mobile phone demand among University students. Specific Objectives are:

- To estimate the demand function for Mobile phone
- To find out the most usage mobile phone brand among the students.
- To identify the problems faced by university students when they use the mobile phones.

IV. Hypothesis

H_1 = "Income is the most effective factor for university student's demand on Mobile phone".

H_2 ="Facility of the phone is positively affects on mobile phone demand".

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V. Literature Review

The 21st century can be interpreted as info-communication age. When new communication technologies spread among the people, one of them is the mobile communication. Researcher thinks how choose a mobile device is an interesting question, which parameters are important in the decision, and which are not. How we use the new technologies in everyday life, when and for what we use it because; in researcher opinion the technological development and the usage habits are interdependent. Researcher would like to examine consumer behavior in the field of mobile phone, so researcher think it should consider the mobile marketing as well.

Kimiloglu H. et al (2010) noted that, pragmatic consumers are found to give high importance to functional, physical and convenience based attributes of the product mobile phone from their research report "Discovering behavioral segments in the mobile phone market". This research aims to discover consumer segments with different behavioral profiles in the mobile phone market. As a research design, they employed factor analysis on 32 different attributes to which consumers attach in purchasing a mobile phone. The study proved pragmatic consumers are found to give high importance to the functional, physical and convenience-based attributed of the product.

Ongondo F.O. et al. (2010) pointed out from their report, "The potentially significant environmental and economic impacts; a large scale survey of students at 5 UK universities was conducted to assess the behavior of students with regard to their use and disposal of mobile phones". Additionally, a small scale trial mobile phone take back service at one of the universities was carried out. The findings indicate that many students replace their phones at least once a year; replacing broken phones, getting upgrades from network operators, remaining fashionable and a desire to have a handset with a larger battery life are the main reasons for such rapid replacement. Almost 60% of replaced phones are not sent to reuse or recycling operations but, are stockpiled by students mainly as backup phones. Although many students are aware of UK mobile phone take back services, only a moderate number have previously used the services. Students' recycling of other waste materials such as paper and glass did not have a significant impact on their disposal actions for their unwanted mobile phones, although students who often recycled these waste materials were also the most willing to participate in mobile phone take back services. Monetary incentives such as cash payments and vouchers have the greatest influence over students' willingness to utilize take back services, followed by convenience and ease of use of the services.

James D et al (2005) published report named "Exploring Addictive Consumption of Mobile Phone technology". This paper examines addictive consumptions of mobile phones within the domain of consumer behavior. Specifically, it explores what characterizes addictive users of mobile phone technology, factors that increase their usage, and adverse consequences from addiction. Two exploratory studies undertaken in Brisbane are the basis for a larger project now in progress. Ten semi-structured interviews were conducted in March 2005, followed by a focus group containing six participants in June 2005. A judgment sample of eight consumers of mobile phone technology was used in this study. These subjects represented a broad spectrum of the population in terms of usage levels, occupation, and age. Interviews were recorded on audio cassettes and transcribed. The focus group was a convenience sample of six young people, enrolled full-time at university. This research was found that these users had a long established relationship with their phone with an average of 6.5 years, and all subjects were using their third to fifth mobile phone upgrade. Usage time was high ranging from 1.5 to 5 hours per day, and the average bill per month was $140, which is expensive given restricted student incomes. In this study, both attitudinal and behavioral characteristics were found among mobile phone users who self- identified as problematic. Further, the results revealed adverse consequences of mobile phone consumers as damaging relationships, falling stress and feeling emotional stress.

According to Endre A. (2009) noted on his research "Mobile phone usage and device selection of university student". The research took place in May 2009, and researcher used an online inquiry form. The respondents were students of the Corvinus university of Budapest, and the most of them were 1st year university student. For dada base 642 questionnaires proved to be appreciable. Researcher asked the respondents to rank for main categories (price, available features, look, shape and brand) of the mobile device selection. After ranking, the next group of questions was a list of properties according to mobile device. The respondents had to consider how important are each listed aspect for them. Data present using graphs and charts and also find correlations. According to this study, the university students prefer to choose their phone by good price, look and shape. The brand and the available applications are less important. The most important features of the mobile phones are technical parameters, like good battery or durability of the device. Beauty is the most important feature among appearance parameters. Mobile phone has determinant importance for the young, and they rather use it more in public situations or places, than in private ones. The time-management applications are used more often than other information based ones. They use clock, alarm clock and calendar

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most often, while sound recorder and internet are used most rarely.

Chakraborty S. (2006) studies his research, "Mobile phone usage pattern amongst university students: A comparative study between India and USA". This study investigated motivations of usage, common usage scenarios and the attitude towards mobile phones in public settings among university students in a mature market (United States) and a rapidly growing new market (India). This research is intended to be a questionnaire- based exploratory study to investigate the cross-cultural usage patterns of mobile phones. The survey had both closed and open ended questions. It collected demographic information like age, gender and educational level. Then the survey moved on to collect usage and behavioral characteristics such as, individual use or shared use phone, and time of use. Respondents were also asked to rank their pre dominant usage of the phone. Participants for the study included only university students above the age of 18 years from India and the United States. Responses were accepted regardless of full-time or part-time, undergraduate or graduate student status. In this study, it used convenience sampling method. This study gives an insight in to the similarities and the differences in the usage of mobile phones across two very different countries. There were marked similarities with the usage of phones to communicate with others and there were similarities in the perception of mobile phone usage in public settings. Many participants felt the need for etiquette or guidelines for mobile phone usage in public settings. According to Ahmed I. (2011) research report named "Mobile phone adoption and consumption patterns of university students in Pakistan" try to study explores buying and re-buying activities of mobile phone; preferences for brands, purchasing features and network providers, account recharge activities and calling and testing patterns of mobile phone users in Pakistan. Students were selected as population and simple random sampling technique was used consisting of 500 respondents as tool sample size. 400 students responded back comprising 80% response rate for this study. For this purpose questionnaires were used as data collection tool. To encompass all important activities related to mobile phone usage. Questionnaire was designed and major portion of questionnaire was taken from the research report conducted by Market Analysis and Consumer Research Organization (MACRO) in May 2004. The overall reliability of the questionnaire was estimated to be 0.81. Then, collected data was analysis using SPSS 17.0. Data present only by using tables. Majority of mobile phone users have started using mobile phone at 10-18 years of their age and they consider mobile phone as necessity of life. This leads to conclude that mobile phone users in Pakistan are not exhibiting addictive or over excessive usage pattern of mobile phone, they are loyal customers of network providers and consider almost all features of mobile phone at the time of purchasing.

Selian A.N (2004) done a study named "Mobile phones and youth: A look at the US student market". Through this research a wide variety of information about the characteristics and trends of the youth market for mobile phones has been compiled both through extensive secondary research and through the execution of an independent survey on a small sample of 12-29 year old individuals in their respective phases of high school, undergraduate and/or graduate education. This survey was undertaken as part of a study of mobile technology and youth, and was designed to independently explore the relationships between gender, age, behavioral trends and mobile phone usage patterns of teenagers and young people. The sample of survey respondents consisted of 189 teenagers and young adults across a spectrum of socioeconomic, cultural and ethnic backgrounds in the area of Boston, Massachusetts. All respondents were students in high school, college, or graduate school; questionnaires were distributed at the Rindge Latin High School in Cambridge, Ma, as well as to undergraduate students at Tufts University, and graduate students at the Fletcher School (both located in Medford, Ma.)The findings revealed that mobile usage in the context of educational settings are strong, reflecting a higher group penetration level than on average in the United States.

Richards F.et al. (2006) published his research named "Determinants of 3G mobile video adoption by the south African Mobile consumer". This paper explores what factors the South African mobile user regard as most likely to influence the intention to adopt 3G mobile video. Since there is minimal literature on 3G mobile video, this research relied on Diffusion of Innovations Theory, Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behavior. The objective of this research is to determine the factors determining (intended) 3G mobile video adoption in South Africa. Consequently, the proposed hypotheses relate to the factors identified that could possibly affect adoption. Intention to adopt has been identified as the dependant variable that all the other variables were analyzed again. Positivism will be used as the major philosophy to obtain quantifiable data that can be statistically analyzed. The time horizon was cross-sectional. The research strategy was survey/questionnaire based. The sample considered for the study was thus limited to the general public living in South Africa. In order to collect a non-biased and representative sample of respondents, a few Cape Town malls were visited. The research questionnaire was developed in both hard-copy and online format. To overcome geographical constraints, an internet website was used to host the online survey questionnaire. The test items were based on previous studies, this hypothesis proves that adoption of mobile technology is very closely related to cost in a negative

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way. Consumers are aware of cost implications for 3G mobile video as they associate these with 2.5G services like GPRS and MMS. Although the sample was relatively small, the results seemed to be fairly conclusive in terms of isolating the four most important factors which are likely to influence the South African user adoption of 3G mobile video when it becomes available. These four factors are (in order of importance): the complexity of the technology, the level of technological (Internet) experience, the cost and the perceived compatibility with the user's lifestyle.

VI. Methodology

This study use both primary data and secondary data but, mainly based on primary data. Secondary data collected by using, Books, Journals, Magazines and Internet sources. Primary data collected by using Questionnaire and group discussions. This study includes 10 mixtures of open and closed questions.

Total population of this research is total student population in Rajarata university of Sri Lanka. There are 3915 students (Field survey, 2011) and researcher selected sample size as 80 students by using Stratified random sampling method. Under this scientific selection give equal chance to each five faculties, each batches and gender such as total population divided in to five faculties and each faculty divided in to four batches and each batches divided in to male and female. After that number of students divided from total population and multiple by sample size (80) then can select a sample.

VII. Results and Discussion

a) Testing Hypothesis

Using multiple regression analysis, researcher built demand function for mobile phone demand.

Table 1 : Coefficient Table

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	4.864	1.587		3.064	0.003
Close communication	-0.107	0.200	-0.062	-0.538	0.592
Taste (Fashion)	0.003	0.218	-0.002	0.015	0.988
Facilities of phone	-0.207	0.157	-0.157	-1.318	0.192
Monthly Expenditure	-0.183	0.206	-0.154	-0.890	0.377
Monthly Income	0.446	0.160	0.433	2.796	0.007

Source : Author Calculation using Survey Data (2011)

Table 2 : Anova table

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	23.095	5	4.619	2.346	.049
Residual	145.705	74	1.969		
Total	168.800	79			

Source : Author Calculation using Survey Data (2011)

According to above coefficient table demand function can be derived as:

$Qd=4.864-0.107X_1+0.446X_2+0.003X_3-0.207X_4\ 0.183X_5$

In this demand function openion on using mobile phone is dependent variable. Opinion found by giving a statement as "Usage of mobile phone is needed for university students" and ask respondents' idea about to this statement as: strongly agree, agree, neutal, disagree, strongly disagree and rank it using Likert Scale method. X_1(close commiunication),X_2(Monthlyincome),X_3(Taste/fashion),X_4 (other offered facilities), X_5(Monthly expenditure) are independent variables. According to "t' test, only monthly income (X_2) is in significant and other factors are not significant. But, overall model is significant (at.95%) according to the F value in Table 2.

Table 1, shows that the determinants of mobile phone among university students .The results reveal that monthly income is the most effective factor for university students' demand for mobile phone and facility of the phone is negatively affected to mobile phone. Therefore, hypothesis one is accepted and the second hypothesis is rejected.

b) Problems Faced by Mobile Phone Users

Some problems arise when using mobile phones such as problems due to unknown numbers, scarcity of signals, disturb to education, spend extra cost, bad affect to health, not protect secrecy of users

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etc. According to the research many of respondents are that means 38.8% of them faced scarcity of signals problem. It negatively affect to their mobile phone using activities. And also 30% of them most suffering problem is happen to bear extra expenditure. Many of university students' are still dependents and therefore this extra expenditure for mobile phone is big problem to them. 10% of them said that it is bad situation due to problems arise unknown numbers and persons. 8.8% and 7.5% of them agree to problems they faced due to mobile phone as bad affect to health and phone disturb to their education respectively. 2.5% of them agree about not protect secrecy and also 2.5% of some respondents response that they faced other problems than these problems.

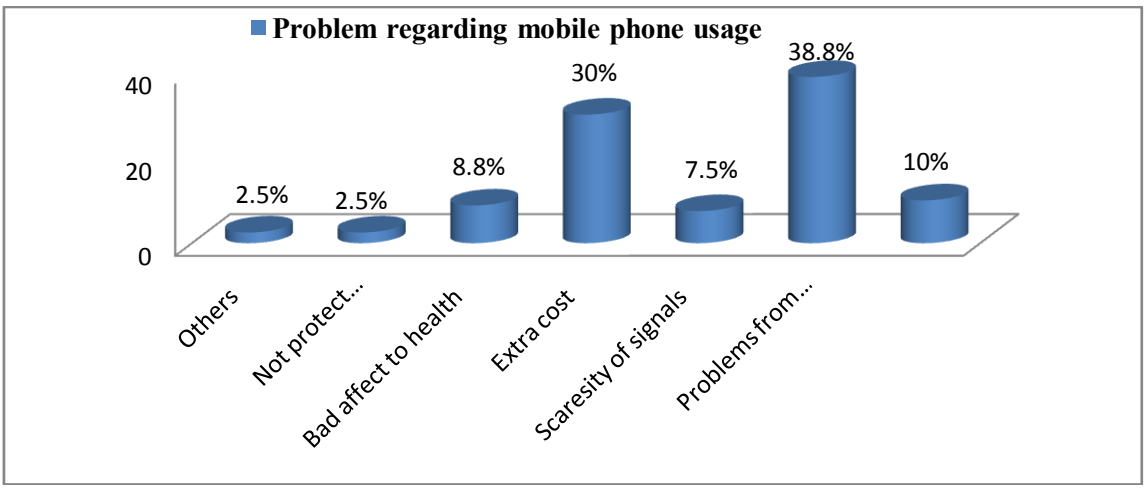

Figure No.1

Source : Field Survey, 2011

c) Usage of Mobile phone brand among the University students

The figure no.2 shows the usage of mobile phone brand names and its percentage according to study sample.

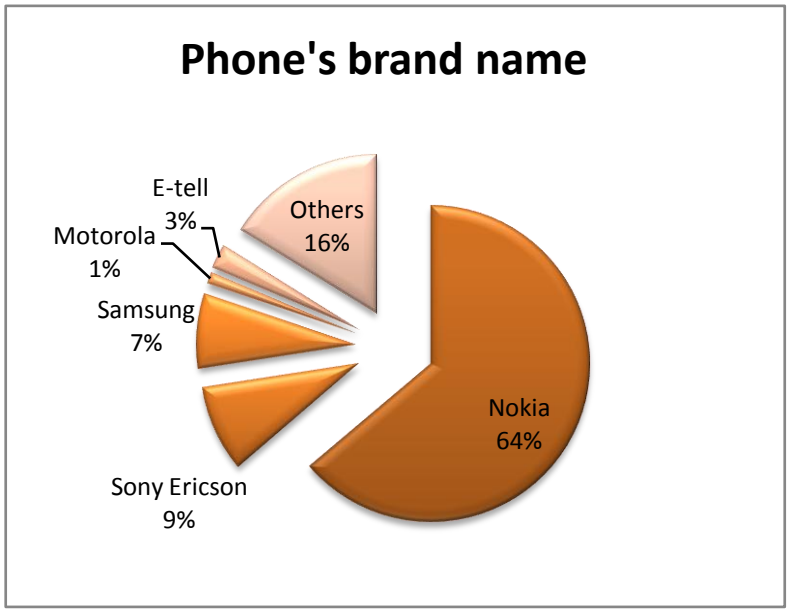

Figure No. 2 : Phone's brand name

Source : Field Survey, 2011

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The researcher use mainly five famous mobile phone brand and tried to find out students' usage through those brands. According to above pie chart, students' percentage of usage brand can clearly found. Relevant to those data, most of the students' are use Nokia brand phone and their using percentage is 63.8% of students use Sony Ericson brand phone and 7.5% students use Samsung phone. 2.5% and 1.2% of students use E-tell and Motorola brand phone respectively. Many of them use Nokia brand phone and also secondly 16.2% of them are used other brands than Samsung, Sony Ericson, Motorola and E-tell.

VIII. Conclusion

There are many studies on determinants of mobile phone demand among university students in the world. But, a few studies in Sri Lankan case. Therefore the researcher tried to fill this gap. The study examines the determinats of mobile phones demand among university students for the case of Sri Lanka.Results of the studty prove that there is a possitive and significant relationship between mobile phone demand and income levels among university students.

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Contributions of Urban Informal Enterprises to the Economy of Ibadan, Nigeria

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Abstract - Against the backdrop and inability of formal sector to providing adequate employment to job seekers, the paper seeks to examine the role of urban informal enterprises as an alternative to job provision in Ibadan cosmopolitan region. It employed use of structured questionnaire to analyse the perception of residents and operators to contribution of UIEs on urban economy. Using systematic sampling technique, a total number of three thousand, four hundred and forty four (3444) questionnaires were administered to the operators and residents around areas where informal enterprises are carried out. An interval of 2 was used to select operators of UIEs in shops sited on both sides of the streets and residential unit that falls within low medium and high residential quarters.

Keywords: *urban informal enterprises, economy, employment, environment.*

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Contributions of Urban Informal Enterprises to the Economy of Ibadan, Nigeria

Abolade Olajoke [α], Adeboyejo Thompson Aina [σ], Kehinde [ρ] & Olamiju Ogini [ω]

Abstract- Against the backdrop and inability of formal sector to providing adequate employment to job seekers, the paper seeks to examine the role of urban informal enterprises as an alternative to job provision in Ibadan cosmopolitan region. It employed use of structured questionnaire to analyse the perception of residents and operators to contribution of UIEs on urban economy. Using systematic sampling technique, a total number of three thousand, four hundred and forty four (3444) questionnaires were administered to the operators and residents around areas where informal enterprises are carried out. An interval of 2 was used to select operators of UIEs in shops sited on both sides of the streets and residential unit that falls within low medium and high residential quarters. The result of analysis among others reveals that a larger proportion of respondents agree it provides job for people. This recorded the highest RAI index of 4.34. It is equally perceived it increases income of operators most especially those that engage in it to sustain their livelihood. It also prevents youth from indulging in criminal activities (RAI 4.04). The government should formalize UIEs by institutionalizing it through proper registration, easy access to loans and other available financial assistance. This will serve as a tool to further solve the problem of unemployment in Nigeria since formal sector cannot absorb the larger share of the unemployed. This will consequently boost the economy of the nation, reduce poverty and consequently improve the standard of living of the populace.

Keywords: urban informal enterprises, economy, employment, environment.

I. Introduction and Background to the Study

In Africa and particularly in Nigeria, the level of unemployment has been on the increase as the year advances (UNDP 1993). This is because most of the third world countries including Nigeria have been incapacitated to employ workers due to Economic Meltdown and Recession of the 1980s, coupled with the austerity measures that accompanied International Monetary Fund, which undoubtedly led to reduction in public spending and in declining wages as well as high level of retrenchment in the formal sector and private establishments being experienced in the recent years World Employment Report 1998-1999, ILO JASPA 1991). The World Employment Report furthermore established that (1998-1999), the inadequate provision of jobs in the formal sector of the economy as well as the poor skills in the large part of the labour force has substantially spurred the growth of the informal sector among which most workers are in the low paid employment, under unregulated and poor working conditions. Therefore, increase in public sector retrenchment has continued to swell the ranks of the informal activities beyond the nation's absorptive capacity (Nwaka, 2005) hence there is resultant and unprecedented growth of informal enterprises in the past two decades in cities of developing countries and in Nigeria in particular (Okeke, 2000 Onyebueke 2000 and Liimatainen 1998).Besides, the problem of bad economy coupled with bad governance and political instability that has been on the startling rate in the last two decades, is a major underlying factor responsible for the expansion of the informal enterprises (Onyebuke, 2000).

Again, the capacity to generate employments in formal sector has continuously been weakened by several policies and programmes such as Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP), while others like Vocational Skills Development (VSD), Small Scale Enterprises (SSE), and Family Support Programmes (FSP) among others have promoted the proliferation of informal enterprises. This was equally acknowledged by ILO JASPA (1991) in a remark that workers, in informal enterprises are concentrated in the urban areas because the cut in government expenditure posit a great deal of repercussion in the urban employment situation. Sequel to this, majority of the retrenched urban work force switched over to informal enterprises in order to sustain their livelihood. Consequently, the wage of employment in many countries is reported to have fallen in absolute terms. For instance between 1986 -1990 Central African Republic recorded -33.6 %, Gambia (1979-1986) -27.5 % , Niger,(1980-1985),-13.4 % Cote de voire (1980-1983), -8.0% (UNDP 1993, ILO JASPA 1991).

The informal sector consists of very small scale economic activities. This accounts for substantial and increasing share of urban employment in most developing countries where a large majority of the urban poor depend on such activities for their livelihood. The sector has been playing a vital role economic development of nations particularly developing countries like Nigeria (Abolade, 2012 Ijaiya 2002 Sethuraman

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1997). It has also played a useful role in alleviating poverty through job creation for the ill educated and ill trained (Akerele 2000). The significance of this sector was further emphasized within the contest of the remark made by the former head of state of Nigeria , Ibrahim Babangida in 1991 at the height of Structural Adjustment Programme crises to the effect that the Nigeria economy has defiled all known economic prescriptions ,yet it has not collapsed the reason for the non collapse of the economy is not farfetched . it is the sustaining power and ability of the neglected informal enterprises. In view of this fact, any credible strategy germane towards economic development in this country must pay due attention to this sector (Sethuraman, 1997). It is essential to mention that the choice of this subject for research work is justified owing to its growing importance as a labour sponge In Nigeria, like and African countries, and coupled with the facts that it will indisputably contribute to body of knowledge. This is the major purview of this paper.

II. Literature Review

Studies in developing countries (Hart 1970, Freudy 1990, Cross 1994, Sethuraman 1997), have shown that informal labour force range from 20%-70% informal employment. This represents half to the three - quarters of non-agriculture employment. In many of these countries, the informal sector provides more employment opportunities than formal sector. In developing countries, particularly Nigeria, it has been discovered that one of the factors that has contributed to large number of informal sector is the failure of the formal sector to provide adequate jobs and income generating opportunities for the rapidly growing urban populations (UN-HABITAT, 2006). This assertion was equally maintained by Fideler and Webster (1996), and Obadan et al (1996) that urban informal enterprises is a major provider of employment and income to the unemployed. This was supported by (Onyechere 2011) that the proportion of urban informal sector employment is highest in Africa; this is followed by Asia, South East Asian. In South Asian cities, the work force in the work force is around 50-60% (Rukmana 2007 cited in Onyechere 2011) while in selected leading African countries, the contribution of urban informal in employment provision ranged from 95% in Republic of Benin,20% in Djibouti, 65% in Kumasi and Lagos 50% (ILO 1985). Again (ILO, 2002), reported that in sub-Saharan Africa, the informal sector accounts for about 78% of all non-agriculture employment. Similarly in Kenya, informal sectors were estimated to be about 5.5 million compared to about 1.7 million wage earners in formal establishments. The reason for this significant difference (i.e. between formal and informal employment) is because majority of skilled and educated people not employed in formal employment shift to informal activities to sustain their livelihood.

A survey of the informal manufacturing sector in Nigeria revealed that most of such enterprises appear profitable for their owners but generate little employment through firm growth. It was established further that they are very small and under-capitalized and have minimal transaction with larger formal sector companies (CBN/NISER/FOS 2003). However, studies (Onyechere 2011 Sethuraman 1997, Ijaiya 2004) have shown that a strong relationship exists between the informal and formal enterprises. These have been viewed in several ways. For instance, Ijaiya (2004) reported that the linkages among the informal sector operators in terms of supply of labour, technical services, finance, raw materials among others have helped to improve the quality of goods and services produced by the operators, thus making them to compete favorably with the formal sector. Similarly, interaction in this domain has contributed significantly to the economic development. Market links exist through the trade of goods, raw materials, tools and equipment and acquisitions of skills and know-how. Informal actor provides services to formal actors on a sub-contracting basis. In addition, individuals can participate both in the formal and the informal economies. Current debates have equally shown that urban informal economy played a significant role in stimulating the growth of the market economy, promoting a flexible labour market and absorbing retrenched labour from the formal sector. Others claim that informal labour has become a convenient means of pursuing the global agenda of privatization and liberalization On the other hand; Abumere (1995) remarked that many large scale enterprises from trading companies to manufacturing enterprises are engaged in sub-contracting to the formal sector. Ijaiya (2004) also noted that many of the goods sold by informal sector petty traders and street hawkers are from formal sector factories and whole sale enterprises.

There are three main schools of thought regarding the relationship between the formal and informal economies .First, the dualists posits that informal economy is a separate marginal economy not directly linked to the formal economy, providing income or a safety net for the poor (ILO 1972). The structuralists maintained that informal economy is subordinated to the formal economy. Thus to reduce costs, privileged capitalists seek to subordinate petty producers and traders (Castells and Portes 1989), while the legalists put forward that informal work arrangements are a rational response by micro-entrepreneurs to over-regulation by government bureaucracies (de Soto 1989). There is overwhelming evidence to suggest that urban poverty and informal employment are closely related (Sethuraman, 1997, Onyechere (2003 Ijaiya and Umar 2004). According to Cartaya (1994), 46.7% of the

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extremely poor in urban areas in 1987 were in the informal sector in contrast to 37% in the category of the poor while 28.9% are non-poor. Pollock, (1989) remarked that in urban Costa Rica in 1982, 75.8 % of the poorest among the poor were in the informal sector compared with 53 .5% of the not- so - poor and 31.7 % of the non-poor. Harris and Harris (1988) and Humphrey (1994) reported that there is a strong correlation between labour market status and poverty in India and Sao Paulo. They further established that people with stable job are less likely to be poor than people who have an unstable casual job. Furthermore, Weeks (1975) reported that earnings per worker are low in the informal sector. The indication of all these findings suggests that the poor have higher probability of being found in the informal sector.

Consequently, the incessant widespread of urban informal sector in developed and particularly developing nations has continued to play a significant role in poverty reduction. Onyechere (2003) remarked that the importance of informal enterprises lies in its contribution to national economy. According to UNCHS (Habitat, 2001), the informal sector has continued to provide opportunity to earn an income for millions of people in many developing world cities and towns. For instance Ijaiya, et al (2004) reiterated that informal activities are known to have contributed to job creation, apprenticeship training, income generation, asset accumulation, and the provision of credit facilities and social services. Again, World Employment Report (1998 – 1999), established that in Africa as a whole, informal employment accounts for over 60% of total urban employment. The report established further that informal sector is a major provider of urban jobs. Carr, et al (2002) also recognized the inevitability of informal sector activities and their poverty reduction potential. Fideler and Webster (1996) established that urban informal enterprises have been able to provide job for three categories of socio-economic groups. This includes survivalists, the self-employed and very small businesses. The survivalists comprise the very poor people who work on part time in informal enterprises, the self-employed are those who produce goods for sale and re-sell it or offer services while the very small business are those that operate from fixed location with regular hours.

III. Historical Background of Ibadan

Ibadan city is a traditional urban centre founded in 1820's. It is the largest indigenous urban centre in Africa south of the Sahara (Udo, 1994, Adeboyejo et al 2002).

The growth of Ibadan city started in 1893 when a trend of peace was signed by the British government and the residents. This incidence marked the beginning of the emergence of the city as a major commercial and administrative centre. The construction of railways in 1901 enhanced commercial activities which attracted the European and the Lebanese to establish firms and hence the establishment of modern business centers and the European reservation area. This development marked the beginning of large scale immigration of various ethnic groups like the Ibos, Ibibios, Edos Urohobo, Fulani, Hausas, Nupes, Ebiras into the city. All these contribute to the growth of Ibadan city.

According to Ayeni (1994), the growth of the city became more rapid in 1946 when it was made headquarter of the defunct western region of Nigeria. He remarked that the city became centre of attraction for more expatriates and Yoruba sub ethnic groups, which boosts the civil service and ever increasing range of opportunities in the city including informal activities. Consequently, the city began to witness remarkable growth even beyond the city walls.

Just like any other African towns, agricultural activities remained the vigor and major economic activities in Ibadan region until 1953. This is followed by fewer proportion (21%) who were engaged in trading and clerical work while 9% were engaged in administrative and professional engagements (Gbadegesin, 1991). With the birth of civilization and unprecedented growth in industrial activities coupled with rapid urbanization, the proportion of populace who engaged in agricultural practices began to reduce drastically. For instance, the Federal Office of Statistics cited in Gbadegesin, (1994) established that by 1963, the percentage involved in the various agricultural activities dropped to 20.5% while those engage in trading and clerical work increased to about 38.5%. Consequently the second half of the 20th century witnessed a disappearance of agricultural activities within the city. This was characterized with disappearance in farm lands and forest resources within the city during the 1960s.

The sitting of railway line connecting Lagos to Kano encouraged commercial and trading activities particularly agricultural produce (cotton, timber, rubber palm oil kolanuts among others) this promoted distributive trade. Again, as noted by Filani (1994) the passage of the railway through Ibadan made a significant effect of transforming the city into the most important collecting center for agricultural products from an extensive region to the west and east, north and south. This development gave birth to many industries among which are printing and publishing, food and beverages, sawmilling, rubber and plastic products. Some of these industries operated on a large scale thereby providing employment opportunity most especially to skilled labour. On the other hand some operated on a small scale since the number of the workforce is smaller compared to large scale industry. Most of these small scale industries employ less than ten person and majority of such are found in this

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category. According to Alokan et al (1994) most of these small scale industry that employ less than ten person is predominant in the study area and as a matter fact their Figure has continue to be on the increase. These comprises informal enterprises like craft industry, block industry, soap making industry, among others. As noted by Alokan et al (1994), this category of economic unit is often exempted in official inquiry and recorded because industries of this capacity are not properly registered with appropriate organization. Yet they have continued to proliferate the entire region and each of such contributes considerably to economic progress of the region.

IV. Material and Methods

Multistage method of sampling was employed for collection of primary information.

For questionnaire administration (i.e. operators and residents around the areas where informal enterprises are carried out) both stratified and systematic random sampling techniques were employed for the research. The existing spatial structure of Local Government Areas in the region was used.

The inventory of localities or communities in each of the local government areas was compiled from National Population Commission. The localities within each of LGAs were further stratified into three residential densities: high, medium, and low. These residential densities show variation in population density, socio–economic and environmental characteristics among other variables that describe the study area. This method of sampling is more appropriate and applicable for this particular study because it allows each unit of investigation equal chance of being chosen in a complete list or file of population (Blalock 1959, Singleton et al, 1989 and Afon, 2005).

Fifty percent (50%) of the localities in each LGA in Ibadan metropolitan region were selected while twelve and half percent (12.5%) of localities in other LGAs in the suburb were equally selected and adopted for the survey. The reason for this variation is consequent on the fact that more informal activities are concentrated in the metropolis or "Ibadan core" compared to suburban areas or 'Ibadan less city'. Again, it is justified because it is a good representation of the total localities in the metropolis and villages in the suburb. This selection further enhanced the objectivity of the questionnaire distribution within the selected areas.

For the purpose of this study, it is hypothesized that population size affects land use as well as distribution of informal enterprises (Cohen, 2004,) Also hypothesized is a linear relationship between traffic volume and concentration of informal enterprise hence transport system and informal enterprises are intricately connected (Adedibu and Jelili 2005). That landuse type and intensity affect concentration of urban informal enterprises (Ijaiya, 2004) and close link exist between proliferation of informal activities and urban economy. Consequent on these assumptions and for the purpose of the field survey especially within Ibadan metropolis, roads within localities where the traffic is concentrated, localities with highest population size, and residential quarters with highest intensity of land use were selected for the sample. While in the suburb, localities with major commercial center or market were selected for survey. This is based on the fact that not all localities have concentration of informal enterprises. It was also observed during the reconnaissance survey that some LGAs such as Egbeda, Ona Ara, Lagelu are predominantly agrarian communities.

To determine the sample size for survey, the population size of each local government for 2006 population census Figure were extracted from National Population Census (NPC) and adopted for sampling. Based on the variations in population size of the eleven LGAs and in view of the fact that population density in each residential density differs, 0.08% of the population size in each LGA was determined and employed. The, total number of three thousand, four hundred and forty four (3444) questionnaires representing one thousand, eight hundred and six (1806) questionnaires administered to the operators and one thousand, six hundred and thirty eight (1638) to residents around areas where informal enterprises are carried out were successfully completed and returned for analysis. For the categories of residents in residential densities selected, the questionnaire was distributed in ratio 3: 2: 1 for operators and residents in high, medium, and low residential densities respectively. This method is in line with the generally believed pattern of population distribution within residential areas.

Using systematic sampling technique, questionnaires were administered to operators of informal enterprises in shops sited on the both sides of the streets and residential units used for informal enterprises on both sides of the selected roads. In order to enhance the systematic distribution, the researcher adopted the use of constant distance (distance between two electric poles 50m) along different categories of roads selected as unit of measurement to capture the distribution pattern and variation of categories of urban informal enterprises within the selected areas. (This method was adapted from Adedibu and Jelili 2005). The second set of questionnaire was administered using the same sampling technique for residents in various residential densities with special attention to houses that are not used for informal enterprises but that are close to the vicinity where informal enterprises are practiced. Systematic sampling technique was adopted for the three categories of residential quarters and operators of informal activities on road axis. An interval of 2 was used to select operators and residential unit in each quarter. This is considered appropriate because it will enhance

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maximum coverage of operators in the categories of road selected. This was done by selecting the first operator randomly and/or one resident in the first building selected randomly and subsequent units at interval of 3rd, 5th and 7th as the case may be were chosen from the complete list of the population in Ibadan region.

To examine resident's perception on the effects of informal enterprises on the economy, this was measured through likhert scale range from Not agreed at all (1), Not Agreed (2), Somewhat Agreed (3), Agreed (4), Very much agreed (5). The questionnaires were subjected to descriptive and nonparametric analysis.

V. Result and Discussion

a) Employment in Urban Informal Enterprises

The profile of workers employed within categories of urban informal enterprises is presented in Table 1. As shown in the table, petty trading and commercial enterprises majorly (51.1%) manage the business on their own, while some operators employ services of members of the household (24.3%), some (20.4 %) still employ services of other workers combined with the services rendered by members of household and 12.3% of the petty traders employ workers alone to run the business for them. On the other hand, those in cottage industry employ basically services by household and other workers (30.5%) while few household members make use of services of household members only (19.7%), and yet still some (12.1%) employ the services of workers only to work for them.

Again, as indicated in the Table, 13.5% of those in tertiary services mostly employ services of members of their household and other workers for their operation while few depend only on household (8.5%) and workers (13.5%).However, majority operates the services on their own (49.5%). This observation is expected because according to the report given by one of the operators in Beere, young adult especially children of today are not willing to learn again, many have become Okada rider in order to make quick money. Result of chi square shows that with a p value of 0.00 a significant relationship exist between workers employed and categories of urban informal enterprises as shown in Table. The findings on the type of workers employed in provision of services to categories of urban informal enterprises is not surprising since most of the operations involved in the activities do not necessarily require skilled labour. The owner of the business can still manage independently provided the scale of business is relatively small.

Table 1 : Workers Employed Among Urban Informal Enterprises

Workers Employed	Urban Informal Enterprises			Total
	Petty/ Commercial	Cottage Industry	Tertiary Services	
Nobody	457	84	351	894
	51.4	9.5	39.5	
	42.0	37.7	19.4	49.5
Workers only	138	27	43	208
	66.3	13.0	20.7	
	12.3	12.1	8.5	11.5
Workers/Household	219	68	68	355
	61.7	19.2	19.2	
	20.4	30.5	13.5	19.7
Household only	262	44	43	349
	75.1	12.6	12.3	
	24.3	19.7	8.5	19.3
Total	1076	223	505	1806
	59.6	12.3	28.0	100

Source : Author's Field Survey (2010/2011)

b) Gender Profile of Employees

The evidences from literatures on the subject of discuss have vividly shown that informal enterprises provide alternative source of employment outside the government owned establishment. The extent to which the small enterprises generate employment is measured by number of people who otherwise would have been unemployed but find employment in informal enterprises. The results of analysis of both male and female workers are summarized in Table 2. The result of analysis showed that majority of male worker employed are dominated in commercial and petty trading (269 or 63.0%).This is followed by larger proportion employed by cottage industry (89 or 21.4%) and tertiary services (65 or 15.6%).

The range of workers employed showed a similar pattern for all the categories of urban informal enterprises. This range between 1-2.This is followed by

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those that employ 3-4 workers. Very few employ more than 5 workers while majority (77.0 %) did not respond to this question probably because they don't employ any worker but rather manage the business on their own.

Comparison on the number of female worker employed as shown in the table reveals similar pattern. Most female worker employed fall within the range of 1-2 followed by those who employed between 3-4 workers. A careful examination of number of female worker employed among commercial and petty trading, cottage industry and tertiary services also reveals similar pattern. Other range of workers employed is not significant. Generally, most operators prefer to employ female probably because female gender are more trustworthy, and accountable compared to their male counterpart.

Table 2 : Gender Profile of Workers Employed

Number of Workers Employed	Male	Female
Petty/Commercial		
1-2	182 (69.5)	269 (75.2)
3-4	51 (19.5)	74 (19.9)
5-6	27 (10.3)	18 (4.9)
7-8	2 (0.8)	10 (2.7)
Total	**269 (63.0)**	**371 (69.1)**
Cottage		
1-2	42 (47.2)	68 (80.0)
3-4	35 (39.3)	13 (15.3)
5-6	5 (5.6)	2 (2.4)
7-8	7 (7.9)	2 (2.4)
Total	**89 (21.4)**	**85 15.8)**
Tertiary		
1-2	39 (60.0)	64 (79.0)
3-4	39 (60.0)	13 (16.0)
5-6	22 (33.8)	4 (4.9)
7-8	2 (3.1)	0 (0.0)
9-10	2 (3.1)	
Total	**65 (15.6)**	**81 (15.1)**

Source : Author's Field Survey (2010/2011)

c) Gender Profile of Apprentice

Apprentice employed by informal entrepreneur of different categories of urban informal enterprises shown in Table 3 reveals that significant number of male apprentice are employed in cottage (90,15.9%) and tertiary service (213,37.6%) compared to female apprentice in cottage (72,14.6%) and tertiary services (106,21.5%). On the contrary more female apprentice (316, 64%) are employed in petty and commercial compared to number of male (264, 46.0%). This variation in number of apprentice employed is expected since more female are dominant in commercial and petty trading compared to male. Similarly, more male in cottage and tertiary services is equally expected because of the skill required in their operation.

Further analysis reveals that there is a significant relationship between numbers of female worker employed among categories of informal enterprises even though the number of male apprentice employed are more (567 against 416) when compared with male workers. This suggests that the operators employ the services of apprentice than workers probably because their services will attract lesser remuneration. This observation was also remarked by Omisakin (1999) that paid employee is generally a minor component of the labour force in small scale enterprises. He established further that apprentices play a dominant role in small scale enterprises. Further analysis, with chi-square as presented in Table 4, shows a significant variation between gender of workers and apprentice of different categories of urban informal enterprises.

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Table 3 : Gender Profile of Apprentice Employed

Number of Apprentice	Male	Female
	Petty/Commercial	
1-2	215 (81.4)	278 (88.0)
3-4	42 (15.9)	37 (11.7)
5-6	4 (1.5)	1 (0.2)
7-8	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)
9-10	2 (0.8)	
Total	264 (46.0)	316 (64.0)
	Cottage	
1-2	61 (61.8)	54 (75.0)
3-4	24 (26.7)	18 (25.0)
5-6	1 (1.1)	0 (0.0)
7-8	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
9-10	4 (4.4)	
Total	90 (15.9)	72 (14.6)
	Tertiary	
1-2	148 (69.5)	68 (64.2)
3-4	57 (26.8)	36 (34.0)
5-6	4 (1.9)	1 (0.9)
7-8	4 (1.9)	1 (0.9)
9-10	0 (0.0)	
Total	213 (37.6)	106 (21.5)

Source: Author's Field Survey (2010/2011)

d) Urban Informal Enterprises and Provision of Training Services

The sustenance and continuity of the various categories of urban informal enterprises is, to some extent, dependent on provision of training services for interested apprentices especially those in cottage industry and tertiary services. The result of analysis as illustrated in Figure 1 where out of the entire informal operators interviewed, a larger proportion (45.7%) offers training services while 25.4% did not. Further analysis reveals that a larger proportion of those in cottage industry (59.6%), tertiary services (63.0%) and petty trading (34.7%) offer training services. This may be applicable to those who operate on a larger scale like Cloth seller, patent medicine store, provisions and the likes. Those that indicated that they do not offer training services could be as a result of level of scale of their operation. Result of chi square analysis shows that with p value 0.000, there is a significant relationship between categories of urban informal activity and provision of training services (see Table 4). One of the major areas of urban informal enterprises is the fact that they provide avenue for youths to acquire skill through apprenticeship, and that, if given the necessary support such as easier access to loan, the sector will create important role in creating more employment opportunities for youths in the country.

Again, analysis was conducted to examine the duration of training for the categories of urban informal enterprises and it was revealed that out of those that responded, majority spend one year (15.2%) or two years (11.7%) and in some cases three years (9.1%).Those that spend more than two years probably did so as a result of inability to establish their own business after completion of their period of training and so remain with their trainer as apprentices or employees. Further verification on duration of training for each category of urban informal enterprises revealed the same pattern of distribution (i.e. for commercial /petty trading 12.6%, cottage industry (17.9%) and tertiary services (19.6%) for those who spend one year and the proportion of distribution decreases as the number of year increases.

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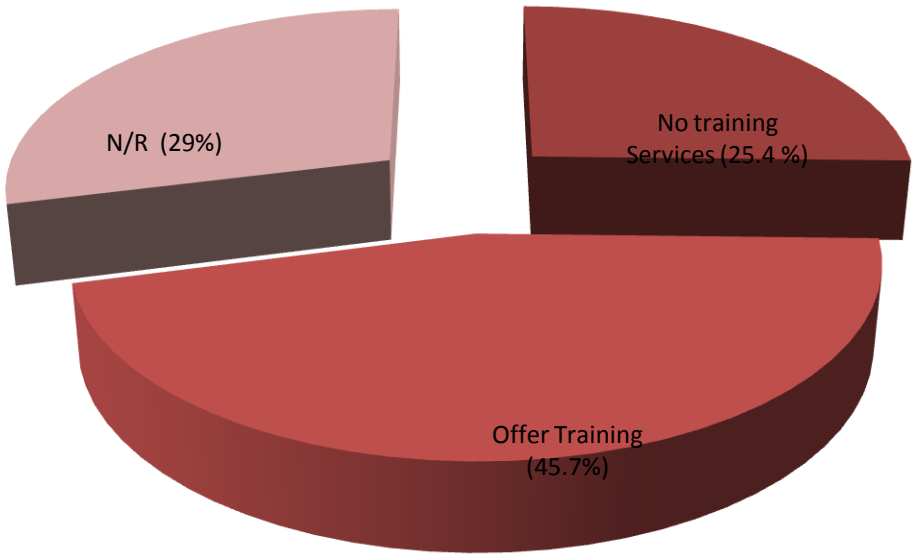

Figure 1: Response to Provision of Training Services

Table 4 : Summary of Chi Square Analysis on Operational Characteristics of UIEs

Workers Employed	Computed Value (X^2)	Degree of Freedom	P - Value	Remark
Offrg Traing/UIE	131	4	0.000	Significant
Workers Employed	132.726	4	0.000	Significant
Male Workers	34.238	6	0.000	Significant
Female Workers	132.726	8	0.000	Significant
Male Apprentice	27.004	8	0.001	Significant
Female Apprentice	34.026	6	0.000	Significant

Source : Author's Field Survey (2010/2011)

e) Urban Informal Enterprises and Urban Economy

Urban Informal Enterprises contribute significantly to the urban economy. This assertion was established by several authors (Menyah 2009, Onyechere 2011, Sethuraman 1999 among others) both in developed and developing country. The contribution of Urban Informal Enterprises was examined in the study area with the aid of likert rating scale. As shown in Table 5, it is revealed that with RAI of 4.34 larger proportions of urban informal enterprises provide job for people. It was also strongly perceived (4.32) by respondents that the location employed for operation of business especially around building premises makes daily goods and services readily available to residents instead of going to central markets for purchase. It was equally strongly perceived (RAI 4.29) that it increases the income of operators especially those that engage in the business economic impact with lower deviation about the mean with the aim to support livelihood. Other variables on include, it prevents youth from indulging in criminal activities RAI 4.04 and reduces transport cost (RAI 3.71). This is because most of the goods are readily available at neighborhood even though some people prefer to go to central market for shopping and to purchase in bulk. This may be economical when compared with prices and transport cost that will be incurred when the goods are purchased at neighbourhood shop. The variance recorded is 0.05796 while standard deviation and coefficient variation is 0.240748831 and 5.81% respectively.

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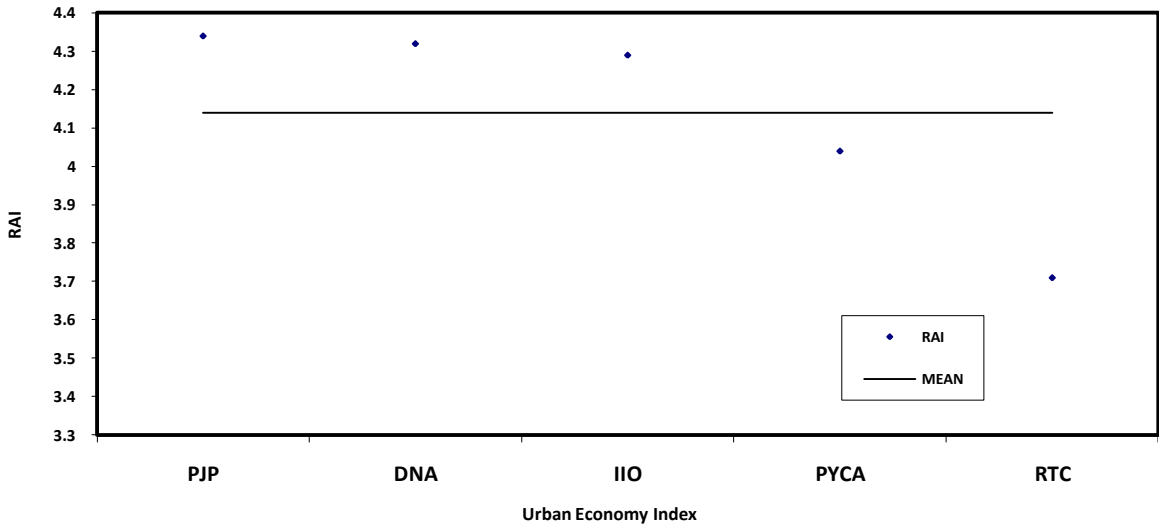
Table 5 : Impacts of Urban Informal Enterprises on Urban Economy

Economic Impact	VA 5	A 4	SA 3	NA 2	NAA 1	SWV	TOTAL	RAI	(X-X)	$(X-\bar{X})^2$
Provide job for people	748	734	118	26	6	7088	1632	4.34	0.2	0.04
Makes daily needs and goods readily available	715	744	158	16	1	7058	1634	4.32	0.18	0.0324
Increases income of operator	695	749	170	15	6	7017	1635	4.29	0.15	0.0225
Prevent youth from indulging in criminal activities	578	781	227	43	6	6599	1635	4.04	-0.1	0.01
Reduces Transport Cost	558	414	243	370	12	5927	1597	3.71	-0.43	0.1849

Source : Author's Field Survey (2010/2011)



PJP = Provide Job for People DNA = Daily Need Readily Available ILO = Increases income of Operators
PYCA = Prevent youth from indulging in Criminal Activities RTC = Reduces Transport Cost

Source : Author's Field Survey (2010/2011)

VI. Conclusion and Recommendation

The paper has established that urban informal enterprises contribute to the growth and urban economy through provision of job mostly to survivalist migrants and more importantly is the empirical evidences particularly on the estimation and contribution of the sectors to Ibadan city economy. It is therefore concluded that informal enterprises should be given adequate attention by government by incorporating it to the fabric of the city as formal institute and institutionalizing the sector will also serve as a tool to further solve the problem of unemployment in Nigeria most especially since formal sector cannot absorb the larger share of the unemployed. This will also boost the economy of the nation, reduce poverty and consequently improve the standard of living of the populace. In addition, formulation of policy and programmes that will promote its future developments should be given utmost priority by the government as well as its proper implementation. More importantly necessary attention should be given to it through proper registration, easy access to loans and other available financial assistance.

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Possibilities of Monitoring Unemployment in the NES by using Unemployment Dynamics Measures

By Olgica Bošković

Abstract - Employment and unemployment are important subjects that draw attention to participants in economic occurrences of all countries. Monitoring of their dynamics attracts particular attention of the public in transitional countries. Due to numerous particularities accompanying transition, labour market problems in Serbia will continue being the main concern of various economic analyses for a long time. Information on labour market movements is collected and published by the National Employment Service (NES) and the Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia (SORS). NES gathers and analyzes statistical data from the field of unemployment and employment. Statistical reports of the NES are one of the sources on which basis analysing and monitoring occurrences and tendencies/movements of unemployment and employment in the labour market, their interdependence and relation are performed. They also represent one of the bases for creation and guidance of the Active Employment Policy programme and improvement of unemployment reduction measures.

Keywords: labour market indicators, activity rate, employment rate, unemployment rate, par measures.

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Abstract- Employment and unemployment are important subjects that draw attention to participants in economic occurrences of all countries. Monitoring of their dynamics attracts particular attention of the public in transitional countries. Due to numerous particularities accompanying transition, labour market problems in Serbia will continue being the main concern of various economic analyses for a long time. Information on labour market movements is collected and published by the National Employment Service (NES) and the Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia (SORS).

NES gathers and analyzes statistical data from the field of unemployment and employment. Statistical reports of the NES are one of the sources on which basis analysing and monitoring occurrences and tendencies/movements of unemployment and employment in the labour market, their interdependence and relation are performed. They also represent one of the bases for creation and guidance of the Active Employment Policy programme and improvement of unemployment reduction measures. At the same time, SORS gathers data and publishes the "Labour Force Survey", which is a research that provides the most comprehensive view on labour force characteristics and labour market occurrences. SORS studies are conducted by applying methodological solutions that are adjusted to recommendations and standards of the International Labour Organization – ILO and requirements of EUROSTAT (European Statistical Office), thus providing the most important source for international comparison of labour statistics data of the Republic of Serbia with other countries. Non-compliance of authority of those involved in gathering, analysing and publishing data from the labour market, as well as the scope, type and dynamics of research, points out to the need to apply a unified system solution at national level.

Analyses made by NES and SORS cover a wide range of labour market indicators (activity rate, employment rate, unemployment rate, average unemployment duration by socio-economic features and effects of active employment policy measures, participation of long-term unemployed, etc.) needed for implementation of EU Guidelines on Employment and showing state of the labour market in the period observed. These indicators, however, do not provide more precise answers to the questions related to structural changes on the labour market. Answers to such questions can be obtained by measuring unemployment dynamics, using, above all, PAR measures (population at risk unemployment rates).

This paper supports the idea to expand the scope of labour market dynamics indicators, since PAR measures have been followed up and analyzed in other countries' employment services for quite some time.

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Keywords: labour market indicators, activity rate, employment rate, unemployment rate, par measures.

I. Introduction

The last two decades led to great changes in the political circumstances in Europe, which resulted in creation of new economic terms in the countries involved in the process of transition. Unfortunately, the term transition is now being often used with negative connotations and related to the burden of unemployment as the biggest consequence of adjusting to new market conditions. The major part of Central and Eastern Europe countries has faced similar problems while going through transition from socialism to market economy and has experienced similar situations on the labour market.

At the beginning of the transitional process the private sector reacted slowly to newly arisen changes and it was likewise slow in creating new jobs. The labour force, therefore, changed its direction towards services with low level of productivity and agriculture for its own needs, which, together with accumulation of labour force within enterprises, acted like a shock-absorber to emerged shocks.

Other common characteristics of labour market performances in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe include: a) increase of unemployment which exceeds the rate of EU and OECD countries to a large extent; b) high percentage of long-term unemployment and constant increase of the average period of unemployment; c) high level of youth unemployment often combined with a lower level of youth participation; d) high unemployment rate of workers with secondary education degree or with lower level of education; and e) problem of great regional disparity in unemployment within each country.

Unemployment is one of the main features of the modern labour market, especially in the countries in transition. According to ILO definition, unemployment covers all persons older than the age limit determined to measure economically active population, which, during the reference period, were: a) without a job; b) available to work in any time; and c) searching for a job, i.e. undertaking certain steps with the aim to find a job.

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Unemployment is similarly defined in our country. Unemployed is a person between 15 and 65 years of age, capable and willing to start working immediately, who did not enter into employment or otherwise exercised his/her right to work and is entered into unemployment register and is actively seeking a job. Active job seeking means that the person: a) contacts NES within deadlines stipulated by the law, for the purpose of obtaining information on possibilities and terms of employment and mediation in employment; b) does not refuse offered jobs or additional education and training; c) responds to announced vacancy; and d) seeks employment through NES or Employment Agency or contacts employer directly for the job. Unemployed person is not a pupil, student, retired person, farmer engaged in agriculture, or a person with employment rights suspending (Law on Employment and Unemployment Insurance, the Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, no. 71/03 and no.84/04).

One of the priority tasks of the European economy is to fight unemployment and encourage economic growth of the EU in order to create possibilities for new jobs. This European strategic goal was established in the Lisbon Conference in 2000. In accordance with strategic orientation of our country towards EU integration, the Government of the Republic of Serbia adopted the National Employment Strategy for the period 2005-2010. based on the European Employment Strategy. The National Employment Strategy defines the need to increase employment, invest in human capital, reduce differences between regional labour markets, support gender equality and fight against discrimination in employment.

Measures and activities for implementation of the National Employment Strategy are set forth in the National Employment Action Plan (NEAP) for 2006-2008. Together with other strategic papers adopted by the Government, the NEAP forms part of a broader complementary strategy and action plan where the employment area is observed in the context of sustainable economic growth and development. NEAP helps in creation of conditions for a balanced approach to all issues related to labour market operation and giving priority to those most important in this domain. In this period the following activities are singled out as priorities: creation of a flexible and competitive labour market, creation of efficient programmes for employment of redundant workers, development of programmes for employment of vulnerable and sensitive groups, establishment of regional local employment councils and continuation of NES reform.

II. Unemployment Data Sources

Serbia has a relatively high unemployment, which appears in two basic forms: a) real unemployment represented by the number of job seekers registered with NES; and b) hidden unemployment, i.e. redundancy. Problem of analysing unemployment has several layers and covers different aspect of the analysis: a) collecting standard labour statistic data open to public; b) analysis of micro-data from detailed internal work reports aimed at measuring non-standard and marginal forms of unemployment; c) defining alternative forms of employment and unemployment.

Two data sources are used to observe real unemployment: a) NES, which registers unemployed people as job seekers and b) Labour Force Survey (LFS) conducted once a year by the Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia (SORS). Both sources have their advantages and limitations.

NES keeps record on persons seeking a job by their unique personal identification number, in accordance with the Law on Record Keeping in the Field of Labour (Official Gazette of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, no. 46/96) and the Decision on unique methodological principles for record keeping in the field of labour and registration and report forms (Official Gazette of the FRY, no.40/97). Persons are personally registered by the place of residence or place of employment termination if having residence in that place.

Unemployed persons are not legally bound to contact NES for registration in case of their unemployment. If, however, persons are registered as unemployed, they are bound to contact this service personally within deadlines set forth by the law. Should they fail to perform their obligations towards NES they are deleted from the register (e.g. a person does not contact or does not answer the call from NES within time period set by the law, fails to submit evidence on active job seeking, etc.). Persons deleted from the register are entitled to reregistration upon termination of registration suspension (at least three months from the date of record keeping seizure).

When being reentered into the register, the time of waiting for employment is counted from the date of last entering. NES keeps records on the unemployed by their age, sex, level and type of educational qualification, occupation, work experience, place of residence, economic status, period of unemployment, working capability and reason for termination of employment, thus having available a big data base.

Advantages of this source are: simplicity, low costs of data collection and data availability. Limitations are that this service registers only the unemployed, but not the total labour force. Furthermore, some persons register not to seek a job but to achieve certain benefits (e.g. financial compensation, free of charge training), while others who meet all unemployment criteria are not registered with NES because they look for a job independently. Due to different regulations in certain countries this data often cannot be mutually compared,

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neither can data in one country from different periods due to regulation changes.

Labour Force Survey gathers data on unemployment at national level in accordance with ILO standards. The main advantage of this method is that data is gathered pursuant to the international standards, so it can be mutually compared. However, comparability is not always possible and complete due to different elements used in surveys and different setting out of criteria for job search activity. Main drawbacks of this way of data collection are technical, methodological and statistical problems of samples, reliability of respondents' response, difficulties in interpreting changes in the unemployment rate, etc. Besides, the procedure incurs large expenses, and data is available only in the moment of review.

Different sources of data on unemployment are used in different countries. Some countries pay more attention to data from the Labour Force Survey (Australia, Italy, Japan, Canada, Portugal, USA, Great Britain), others use only information from registers (Island, Luxemburg, Switzerland), while a great number of them uses data from both sources at the same time (Austria, Belgium, Ireland, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Netherlands, Germany, Spain, Turkey). Beside data from the register France also uses assessments, while Great Britain also uses unemployed compensation register.

Data from both sources are used in our country. The problem is that data on unemployment from these two sources are substantially different. These differences are particularly marked because of unstable conditions of the labour market and different determination of certain categories. For instance, the rate of registered unemployment for 2006. is much higher according to NES data (28.05%) than in LFS (21.6%) because of different definitions of employment and unemployment. Those with undeclared work are considered employed persons in LFS, while NES also enters into register those who register only to exercise certain rights.

These differences in data show, among other, the need to examine the register of job seekers with NES. Register needs particular analysis in terms of unemployment period of the unemployed and his/her interest in employment and professional training, especially of those unemployed who are registered with NES for more than two years. For instance, data show that adoption of the new Law on Health Insurance (Official Gazette of the RS, no. 107/05) and the Law on Health Protection (Official Gazette of the RS, no. 107/05), which envisage a new way of regulation documentation on health insurance, resulted in a decrease of the number of registered unemployed in Belgrade (from 140,283 registered at the end of January to 129,911 registered at the end of April 2007.). Regular registration of employment of seasonal workers and their deletion from the register during their employment also needs to be provided. In that case the number of unemployed should decrease in the period from May to October, as it is the case in other countries.

Gathering data on labour market and its analysis are aimed at increasing competitiveness and employability of the labour force, because modern economic conditions require constant development of the labour force that should enable dynamic and sustainable development of economy based on knowledge and research integration, entrepreneurship and life-long education and learning. Constant changes in the way of work and adoption of new technologies have affected labour market requirements for the workers to adopt new knowledge and skills, and to develop capabilities to adjust to constantly changing environment. These changes related to labour force's knowledge and skills impose the need for simultaneous change of work methodology in selection of candidates for announced jobs. Entry of unemployed persons into long-term unemployment would have great impact on the possibility of their reemployment, because instead of a selection by social or formal criteria what now is more and more required is the selection of workers by their knwoledge and skills needed for successful performance of tasks and activities, including also development of transferrable skills like team work, communication, problem solving, etc.

III. Unemployment Features in Serbia

Transition flow has so far been characterised by a constant increase of unemployment as a result of dismissing labour from social enterprises that went through the process of restructuring and privatisation. The basic characteristics of the labour market in Serbia are: a) low participation rate of young people (15-24 years of age) of 37.4%, in comparison to EU and OSCE member countries (around 50%); b) participation rate of elder (55-64 years of age) of 36.1%, which exceeds the participation rate of the same category of population in other countries in transition (around 30%); c) youth unemployment rate (15-24 years of age) is much higher than the total unemployment rate and amounts to 47.8%. According to LFS (Table 1) unemployment of people of 15-64 years of age amounted to 21.6% in October 2006. The structure of unemployed in 2006. was dominated by long-term unemployed and young people. The total unemployment is dominated by participation of persons of 15-24 years of age (24.4%), with a positive tendency to decrease participation of persons of 25-29 years of age from 17.9% in 2005. to 14.6% in 2006.

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Table 1 : Structure of unemployed by age

	Unemployed			Participation in unemployment		
	2004	2005	2006	2004	2005	2006
15-24	169,246	165,668	169,139	25.5%	23.0%	24.4%
25-54	459,192	514,878	488,450	69.2%	71.6%	70.6%
55-64	35,563	38,227	30,040	5.4%	5.3%	4.3%
Total	664,001	718,773	691,877			

Source : Ministry of Finance (March 2007.), Public finances bulletin, Republic of Serbia,data from SORS (LFS, according to ILO methodology principles)

Employment rate of women in Serbia is 18.6% lower than the same rate of men and amounted to 40.6% in 2006. At the same time, unemployment rate of women is 6.9% higher than the same rate of men in 2006. (Table 2).

Table 2 : Labour market indicators, population of 15-64 years of age

	2004			2005			2006		
	T	M	W	T	M	W	T	M	W
Participation rate	66.4	75.1	57.9	65.2	74.3	56.2	63.6	72.7	54.5
Employment rate	53.4	63.1	44.0	51.0	61.2	40.8	49.9	59.2	40.6
Unemployment rate	19.5	15.9	24.1	21.8	17.6	27.4	21.6	18.6	25.5
Long-term unemployment	77.5	75.7	79.0	79.0	78.4	79.6	80.6	76.7	84.3

Source : Ministry of Finance (March 2007.), Public finances bulletin, Republic of Serbia (data from SORS), abbreviations: T-total, M-men, W-women

Employment rate in 2006. was reduced for 1.1% in comparison to 2005., amounting to 49.9%. This labour market indicator is still unfavourable because it is much lower than the Lisbon standard of 70%. Labour force market in Serbia is characterised by a high participation of long-term unemployment which in 2006. reached 80.6% of the total number of unemployed. But taking into account main components of the hidden employment (on the basis of registered number of employed in construction, research on grey economy, LFS of unemployed in rural areas, etc.) it is estimated that the real unemployment indicator in Serbia is the rate of 14.3%.

Labour force supply is high in Serbia. According to NES data, 898,021 unemployed was registered in Serbia at the end of April 2007. In comparison to the previous month, the unemployment was reduced for 1.6%. Rate of the officially registered unemployment in April amounted to 27.9%. Compared to the demand structure, qualification structure of the unemployed is unfavourable. One third is formed of nonqualified workers. The highest number is of persons with secondary school degree (53.4%), of which 27% has the third grade of education and 26.4% the forth grade of education. Unemployed with higher education form 3.7% of the total number, and those with high education 3.6%.

Participation of people older than 30 in the structure of the unemployed has been increasing over the last years. Participation of people up to 30 years of age in the total number is in decrease and amounts to 29.5%. The most numerous categories are of 31-40 years of age (24.9%) and 50 and more years of age (22.7%). Also, the structure of unemployed is characterised by a high participation of women (53.7%) and persons waiting for employment for more than two years (55.7%).

The situation is even less favourable if the data is compared to EU countries. According to LFS data (October 2006.) the unemployment rate in Serbia was 21.6%, which far exceeds the average in developed countries (approx. 8%). The unemployment rate of men amounted to 17.9% and of women 24.7%. The unemployment rate of young people (15 to 24 years of age) was 47.8%, which is three times as high as in the EU countries (18.5%). According to data from 2006., the average period of waiting for employment is 44 months, while in the EU countries around 80% of registered unemployed find job within 6 months. Particularly big problem of the labour market in Serbia is the existence of long-term unemployment (Table 3).

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Table 3 : Unemployed by gender and period of waiting for employment, April 2007

Gender	Number	Period of waiting for employment		
		Participation of unemployed up to 1 year	Participation of unemployed for 1-2 years	Participation of unemployed for 2 and more years
women	481,892	20.54	20.16	59.30
men	416,129	26.08	22.43	51.49
Total	**898,021**	**23.11**	**21.21**	**55.68**

Source : Work material of NES, 2007

Although in our country all persons who wait for a job for more than two years are placed in the category of long-term unemployment, the situation of a person waiting for a job for about a year is considered alarming in the European Union countries. This is why the facts about 21.21% unemployed for one to two years, and about 55.68% of unemployed for more than two years are also alarming.

IV. Long-Term Unemployment

Restructuring of the economy and the public sector, and reduction of production and labour costs resulted in increased unemployment which is considered today to be one of the main problems of the labour market in Serbia. Participation of long-term unemployed in the total unemployment has been decreasing since 2000, but it still remains a big problem that mostly affects women, middle-aged and those with the lowest education degree. Entry into long-term unemployment causes a series of additional problems for the unemployed because of the possibility of their social exclusion that results in: loss of motivation and knowledge, inactivity of the unemployed, less possibilities of their employment and increased burden on the social funds. At the same time, reintegration of the long-term unemployed into the labour market is a very complex task primarily because of outdating of knowledge and skills, as well as loss of work habits due to being away from work. Structure of persons waiting for employment for two or more years is not favourable (Table 4).

Table 4 : Unemployment by line of work and period of waiting for employment

Line of work	No. of unemployed	Period of waiting for employment		
		Participation of unemployed up to 1 year	Participation of unemployed for 1-2 years	Participation of unemployed for 2 and more years
Agriculture, food production and processing	49,430	26.36	21.65	51.99
Forestry and wood processing	11,107	25.69	21.54	52.77
Geology, mining and metal industry	5,311	27.96	21.62	50.42
Machine engineering and metal processing	120,922	25.34	21.91	52.75
Electrical engineering	39,749	29.68	23.78	46.54
Chemistry, nonmetals and graphic art	27,333	23.93	19.83	56.24
Textile and leather industry	57,142	18.88	18.32	62.79
Utility, upholstering and painting services	5,136	24.01	20.95	55.04
Geodesy and construction	17,215	25.40	22.88	51.72
Transport	22,433	27.86	23.56	48.58
Trade, catering and tourism	82,848	24.04	21.19	54.77
Economics, law and administration	74,450	24.68	23.26	52.06

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Education	12,177	30.63	25.26	44.11
Social-humanist area	6,330	29.37	23.51	47.12
Natural-mathematic area	10,084	24.99	21.25	53.76
Culture, art and media	8,500	21.15	21.38	57.47
Health care, pharmacy and social welfare	20,291	28.13	29.56	42.30
Physical education and sport	503	39.17	23.46	37.38
Other (not allocated)	327,060	19.70	19.75	60.56
Total	**898,021**	**23.11**	**21.21**	**55.68**

Source : Work material of NES, 2007.

The biggest participation is of women (around 59%), nonqualified persons (with I and II educational degree) and persons with occupations that belong to the following lines of work: textile and leather industry, culture, art and media, chemistry, nonmetals and graphic art, utility, upholstering and painting services.

Long-term unemployment is marked above average with persons and groups with a higher risk of entering into social exclusion, such as persons without qualification, adults older than 50, persons with problems in social adaptation, certain ethnic groups (Roma in particular). Out of the total number of unemployed in April 2007, 55.68% waits for employment for more than two years (long-term unemployment), of which around 59% are women. The greatest number of unemployed can be found among nonqualified workers (Table 5).

Table 5 : Unemployment by education degree and period of waiting for employment, April 2007

Education degree	Number of unemployed	Period of waiting for employment		
		Participation of unemployed up to 1 year	Participation of unemployed up to 1 year	Participation of unemployed up to 1 year
I degree	291,969	19.42	19.49	61.09
II degree	49,610	19.85	18.42	61.73
III degree	242,699	24.69	21.36	53.95
IV degree	237,358	23.98	22.20	53.82
V degree	10,897	26.39	22.87	50.74
VI degree	32,966	28.55	25.33	46.12
VII1 degree	31,781	36.59	27.78	35.63
VII2 degree	692	29.91	33.53	36.56
VIII degree	49	36.73	26.53	36.73
I+II degree	**341,579**	**19.48**	**19.33**	**61.19**
III+VIII degree	**556,442**	**25.33**	**22.36**	**52.30**
Total	**898,021**	**23.11**	**21.21**	**55.68**

Source : Work material of NES, 2007.

Data given in Tables 3-5 show only a cross-section of the labour market by individual segments in one moment of time. However, each analysis of the labour market also requires a dynamic analysis of data on unemployment which can be obtained by using different transitional forms that monitor transfer of unemployed persons from one period to another and calculate probabilities of persons' transfer from one activity status to another. Similar analyses are also applied in processing data from LFS, where the panel aspect of LFS is used in longitudinal or dynamic analysis (Table 6).

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Table 6 : Probability of transition from unemployment

	2005		
2004	Employed	Out of labour force	Unemployed
Unemployed - total	27.6	19.7	52.6
Men	36.1	15.3	48.6
Women	20.5	23.4	56.1
Groups by level of education			
Less than primary school	28.3	23.9	47.8
Primary school	25.7	24.1	50.2
Vocational school	29.8	16.8	53.4
General secondary school	26.2	20.0	53.7
University or higher education	29.7	17.1	53.1
Age categories			
15-24	27.9	21.6	50.5
25-54	28.3	17.5	54.2
55-64	15.9	49.3	42.9

Source : World Bank, Serbia – labour market assessment, 2006.

Based on thus conducted analyses it has been established that women and older workers have the least probability to avoid unemployment and find a job. Besides, the lowest probability is that women and older workers will find employment in the period between the first and the second year, while, in comparison to men and younger workers, it is more probable for these groups to become unemployed.

Long-term unemployment appears because of an insufficient absorption ability of the growing private sector. At the same time, high initial unemployment Serbia entered with in the process of transition slows down the process of restructuring and privatisation due to workers' resistance. The Law clearly defines who is considered unemployed, but the real picture of unemployment and its dynamics is hard to obtain, not only because of the previously mentioned way of record keeping where in reentering into register the period of waiting for employment is counted as of the date of the last entry, but also because of the way of reporting - different methodologies and forms of reporting – published by NES and SORS.

V. Long-Term Unemployment Measures

Unemployment in different territories and in different periods of time is usually compared by using unemployment rate (proportion of the unemployed in the total number of active population). Measuring unemployment duration by using classical unemployment rates leads to the inevitable problem – insensitivity to changes in unemployment duration. Comparing unemployment in different areas, in different periods of time, as well as by different categories of unemployed persons (by gender, age, education, period of waiting for a job, etc.) means that similar groups of people are compared with similar groups.

However, using classical unemployment rate to analyse specific categories of the unemployed by how long they wait for a job becomes senseless because of several reasons: a) using the measure of long-term unemployment as a percentage of all unemployment (LAPU) makes the problem of long-term unemployment blur, because the denominator – total number of unemployed – also includes those who became

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unemployed in recent past, e.g. during last couple of months; b) it provides false information on the long-term unemployment, because when the total unemployment increases due to changes in socio-economic environment so does the number of short-term unemployed, thus making participation of long-term unemployed decrease although the real situation of the long-term unemployed has not improved at all; moreover, if unemployment reduces then it is the result of employing those persons who have finished their education or lost their job recently and not of the fact that long-term unemployed finally found a job.

Unemployment observed by groups of unemployed, which are grouped by the duration of the period the unemployed spend on the labour market, can be observed as a set of transitional matrices (matrix of changes) . Transitional matrices of unemployment are simpler than transitional matrices for the majority of variables related to the dynamics of the population, because there is no component of population migration. These matrices are also characterised by having only one entry point (when a person becomes unemployed and registers with NES) and only one exit point (when a person stops being registered with NES due to deletion from the register or to employment).

Impossibility to include unemployment duration in the calculation of the classical unemployment rate limits its use. Instead of LAPU measures, PAR measures (PAR-Population at risk) can be used. They monitor the number of unemployed from the previous observation period that still remain unemployed. PAR unemployment rates show the proportion of those persons who became unemployed in the previous observation period and are still unemployed. PAR exit unemployment rates show the proportion of those persons who were unemployed in the previous period but found a job during the observation period.

Application of PAR measures is simple if ways of collecting data and length of the period for data collection are standardised. Their application has several advantages in relation to the classic unemployment measure: a) when calculating certain unemployment rate the duration of unemployment is taken into account, b) mutual dependence of numerator and denominator is thus avoided, c) they can be broadly applied and have the possibility to data comparison.

These advantages of PAR measures in comparison to the classical measures enable their comparability through time, between different observation areas and for different categories of the unemployed (by gender, age, etc.). When making reports on unemployment movement as it is shown in the Table 7, it is possible to calculate unemployment rates of population at risk (PAR measures) which shows the relation between the labour force and unemployment.

Table 7 : Labour market inflow and outflow

State of the labour market	Entry to the labour market	State of the labour market							
		Duration of the period the unemployed person spends on the market							
		0-3	3-6	6-9	9-12	12-15	15-18	18-21	21-24
t_1	y_t_1	$y_t_{1(0-3)}$							
t_2	y_t_2	$y_t_{2(0-3)}$	$y_t_{1(3-6)}$						
t_3	y_t_3	$y_t_{3(0-3)}$	$y_t_{2(3-6)}$	$y_t_{1(6-9)}$					
t_4	y_t_4	$y_t_{4(0-3)}$	$y_t_{3(3-6)}$	$y_t_{2(6-9)}$	$y_t_{1(9-12)}$				
t_5	y_t_5	$y_t_{5(0-3)}$	$y_t_{4(3-6)}$	$y_t_{3(6-9)}$	$y_t_{2(9-12)}$	$y_t_{1(12-15)}$			
t_6	y_t_6	$y_t_{6(0-3)}$	$y_t_{5(3-6)}$	$y_t_{4(6-9)}$	$y_t_{3(9-12)}$	$y_t_{2(12-15)}$	$y_t_{1(15-18)}$		
t_7	y_t_7	$y_t_{7(0-3)}$	$y_t_{6(3-6)}$	$y_t_{5(6-9)}$	$y_t_{4(9-12)}$	$y_t_{3(12-15)}$	$y_t_{2(15-18)}$	$y_t_{1(18-21)}$	
t_8	y_t_8	$y_t_{8(0-3)}$	$y_t_{7(3-6)}$	$y_t_{6(6-9)}$	$y_t_{5(9-12)}$	$y_t_{4(12-15)}$	$y_t_{3(15-18)}$	$y_t_{2(18-21)}$	$y_t_{1(21-24)}$

The state of the labour market can be monitored through time in the periods t1, t2,...tn which refer to monthly, quarterly, half-year averages of the labour market state, depending on technical possibilities of

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information bases of the service engaged in monitoring state of the labour market. If y_t1 is the entry of the unemployed persons into the labour market (newly registered) in the period t1, and y_t1(0-3) is the number of unemployed who have not found a job and were not deleted from the register during the following calculation period (in this case, three months), then the category of persons y_t1(21-24) is the number of persons who entered into the labour market in the period t1 and have not exited the register even after 24 months (by finding a job or by deletion from NES register due to one of the reasons for record keeping seizure established by the law) and who are now transferred to a special category of unemployed – hardly employable persons.If during the following three months (0-3) some registered unemployed from the period t1, find a job or are deleted from the register for other reasons (so called labour market outflow), then their number will be market with yl(0-3), and the number of remaining unemployed at the end of the third month will be:

$$y_t_{1(0-3)} = y_t_1 - y_{l(0-3)} \quad (1)$$

at the end of the period of (3-6) months:

$$y_t_{1(3-6)} = y_t_{1(0-3)} - y_{l(3-6)} \quad (2)$$

This calculation procedure is repeated until the last period observed (21-24), when y_t1(21-24) will remain from the group of unemployed who entered the labour market in the period t1:

$$y_t_{1(21-24)} = y_t_{1(18-21)} - y_{l(21-24)} \quad (3)$$

and in the following reporting period they will be transferred to the category of the unemployed who wait for a job for more than two years.

Obtained data is the absolute indicator of movements of unemployed people on the labour market by the reporting period of three months. Based on collected data presented as in the Table 7, we can also calculate relative indicators, so called unemployment rates of population at risk. They are obtained as the relation between the number of unemployed in one time interval who remain unemployed, and the number of unemployed from the previous period. For instance, after three months the rate of population at risk that belongs to the first calculation period t1, after three months, i.e. for the period (0-3), is:

$$p_t_{1(0-3)} = \frac{y_t_{1(0-3)}}{y_t_1} \quad (4)$$

rate of population at risk that belongs to the second calculation period t1, i.e. for the period (3-6), is:

$$p_t_{1(3-6)} = \frac{y_t_{1(3-6)}}{y_t_{1(0-3)}} \text{ , etc.} \quad (5)$$

At the same time, rates of exit unemployment of the population at risk can also be calculated. This labour market indicator shows participation of the unemployed who lose their unemployment status within the period of the group they belong to. So, the rate of exit unemployment for the unemployed persons from the period t1 in the calculation period (0-3) is:

$$p_t_{l(0-3)} = 1 - p_t_{1(0-3)} \quad (6)$$

in the period (3-6) is

$$p_t_{l(3-6)} = 1 - p_t_{1(3-6)} \text{ , etc.} \quad (7)$$

These are only some of the possible indicators that can be included in the existing system of the labour market movement indicators that can be monitored within the existing NES database without increasing costs and changing the information system itself. Their usage would result in the increase of analytical possibilities of the NES. Along with reports published in the Monthly Statistical Bulletin, work materials are also produced for NES purpose, in the form of monthly reports on unemployed inflow and outflow indicators and register state indicators, by the duration of persons' registration with NES, as well as indicators of their changes in relation to the previous reporting period, by all organisational units. Example of such a work report is given in the Table 8, and such form of reporting has been conducted in the NES since July 2006. If continuous collection of this data would be enabled for a longer period, it would be possible the very next year to establish a system of PAR measures calculations that would enable a more detailed analysis of dynamic changes on the labour market.

Table 8 : State and dynamics of the unemployed in the department Stari Grad – Beograd, February 2007

INDICATOR 1 NES register inflow (period of waiting)				INDICATOR 3-1 Increase / decrease of the inflow (period of waiting) in relation to January 2007.			
Newly registered	6 to 12 months	12 to 24 months	More than 24 months	Newly registered	6 to 12 months	12 to 24 months	More than 24 months
945	945	539	536	71.81	57.4	88.3	88.11
INDICATOR 2 NES register outflow				INDICATOR 3-2 Increase / decrease of the outflow in relation to January 2007.			
Up to 6	6 to 12	12 to 24	More than	Up to 6	6 to 12	12 to 24	More than

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months	months	months	24 months	months	months	months	24 months
590	590	265	341	103.69	106.43	112.91	109.76
INDICATOR 3 State in NES register				INDICATOR 3-1 Change of state in NES register in relation to January 2007.			
Up to 6 months	6 to 12 months	12 to 24 months	More than 24 months	Up to 6 months	6 to 12 months	12 to 24 months	More than 24 months
6667	6667	4157	6504	97,79	94,11	98,58	99,71

Source : Work material NES 2007.

All mentioned forms of reporting are undoubtedly very important for obtaining a picture about the state and changes on the labour market, but based on the existing information bases of the NES, and with small changes of processing requirements, new information obtained would significantly improve our knowledge on the changes of the labour market.

Classical unemployment rate that uses data on population, i.e. number of active population, provides information on unemployment as a social problem and represents a social and economic indicator. PAR measures tell us about the successfulness of solving the unemployment issue. Use of PAR measures in unemployment data analysis does not reduce the importance of the classical unemployment rate usage. They provide different kinds of information and have their place in interpreting movements on the labour market. Knowing both measures helps getting a clearer picture of the state and changes of the labour market.

VI. Conclusion

Analysing data on unemployment, its structure and dynamics of change within individual groups observed is aimed at providing information that will help both NES and relevant pollitical actors in planning activities to prevent long-term unemployment and social exclusion. Analysis of differences between certain groups in view of unemployment is one of the priority goals of NES operation, because information obtained is used to plan development of special programmes and manners of work that should enable involvement of persons with higher unemployment rate or risk to become long-term unemployed in the labour market. Unemployed persons are different from one another in terms of employment possibilities in relation to individual characteristics and demand for jobs by occupatins; therefore, they also differ from one another by the level of risk to become long-term unemployed. Detailed analysis of dynamics of the unemployed persons' transfer from one critical group to another conditions both kind and level of NES support. It should correspond to individual needs of persons, together with a more intesive help to the persons with higher risk of long-term unemployed due to inadequate qualifications or due to physical or socio-psychological factors of more difficult employability. A special attention should be paid to the needs of those groups with unemployment rate above the average, e.g. needs of young people. Activities in this area imply development of special teams and programmes for sloving unemployment problem and giving priority in using active employment policy programmes.Timely collection of data and its analysis enables prevention of the long-term unemployment of financial compensation or social aid beneficiaries, through reduction of dependence on the aid they receive based on unemployment or social status. Besides, funds they receive can be reallocated and other funds can be used for their employment or inclusion into employment subventions programmes. Such a model can also be applied to potential redundant with provision of appropriate kinds of services prior to their dismissal within the activities of transitional centres in the enterprises. Intensive forms of assistance to long-term unemployment are achieved through raising the level of employability or giving different subventions for employment to persons who are in an unfavourable position on the labour market. The assistance is provided to early school leavers, persons with lower qualifications or with harder employability factors, members of ethnic minorities, persons older than 50, potential redundant, young with marked unemployment rate. Provision of such assistance should enable integration of these persons into the labour market before they enter into long-term unemployment, as well as prevention of different forms of social exclusion.

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Rethinking a New Conceptual Relation between Economic Justice, Democracy, and liberal system: An Economic Point of View

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Abstract - Liberals and libertarians believe that justice is deeply embodied in liberalism. The famous physiocratic maxim "let them do business, let people and goods move: the world works by itself" relegated to second place some virtues such as justice and equity by considering them as mechanical outputs produced by market mechanisms. The invisible hand of Adam Smith is so benevolent that it inherently purifies various actions of the market. However, reality does not often look forward to these considerations often qualified as ideal. The market is not fair and Pareto optimality is still running even if an individual walks away from the rich to the detriment of another. A rereading of justice by Rawls empowered liberalism to return to normality long sought and rarely approved. However, at the level of political governance, justice is far from being installed whenever democracy casts away almost all individuals (people) and supports a few to govern. This latter, hypothetically unable to personify and care for individuals, is forced to crush individual preferences by directing them to an unknown preference qualified as the people's preference. The aim of this paper is to study this issue by emphasizing the obligation of reviewing democracy so that it serves best the values of liberalism and justice.

Keywords: *justice, fairness, liberalism, preference transmission.*

GJHSS-E Classification : *JEL Code: A14, B10, B11, B15*



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Rethinking a New Conceptual Relation between Economic Justice, Democracy, and liberal system: An Economic Point of View

Dr. Fakhri Issaoui [α] & Dr. Ghassen El Montasser [σ]

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I. A General Introduction

Nowadays, it is commonly accepted that the issue of justice has become a corner stone in all philosophical, political, sociological and economic thinking. The importance given to justice is not new; it is as old as history itself. All divine religions (Christianity and Islam) did not weary to make justice a pivotal subject as it is considered a virtue and an unquestionable value. Along these lines, philosophers have tried to examine this issue in order to give it more explicit objective and scientific dimensions. Nevertheless, we notice that human thinking on justice is very well attached to human existence. A theory of justice is a new venue. Indeed, we can fairly claim that only with the emergence of the coherent political theory of "liberalism' did justice take such a scale and importance in human thinking.

Then, as early as the 17th century, liberalism as a concept would become the focus of those intellectuals who had been seeking a model of a new society. This latter should shake if not ruin previous structures to make room for a free society. Consequently, in its turn justice has to take its position in this society driven by liberalism, as it is an inherent value of liberalism. Nevertheless, this transition has often been taken in very simplistic and implicit tones which often hindered resolution of problem of justice or, at least, did not succeed in answering the following question: What is justice? This ill-made conceptualisation generated, additionally, judgments of value more than scientific assessments. Moreover, this book has given men of science (philosophers, sociologists and economists) theoretical and analytical means to both reread history and theorize about the concept of "fair society."

However, if justice starts to be felt in various socio-economic areas, it is far from being materialized in the political field, which remains governed by monopolising groups while excluding the individual. Democracy remains hitherto dependent on its etymological meaning, which calls for governance of the people (without seeing people govern or even have the opportunity to rally any other collective action). Liberalism that defends the individual did not, politically, bring about individual governance; rather it installed governance of the group. A priori, we confirm that there is a contradiction between the concepts of liberalism and democracy, because the first is a value, while the second is a means and an arbitration tool. The problem is that the tool has never been forced on value: it has little interest in making formal governance of an individual or a group of individuals (by the name of the people) a real governance and this can be done by enabling individual governance. The goal is to change the meaning of democracy so that it will not be the governance of the majority but of all individuals in a society. The question to be asked in this regard is: why have not formal democracies invested in this meaning? We understand and accept that democracies operate at an absolute or relative majority in poor countries that can not afford to create institutions capable of involving

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people in governance. However, in rich and developed countries advocating liberalism and individualism as irreversible values, we find it hard to understand this reluctance and especially the noticeable decision to eliminate the individual from the sphere of decision making. Is the individual inherently less intelligent than the politician? If the answer is yes, then why is his/her voice sought during elections? In addition, if the State believes itself to be superior to individuals, then why does it take a lot of wrong decisions which may be ruinous in the present and the future (environmental degradation, pollution, wars, and crises).

It is in those terms that our paper presents itself and tries to detect the relationship between three key concepts; democracy, liberalism and justice. Then, in order to conduct well our analysis, we will check in a second section whether the relationship between justice and liberalism is conciliation-driven or conflict-driven? The third section will examine how the current democracy concept is dealing with current economic crises. The last section examines the relationship between democracy and governance of justice (to govern or be governed).

II. Justice Versus Liberalism: Conciliation or Conflict?

Liberalism is a philosophical, political and economic concept advocating respect of individual liberties in all circumstances. Thus, taken from the side of political freedom we can say that liberalism has been able to provide, at least partially, one of the principles of justice like Rawls fairness (the first principle). However, did economic liberalism insure this justice? The answer is a priori negative as a detailed examination of pure and simple economic liberalism easily reveals that the issue of justice was often relegated to second place. This is not surprising given that liberal physiocratic schools, classical and neoclassical, wanted to reconciliate between economics and physics. This reconciliation advocated naturalism of economics that will lead, therefore, to natural and universal economic laws. Such laws are benevolent and providential. Physiocrats (essentially Quesnay) claim that there is a natural order by which companies and individuals should abide. This natural order itself provides the organization of production and distribution. This latter is natural: wage (w) is equal to the minimum needs, the rent (R) depends on fertility of cultivated land and profit (P) is simply a residual term (P = Y-W-R). Thus, we see that the distribution of wealth according to this logic can only be 'fair' because it comes from a natural distribution. Hence the first note:

**Note (1):* Fair distribution is the one that comes from the natural operation of the market (economic laws are natural).

Physiocratic economy, advocating absolute freedom of individuals while looking for their own interests and subscribing to methodological individualism, has made the issue of justice less important since it is attached to the simple vagaries of nature. Their maxim "Let business roll, let people and goods move around; the world works by itself" compacts and confirms the above mentioned ideas. In fact, this slogan is a message to the government to refrain from any interference in the economic field, in this case, the distribution of wealth. It is nature which determines the allocation and distribution of goods and wealth. Worse, state intervention will destabilize the system and distort market mechanisms.

Freedoms ⇔ individual interests ⇔ collective interests ⇔ justice

Along these lines, classic philosophy found its roots where the same physiocratic thinking persists. A. Smith advocated in his own terms liberalism as an irrevocable and irreversible value that each individual and society seeks. Free actions from each individual allow reaching some level of harmony between individual interests, on the one hand, and collective interests, on the other.

In this regard, Smith wrote that the total sum of the annual produce of land and labour of a country is naturally divided into three components: rent of land, wages of labour and profits of stocks. He shows that the interest of the first of these big categories is tightly and inseparably linked to the general interest of the society. All that benefits or damages one of these interests necessarily affects the other. [1]

Adam's enthusiasm for politico-economic liberalism and for the market is mainly due to its supremacy as an allocation and a distribution mechanism that might guide the economy towards optimal situations. His hostility to the State is explained by the fact that its intervention risks to limit individual liberties and prevent the invisible hand from achieving harmony between individual and collective interests. This interventionism is more harmful than useful. Harmful because it might distort maximisation programmes installed by individuals and useless because it might add nothing to a system already "perfect" and "fair". Hence, our second note:

Note (2): what will the expected opportunity behind studying justice be? Already, and according to a classic view, this issue is superfluous because nature can only be fair (the basic hypothesis of classical philosophy).

[1] A. Smith (1976)« La recherche sur la nature et les causes de la richesse des nations» éds Guillaumin Paris ; réédition de 1843 (première édition en 1776) .

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However, the continuous and permanent evolution of the real sphere generated some progress in politico-economic thinking which often questioned the merits of liberalism as well as classic distributive justice issued from free functioning of market mechanisms. As an illustration, without being necessarily exclusive, we can mention the contribution of the historical German school (Wagner and F. List), the protectionist school (J. Stuart Mill), the socialist anarchist school (Proudhon, Bakounine, Kropotkine) and the socialist scientific school (K. Marx and F. Engels, Lenin, Stalin), which criticised economic liberalism on its two founding principles. First, economic laws are neither absolute nor universal. They are rather variable and relative which questions naturalism of the economy and consequently makes the task of looking for distributive justice more requested and more complicated. Second, the market is no longer a conservative and a neutral mechanism; it is often a venue where injustice is created, which harms both contracting parties (consumer and producer). In other words, the market blindly transforms the power relationship which binds offer and demand and sets an equilibrium price which often deviates from the real price (it cannot cover the average cost incurred by the producer or it prevents the consumer from either accessing or fully enjoying the price because of scarcity of resources).

The above-mentioned schools, although they criticized liberalism on both its philosophical-political and economic dimensions, did not give much attention to the issue of justice. The latter often remains an implicit and a simple macro-social conception resulting from human conflict, either at the political or economic levels. However, from the advent of the 19th century a new philosophy will give momentum to the issue of justice. The merit of this philosophy does not lie in its theoretical contribution but in the criticism that it will receive later. Finally, a theory of justice is born. This philosophy is the utilitarianism whose origins went up to D. Hume. However, J. Bentham gave it more depth and much rigor. G. Boss [1990] argues that Bentham considers "the principles of action all relate usefully to pleasure and pain, which are the real springs of all our actions .... Under these conditions, not only are we naturally determined by pleasure and pain, but we could have no other duty than to follow their impulses ". Bentham defined utility as follows: "By the principle of utility, I mean that principle which approves or disapproves every action whatsoever, according to the trend it seems to have, either increasing or diminishing happiness of the party whose interest is in question: or, equally well, to promote happiness or to oppose it .

a) Post utilitarianism (the Pareto criterion)

Early twentieth century, Vilfredo Pareto, in his "Manual of Political Economy", showed that the assumption of ordinal utility is sufficient to establish the demand curve. In addition, he tried to renew utilitarianism. He considers that utility is the satisfaction that an individual gains in a given situation. This satisfaction translates into a preference scale. The introduction of preferences will make the hedonistic connotation conferred by Bentham to secondary individual actions. In other words, if the individual prefers S1 to S2 then two cases are possible. First, it is possible that S1 provides more satisfaction than S2. Second, it is possible that S1 is preferred since it has the character of duty (take the example of an activist who sacrificed his life for others). In his "Treatise on General Sociology" [1916], he insists on an optimality criterion known by his name "Pareto" and states that 'A' is optimal if it can increase the utility of a subset of individuals without damaging that of another (no matter how small).

This criterion equally contributed to both normative philosophy and positive economics. Of course, while confronting this criterion, the Benthamian utilitarianism will be blocked because the principle of maximizing social utility can not operate in the presence of the constraint of fixed utility. This rereading of utilitarianism does not save it because the Pareto criterion remains, despite its originality, silent on distributive justice.

Note (3): The Pareto criterion has crossed the utilitarian sacrifice problem but did not solve the problem of distributive justice.

Rawls analysis of Justice goes beyond utilitarianism and Pareto analysis of justice, determining the principles necessary to establish "justice as fairness". These principles will allow to break with socialism (as Rawls does not opt for egalitarianism) while defending liberalism. This is supposed to be the ideal shelter of justice. The first principle requires us to place ourselves into political and economic liberalism. Equal opportunities can provide individuals the same opportunities and advantages that enable them to act. The difference principle (or Maxim) admits inequality of liberalism but assumes the said inequality should benefit the most disadvantaged categories.

Therefore, Rawls liberalism seems to be subject to moral principles in as much as the mentioned principles do not reduce the basic freedoms that are already guaranteed by the first principle. Primary goods resolve the distribution problem to which Pareto failed to find an answer as he judges goods to be provided to individuals according to the unanimity criterion. Rawls writes, "But the primary goods, as I have already observed, are all what a rational being would desire, whatever his other desires are .... Overall, we can say that primary social goods consist of rights, liberties and offered opportunities, incomes and wealth ".

b) Justice and liberalism after Rawls

After the publication of the work of Rawls, it has been subject to several different criticisms by many

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philosophers and economists. A. Sen [1987] opposed Rawls accusing him of being interested only in means and not in the capacity of individuals to enjoy these means. Indeed, for Sen, liberalism is not simply letting people enjoy the freedoms offered to them as this permission and authorization do not mechanically translate into actual consumption. Freedom is a value, the value is a good and a good is consumable only by those who are able to consume.

Henceforth, it is not enough that an individual has the means in order to reach a given objective. In this context, Sen wrote "It is important to distinguish capability, i.e. the freedom actually enjoyed by an individual from primary goods (and other resources), on the one hand and on the other hand the life really chosen and other achieved results ". Sen assumes that an individual with any disability is unable to achieve neither his objectives nor a life project. He noted that "a person with a disability may have a higher amount of primary goods but with a capacity lower than that of another person (due to disability) ". According to Sen, real freedom and then justice lie in what the individual is able to do and achieve.

The position of F.V. Hayek on justice is in real terms a return or a fall-back to classic orthodoxy which advocates free market as the mechanism allowing for reaching economic efficiency and normative values. According to him, the justice problem in a free economy is superfluous. In his second volume of his book “Law, Legislation and liberty” (1973), V. hayek insists on the fact that the term “social justice” is meaningless in a liberal society. He further argues that in an economy managed by market mechanisms, states and reached decisions cannot be qualified neither fair nor unfair because the market is a neutral conservative mechanism. However, in economies with centralised planning, justice and injustice may take place as the State’s action may favour some groups at the expense of others. Hayek notes that in a market economy, the fair and the unfair are not results proper to the market but rather the way competition is practised. This extremism pushes Hayek to reject any type of equal opportunities as he considers it dangerous in as much as it may negatively influence environment of individuals.

III. Formal Democracy’s Inability to Face Current Economic Crises

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Francis Fukuyama wrote in his book "The End of History and the Last Man" [1992] that the world has seen the end of "mankind's ideological evolution and the universalization of Western liberal democracy as the final form of human governance. Citing Hegel, the author declares that the desire for mutual recognition between human beings, which for him is Thymos Platonist, is the driving force behind history. Based on this dialectical vision, Fukuyama says that history is moving towards liberal democracy as its the final step. In support of his thesis, which coincided with the collapse of both the former socialist countries block and almost the unanimous convergence towards a democratic globalization (at least formally), many countries in southern and eastern Europe, Asia, Africa and Latin America have held multiparty elections for the first time during the past two decades.

However, these experiences of democratization and democratic institutions are facing more and more political riots and economic crises that may offset their legitimacy grounds. Length and relative intensities of the global economic downturn further worsened difficulties and doubted the viability of these institutions. This confirms the possibility and even the obligation to consider researching new models and strategies to promote political stability and sustain growth. But above all, we should rethink about distribution and redistribution strategies so that justice as fairness is a criterion of irreversible political and economic choice.

Challenges facing democratic institutions, including economic imbalances, public dissent and historic instability extend beyond these. In Western democracies, governments are struggling to maintain social protection programs while adopting austerity measures to fight against high deficits. The difficulty of the European Union to reduce the effects of debt crises of the Member States has cast doubt on the effectiveness of an institution designed to preserve European unity. Even in the largest democratic state in the world, India, the government is struggling to appease widespread public dissent during decades of corruption. The Pakistani model, moving towards a democratic transition, suffers from a very unstable and even a turbulent political market mainly with a fragile economic base. For long, this new-born democracy has been occasionally delayed or stopped by military coups. Elsewhere in Third World countries, the democratization process faces very often a decline which nourishes stifling of freedoms. In Africa, and after dismantling the abject one-party rule, this state-of-affairs is clearly consolidated in some countries that have proclaimed democracy and which were between the hammer and the anvil as they had faced chronic internal economic difficulties and constant external interference. Also, some countries in Latin America, by tracing their path to democracy after decades of dictatorship or communist military rule, have faced the same problems. This makes any process of democratization in these countries a difficult task. Thus, one can ask a fundamental question about the universalization of democracy. It goes without saying that any universal system is fundamentally based on common ideas and principles.

Parallel to the injustice done to the interior of a nation, liberal democracies are engaged as well in international injustices. We should also remember that

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when the Greek Prime Minister George Papandreou wanted to consult his people through a referendum, he has been severely criticized since this procedure could be a disastrous deviation compared to the ultimate objective which is to rescue Greece from its deep economic crisis. Thus, in the final analysis, democracy is the lack of established values. In addition, linking liberalism with democracy is oppressive because it is provided by a massive individualism and the triumph of human rights. However, these two components do not go hand in hand and we often note bumping the second by the first, which can be seen as a smooth destruction of democracy. It is therefore clear that democracy is not idyllic. In this regard, Winston Churchill once said that "No one pretends that democracy is perfect or wise. It happened to me to hear that this is the worst of governments, except all the others that have been experienced in history. "

Many observers, in search of inspiration, turned to China, which has emerged relatively unscathed from the recession, thanks to centralized recovery programs. While China streamlines an autocratic approach which may remove some bureaucracies and afflicting democratic institutions, it pursued an economic development that may require and produce a gradual democratization of the governance structure. However, solutions to a democratic model, already in difficulty, using another autocratic model, contradict the basic principles of democracy of which, and not exclusive, people's sovereignty and freedom. The recourse to such model is justified by the fact that changes in regulation did not mitigate the social cost of change. This is why the requirements for strengthening democratic institutions are thematically similar, since they contributed nothing to the social dimension. In as much as we do not find a real compromise between the individual and social needs, intangibility of liberal democracy remains problematic.

IV. Democracy and Justice Governance (Rule or be Ruled)

Democracy suffers and risks not reaching the goals it has set for itself or what individuals assume ex ante that it could achieve for itself ex post. Beyond this lies an idea often mentioned but rarely materialized. Democracy correlates less with law, though some argue the opposite. In fact, the mentioned democracy does not often lead to economic democratization, simply because it politically created a State and parliaments unrepresentative of individuals. Indeed, the State completely ignores individual preferences as it has, in our view, no way to detect them. It can inform itself about individuals, know about their communities, their economic situations and all other information vectors, but not their preferences which remain ultimately private personal information. Political parties assume ex ante collective programs and preferences and really look for individuals and groups of individuals endorsing those programs and preferences. This finally leads to strange governance that relegates individuals and makes them dependent on "godfather-like politicians".

This latter does nothing but assume those preferences to hesitantly defend later. It is difficult for the godfather politician to associate electors' interests and make them converge towards a unified social interest. Once in power, elected politicians start to act consistently with the interests of their parties and their own interests. Social interest, assumed to be public, turns out to be a myth once it does not often overlap with the politician's individual interest which is introvert and purely ego-centred. If the public benefits from a political action, then this supposes that the politician's ego is socially expressed as a collective preference. The politician's individual interest is known for him and comes before that of the group given the fact that the elector's interest is invisible and thus likely to be disregarded.

Likewise, we draw attention to another problem in liberal democracies where we witness political bargaining that often ends in supporting the unwished-for and unrequested objectives by individuals (the second Gulf War is illustrative yet not exclusive). The problem is that State governance suffers from lack of information that cannot allow it to know about individual preferences. Such lack of information pushes the State to make decisions on the basis of authentic information (its own interest) and imaginary information (social interest). This latter is possible given that a given individual, not considered in the collective preference, may assume that the other individuals are considered.

Where liberalism is advocated, the individual does not govern but delegates the group to do it. Is this a good governance system? The answer a priori is negative because a fair system should reach a real justice, and not just a formal one, by involving individuals in such governance, whatever minimum it is. Delegating preferences is meaningless because the politician has his own preferences which may often oppose those of the electors. Likewise, it would be difficult to conceive a parliament consisting of all individual citizens of a given nation. Then, what should be done?

In our opinion it would be interesting to think in terms of the so-called "transmission of preferences." Thus, instead of having a politician display a program and look for voters (classic pattern), individuals reveal their preferences and transmit them to relevant institutions. This may start, for example, in a given neighbourhood where people reveal their choices and expectations and quantify their needs and requests. The group chooses a sub-group to transmit their preferences to a higher level (the city). At this level, negotiations will take place (among other

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representatives of other districts) and lead to enriched preferences and relatively more exhaustive. Again, we should choose a sub-group to transmit the new preferences (of the city) to a higher level (the nation).

At the national level, we will be dealing with real preferences reflecting the true signals originally made by individuals. However, can we have situations where representatives of a group deviate from their mission and start seeking their own interests? The answer is still negative for two reasons. First, they are individuals who are transmitters of preferences, not delegates. Second, they do not have privileges and benefits they can defend during negotiations. In addition, they are not politicians with political agendas, but ordinary citizens whose roles are to convey and defend individual preferences initially set.

The individual is probably the best placed to manage and protect his own interests. Moreover, he is better placed and informed than the state to govern his surroundings (neighbourhoods, schools, colleges). Collective preferences (issued from the preferences of different groups) may be more effective than those determined by politicians because they reveal only those preferences which are beneficial for them. Municipalities may opt for this way of thinking which help save them from conducting unsolicited interventions (service offering) and rationalize their actions by making them converge towards the most appropriate ones.

Such governance allows individuals to contribute actively in decision-making and allows the economy to tighten and diminish freedom granted to politicians. This is socially beneficial because it reduces the interests sought by those politicians whose roles are reduced to realizing preferences revealed individually. The effectiveness of state intervention would improve because the individual is often more informed than municipalities, relevant ministries and other political organizations at both the quick detection of problems and identification of defaults.

A first step should be undertaken to make democracy more concrete and true to its fundamental theme, the "individual". This should be able to break with the classic image where individuals delegate politicians. In fairness terms, the free individual should genuinely enjoy freedom granted to him and this can be done only when he governs or actually participates in governance. Social choice determined ex post, and although it may be against some individual preferences, is certainly democratic because it involves individual choices made by the majority. However, classic majority is virtual because it is a relative statistical (simple ratio) and political (the party that had the most votes) majority.

V. Conclusion

Justice is an irreversible value that should be individually consumed. However, democracy does not lead to fair governance where all individuals can actively participate in the decisions that affect them. Political elitism, while promoting interest groups and excluding the mass, does not lead to effective decision-making which should lead us to deeply reinterpret current democracies. In contexts where liberalism is a value, democracy should be liberal, i.e. individual-focused, allowing the individual to reveal his choices while ensuring that these choices are faithfully transmitted to higher levels.

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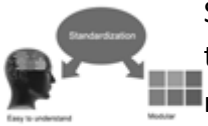

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The board can also take up the additional allied activities for betterment after our consultation.

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Note :

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- In future, if the board feels the necessity to change any board member, the same can be done with the consent of the chairperson along with anyone board member without our approval.
- In case, the chairperson needs to be replaced then consent of 2/3rd board members are required and they are also required to jointly pass the resolution copy of which should be sent to us. In such case, it will be compulsory to obtain our approval before replacement.
- In case of "Difference of Opinion [if any]" among the Board members, our decision will be final and binding to everyone.

"

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1. General,

2. Ethical Guidelines,

3. Submission of Manuscripts,

4. Manuscript's Category,

5. Structure and Format of Manuscript,

6. After Acceptance.

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32. Never oversimplify everything: To add material in your research paper, never go for oversimplification. This will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be more or less specific. Also too, by no means, ever use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions aren't essential and shouldn't be there used. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands and abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas, that are, not necessary. Parenthetical words however should be together with this in commas. Understatement is all the time the complete best way to put onward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

33. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. Significant figures and appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibitive. Proofread carefully at final stage. In the end give outline to your arguments. Spot out perspectives of further study of this subject. Justify your conclusion by at the bottom of them with sufficient justifications and examples.

34. After conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print to the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects in your research.

Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form, which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criterion for grading the final paper by peer-reviewers.

Final Points:

A purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people to interpret your effort selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, each section to start on a new page.

The introduction will be compiled from reference matter and will reflect the design processes or outline of basis that direct you to make study. As you will carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed as like that. The result segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and will direct the reviewers next to the similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you took to carry out your study. The discussion section will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implication of the results. The use of good quality references all through the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness of prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record keeping are the only means to make straightforward the progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear

· Adhere to recommended page limits

Mistakes to evade

- Insertion a title at the foot of a page with the subsequent text on the next page
- Separating a table/chart or figure - impound each figure/table to a single page
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence

In every sections of your document

· Use standard writing style including articles ("a", "the," etc.)

· Keep on paying attention on the research topic of the paper

· Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding for the abstract)

· Align the primary line of each section

· Present your points in sound order

· Use present tense to report well accepted

· Use past tense to describe specific results

· Shun familiar wording, don't address the reviewer directly, and don't use slang, slang language, or superlatives

· Shun use of extra pictures - include only those figures essential to presenting results

Title Page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short. It should not have non-standard acronyms or abbreviations. It should not exceed two printed lines. It should include the name(s) and address (es) of all authors.



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Abstract:

The summary should be two hundred words or less. It should briefly and clearly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript--must have precise statistics. It should not have abnormal acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Shun citing references at this point.

An abstract is a brief distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approach to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Yet, use comprehensive sentences and do not let go readability for briefness. You can maintain it succinct by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study, with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to maintain the initial two items to no more than one ruling each.

- Reason of the study - theory, overall issue, purpose
- Fundamental goal
- To the point depiction of the research
- Consequences, including definite statistics - if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account quantitative data; results of any numerical analysis should be reported
- Significant conclusions or questions that track from the research(es)

Approach:

- Single section, and succinct
- As a outline of job done, it is always written in past tense
- A conceptual should situate on its own, and not submit to any other part of the paper such as a form or table
- Center on shortening results - bound background information to a verdict or two, if completely necessary
- What you account in an conceptual must be regular with what you reported in the manuscript
- Exact spelling, clearness of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else

Introduction:

The **Introduction** should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable to comprehend and calculate the purpose of your study without having to submit to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give most important references but shun difficult to make a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. In the introduction, describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will have no attention in your result. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here. Following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study
- Shield the model - why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? You strength remark on its appropriateness from a abstract point of vision as well as point out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. Status your particular theory (es) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Very for a short time explain the tentative propose and how it skilled the declared objectives.

Approach:

- Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done.
- Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point with every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need a least of four paragraphs.

- Present surroundings information only as desirable in order hold up a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read the whole thing you know about a topic.
- Shape the theory/purpose specifically - do not take a broad view.
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This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A sound written Procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replacement your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt for the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to spare your outcome but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section. When a technique is used that has been well described in another object, mention the specific item describing a way but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to text all particular resources and broad procedures, so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step by step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

- Explain materials individually only if the study is so complex that it saves liberty this way.
- Embrace particular materials, and any tools or provisions that are not frequently found in laboratories.
- Do not take in frequently found.
- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method (not particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology)
- Describe the method entirely
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures
- Simplify - details how procedures were completed not how they were exclusively performed on a particular day.
- If well known procedures were used, account the procedure by name, possibly with reference, and that's all.

Approach:

- It is embarrassed or not possible to use vigorous voice when documenting methods with no using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result when script up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.
- Use standard style in this and in every other part of the paper - avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings - save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part a entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Carry on to be to the point, by means of statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.You must obviously differentiate material that would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matter should not be submitted at all except requested by the instructor.



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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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- Do not give permission to anyone else to "PROOFREAD" your manuscript.

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- To guard yourself and others from possible illegal use please do not permit anyone right to use to your paper and files.

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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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