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The Theory and Practice of Development in Brazil: The State and Public Policies as Capital Reproduction Tools

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Abstract- This paper analyzes the theory and practice of development in Brazil within two specific contexts of developmental approaches. The first is located in the 1930s to 1950s and reaches its apex with the Goals Plan. The second emerges when developmentalism once again takes hold as neoliberal ideas face a crisis, of which the major example is the Growth Acceleration Program (GAP). Upon reviewing the literature and documents, we found the state's proposed avenues of action, i.e. public policy, theoretical grounds, and concrete development-inducing actions. Classic developmentalism emerges from the crisis in the exporting agrarian model. It is based on positivist, nationalist, paperbacking, and industrialist ideas. From the Goals Plan, it received important input from ECLAC's structuralism, Keynes' ideas, and the theory of modernization.

Keywords: classic developmentalism; goals plan; new developmentalism; social-developmentalism; growth acceleration program.

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The Theory and Practice of Development in Brazil: The State and Public Policies as Capital Reproduction Tools

Edemar Rotta[α] & Carlos Nelson Do Reis[σ]

Abstract- This paper analyzes the theory and practice of development in Brazil within two specific contexts of developmental approaches. The first is located in the 1930s to 1950s and reaches its apex with the Goals Plan. The second emerges when developmentalism once again takes hold as neoliberal ideas face a crisis, of which the major example is the Growth Acceleration Program (GAP). Upon reviewing the literature and documents, we found the state's proposed avenues of action, i.e. public policy, theoretical grounds, and concrete development-inducing actions. Classic developmentalism emerges from the crisis in the exporting agrarian model. It is based on positivist, nationalist, paper-backing, and industrialist ideas. From the Goals Plan, it received important input from ECLAC's structuralism, Keynes' ideas, and the theory of modernization.

Keywords: classic developmentalism; goals plan; new developmentalism; social-developmentalism; growth acceleration program.

I. Introduction

In complex societies and states, such as the ones prevailing in Latin America and specifically Brazil today, the process of setting public policies tends to be imbued by myriad interests and concrete historical backdrops, both domestically and abroad. The state has "relative autonomy," "its own operating sphere," albeit one that is sensitive to internal and external influences (SOUZA, 2006).

It is by following such dynamics of relationships that we intend to analyze two specific times in Brazil's history and when developmentalist ideas prevail. the 1930-1970 period, seen as the birth and implementation of developmentalism; and the period from the first decade of the 21st century, when a center-leftist government wins the Presidency of the Republic and remains in power for over three consecutive terms (13 and a half years), when something some authors have dubbed the "new developmentalism" was put in place.

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This study is organized as follows: the first topic discusses developmentalism, its theoretical grounds and concrete government projects. The analysis homes in on the Goals Plan, seen as the apex of this "model." The second item describes the rebirth of developmentalism, based on the crisis hounding neoliberal ideas and the emergence of the "new developmentalism" and "social-developmentalism," with special focus on the Growth Acceleration Program (GAP).

II. Classic Developmentalism and The Goals Plan

The beginnings of Brazil's developmentalist experience can be traced back to the first decades of the 20th century, especially from the "1930 Revolution." However, researchers in this field agree that it takes place in a more structured manner in the 1950s, and peaks at the time of the Goals Plan[1]. The experience goes through ups and downs in the 1960s and 1970s, and faces its deeper crisis in the 1980s (BIELSCHOWSKY, 2011; CARNEIRO, 2012; FONSECA, 2014).

Developmentalism emerges during a time of crisis for the agrarian exporting model, the prevalent one in Brazil since the country's independence. The crisis was related to changes in the international backdrop (World War I, the 1929 crash, a crisis challenging liberal ideas, the emergence of socialism, and other factors) and national scene (economic downturn, emergence of social and cultural movements, a political crisis, significant social and regional inequalities, land and income concentration, exploitation of workers, lack of urban infrastructure in the growing cities, workers' low productivity, complete absence of labor and social rights, the exporting agrarian industry's structural dependence), which brought to light how "structurally backwards" the country was and its need to find alternatives to overcome that situation (IANNI, 1994; ROTTA, 2007).

[1] The name it is widely referred to by the literature and the population. Nevertheless, there are some historic documents referring to it as the "Goals Program" (LAFER, 2002).

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In a way, the "1930 Revolution" represented the construction of a new hegemony built on the alliance between the fledgling industrial bourgeoisie, urban middle classes, and rural elites displeased with the traditional "coffee and milk" politics[2]. In fact, it was a "top-down revolution" carried out based on wheeling and dealing by the elites that drew the population's support with a proposal which included some claims pursued by social and cultural movements but did not change the property and class structures in place since the colonial period (FERNANDES, 1975).

Therefore, this ideological and interest-nurturing "arrangement" made it possible to set up a policy to protect the national manufacturing industry against foreign competition; muster resources which Brazilian business leaders lacked to create suitable infrastructure for industrial development; support the private sector's expansion via credit subsidies and tax incentives; create labor and social security legislation that drew workers from rural areas to urban centers; reorganize the agrarian structure by encouraging farmers to grow affordable food for urban workers and looking for new opportunities in the foreign market; bringing the country together around "a project of Nation" which did away with regional inequalities; make a host of investments in the heavy industry, paramount for driving a successful industrialization process; make the economy more diverse; develop modes of transportation; gradually incorporate the proletariat into society; strengthen a middle layer of property owners imbued with a patriotic sense of love for work and respect for the laws in force; and introduce new techniques capable of making work more productive. To put that policy in place, strategies were used which alternated coercion, consensus, and "controlled autonomy," the hallmarks of the "Vargas Age" (ROTTA, 2007).

The period dubbed "Vargas Age" laid down the foundation on which to build the developmentalist proposal that was cemented in the administration of Juscelino Kubitscheck de Oliveira (JK, 1956-61). Elected amidst the convoluted political process that followed Vargas' suicide, Juscelino Kubitschek worked to replace Getúlio's nationalism with developmentalism (DIAS, 1996; CARDOSO, 1977). His was a more substantial plan that appealed to the expanding national bourgeoisie as it propounded an alliance between the state, the national private sector, and the international capital to boost the country's industrialization process. More appealing for workers as it signaled more job opportunities and higher pay. More appealing even to the military, where some groups had been putting up fierce opposition to the government but then changed their mind as they believed economic development was important for national security.

Taking advantage of the public administration structure already in place and a political environment favorable to the consolidation of developmentalist programs, JK came up with a plan built on 30 goals[3] plus another considered the "goal of goals," which was the construction of Brasília and the relocation of the federal capital. The plan was put together by a team coordinated by engineer Lucas Lopes (who was appointed Ministry of Finance in 1958) and economist Roberto Campos (Superintendent of BNDE, the Brazilian economic development bank), who drew from previous experiences in planning and diagnosing the country's social-economic situation, such as the Cooke Mission, the Abbink Mission, the Joint Brazil-United States Commission (CMBEU), the Joint BNDE-ECLAC Group, the SALTE Plan, and others (DIAS, 1996; LAFER, 2002). Homed in on industrialization, the Plan was meant to clear up the "domestic and foreign roadblocks" that hindered the country's development process (LAFER, 2002).

There is no unanimous description of the funds allocated to carry out the Goals Plan but the amounts are somewhat similar, ranging between 285 and 310 billion cruzeiros in 1956. Approximately 21% of that amount came from foreign investments. Updated to April 30, 2017, the funds amounted to BRL 146.6 billion (BRASIL, 1958; DIAS, 1996; LAFER, 2002). By looking at the investments made in terms of their GDP ratio, we find the Goals Plan "involved a volume of funds ranging between 7.6% of the GDP in 1958 and about 4.1% in 1961" (DIAS, 1996, p. 50), therefore considerably expanding the participation by the government and state-owned companies. Likewise, the Goals Plan helped increase the overall rate of investments in the economy, up from 18.4% of the GDP in 1955 to 22.4% in 1961 (DIAS, 1996, p.81).

The Goals Plan was set up based on five essential areas: energy, transportation, food, heavy industry, and education. Each area was assigned a set of goals that broke down into specific projects to be carried out through the joint efforts of the government (in its various spheres and via state-run companies and institutions) and the (national and international) private sector. Energy (electricity, nuclear, coal, oil drilling and refining) was the area allotted the largest share (43.4%) of the funds made available, as it was found to be the major roadblock in the way of industrial development in the country. Next came transportation (new trains, railroad and road construction, road paving, port services and dredging, merchant marine, and air transport), assigned 29.6% of the investments, and heavy industries (steel, aluminum, cement, alkalis, paper

[2] A deal struck between São Paulo and Minas Gerais oligarchs to allow them to take turns in appointing and supporting candidates running for President in the country during the Old Republic.

[3] A detailed description of the goals can be found in Dias (1996) and Lafer (2002).

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and pulp, rubber, non-ferrous metals, shipbuilding, automobiles, mechanics, electrical supplies, and iron ore exports), at 20.4% of the estimated investments. These three areas concentrated 93.4% of the resources to be invested in 23 goals, which reveals the magnitude of a proposal focused on economic aspects and primarily responding to the industrial capital's interests (BRASIL, 1958; DIAS, 1996).

The goals (six in total) for the area of food (wheat growing, silos and warehouses, slaughterhouses and meat-packing plants, farming machinery, and fertilizers) were assigned 3.2% of the funds. These goals were widely dominated by clearly economic projects dedicated to modernizing agriculture and increasing production and storage capabilities. The education-oriented goal (technical personnel training and steering education towards development) was assigned 3.4% of the funds available and focused on projects through which the government would work on the three levels of education: primary, secondary, and higher. The main initiatives included expanding the supply of primary education, creating special classes, making the school year longer, building and equipping schools, training teachers, buying equipment, holding technical courses, granting scholarships to high school students in vocational programs, expanding the supply of engineering programs, having teachers work full-time, setting up graduate and specialization programs, reforming higher education, and opening 14 institutes of research, education, and development in the country's main cities and dedicated to the fields of chemistry, economics, farming technology, mechanics, electro-technology, mining, metallurgy, farming mechanics, mathematics, physics, and geology (BRASIL, 1958; DIAS, 1996).

Beyond the 30 goals mentioned in the Plan, the goal of goals was to build Brasília and move the federal capital there. Such goal required nearly the same amount of funds put into the whole of the other 30, approximately 300 billion cruzeiros, in 1961 money (DIAS, 1996; LAFER, 2002). As a rule, Brasília carried a symbolic dimension and another ideological one, and summed up Juscelino's developmentalist project (COSTA e STEINKE, 2014). Symbolic in that it brought all Brazilians from all walks of life and ideologies together for a project of future capable of taking their minds off everyday economic and social problems and leading them to envisage a scene of modernization and development. Ideological, as it worked on the idea of picking up the power historically located on the coast and taking it inland, while bringing together and organizing the domestic market along with foreign capital, all under the industrial sector's economic control.

To ensure the Goals Plan was carried out, Juscelino took a series of steps in an effort to overcome the political issues posed by Congress and governmental red-tape. In Congress, he negotiated a center-left coalition (PSD, PTB, PSP), by appointing party members to his cabinet, capable of supporting the government and ensure its essential projects passed. Based on ample consensus, with varying theoretical and political origins, an important political base will be forged for the developmentalist project as a new pattern of capital accumulation is put in place" (RABELO, 2003, p. 47).

The rationale that steered the Goals Plan was consistent with the principles of the prevailing developmentalist ideology at the time: that the manufacturing industry's development irradiates its effects to other economic areas and would be capable of doing away with social and regional inequalities; that the government's action, guided by technical rationality criteria and enjoying some autonomy regarding the interests and values of the different groups and social classes, would be able to design and lead the national development project; that the know-how and techniques created by economic science would be enough to detect development needs and the means to achieve it, and that the capitalist society's hallmarks would be suitable for ensuring the project was viable (SILVA, 2000; FONSECA, 2014).

The various authors[4] who have analyzed the results obtained by the Goals Plan agree that said results were widely positive regarding the absolute majority of goals. Many of them even exceeded the expectations. "In their vast majority and in that which the Goals Plan was designed to bring the economy to "mature" industrial capitalism, the goals achieved significant success" (RABELO, 2003, p. 50). The economic infrastructure essential for implementing and strengthening a wide variety of industries was created through the direct and/or indirect action by the government and its work along with national and international capital. However, the plan was not restricted to matters of infrastructure. It also addressed the production of intermediate goods and even capital goods by expanded the existing production capabilities or creating new ones. The Goals Plan and the set of steps taken by the JK administration to implement it turned the government into an "efficient instrument for increasing the accumulation of capital and making the transition to a new pattern of accumulation" (RABELO, 2003, p. 52).

It is also clear that the Plan was governed by a sector-based planning rationale. Although it comprised combined, inter-complementary actions between some sectors, it failed to move further toward long-term global development plans. There are not many goals for farming and animal husbandry (only some in the area of food) in the Plan, especially considering the weight of

[4] See Dias (1996), Lessa (1982), Lafer (2002), Rabelo (2003), and others.

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this sector in the makeup of the country's Gross Domestic Product at the time. The Plan also underestimated the importance of food and education in the relationship with the other areas, something that can be seen from the amount of funds and specific actions outlined. The hard time the government had in conducting an ample tax reform compromised its ability to fund the actions laid out and made it choose to go the inflation route, which punished wage-earners but not the holders of capital.

The JK administration was the apex of a process that had started in 1930 and which created the essential bases for the self-determination of capital accumulation in Brazil. It consolidated the process which transformed the economic, technological, social, psycho-cultural, and political bases required for the implementation of capitalism in Brazil. Those transformations simultaneously retained both the general characteristics of any and all capitalist development and those specific traits typical of a capitalism establishing itself in the stage of monopoly capitalism and built on a colonial past (DRAIBE, 1985). On the one hand, the country's opening up to international capital, either directly or associated to domestic capital, expanded the possibilities of investing in infrastructure and the production of consumer durables, thereby leading to economic growth. On the other hand, it was a clear option towards a dependent insertion in the international capitalist circuit (BRUM, 2003).

The developmentalist economic project's viability required increasing workers' workload and adopting a policy to transfer income from society as a whole to the more dynamic sectors of the economy, which could lead the government to lose political support from a portion of the working population. To retain that population's support while making sure the economic project was not compromised, the government started using public social policies as tools to secure the implementation of the new way of life required by the economic model and to meet the needs stemming from the urbanization process (FEE, 1983).

It is plausible to say that the "social issue" was not a core concern of the JK administration given the Goals Plan was focused on economic aspects (COUTO, 2004). Upon reading the goals, we clearly see that social aspects were deemed to be complementary to or deriving from the economic goals. The prevailing view of development believed that economic growth would, in and of itself, bring widespread improvement to the population's living conditions.

Education was given a strategic role in JK's development project. It was tasked with meeting job training needs, especially regarding technology in high school and higher education programs, helping increase the population's average standard of schooling, and creating a mindset that would welcome the required modernization process. "Breaking with traditional concepts that imposed 'resistance to change' was seen as necessary for creating not only a new mindset but also new behaviors compatible with 'social progress'" (FEE, 1983, p. 214).

The economic growth[5] achieved by the Goals Plan was neither able to reduce regional inequalities[6] nor lead to overall improvements to the living conditions of the Brazilian population as a whole[7]. In the latter stages of his administration, Juscelino's plan started drawing widespread criticism by the population, especially because of the loss in purchasing power of wages which were being corroded by inflation[8], and by political groups connected to the UDN party (National Democratic Union) accusing the government of encouraging corruption. The clashes drove different social classes and groups to get organized to defend their interests, which interests could not always be reconciled and politically mediated.

[5] From 1957 to 1961, the Brazilian GDP grew 7% a year, on average. The per capita income went up 3.8% a year, on average. In the previous ten years, the average annual rate had been 5.2% and 2.5%, respectively. Industrial production, which was at the core of the Goals Plan, grew 80% (in constant prices) between 1955 and 1961. The standouts were steelmakers (which grew 100% in the period), mechanical industries (125%), electrical and communication industries (380%), and transportation equipment industries (600%) (BRUM, 1993).

[6] In the period, economic activity was concentrated largely in the south and southeast. Taking up 18% of the country's surface and holding 61% of its population, in 1970 these regions accounted for 92% of the industrial output and 80% of the national income (BRUM, 1993). Likewise, trade between the regions deteriorates even further. The southeast takes a significant lead over the others, as it is home to the more dynamic sectors and those yielding greater capital accumulating power. Among the JK administration's officials, they believed it was possible to develop the country based on a single center, namely, São Paulo. From such center, in a ripple effect, development would progressively reach other areas and regions in the country (BRUM, 2003).

[7] "In 1960, over 40% of all Brazilians were poor, that is, they earned less than what they needed to meet their basic needs" (SINGER, 1998, p. 91).

[8] The annual inflation rate, which in 1957 was 7% a year, reached 24% in 1958, 39.5% in 1959, 30.5% in 1960, and 47.7% in 1961 (BRUM, 1993).

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The 1960s was an exceptional period in that it clearly showed the conflicts between the various political-ideological positions [9] fostered across society and embodied in the fight for control over the government, an essential tool for any of these warring groups to secure their hegemony. The military coup was the way conservative forces found to get the ball back in their court and abort structural reforms that might have consolidated a social project meant to distribute income and reduce social and regional inequalities. The coup allowed conservative forces to take back control over the government and crushed the social organizations threatening their power. They quashed the political and civil rights of opposing leaders. Many of those leaders were thrown out of the country, while others were assassinated or never seen again. In the name of democracy and domestic order, the government set up a state of exception that ensured the interests of the international capital and its Brazilian allies were consolidated in the country (BRUM, 2003).

The military governments in power between 1964 and 1985 adopted an economic policy focused on two basic goals: economic stability and accelerated economic growth. Civilian experts renowned in the field of economics [10], albeit committed to the ideas of the conservative forces that backed the government, were tasked with carrying out the economic policy. To achieve the first goal, Castelo Branco launched the government's economic action program (Programa de Ação Econômica do Governo - PAEG, 1964-1966), which aimed at course-correcting the economy, reorganizing public finance, realigning the prices of public goods and services, restoring state-owned companies' ability to invest, renegotiating the foreign debt, increasing Brazil's share in worldwide trade, readjusting the balance of payments, rebuilding the country's reliability and credibility abroad, controlling inflation, and creating the conditions for economic growth to resume (BRUM, 2003).

To achieve the second goal, in 1970 the government began issuing national development plans (Planos Nacionais de Desenvolvimento - PNDs) [11]. These plans were meant to create and ensure the conditions for fast economic growth, consolidate the capitalist system in the country, expand the Brazilian economy's integration into the international capitalist system, and turn Brazil into a world power. This accelerated economic growth project focused on expanding the country's industrial development, modernizing the agriculture, and creating a service sector capable of meeting other sectors' needs and integrating the country into the modern international capitalist economy (BRUM, 2003).

Implementing this project required substantial resources, especially capital and technology, which Brazil lacked both in terms of volume and sufficient quality (BRUM, 2003). The military governments went looking for such resources in two fronts: inside and outside Brazil. Inside the country, they sought to expand the government's tax collection system; encourage savings; strengthen and expand the stock market; set up a strict salary control system to take from workers and ensure the private appropriation of labor; use inflation as a tool to transfer income from workers to capital and kill any income distribution policies; resort to domestic public indebtedness by shuffling substantial production investment resources to financial speculation (BRUM, 2003).

Internationally, the government sourced capital and technology to carry out work in the economic infrastructure and heavy industry, and to expand and modernize industrial facilities and output. The funds [12] came into Brazil as loans for the government and private sector companies, as direct investments in the expansion of multinational companies already operating in the country, to set up new foreign companies, for transnational groups to buy Brazilian companies, or yet for foreign companies to associate with domestic companies. With that, "the country became more intertwined with and financially dependent on the centers of international capitalism, and the international capital expanded its share in the Brazilian economy's more modern, more dynamic sectors" (BRUM, 2003, p. 331). All that consolidated the proposal of some peripheral development associated with and dependent on foreign countries, while domestically such development was elitist and income concentrating (BRUM, 2003; FURTADO, 1972).

However, when the military took power in 1964, the government became even more selective and controlling of social policies. The state started working on specific sectors and expanding the "government's technocratic staff to respond to the needs of society and" (COUTO, 2004). The military regime pushed a "technical treatment" rationale to handle social issues and needs, i.e. social movements and claims were dismissed while governmental control mechanisms were strengthened. The regime dealt with social issues by combining repression, control, assistance, and

[9] Bielschowsky (2011) lists 5 warring "schools of thought" that to a greater or lesser degree represented the interests at play in the different social classes and groups at the time: the "neoliberal right," the "socialist left," the "private sector developmentalism," the "non-nationalist public sector developmentalism," and the "nationalist public developmentalism."

[10] Such as Otávio Gouveia de Bulhões, Roberto Campos, and Antônio Delfim Netto.

[11] PND I (1970-1974), PND II (1975-1979), and PND III (1980-1985). Economist Antônio Delfim Netto was appointed to carry out these plans.

[12] The Brazilian gross foreign debt soared from USD 3.5 billion in 1965 to USD 91 billion in 1984 (BRUM, 2003, p. 331).

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concession strategies, thereby using social planning to correct its economic plans (SPOSATI, 1998).

The Brazilian social policy in the military regime is a "conservative strategy" organized into "five structural traits found, along with their particularities, in each sector as well as the entirety of sectors which were the subject of the government's efforts in 1964-85": (1) regressive financing mechanisms, (2) centralized decision-making process, (3) the privatization of public spaces, (4) expanded coverage, and (5) reduced redistribution (FAGNANI, 1996, p. 60-61).

The mechanisms of this "conservative strategy" were made to work together in order to keep the population under the guard of the government's technical and bureaucratic bodies" (COUTO, 2004, p. 132), thereby disparaging the other parties and emphasizing that social issues should be handled technically and bureaucratically. The centralization excluded workers' representatives from policy management bodies and reorganized the social funds and assistance programs to keep them under federal control (SPOSATI, 1998).

By recreating assistance programs, the military governments sought to obtain support for the regime, create new forms of mediation between the state and society, and make workers' organization apolitical. Those assistance programs did not turn to the populist techniques that had been used to handle Brazilian public social policy since the 1930s. Instead, they resorted to a new notion of the role of the state and the tools at its disposal. "By making use of planning as a social consensus technique and of technicians as experts on the needs and interests of the lower classes," the military governments turned such classes into the passive object of the "benefits" allegedly offered to them in anticipation of their needs (SPOSATI, 1998, p.49). At the same time, new fields of investment were opened up for business sectors that had specialized in providing services. These programs also preserved the conditions for capitalist accumulation through the generous aid of the state (SPOSATI, 1998).

The idea of rights as something given by the state, rulers, leaders, friends, or influential politicians is a tradition in the Brazilian social history (CARVALHO, 2002). The military made very good use of that tradition by centralizing the management of social funds and programs in the federal sphere and delegating the decisions to people they trusted. They used the media to build an image that keeping the "social order" was essential for the country's development and that those who spoke against such established order were "enemies of the country." They conveyed an image of the military as "defenders of the nation's interests," the "guardians of morality," and the "defenders of upstanding citizens' rights." The vast amount of subsidies given to economic activities helped consolidate the image that the government supported those who "worked to develop the nation" (ROTTA, 2007).

An analysis of the "authoritarian development from 1968 to 1980" says that, "despite the official rejection of a progress-oriented reform agenda, the military government kept several developmentalist elements in place and, instead of weakening the state's role, further increased its ability to intervene" (PRADO, 2011, p. 29). The proposals they implemented (fiscal reform, tax reform, financial system reform, and others) expanded the state's intervention capabilities and led to significant economic growth. However, they did that while concentrating income and increasing the inequalities. Reactions against the government intensified as the economy's growth rates were going down and the government was no longer able to justify its proposal either domestically or abroad. "The crisis in the 1980s was not merely a situational crisis. It was a turning point where a growth model based on imports replacement had worn out" (PRADO, 2011, p.23).

In the 1980s, as the neoclassic economic theory and the neoliberal ideology became hegemonic, the industrialization project is ditched because it is deemed "unnecessary" for economic growth (BRESSER PEREIRA, 2016). In the 1990s, "the neoliberal reforms are adopted by all of capitalism's peripheral countries, except for East Asian countries and India. The new operative words become denationalization, privatization, and deregulation" (BRESSER PEREIRA, 2016, p. 151). Analyzing the neoliberal propositions is not within the scope of this study, which is focused on the developmentalist ideology. The next topic takes a look at the comeback of developmentalism following the crisis of the neoliberal proposition implemented in Brazil from the 1980s onwards.

III. The "New Developmentalism" and/or "Social-Developmentalism": The Gap as Reference

The new developmentalism first comes into the scene in the early 2000s as a reaction to the "double populism," i.e. related to taxes and foreign exchange, deemed to be the basis for both the liberals' and the old developmentalists' failure to foster growth and stability (BRESSER PEREIRA, 2016). Comparing the "old" and the "new" developmentalism, Bresser Pereira (2016, p. 157) points out a few characteristics that set them apart. The "old developmentalism" belonged to pre-industrialist countries. It focused on developing the industry and protecting national manufacturers. Its proposed basis is the imports replacement model and advocates for a growth policy based on savings or foreign indebtedness. The new developmentalism focuses on medium income countries which have already carried out their industrial and capitalist revolutions. It proposes equal competition conditions for

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industrial companies, mostly because exchange rates tend to be over-appreciated in the long run. It rejects the idea of growth based on savings and foreign indebtedness. It advocates a model based on exporting manufactured goods and backed by a competitive or industrial equilibrium exchange rate. It pursues a competitive international integration for developing countries, instead of a subordinated integration (BRESSER PEREIRA, 2016).

One can say the new developmentalist proposal is grounded on four essential notions: (1) there will be no strong market in the absence of a strong government; (2) there will be no sustained growth at high rates without these two institutions (government and market) being strengthened and without the proper macroeconomic policies in place; (3) strong market and government can only be built by a national development strategy; (4) achieving the goal of reducing social inequality is impossible without growth at continued high rates (SICSÚ, PAULA e MICHEL, 2007).

The origins of social-developmentalism are found to have already been included in Lula's government plan in his run for office in 2002. However, the proposal takes hold in President Lula's second term because "the backlash against implementing the model took a while to be handled, but his social and political bases pushed it forward" (BASTOS, 2012, p. 795). Singer (2012) says that the Lula administration's decision to keep on following the agenda put in place by the previous President, Fernando Henrique Cardoso, was a political and ideological one which resulted from a shift within the system[13], a program to "reduce poverty and uphold order" (p. 68). At the same time the government kept the macroeconomic tripod standing on the ground of neoliberal policy, and even taking it further, which pleased the holders of capital, it started running a set of policies that benefitted the poorest population[14], such as the Family Allowance Program, the minimum wage increase policy, expanded access to credit, pensions paid to the elderly and people with a disability, the Light for All Program, the construction of cisterns in the semiarid region of the northeast, encouraging solidarity economy, expanding the National Family Farming Enhancement Program, and others. These strategies allowed for stability to be maintained while the domestic market expanded. All that led to a reduction in poverty from 2004, when the economy started growing again and employment was on the rise. "Marcelo Néri called that 'Lula's Real': in 1993-95, the ratio of people below the extreme poverty line dropped 18.4%, while in 2003-05 it fell 19.18%" (SINGER, p. 40).

It was from his second term on (2007 to 2010) that the social-developmentalist ideas became hegemonic among the government's top officials and the main public federal institutions in charge of planning and enforcing public policies. "In Lula's second term, there was a combination of income distribution and expanded investment" (BIELSCHOWSK, 2011, p. 21), made possible by the actions carried out under the Growth Acceleration Program (PAC, in Portuguese) and loans from Brazil's national economic and social development bank (Banco Nacional de Desenvolvimento Econômico e Social - BNDES), Caixa Econômica Federal, and Banco do Brasil. Higher consumer buying power gives people access to more modern goods and helps companies modernize themselves, in addition to disseminating new technologies. A "virtuous circle" is created, one in which better income distribution feeds investments and technical progress (BIELSCHOWSK, 2011).

Social-developmentalism homes in on income redistribution as it brings back the historic structuralist tradition of Raúl Prebisch's and Celso Furtado's developmentalism (FONSECA, 2014). The key idea is to "define social matters as the axis of development" (CARNEIRO, 2012, p. 773), which represents an inversion of priorities between the ideas of the old and the new developmentalism, as according to both the core aspect is the development of production forces. To characterize the proposal's core issue, Carneiro resorts to the writings by Bielschowsky (2001) where he says "the growth strategy could be summed up in terms of expanding and generalizing mass consumption" (CARNEIRO, 2012, p. 774). "Expanding mass consumption founded on income redistribution would be the primary dynamic factor" (CARNEIRO, 2012, p. 774).

In the case of social policy, they say the government needs to act to overcome a structural problem typical of developing countries with regards to the "eligibility process blockage"[15], which market mechanisms and economic growth are unable to freely solve. The government needs to create a consistent set of social policies and programs capable of enabling people to become productive members of society and

[13] Considering his experience in previous electoral runs and the Brazilian political tradition, Lula decides to choose a business leader linked to the Liberal Party to be his running mate and to release his "letter to the Brazilian people." With that, he pointed out to national and international business leaders he would be pursuing a moderate course of action and upholding the principles of the macroeconomic policy then in place.

[14] A group Paul Singer (1981) called sub-proletariat. A fraction of the working class living mostly in northeastern and northern states which were ruled by conservative parties tied to local oligarchs.

[15] Reference is made to Celso Furtado's thoughts about Amartya Sen's approach, in the sense of helping eliminate the "original wants" (access to land, housing, quality education, and others), which create a vicious circle that reproduces poverty down the generations (MERCADANTE OLIVA, 2010, p. 18).

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allowing income distribution and social inclusion. The state also needs to take action to eradicate poverty, distribute and redistribute income, and make the domestic market more dynamic, in addition to taking steps toward securing a share of the international market for the country by pursuing new opportunities and thereby helping reduce the differences between nations (MERCADANTE OLIVA, 2010).

The GAP was an economic and social development program gradually built [16] once its aggregating axes got defined, that is, priority areas regarding planning and investments, as well as programs to meet society's and the market's needs in order to overcome the major hurdles in the way of the country's development. Each of the programs got added a set of initiatives[17] defined by the ministries and demanded by the other agents of the federation, by society, and by the market. Many of those initiatives had the responsibilities for their planning, funding, and running shared by the different players involved or even transferred to the private sector. That made the program even harder to monitor and assess, which provided ample fodder for its critics. Its programs, projects and initiatives were organized based on three aggregating axes: logistical infrastructure, energy infrastructure, and social and urban infrastructure (BRASIL, 2007).

The information contained in Chart 01 shows significant sums invested in the various priority areas, ultimately doubling public investments and substantially increasing private ones when compared to periods prior to the launch of the GAP (BRASIL, 2010, 2014). Singer (2012, p. 86) mentions that the federal government nearly doubled the investment in relation to the GDP, from 0.4% between 2003 and 2005 to 0.7% between 2006 and 2008. He also points out that the overall investment went up from 15.9% of the GDP in 2005 to 19% in 2008.

[16] As previously mentioned, unlike previous plans such as the Goals Plan, the GAP did not follow a pre-designed matrix. It was gradually put together based on an initial matrix which kept being complemented by the ministries' priorities and society's and the market's needs.

[17] The GAP balance sheets between 2007 and December 2016 list over 40,000 initiatives being carried out.

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Chart 01: Amounts invested in the GAP – 2007 to 2016, in reals

Basic Information	PAC 1: 2007-2010	PAC 2: 2011-2014	PAC 2015-2018
Initial investment estimate	503.9 billion, increased to 657 b.	1.59 trillion	1.4 trillion
Investments made	619 billion - Government: 202 b. - Private: 128 b. - Total federal Budget: 55 b. - Public sector funding: 7 b. - Loans to individuals: 216.9 b. - Trade-offs by states and cities: 9.3 b.	1.008 trillion - Government: 261,2 b. - Private: 185.7 b. - Total federal Budget: 111.4 b. - Public sector funding: 17. 7 b. - Housing loans: 341 b. - My Home My Life: 85.5 b. - Trade-offs by states and cities: 2.5 b.	386.6 billion - Government: 107,2 b. - Private: 83 b. - Total federal Budget: 89.3 b. - Loans: 101.9 b. - Trade-offs by states and cities: 5.2 b.
Balance: budgeted but unused	38 billion	582 billion	1.013 billion
Actions completed	To Dec 2010 - 444 b. - Logistics: 65.4 b. - Energy: 148.5 b. - Social and Urban: 230 b.	To Dec 2014 – 796.4 billion. - Transportation: 66.9 b. - Energy: 253.3 b. - Water and Light for All: 10.3 b. - My Home My Life: 449.7 b. - Better City: 10.7 b. - Citizen Community: 5.5 b.	To Dec 2016 – 172.7 billion: - Logistics: 12.7 b. - Energy: 77.4 b. - Social and Urban: 82.6 b.

Source: BRASIL (2010, 2014 and 2016). Data organized by the authors

We see that investments in social and urban initiatives, which include policies and programs dedicated to development with social inclusion and better living standards for the population, rank first in the three periods analyzed. In terms of economic and social indicators, the results obtained by the country, especially while GAP 1 and 2 were in place, are directly associated with the public policies implemented by the Brazilian government (CALIXTRE, BIANCARELI e CINTRA, 2014). Through the GAP, the Brazilian government brought the state back as a decisive agent in the development agenda and, along with the market, devised a set of complex hybrid relationships that still require further studies and analyses.

PAC also gets heavy, recurring criticism both for its macroeconomic grounds, which do not break away from neoliberal principles (SANTOS et al, 2010), and its concept, priority programs, investments made, and results obtained (RODRIGUES e SALVADOR, 2011). The GAP emerged as a promise of the state's return to the role of driving economic growth in a planned manner. However, despite the developmentalist propaganda, it has proved to be a spot program with limited resources, budgetary spending way below the amount planned, highly ineffectual in terms of multiplying private investments in the economy, and lending itself to uphold the current economic policy that sides with capital (RODRIGUES and SALVADOR, 2011). The tax cuts and institutional steps taken by the GAP have ended up contributing to the indirect appropriation of public funds which should have been used to finance social policies, especially education and social security.

IV. Final Considerations

The Goals Plan represented the golden age of classic developmentalism as it made it possible to implement a project identified with the developmentalist ideology prevailing at the time and which advised it was necessary to modernize the country's production activities, social relationships, and institutions as these were essential factors for inserting Brazil into the dynamics of the modern capitalist nations. The JK administration's dogged efforts to ensure a consistent political hegemony capable of implementing measures to foster industrial development, modernize the production infrastructure, integrate the country's various regions into a national economy, and bring the national and international capital together allowed Brazil to take significant steps to transition from an exporting agrarian economy to an urban-industrial economy inserted, in a dependent and associated manner, in the circuit of international capitalism.

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The comeback of developmentalism in the early 21st century follows the crisis of economic and social policies implemented based on neoliberal ideas that proved themselves inefficient in terms of coming up with long-lasting proposals for economic growth, job creation, income guarantee, and overcoming social and regional inequalities. This comeback prominently features new developmentalism and social-developmentalism. The former focuses on the economy and claims that only a strong government and market, along with proper macroeconomic policy, will be able to put in place a national project capable of making the necessary structural changes, keep the economy sustainably growing at high rates, and allowing for wealth to be disseminated through all population brackets. The latter sees social issues as the driver of development, which is carried out by the government's incisive action towards regulating the market, handling investments, and implementing fiscal and tax policies in order to activate a virtuous circle of growth and allow for the implementation of a consistent set of social policies and programs oriented to protection, promotion, and infrastructure, thereby enabling people to become productive members of society and leading to income distribution and social inclusion.

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Analysis of Human Development in Hyderabad Karnataka Region

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Abstract- The economic growth model of advancement had challenged by the UNDP in its first Human Development Report 1990, which emphasized that individuals, not things, are the abundance of countries, and it is they who ought to be the focal point of an improvement coordinated to 'extending their decisions.' Three fundamental abilities are identified as requirements to a real existence that is rich with potential and the fulfillment of one's goals: the ability to lead long lives, access to information and the boundless vistas that it opens to the questing mind, and the capacity to guarantee for oneself a sensibly decent way of life. Without these assets, individuals' decisions are limited, and life's chances are far off. Human development is the procedure of building these abilities to empower individuals to lead fulfilling and beneficial life. In this regard, present paper aims to know improvements in human development, comparing to other states; concentrates on the status of various dimensions of human development index, and finally, acquiring the status of human development in the Hyderabad Karnataka region at Grama Panchayat level.

Keywords: *human development, UNDP, HDI, Hyderabad karnataka.*

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Analysis of Human Development in Hyderabad Karnataka Region

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Abstract- The economic growth model of advancement had challenged by the UNDP in its first Human Development Report 1990, which emphasized that individuals, not things, are the abundance of countries, and it is they who ought to be the focal point of an improvement coordinated to 'extending their decisions.' Three fundamental abilities are identified as requirements to a real existence that is rich with potential and the fulfillment of one's goals: the ability to lead long lives, access to information and the boundless vistas that it opens to the questing mind, and the capacity to guarantee for oneself a sensibly decent way of life. Without these assets, individuals' decisions are limited, and life's chances are far off. Human development is the procedure of building these abilities to empower individuals to lead fulfilling and beneficial life. In this regard, present paper aims to know improvements in human development, comparing to other states; concentrates on the status of various dimensions of human development index, and finally, acquiring the status of human development in the Hyderabad Karnataka region at Grama Panchayat level.

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I. Introduction

UNDP introduced the concept of human development in the 1990s that is accepted worldwide largely. 'standardizing human capabilities with concerned to enlarging choices, human development is about creating an environment in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive lives in accordance with their needs and interests' (UNDP HDR 2001)

The three major components of human development are longevity: or the capacity to live a healthy and a long life; education: ability to read, write and acquire knowledge and skills; and command over economic resources sufficient to provide a decent standard of living. Once these capabilities are ensured, then other opportunities in life will follow. Other prerequisites are political freedom and guaranteed human rights, which include the promotion of economic and gender equity, as well as social and cultural rights, especially those relating to education, healthcare, food, water, shelter, environment, culture, etc. It is known that public policies should be focused on people's choices and their capabilities, and the policy thrust should be to combat illiteracy, poverty, unemployment, disease, save the lives of mothers and children, and address the inequities caused by gender and caste.

The first Human Development Report (HDR), published by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1990, clearly stressed the primary message of every HDR at global, national and sub-national level--the human-centered approach to development--that places the human well-being is the ultimate end. People are the real wealth of a nation. The basic objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy, and creative lives. It would appear to be a simple truth, but it has often forgotten in the immediate concern with the accumulation of commodities and financial wealth.

Human Development is the process of widening people's wishes and their level of well-being. The choices change over time and differ among societies according to their stage of development. The three essentials for people are--to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living. If these choices are not available, many other opportunities remain inaccessible. Other choices, highly valued by many people, include political, economic, and social freedom, access to opportunities for being creative and productive, and enjoying self-respect and guaranteed human rights. (UNDP, 1994, 1995).

The Human Development Index (HDI) is composite measure that measures the overall accomplishments of a region in terms of three basic dimensions of human development--a long and healthy life, knowledge, a well as a decent standard of living health status (measured by longevity), knowledge (measured by literacy and enrolments) and a decent standard of living (measured by per capita income). These three dimensions have measured by life expectancy at birth, educational attainment (adult literacy and the combined gross primary, secondary, and tertiary enrolment ratio), a proxy for a decent standard of living, and as an alternative to all human choices not reflected in the other two dimensions.

The Planning Commission of India structured and brought out the first HDR of India in 2001 in which all the Indian states have placed in the order of their achievement in terms of the indicators that shine human development. Therefore, the Planning Commission has

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also been encouraging state governments to produce their human development reports. Madhya Pradesh was the first state in India to produce an HDR long before the Planning Commission. Karnataka state was the second state to publish such a report in 1999. The other Indian States have come out with their state-level reports, as mentioned below.

II. Objectives of the Study

The present work investigates the status of human development index value and rank of Karnataka among major Indian states and to know the HDI of Karnataka and various dimensions of HDI across the districts of the state. More specifically, the study focused district wise performance of the Grama panchayats in Karnataka and to know HDI status of Grama panchayats in Hyderabad Karnataka region with compared to state HDI average figures.

III. Methodology

The study is based on mainly secondary data source which has collected from the economic survey of Karnataka 2015-16, Grama panchayat and village HDR report 2015 and, published source to analyze collected data the simple statistical tools have used and to analyze the study Human development index, and other dimensions of the human development such as Living standard index, Health index, and Education index having considerable performance and major role in the selected study area.

IV. Results and Discussions

Table 1: Human Development Index among major states in India, 1981 – 2011

States/UTs	1981		1991		2001		2011	
	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank
Andhra Pradesh	0.298	9	0.377	9	0.416	10	0.485	11
Assam	0.272	10	0.348	10	386	14	0.474	12
Bihar	0.237	15	0.308	15	0.367	15	0.447	18
Gujarat	0.36	4	0.431	6	0.479	6	0.514	8
Haryana	0.36	5	0.443	5	0.509	5	0.545	5
Karnataka	0.346	6	0.412	7	0.478	7	0.508	10
Kerala	0.5	1	0.591	1	0.638	1	0.625	1
M. Pradesh	0.245	14	0.328	13	0.394	12	0.451	16
Maharashtra	0.363	3	0.452	4	0.523	4	0.549	4
Orissa	0.267	11	0.345	12	0.404	11	0.442	19
Punjab	0.411	2	0.475	2	0.537	2	0.569	2
Rajasthan	0.256	12	0.347	11	0.424	9	0.468	14
TamilNadu	0.343	7	0.466	3	0.531	3	0.544	6
UttarPradesh	0.255	13	0.314	14	0.388	13	0.468	13
WestBengal	0.305	8	0.404	8	0.472	8	0.509	9
All India	0.302		0.38		0.472		0.504	

Source: Economic Survey 2015-16

From the Table, it tends to be the execution of Karnataka in human development has been improving over the long time as far as HDI esteem, despite of brought down positioning situation of 10 of every 2011 (HDI esteem 0.508) when contrasted with 7 (HDI esteem 0.478) in 2001. Arrangement of new States could be one of the purposes behind the difference in positioning position. Among southern states, Karnataka is hardly better than Andhra Pradesh (before the arrangement of Telangana State). In any case, Karnataka is the path behind Kerala (rank 1st) and Tamil Nadu (5th rank).

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Table 2: Human Development Index (HDI) across DISTRICTS with dimensional index values and ranking in Karnataka, 2011

District	Living Standard Index		Health Index		Education Index		HDI	
	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank
Bagalkot	0.191	25	0.49	23	0.605	15	0.384	24
Ballari	0.404	11	0.24	28	0.459	26	0.354	25
Belagavi	0.296	18	0.556	19	0.55	19	0.449	18
Bengaluru Rural	0.636	3	0.713	11	0.483	25	0.603	7
Bengaluru Urban	1	1	0.919	2	0.868	1	0.928	1
Bidar	0.189	26	0.653	12	0.646	10	0.43	19
Chamarajnagar	0.234	22	0.607	17	0.452	27	0.401	22
Chikkaballapur	0.34	16	0.619	15	0.545	20	0.486	16
Chikkamagaluru	0.446	8	0.815	5	0.677	6	0.627	5
Chitradurga	0.246	21	0.445	24	0.523	22	0.386	23
Dakshina Kannada	0.647	2	0.848	3	0.6	16	0.691	2
Davanagere	0.396	13	0.523	22	0.71	5	0.528	14
Dharwad	0.539	4	0.564	18	0.748	3	0.61	6
Gadag	0.208	23	0.307	27	0.67	7	0.35	26
Hassan	0.355	15	0.819	4	0.657	9	0.576	9
Haveri	0.196	24	0.542	21	0.629	11	0.406	21
Kalaburagi	0.256	20	0.398	25	0.659	8	0.407	20
Kodagu	0.527	6	0.743	8	0.727	4	0.658	4
Kolar	0.43	9	0.612	16	0.61	14	0.543	11
Koppal	0.183	27	0.197	29	0.613	13	0.28	28
Mandya	0.287	19	0.741	9	0.556	18	0.491	15
Mysuru	0.532	5	0.543	20	0.524	21	0.533	12
Raichur	0.179	28	0.11	30	0.231	29	0.165	30
Ramanagar	0.402	12	0.728	10	0.517	23	0.533	13
Shivamogga	0.458	7	0.774	7	0.597	17	0.596	8
Tumakuru	0.33	17	0.649	13	0.489	24	0.471	17
Udupi	0.405	10	1	1	0.76	2	0.675	3
Uttara Kannada	0.372	14	0.776	6	0.624	12	0.565	10
Vijayapura	0.144	29	0.624	14	0.4	28	0.33	27
Yadgir	0.084	30	0.389	26	0.23	30	0.196	29

Source: GP and Village HDR Report 2015

Table 2 Presents the HDI esteems over regions of Karnataka. Table moreover gives dimensional list esteem at the area level. This give bits of knowledge on the measurement in which a specific area is performing better or poor.

There is a wide variety across locale in HDI values, which changes from 0.928 to 0.165. There are contrasts in the execution of specific regions with concerning to three measurements which have performed well in case of some measurements, while others have exceeded expectations in other parameters.

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Table 3: District wise performance of Grama Panchayaths as per GP HDI

District	Number of Grama Panchayaths		Percentage of Grama Panchayaths	
	Above the State Average HDI	Below the State Average HDI	Above the State Average HDI	Below the State Average HDI
Bagalkot	16	181	8.12	91.88
Ballari	44	153	22.34	77.66
Belagavi	164	324	33.61	66.39
Bengaluru (R)	102	2	98.08	1.92
Bengaluru (U)	93	0	100	0
Bidar	10	172	5.49	94.51
Chamarajanagar	61	68	47.29	52.71
Chikkaballapura	69	87	44.23	55.77
Chikkamagaluru	188	36	83.93	16.07
Chitradurga	48	137	25.95	74.05
Dakshina Kannada	206	0	100	0
Davanagere	152	70	68.47	31.53
Dharwad	97	46	67.83	32.17
Gadag	9	113	7.38	92.62
Hassan	199	65	75.38	24.62
Haveri	67	154	30.32	69.68
Kalaburagi	8	252	3.08	96.92
Kodagu	98	3	97.03	2.97
Kolar	95	59	61.69	38.31
Koppal	18	134	11.84	88.16
Mandya	164	67	71	29
Mysuru	235	23	91.09	8.91
Raichur	5	173	2.81	97.19
Ramanagara	94	32	74.6	25.4
Shimoga	244	23	91.39	8.61
Tumakuru	148	183	44.71	55.29
Udupi	148	0	100	0
Uttara Kannada	174	57	75.32	24.68
Vijayapura	2	208	0.95	99.05
Yadgir	0	118	0	100
Total	2958	2940	50.15	49.85

Source: GP and Village HDR Report 2015

The above Overviews of the Human Development situation across 5898 Grama Panchayaths, for which information was accessible, shows that practically equivalent numbers of Grama Panchayaths are performing above and below the state average GPHDI figure of 0.4392. All the Grama Panchayaths situated in the locale of Bangalore Urban, Dakshina Kannada, and Udupi are above the state average HDI figures. All the Grama Panchayaths in Yadgir region are below the state HDI figures. Besides, different locales that is performing inadequately are Bagalkot, Bidar, Gadag, Kalburagi, Raichur, and Vijayapura regions where more than 90 percent of the Grama Panchayaths were below the average HDI figures. The subtleties of area astute number and level of Grama Panchayaths performing above and below the average indicators. in the out of 5898 Grama panchayats the 2958 and 50.15% of the Grama Panchayats are having above the state average HDI and remaining 2940, and 49.85% of the Gram panchayats are below the state average HDI.

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Table 4: District and taluk wise human development status in Hyderabad Karnataka Region with concern to state average HDI

District	Taluka	Number of Grama Panchayaths		Percentage of Grama Panchayaths	
		Above the State Average HDI	Below the State Average HDI	Above the State Average HDI	Below the State Average HDI
Ballari	Ballari	16	22	42.11	57.89
	Hadagalli	4	22	15.38	84.62
	Hagaribommanahalli	2	20	9.09	90.91
	Hospet	6	16	27.27	72.73
	Kudligi	2	34	5.56	94.44
	Sandur	12	14	46.15	53.85
	Siruguppa	2	25	7.41	92.59
Bidar	Aurad	0	38	0	100
	Basavakalyan	2	35	5.41	94.59
	Bhalki	0	39	0	100
	Bidar	4	30	11.76	88.24
	Humnabad	4	30	11.76	88.24
Kalaburagi	Afzalpur	1	26	3.7	96.3
	Aland	0	47	0	100
	Chincholi	0	36	0	100
	Chitapur	0	43	0	100
	Kalaburagi	5	36	12.2	87.8
	Jevargi	1	39	2.5	97.5
	Sedam	1	25	3.85	96.15
Koppal	Gangawati	10	32	23.81	76.19
	Koppal	7	31	18.42	81.58
	Kushtagi	0	36	0	100
	Yelbarga	1	35	2.78	97.22
Raichur	Devadurga	0	33	0	100
	Lingsugur	0	38	0	100
	Manvi	0	37	0	100
	Raichur	1	33	2.94	97.06
	Sindhnur	4	32	11.11	88.89
Yadgir	Shahpur	0	38	0	100
	Shorapur	0	42	0	100
	Yadgir	0	38	0	100
Total		85	1002	8.49	91.50

Source: GP and Village HDR Report 2015

The above table analyses the status human development of gram panchayats in Hyderabad Karnataka Region across the districts with concern to Karnataka state average HDI, here in Hyderabad Karnataka region out of 1087 gram panchayats 85 and 8.49% of the gram panchayats are above the state average HDI and remaining 1002 and 91.50% of the Gram panchayats are below the state average HDI. Among the Hyderabad Karnataka districts, Yadgir district shown a most negative sign in human development in this district all Gram Panchayats are resulting below the state average HDI, and in the Ballari district highest number of the gram panchayats are representing above the state HDI. Highest number of the Gram Panchayats of Sandur taluk are above the state HDI among all taluks of Hyderabad Karnataka region. Hence Ballari district in Hyderabad Karnataka region showing a positive sign in human development.

V. Conclusion

The economic development of a country has been traditionally evaluating in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The greater the volume of GDP per capita, the higher the state of growth and prosperity.

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But, the GDP measure of development completely ignores the welfare of the people. It is not necessarily true that high GDP generates well-being for the people. It is not the volume of GDP per capita, but its distribution that matters much for the standard lives of the people. It is for these reasons that economists like Nobel laureate Amartya Sen, Mahbub Ul Haq, Frances Stewart, Paul Streeten, and others have considered GDP as an inadequate measure of development and instead advocated the concept of human development. With concern to this statement, the present study gets significance to identify the status of the human development index of Karnataka across districts and scenario Grama Panchayats of Hyderabad Karnataka with relating to the Human development index status with respect to state average human development index of Karnataka.

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Gender-Responsive Urban Planning and Design of Public Open Spaces for Social and Economic Equity: Challenges and Opportunities in Dhaka City, Bangladesh

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Abstract- The gendered built environment contributes directly to social and economic inequities. The economic prosperity of Dhaka city is yet to translate into a desirable urban life, especially for its female citizens. Public open spaces – where active urban life flourishes – are populated by men and boys in the city. Nevertheless, these spaces are in a constant state of becoming, radically departing from the earlier ideas of static due to increased engagement of women in urban productivity, politics, and governance. Space is a neglected dimension both in gender and urban studies. The paper examines the urban system of Dhaka that consists of both physical and social systems, interdependent and interlinked in a way that maintains a dynamic balance between forces or exhibits a capacity to grow and change. The findings illustrate that access to and mobility in public open spaces influenced by a range of pragmatic, ideological, socio-cultural, and spatial factors underpinned by prevailing gender inequalities and asymmetries contribute to both social and economic inequities in the city. Thus, the paper recommends gender-specific, gender-sensitive and gender-transformative planning approaches for meaningful occupancy of public open spaces by both women and men.

Keywords: public open space; gender-responsive; spatial transformation; social and economic inequity; urban system.

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Gender-Responsive Urban Planning and Design of Public Open Spaces for Social and Economic Equity: Challenges and Opportunities in Dhaka City, Bangladesh

Huraera Jabeen

Abstract- The gendered built environment contributes directly to social and economic inequities. The economic prosperity of Dhaka city is yet to translate into a desirable urban life, especially for its female citizens. Public open spaces – where active urban life flourishes – are populated by men and boys in the city. Nevertheless, these spaces are in a constant state of becoming, radically departing from the earlier ideas of static due to increased engagement of women in urban productivity, politics, and governance. Space is a neglected dimension both in gender and urban studies. The paper examines the urban system of Dhaka that consists of both physical and social systems, interdependent and interlinked in a way that maintains a dynamic balance between forces or exhibits a capacity to grow and change. The findings illustrate that access to and mobility in public open spaces influenced by a range of pragmatic, ideological, socio-cultural, and spatial factors underpinned by prevailing gender inequalities and asymmetries contribute to both social and economic inequities in the city. Thus, the paper recommends gender-specific, gender-sensitive and gender-transformative planning approaches for meaningful occupancy of public open spaces by both women and men.

Keywords: public open space; gender-responsive; spatial transformation; social and economic inequity; urban system.

I. Introduction

A prosperous city requires equitable access to urban systems such as housing, livelihood, infrastructure, and services along with means to engage its citizens in governance to ensure social and economic equity. These physical and social systems, interdependent and interlinked in a way that maintains a dynamic balance between forces or exhibits a capacity to grow and change (Condon, 2019). Dhaka – the capital city of Bangladesh – is the most important economic center of the country. The economic opportunities have attracted almost 21 percent of the country's total urban population (BBS, 2014) to live and work in this city. However, economic prosperity is yet to translate into a desirable urban life for its citizens. Urban life flourishes in public spaces – the non-private areas of urban settlements in which individuals in co-presence tend to be personally unknown (Lofland, 1989). Public spaces, traced through the spatial transformation of the city over the years, demonstrate a diminishing pattern. Moreover, the usage pattern of these 'open' and 'accessible' spaces used without any payment illustrates social and economic inequity between its female and male citizens based on gender norms, roles, and power dynamics.

Gender is one of the structural factors that highlight the societal aspects of urban systems. It can demonstrate the ways how inequities based on the relationship between women and men intersect with urban planning and design, often bringing out the negative impacts for women and girls (Terraza et al., 2020). Gender research, as globally and in Bangladesh, focuses on different issues; for example, women's gender role and cultural patterns (e.g., violence against women), sex-related factors (e.g., reproductive health), gender division of labor (e.g., livelihood choices), gender differences in income and assets (e.g., inequality in wage), and gender bias in decision–making (e.g., access to education). In most instances, the discussions remain limited to the explorations of cultural, social, economic contexts; rarely, they include spatial analysis of these interrelated forces. Space is a neglected dimension in gender studies and urban studies suffer from a lack of gender theory (Molina, 2018). Alternatively, when planning adopts a gender lens the world looks different, people feel safer on the streets, and homes function better for families and communities (Fainstein and Lisa, 2005).

The paper aims to identify challenges and opportunities for urban planning and design gender-responsive public open spaces that can address social and economic inequity. Dhaka is chosen as the case study for the exploration considering public open spaces in the city are in a constant state of becoming, radically departing from the earlier ideas of static due to increased engagement of women in urban productivity, politics, and governance. The paper has six sections. After this introduction, section two narrates the

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conceptual framework summarized from discourses on public open space and gender-responsiveness. Section three describes the present condition of public open spaces in Dhaka and their gendered access. After a brief narrative of the methodology, section five describes findings and analysis. The spatial characters and space usage patterns, users' experience, and perception of public open spaces are analyzed considering gender norms, roles, and relations for women and men and how they affect access to and control over resources for strategies to take advantage of urban life and economic prosperity. The recommendations and conclusions in section six argue for urban planning and designing gender-specific, gender-sensitive and gender-transformative development to ensure accessible, active, comfortable, and sociable public open spaces for all.

II. Public Open Space and Gender-Responsiveness: Theories and Concepts

a) *The nexus between public open space and urban life*

Public spaces in urban areas are regions 'open' and 'accessible' to different groups of the population. The conception of being open is associated with the notion that these physic al locations (whatever their ownership) may be occupied by anyone who chooses to be present, may go into, pass through, or depart from as they wish (May and Buford, 2014). Normative expectations do not govern the freedom of anyone making choices to be in public spaces. Moreover, accessibility to public spaces is not restricted to specific groups or reflects the desires of the dominant groups who exert control over those spaces (ibid). It is argued that urban life unfolds in public spaces as it is not about the economic and political life broadly conceived, rather refers only to the interaction, to the sociality or sociability which may, of course, be of an economic or political character of the urban area (Lofland, 1989). Gender biases in accessing urban spaces contributes directly to gendered social and economic inequities limiting gainful employment and education, achieving economic independence, providing fewer freedoms to build social networks to cope with risks and stress, and exercise agency in public decision-making that shape the built environment (Terraza et al., 2020).

Urban sociology theories suggest that, although sound similar, the concepts 'public space' and 'public realm' are not synonymous (Lofland, 1998). Public spaces are physical spaces while public realms are social territories, not geographically or physically rooted to pieces of space. The public realm is marked by the co-presence of individuals personally unknown or known only in terms of occupational or other non-personal identity categories (for example, street vendors and customers). Yet, the public realm's full-blown existence is what makes urban areas different from other types of settlement. To encourage an active public realm, urban facilities and services are essential. A good public open space needs to have four different types of ingredients: accessible, comfortable, sociable, and with options of activities (Francis, 2003). Of those four, accessibility depends on linkages, walk ability, connectedness, and convenience; safety, places to sit, attractiveness, cleanliness are criteria for comfort; friendliness, interactivity, and diversity ensure sociability, while usefulness and celebration encourage activities (ibid).

Any urban area is defined as 'public' based on the portion of the 'life space' of its citizens spent in the public realm. Private life centers around ties of close intimacy and personal connection among individuals secluded with the privacy and security of private space. Interpersonal networks around a sense of commonality may take the individual to parochial spaces where they identify their 'life space' with the others based on the rhythms and protocols that govern activities in those spaces. The life there, thus, may be perceived as public or private based on occupancy type and experience by users. Accordingly, the same space and the 'life space' may interchange between private and public. Public space, on the other hand, introduces the flexibility of spending more 'life space' moving away from the networks of personal connection or sense of commonality.

The spatial and organizational aspects of the urban area affect men and women differently (UN-Habitat, 2008); consequently, the experience of urban life by women and men vary in public open spaces. Accessibility to public open spaces can be both spatial and aspatial – spatial denotes physical access by which an individual can reach or use the open spaces. In contrast, the aspatial refers to the socio-economic and cultural constraints and characteristics of the users that either obstruct or facilitate access to those spaces (Penchansky and Thomas, 1981). Traditionally associating women's and girls' roles in a society with the notions of the feminine, inside, residence, and consumption as opposed to the masculine, outside, workplace, and production has been one of the most limiting aspects of urban life (Molina, 2018). The analysis of gender provides a better understanding of such disparities.

b) *Gender in cities of the global South*

The definition of gender transcends from the narrow concept of addressing the need and experience of women as a group to a broader perspective of the social construct that allows women's social roles and positions to become more visible in relation to men's and the relationship with men (Dankelman, 2010). Structured gender relations affect all aspects of an

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individual's life, including their rights and access to and control over resources, levels of decision-making power as well as cultural aspects and identities (Moser, 1995; Kabeer, 1999). The definition of gender demands to include additional attributes and considerations in megacities of the global South like Dhaka because of "the struggles between, on the one hand, the rhetoric of modernity and modernization together with the logic of coloniality and domination, and, on the other, the struggle for independent thought and decolonial freedom" (Levander and Mignolo, 2011:4).

Traditionally, urban planning and design analyzed from gender perspectives adopt the reductionist approach of women as a subject of fear (Molina, 2018). Similarly, the discussion around gender often seem to emphasize women's curtailed choices and power; however, Demetriades and Esplen (2008) argue that discounting men as 'somehow no-gendered' misunderstands how gender-related constraints play out in particular contexts and undermine the positive contributions that men can and are making towards gender equity. Taking an unbiased gender analysis, rather than a narrow focus on women can facilitate identifying separate, complementary and conflicting interests that avoid exacerbating gender inequalities and promote gender equity (Denton, 2002; Nelson et al., 2002; Momsen, 2010).

III. Understanding Public Open Space and Gendered Equity in Dhaka

Public space in the context of Dhaka is defined as places generally open and accessible to all. These include roads and sidewalks; parks and playgrounds; water-front development and plaza; government-owned and maintained recreational buildings where no fees or paid tickets are required for entry, thus mostly open to sky spaces. Non-government-owned shopping centers or malls are not included as public space as they are 'private space' with the appearance of being 'public space.' Also, like many cities of the global South, public spaces in the city are not principally used for leisure like having a coffee, socializing or relaxing as they are in the North; they include sites that accommodate local informal retail activities and where people seek refuge from small or precarious housing, for example, tea-stalls at street corners. Streets and paths are converted as space for mobility as well as space for recreation and socialization.

Dhaka is one of the world's top ten megacities (population-wise), also among the world's least livable cities (EIU, 2019). With five percent annual urbanization rate and 42 million urban population living in only six percent of the country's land area (BBS, 2014), Bangladesh is in the world's top ten fastest urbanizing countries. Extremely poor infrastructure and low level of services characterize the country's urban areas. The capital city remains the most productive location in the country, contributing 36 percent of the GDP owing to its better access to skilled labor and power supply, suppliers, sub-contractors, technicians, and support (Ellis and Roberts, 2016). Despite the limitations of infrastructure and services, urbanization is seen as a promising pathway for the country to accelerate shared growth and end extreme poverty. Improving livability in the cities, like Dhaka, is expected to lead to enhanced attractiveness of urban centers for increased economic activity.

The spatial transformation of Dhaka contributed to the poor livable conditions. An analysis of urbanization and green space dynamics between 1975 and 2005 showed that percentage of green areas reduced from 44.8 to 24.1 during this time, while the built-up area expanded from 13.4 to 49.4 (Byomkesh, Nakagoshi and Dewan, 2012:53). Another study reported that the Dhaka metropolitan region densified rapidly between 2003 and 2016 (Bird et al., 2018). The land surface characterized by high and medium built-up density grew by 4.8 percent a year while low built-up density declined by 9.6 percent against a backdrop of the urban area expansion rate of only 1.5 percent a year (ibid). Thus, the city is left with 8.5 percent of tree-covered lands (Rahman and Zhang, 2018) and 14.5 percent of the 127 sq.km of the city corporation area are open spaces (Byomkesh, Nakagoshi, and Dewan, 2012). Dhaka Structure Plan 2016-2035 identified only 0.30 percent of land of the city can be used for recreational activities (RAJUK, 2015).

Various agencies and institutions own and are responsible for maintaining the existing public open spaces including the Public Works Department (PWD), Dhaka North and South City Corporations (DNCC & DSCC). DSCC and DNCC supervise and maintain around 16 playgrounds and 40 parks covering approximately 0.76 sq.km area (Ahmed and Sohail, 2008) while PWD is responsible for another 1.22 sq.km area. The total of 1.98 sq.km area of parks and playgrounds that are public open spaces forms only 1.5 percent of the city's land. This amount does not include the right-of-way, landing space, road- side island, median, round-about, etc. (Nilufar, 2000). Some of the other open spaces are not accessible to the citizens for use without any payment, for example, the zoo and botanical gardens. Many public open spaces were encroached by the public, private agencies, and political parties in the name of social cause. Both the city corporations have recently taken up initiatives to improve the conditions of some of those parks and playgrounds with new amenities and infrastructure. Nevertheless, with a population density of more than 55,000 persons per square kilometers (BBS, 2014), Dhaka lacks designated public open spaces where citizens can socialize even being strangers to one another.

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One of the reasons for such lacking is related to urban area expansion patterns in the city, which has been predominantly shaped by the private sector. Individual land-owners or the real-estate companies mediated 70 per cent of the physical development (i.e., housing and land development) in Dhaka with little control by the government (World Bank, 2007). Individual land-owners developed the built environment to accommodate the private realm. Real-estate developers followed a similar path of development, leaving almost no space for public usage (Jabeen, 2014). Alternately, neighborhood development initiatives by the public sector, inspired by urban planning theories of the global North, made efforts to create parks and playgrounds (for mostly supervised neighborhood centered recreation), community halls (for neighborhood gatherings), and markets (for controlled consumerism of the community). In the absence of comprehensive city development planning with spaces for public life, for example, city center or squares, water-fronts, etc., some isolated developments were initiated; however, those are not adequate to accommodate the urban life of the city's almost 1.6 million citizens.

A series of interrelated crises (poverty, increases in male unemployment, changes in the nuclear family system, and rural-urban migration), as well as opportunities (increased employment in the export- oriented garment sector, government welfare policies, NGOs, etc.) due to structural adjustment policies and neoliberal governance, have resulted in an increased presence of women in Dhaka city (Habib, Heyen and Meulder, 2014). In such circumstances, spatially 'woman's place' have become simultaneously both in the home and in the city (Rendell, 2000). Nevertheless, patriarchy remained deeply rooted in Bangladeshi society. Despite women playing a significant role in contributing to the prosperity of the city through economic contribution, providing essential services, and enhancing the quality of life in their homes and communities (Chant and McIlwaine, 2016), the 'prosperity' that Dhaka offers – success, wealth, thriving conditions, well-being or good fortune that are perceived almost as a positive term for all – can be argued to be marked by extreme and often mounting social and economic inequalities.

Theoretical discussions and an inventory of public open spaces and gender in the city encouraged to re-examine urban planning and design theory and approaches for Dhaka that may address social and economic equity. The following section briefly narrates the methodology of the study.

IV. Methodology

The qualitative inquiry for the exploration adopted a gendered approach as opposed to traditional versions of masculinity and femininity. The approach seeks to understand how spaces and places are produced and co-constructed through everyday use combined with presence in the imagination (Roberts, 2018). The study also agreed with the need of women and girls to exist as subjects of experience and expression in theorizing space, in the absence of which they may not have the power to determine questions or establish answers to the problems (Staub, 2018; Terraza et al., 2020).

The findings shared in this paper are gathered from a series of exploration activities. In early 2018, a gender assessment was conducted for a donor-funded urban upgrading project. The assessment aimed to inform project design to improve livability and public participation of both women and men in the selected areas of Dhaka city. The objectives included to understand: a) accessibility to public open spaces (e.g., accessibility to and usage pattern of public spaces by both female and male citizens; b) mobility using roads and sidewalks (e.g., the means and options to go from one place to another for work and leisure); c) safety in public spaces (e.g., perception and experience of safety in neighborhoods and the city), and d) participation in decision-making (e.g., involvement of women and men in the decision-making of physical improvement of neighborhoods and the city). The assessment reviewed literature and data; conducted field visits as well as consultations and focus group discussion (FGD) with beneficiary communities, specialized NGOs, officials from public organizations, and agencies.

The city-level professional assessment was then shared with the civil society and experts from diversified disciplines to learn from their expertise, experience, and observations. A symposium 'Gender and Public space' was organized in July 2018. The participants included members from NGOs, Think Tanks, civil society, private sector, professional bodies, and academics. There were two themes for panel discussions: 'Public space: A reflection of the urban society' and 'Public space: A backdrop for the social life of the city.' The key personnel presented to initiate discussions on conceptualizing gender in the city, safety and legal harassment in public space, gender in urban planning and urban design, accessibility to public space, and mobility in the city. Other participants responded to the opinions presented and shared their perspectives as well.

Later, some limited primary data collection was initiated in three representative neighborhoods of Dhaka - Gulshan, Mohammadpur, and Lalbag - in 2019 to learn from the users, triangulate some of the findings, and examine the spatial aspects. The neighborhoods were selected based on density, predominant economic status of households, and planning approach (see Figure 1). Two representative issues – usage of parks and pavements – were selected to examine the differential experience in using public open spaces by

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both female and male respondents. A total of fifty users were interviewed. The survey included semi-structured interviews; visual documentation questions captured information on the usage patterns, experience, and opinions about the quality of parks and pavements. Photographs and mapping formed the basis of spatial analysis. Responses from the interviews were compiled and analyzed using Microsoft Office Excel. The following section describes the findings from the three different exploration activities; and analyses them in relation to the theoretical discourses.

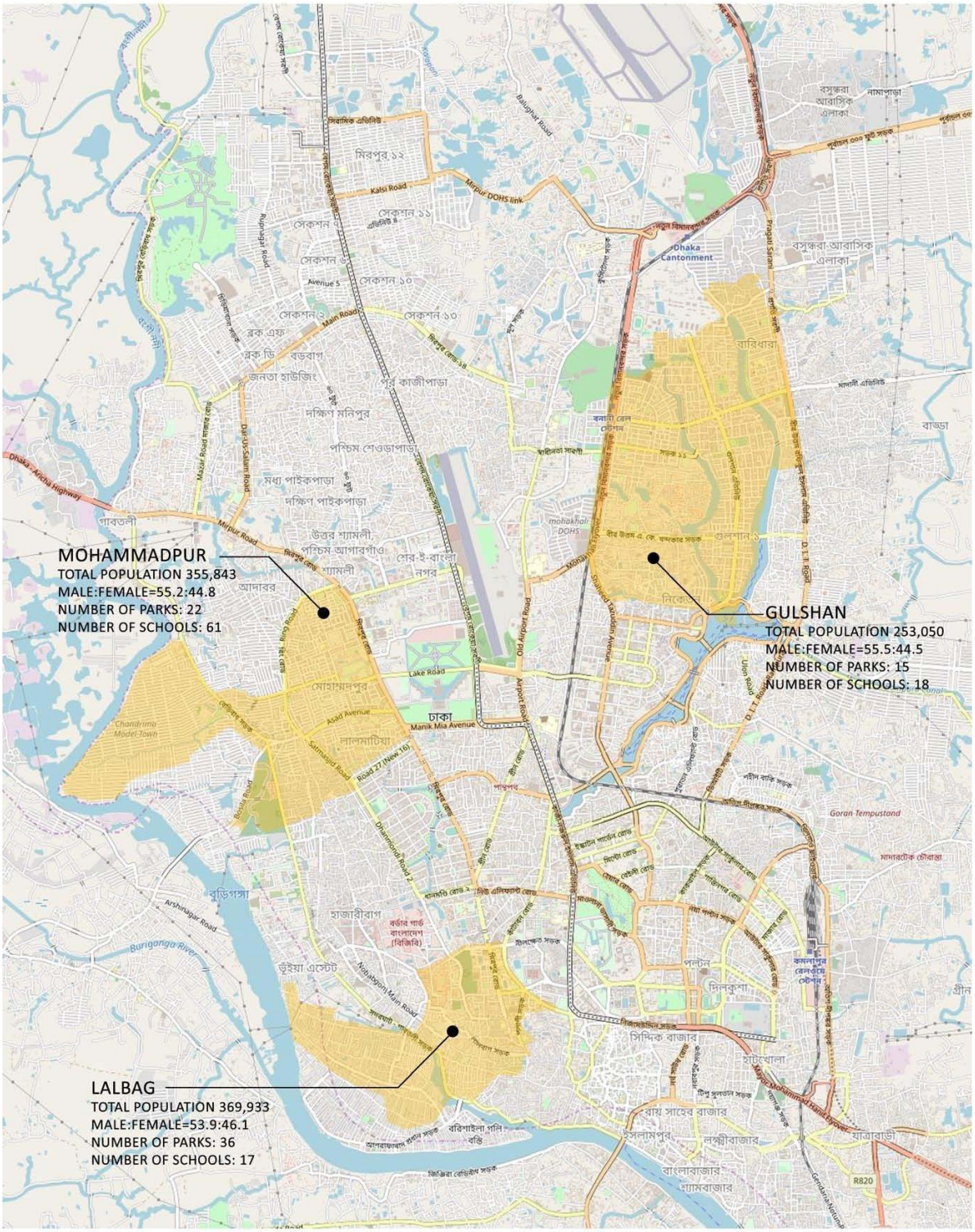

Figure 1: Map of the surveyed neighborhoods

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V. Findings and Analysis

a) *Perception and experience of insecurity exacerbate social inequity by restricting access to public open spaces*

Actual experiences of insecurity from crime and lack of safety in mobility within the city formulate perception about security and safety in Dhaka. Bangladesh has a high prevalence of gender-based violence (GBV) and violence against women (VAW) with certain specificities in the urban context. A study on public transport and women brought out some alarming figures about feeling safe in the city: 42 percent think that city's parks are not safe for them, 25 percent respondents reported lack of safety on the city roads; 28.5 percent tend to return home before dusk; 22.5 percent brought allegations of harassment by co-passengers, drivers and their helpers; they avoid public transport in fear of suffering and sexual harassment (ActionAid, 2015). Another survey reports 9.4 percent respondents to experience physical violence, twice the proportion (18.3 percent) experienced sexual violence, and 9.3 percent experienced emotional violence in public spaces that is in vehicles, roads, and streets (BBS, 2016). The rates are higher in city corporation areas.

As in many other cities of the world, men experience Dhaka with a far greater sense of security and freedom in comparison to women. They navigate public spaces without the same kind of bodily discipline and emotional restraint that women have to endure. Female members of focus group discussion in a lower-middle income neighborhood, Lalbag, echoed moderately conservative social norms to remain within porda even though they recognized the need to participate in social and economic life. None of them expressed feeling safe to send their girl child to play in parks or streets in front of their house. Adolescent girls are either chaperoned or accompanied by a male relative of a female peer or adult, or in many instances, adopt dress codes that signal invisibility, anonymity, and personal restraints. The production of respectability is closely connected to manufacturing safety for themselves to them. The uses of hijab or burkha that have significantly gained popularity in Dhaka in general in recent years may be indicative of the perception of personal insecurity in the city.

A lawyer and academic explained the possible root cause of this attitude in the symposium; the law about harassment in public space dates back to 1860, and the amendment has not been approved yet (Khan, 2018). Citizens prefer to accept harassment as something 'normal'; shame prevents them from taking legal actions against harassment, tolerance encourages more harassment – a vicious cycle – that discourages citizens, especially women and girls, to use public open spaces.

During the survey, both female and male respondents of the park in Gulshan suggested feeling of safety as the main reason for using that park regularly for exercise. The park is enclosed by a visibly permeable enclosure, has tree canopy and paved walkways, benches with shading, children's play area, toilets, amphitheater, entry gate with parking facilities, and guard rooms. Most of the users of the high- or upper-middle income households walk alone, mix with others they were acquainted with, read books, and spend time with children. A regular user of the park said cat-calling was common earlier; the situation significantly improved when a local community-based organization took over management of the park from the city corporation and imposed different restrictions considering the users' demand. Now the park is accessible to only 'regular users' as stated by the care-taker of the park. Alternatively, the perception of security in both the open spaces in Mohammadpur and Lalbag was poor. Poor management as well as the absence of physical features such as lights, toilets, defined enclosure, etc. attributed to the poor perception in those locations (see Figure 2).

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Figure 2: Physical features in the parks in Gulshan, Mohammadpur, and Lalbag

These findings on the perception of security in Dhaka agrees with the global phenomenon that the "social-spatial division of public from private contributes to the violent "policing" of women, girls, and sexual and gender minorities in the public realm" (Terraza et al., 2020:38). Although social norms drive the phenomenon giving rise to social inequity; nevertheless, the socially advantaged populations have advantageous spatial access to urban facilities in Dhaka (Ashik, Mim and Neema, 2020). The examples of physical features and management of facilities of public open spaces illustrate the potentials to address safety and freedom from violence through urban planning and design.

b) *Unsafe and inadequate infrastructure are more problematic for female citizens limiting their economic opportunities*

Similarly, perception and experience of physical safety in public open spaces, for example, streets and pavements, are associated with layout and condition of urban infrastructure and availability of services. Different studies claim pedestrians to be the most vulnerable in Dhaka city - up to 50 percent of road accident deaths are pedestrians, 61 percent of all pedestrian accidents occur during crossing roads at their will (Ahsan and Rahman, 2015). Although about 60 percent of trips in Dhaka are made on foot, the insecurity associated with pedestrian safety encourages people to use slow-moving non- motorized and motorized personalized vehicles, adding volume to the traffic. Pedestrian safety from vehicular traffic is relevant to public space since it facilitates mobility and pedestrian movement, therefore, increases street activity. Furthermore, limited mobility is directly related to curtailed economic opportunities and economic independence.

Streets in Gulshan and Mohammadpur, as identified by respondents of the survey, were safer for newly constructed pavements with defined width and non-slippery textured surface. Respondents identified discontinued paths and uneven surfaces associated with steep slopes, frequent ups and downs, damaged parts, and potholes to make the pavements unsafe; elderly persons and women with children suffered most for those difficulties. Although street activities are argued to be essential to accentuate natural surveillance and increase the likelihood of people feeling secure, users especially, in Lalbag, complained about too many vendors while some shop-owners extend their activities

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over the pavement. People gather in front of those vendors and shop fronts, hence make walking difficult for pedestrians. Women preferred to avoid pavements from the 'feeling of discomfort' of walking pass them (see Figure 3). Women and girls felt unsafe to walk alone in narrow streets without light and visual access to houses in Lalbag. Thus, most working women preferred to look for economic opportunities within the neighborhood, which in the long run, limited their choices and income.



Figure 3: Conditions of streets and pavements in Gulshan, Mohammadpur, and Lalbag

c) *Gendered access limit mobility but can create new opportunities*

A man usually chooses to walk a path where he can see the most, thus engage with the street and the city (Das, 2015). On the other hand, women strategize their movement, walk a route where they can either become invisible (by pretending to be purposeful with a destination), cross roads multiple times to avoid situations in which they might find themselves uncomfortable/unsafe (Ranade, 2007). A similar trend is seen in Dhaka city as women and girls are stared at, pushed, followed by men, or become subject to whistling or indecent comments while walking in streets in the city (Habib, Heyen, and Meulder, 2014). In the process, women usually choose the safest and most comfortable route even though it may be not the shortest route from one point to another. Consequently, their movement through public space becomes a reproduction of the hegemonic discourses of femininity, particularly that of respectable femininity connected to the notion of what good women should/should not do in public.

However, mobility pattern influenced by traffic congestion is resulting in a unique condition in Dhaka. Grownups accompany most children in the city out of safety concerns; mostly, the mothers remain responsible for taking them to school. Considering the time and cost to travel back and forth, many prefer to wait in schools or on roads and open spaces near schools. To make the most out of their time and manage reproductive roles, they prefer to buy everyday food items, household essentials, even clothing on their way or while waiting. Thus, many of the streets near schools in Dhaka are now popular with time-based mobile vendors whose customers are mostly women. This trend is opposing the predominant patriarchal society's norm.

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Waiting in streets and parks near the school for their children with others has become a recreation for some mothers (see Figure 4). These mothers form social groups, run small-scale businesses while their community roles remain concentrated on their children's education and school.



Figure 4: Mothers waiting on pavements in front of a school

d) Aspatial forces form the spatial inequity in access to public open spaces

A lack of facilities, for example, public toilets, is one of the reasons for the limited use of public spaces by women and girls. Sufficient public and well-maintained toilets provide opportunities for women to spend more time walking or moving within the city, which is almost non-existent in Dhaka. The lack of places to sit and gathering points, inaccessible spaces, poor entrances, blank walls, or dead zones around the parks and domination of vehicular traffic results in limited use of parks in Mohammadpur and Lalbag by women and girls. There was no useful infrastructure to organize or celebrate events, the existing park furniture and grounds were not clean and attractive to feel comfortable, a similar type of users did not encourage diversity – the presence of which are essential for a good public open space according to Francis (2003).

However, accessibility to public open space in Dhaka illustrates a much more convoluted relation of females to those spaces. Public space for women is regarded as transit - from one private space to another. The idea of 'enjoying' in the park or spending time with girl friends on the streets seems very difficult for females unless they negotiate their presence by adapting to a specific dressing code (arms, shoulders, and legs covered, using the hijab) and by making sure they have a functional reason to be there (education or errands) (Habib, Heyen, and Meulder, 2014). Previous studies on spaces for leisure illustrate an unappealing scenario: 23 percent of park users are female (Work for a Better Bangladesh, 2015); boys use 97 percent of playgrounds and 85 percent of parks, almost totally excluding girls from using those facilities (Ahmed and Sohail, 2008).

Discussion with women and girls about the reasons for not using public open spaces brings up the issue of 'feeling discomfort' for being in those spaces. Studies in similar contexts suggest that while security is associated with actual physical violence, discomfort is a sense of feeling that one is in the wrong place/time (Ranade, 2007). Verbal assaults (cat-calls), being looked at, and even through self- policing by women themselves create those sense of discomforts (ibid). Women in the survey and focused group discussions reported feeling or experiencing discomfort when they deviated from expected behaviors established by longstanding patterns of conventional gendered use of spaces from the fear of not being appreciated. The reason has been explained by an academic and gender specialist who suggested that although Dhaka's urban society has accepted more women and girls in public open spaces, yet the culturally perceived image of the 70s determined by the patriarchal system and religious beliefs influence their presence (Islam, 2018).

Usage patterns of public open spaces in the study varied based on the socio-economic characteristics of the neighborhoods. Half or more respondents in the park in Gulshan (higher-income neighborhood) came daily or twice a week; the park is used all day long. The middle-aged or elderly male

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members came more frequently at any time of the day, mostly out of health concerns while female members came towards evening; some came during day time while children were away in school or got a break from their household chores. On the other hand, open spaces in Mohammadpur (middle-income neighborhood) were used more during the afternoon (1-5 pm) when younger men came to meet friends and play; very few or almost no women and girls used these spaces. Some park users there were the guardians of nearby school or coaching centers who waited there for their children to save the cost of travel twice. Often the park is used by the neighboring school girls for their annual sports events. However, they are not regular users even being residents. Although there are few open fields in the high-density Lalbag area (lower-income neighborhood), mothers do not send their daughters as boys play there.

e) *Growing demands for access to public open spaces for economic and social equity*

The rate of female participation in labor force in urban areas increased from 20.5 percent in 1995 to 34.5 percent in 2010 (Rahman and Islam, 2013), which is credited for the economic prosperity of Dhaka city. The process of economic diversification substantially increased opportunities for women in manufacturing, construction and service sectors like finance, telecommunication, etc. (ibid) demanding them to spend more time for travel and work. However, when freedoms of women and girls are curtailed at the micro-level of their personal or domestic spaces, as in the case of Lalbag, this often impacts, as well as impacted by, gendered restrictions or exclusions in more macro-level arenas, such as in neighborhood (Chant and McIlwaine, 2016) as was evident in Mohammadpur. Thus, the constraints in mobility arising from a range of spatial and a spatial factors impede women's potential to benefit from the economic opportunities that cities offer and participate in 'urban life' in public.

The demand increases from considering other factors as well, for example, concern for physical and mental well-being. A study on obesity and overweight among school children found 20 to 28 percent of girls were obese or overweight which was associate with less active urban life among other reasons (Rahman et al., 2015). Similarly, weight gain resulting from lack of physical activities in urban areas is a significant predictor of diabetes among Bangladeshi populations and a higher prevalence of diabetes among women (11.2%) compared to men (Chowdhury et al., 2015). As was evident from the survey, more female residents used the park in Gulshan out of health concerns. A development practitioner working towards better urban life suggested that there is a demand for leisure activities in outdoor spaces in Dhaka. Yet, people are not using the already existing ones for lack of management and infrastructure in those spaces (Efroymson, 2018). More women are seen and are socially acceptable to use public open spaces, especially during morning hours in Dhaka for physical well-being. However, some of them adhere to conservative attire (see Figure 5).



Figure 5: Women walking in groups with conservative attire during morning hours

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f) Participation in decision-making at the institutional level

The participation of female citizens in urban politics and governance plays a crucial part in securing gender-sensitive, gender-specific, or gender-transformative development. The same social norms and gender stereotypes that restrict women's opportunities at the household or neighborhood levels pose challenges to their ability to participate in political processes at the city level. Hence, often women's engagement becomes either a tokenism or entrapped in the unpaid and fundamentally altruistic work of building better cities. In the process, the 'automatic trickle-down' benefits are not materialized to create a more equitable share of urban wealth and well-being. Bangladesh has made progress in women's access to power and decision-making; however, their participation in urban area planning and designing is inadequate. Bangladesh constitution suggests equal rights to women and men in public employment, rights of life and personal liberty, freedom of movement, rights to property, among others. The case of female commissioners is a useful case to discuss in this regard. A female commissioner is responsible for every three wards within a city corporation whereas their male counter-part is responsible for one. Interviewing the female commissioners illustrate limitations in making decisions as their work area covers three wards. A limited allocation of resources are divided among three wards, which are not enough to initiate anything independently. Most male commissioners only seek their advice on planning and applying funds for development interventions. Usually, female commissioners' activities remain concentrated on improving the well-being of women and girls in their areas, for example, operating schools for drop-out children, organizing immunization programs. Female members in the Ward Level Coordination Committee to improve urban governance have ensured some representation, but often making their voices heard is a struggle. Women and girls often lack the skills to negotiate either in the dominant patriarchal policy and decision-making environment.

VI. Conclusions and Recommendations

Dhaka city is embracing the 'all-encompassing global urban reality.' On the other hand, the city is exposed to challenges for achieving the efficiency of infrastructure within a short period to address the needs for the prosperity of the increasing urban population. Public open spaces in Dhaka city are gendered; women and girls lack equitable rights for a range of pragmatic, ideological, and socio- cultural reasons. The approach adopted for the study of comparing women with men of the same class and community reflects better accessibility of men to public open spaces and urban services over women. The comparison also illustrates that any new intervention needs to include components specifically to address both the strategic and practical gender needs of women. Therein, the focus should be not on increasing the sheer number of female users of public open space and services, rather find out ways in which women and men will meaningfully occupy public spaces. Accordingly, three planning approaches may be considered:

a) Planning for gender-specificity

There is an acute shortage of public open spaces in Dhaka; of them, very few are accessible to women and girls. A lack of gendered planning of public open spaces create somewhat ambiguous situations for women of Dhaka. The city, on one hand, is coded as a space dangerous for women and, on the other hand, is insisting them to become career-oriented and self-dependent emerging out of their private and supposedly protected spaces. Therefore, some public open spaces like parks, water-fronts, playgrounds, plazas, squares, green areas may be designed to give enhanced access to girls and women. Female-focused urban services need to include components that address the root causes of obstructions for women to work professionally, such as female public toilets, skill and career development centers, day-care centers for children of working mothers, health-care and well-being centers for women, 'safe-place' for adolescent girls, clubs and community spaces for entertainment and leisure to get out of the monotony of everyday life.

The design of public buildings will require considerations of both practical and strategic gender needs. For example, not simply having bus stops but the lighting at and better visibility of bus stops that are likely to be more important for women; libraries not only with dedicated space for silent reading and individual activities but also with visible spaces that can encourage group activity among boys and girls redefining their attitudes towards each other. Changing attitude can be a strategic entry point for reducing sexual harassment and gender-based violence affecting the mobility and accessibility of public spaces for women and girls in Dhaka.

b) Planning for gender-sensitivity

Disproportionate fear of urban crime is an oppressive, informal social control of women in Dhaka. Given the fact that a great concern of women and girls in the city is the risk of being sexually assaulted which they confront day in and day out in vehicles, streets, and roads, interventions may invest towards creating equality of risks, i.e., "not that woman should never be attacked, but that when they are, they should receive a citizen's right to redress and their right to be in that space is unquestioned" (Das, 2015:). Interventions aiming to reduce causes of fear and possibilities of violence restricting accessibility may be incorporated in the design of development interventions. Layout and

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design of roads, streets, and sidewalks need to include urban design features that reduce crime and anti-social behavior. These may include better lighting and signage, visual linkages, clear sightlines, and surveillance, help-seeking points and mapping hotspot of crime, mixes of land use and activities, suggestions for location and design of fences and walls for better legibility.

Public open spaces need to create networks rather than becoming isolated developments. The network can encourage pedestrians to use them all, not some specific ones. The existing parks, lakes, and riverfronts can be linked with new development, for example, linking major isolated parks to one another, connecting greenway network to transit network, and encouraging city authorities to negotiate with concerned agencies to reserve their green, vacant areas and water bodies as part of the green network. Communities can be involved in the planning and design of neighborhoods so that the sense of ownership and interaction are enhanced and, thus, surveillance by residents. Gender- sensitive planning and design, however, should not run the risk of reinforcing stereotypes, rather explore through gender assessment and encourage different groups of people to coexist and fully participate in public life.

c) Planning for gender-transformation

One can argue that planning for public open space in Dhaka continues to be male-centric; therefore, there is a need to adopt gender-transformative planning and design approaches. Public open space acts as a neutral passive backdrop against which the social life of a city is played out; alternatively, a reflection of urban society. Everyday experiences of social life are often neglected in examining rights and belonging to the city. New interventions can be recognized as processes of negotiation, challenge, or appropriation that mediate everyday spatial practices. Through creating debates about design interventions, possible usage of and movements through public spaces can reinvigorate and reclaim urban life as a source of the political site of claiming inhabitation and rights. Such interventions have possibilities to transform hegemonic gendered use of public open spaces.

Development needs to involve residents, especially female members in planning, operationalizing, and maintaining public open spaces. The success of any urban interventions depends on good governance and the engagement of men and women as equitable partners and agents for change. Giving access to public open spaces is a political approach to planning for creating gender equity that encourages individuals to be in spaces where, previously, they did not exist or felt the right to be. However, relative freedom for women to negotiate should not decline another social 'groups' participation or change the outcome of a project or program. The process may develop a better understanding of the multiple users who may either be in conflict or are the creators of gendered patterns of exclusion. There are significant gaps in the capacity of female representatives and residents to participate in decision-making in both the neighborhood and the city level. Any new intervention needs to include capacity building activities for employees of different organizations, elected officials, and staff to better comprehend practical gender needs and strategic goals.

A way forward

GBV and VAW constitute a 'new dominant global agenda' as their rates are escalating everywhere due to increasing poverty, inequality, drug use, access to firearms and political and civil conflicts (Chant and McIlwaine, 2016). The tendency to make the insecurity 'normal' into the functional reality of urban life, as argued by Moser (2004), is particularly problematic for any city. The challenges and opportunities present in Dhaka are not unique, they are representative of many cities of the global South. Urbanization processes can either heighten risk factors for women or may create economic and social opportunities. Globally good urban design practices are encouraging academics and practitioners to seek context-specific solutions from what seems to be very generic challenges. Future research can compare exploration like this in other cities of the global South, as well as the North. Because gender-responsive urban planning and design can ensure social and economic inclusion of all citizens with their equitable contributions to accelerate the progress of cities.

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The Need for Gender Analysis in Water Supply and Management in the Vietnamese Mekong Delta

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Abstract- Economic growth has improved economic opportunities for women and men. However, widespread inequalities in developing countries including Vietnam exist between women and men with regards to their respective opportunities to influence and participate in activities within their society and to benefit from its resources. Due to their traditional gender roles, women are constrained in terms of time, energy since they have had the responsibility for meeting the demand of their family's basic need, such as freshwater, food, and sanitation. Moreover, women can be regarded as the primary beneficiaries of water supply projects as well as are active in water supply policymaking, planning and implementation processes. This article investigates which roles women play in the project stages of rural water supply; and why they are often excluded from participation and management activities through water projects. The article recommends that more attention be given to gender analysis to guide water supply policy development in the region.

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The Need for Gender Analysis in Water Supply and Management in the Vietnamese Mekong Delta

Thai Van Nguyen [α] & Oc Van Vo [σ]

Abstract- Economic growth has improved economic opportunities for women and men. However, widespread inequalities in developing countries including Vietnam exist between women and men with regards to their respective opportunities to influence and participate in activities within their society and to benefit from its resources. Due to their traditional gender roles, women are constrained in terms of time, energy since they have had the responsibility for meeting the demand of their family's basic need, such as freshwater, food, and sanitation. Moreover, women can be regarded as the primary beneficiaries of water supply projects as well as are active in water supply policymaking, planning and implementation processes. This article investigates which roles women play in the project stages of rural water supply; and why they are often excluded from participation and management activities through water projects. The article recommends that more attention be given to gender analysis to guide water supply policy development in the region.

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I. Introduction

In almost all countries during the last decades, there has become an issue of growing concern about the link between human beings and natural resource management – soil, water, air, flora and fauna. To achieve the aim of economic development, it is necessary to properly assess women's role in agricultural production and natural resource management and to create conditions for women to fulfil their roles. Recognizing the importance of gender issues in the developing process of the country, the Vietnamese government has worked out policies on combining socio-economic development environment and natural resources conservation, in which a gender aspect is included. In addition, considerable efforts have been made to identify the role of gender in the field, as well as to empower women and their voices, particularly in the arena of water management policies. In developing countries, women are the main users of water – for cooking, washing, sanitation and family hygiene (Aureli & Brelet 2004). Women could play a key role in water management as major stakeholders in the process of policymaking, planning and implementation, but are often excluded and regarded as merely the recipients (Singh 2004). Women are domestic water managers at the household and community levels, and hence women have the potential to become active stakeholders in processes of management and decision-making within the water sector.

Furthermore, the global policy concepts relating to rural water supply and sanitation have influenced the water policies of most developing countries, including Vietnam (Reis 2012). The Vietnamese National Rural Clean Water Supply and Sanitation Strategy addresses gender issues, particularly noting that women need to be included in water-related activities because they play a major role in the collection and use of domestic water for maintaining the hygiene and health of the family (MARD & MOC 2000). However, significant questions have been raised about how national commitments to ensuring gender equity in water-related activities influence policy implementation at local levels. For this reason, this research aimed to determine the nature and the effectiveness of the policies in terms of their impacts on Vietnamese women. A clear understanding of the policy framework is essential to determine how national policies regarding the water services sector are being implemented by local governments, and ultimately how these policies affect women's participation in water management.

Studies have indicated that social and cultural factors, including gender inequalities and lack of decision-making power, inhibit the participation of women in water resources management (Ademun 2009; Svahn 2011). Several researchers have examined key factors that act as barriers to women's participation within the water sector; however, previous researchers have not addressed the significant role played by cultural beliefs – and social structures and practices of local communities in the policy, which in turn influences both the process and the outcomes.

Drawing on qualitative information from the literature, focus group discussions, and interviews, the article aims to assess the effectiveness of existing policies regarding women and water in Vietnam, the case of women's participation in the implementation of domestic water supply programs in the Vinh Phuoc community of An Giang province of the Mekong Delta.

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Furthermore, the research examines the influence of socio-cultural factors related to gender equality on women's involvement in water management and the effectiveness of policies on female participation in DWSS issues.

II. Material and Methods

The research aims to assess the effectiveness and implications of domestic water supply programs on women in rural communities. 'What' and 'how' questions were used to understand contemporary social debates and develop relevant hypothesis for further inquiry on women and water (Yin 2003). A case study of two villages in Vinh Phuoc commune was selected in order to obtain an understanding about the social phenomenon from different stakeholders' perspectives. Therefore, using the same methods for data collection and analysis in both villages in Vinh Phuoc commune was required to show how water issues and gender are related; as a result, the data collected illustrate the effectiveness of domestic water policies that has been implementing in rural communities.

The ontological dimension of this study is constructivist (Bryman 2004). The constructive approach emphasises individuals' importance by interpreting what constitutes a fact (Hayles, 1995 cited by Ademun 2009). This constructivist approach determines the possibility of enhancing women's empowerment as social actors through physical participation of community members, including disadvantaged groups and policymakers in the arena of water management (Sprague, 1999 cited by Ademun 2009). Gender is a basic principle, which shapes the specific conditions of women and men in society (Creswell 2013). Therefore, these assumptions need to be scrutinised by empirical studies in order to examine what constitutes the effectiveness of DWSS policies and challenges of women's participation in water management activities (Bryman 2004).

The epistemological feature of this study is interpretive ideology (Bryman 2004). Its main purpose is to obtain a common understanding of societal debates and action (Creswell 2013). Knowledge can help us to understand changes in the world (Bryman 2004). However, these debates should be identified by collecting the situated data, which are local and grounded in specific social, physical, historical and cultural context (Llewelyn 2007). As a result, generalisations are made when the previously developed theory is used and analysed as a template to compare the empirical results of the research (Yin 2003).

The qualitative research method is the major mechanism to understand issues related to women and water, based on the main criteria for evaluating for DWSS policies. Qualitative information is collected through FGDs in order to measure how women can get involved in decision-making processes and implement their roles as the main water users and managers in rural water supply programs (Creswell 2013). Also, this particular research method measures women's actual involvement, which entails their capacity to implement the responsibilities and roles assigned to them throughout the domestic water supply programs without male intervention (Creswell 2013).

The two villages in Vinh Phuoc commune were selected with the assistance of the local staff from People's Committee of Vinh Phuoc and the communal water and environment officials. The researcher also read through annual reports from the provincial and local water offices to obtain an overview of socio-economic development information of these communities. The following reasons were identified for the selection of the two villages, such as Vinh Thanh and Vinh Loi (Fig. 1); i) The Vinh Thanh village had a water supply station which is funded by the UNICEF; ii) The Vinh Loi village mainly depends on groundwater from the hand pumps for domestic use, iii) The private and communal initiative were identified in the construction and management of these water sources, iv) Women play a major role in water collection, use and management at household and community levels.

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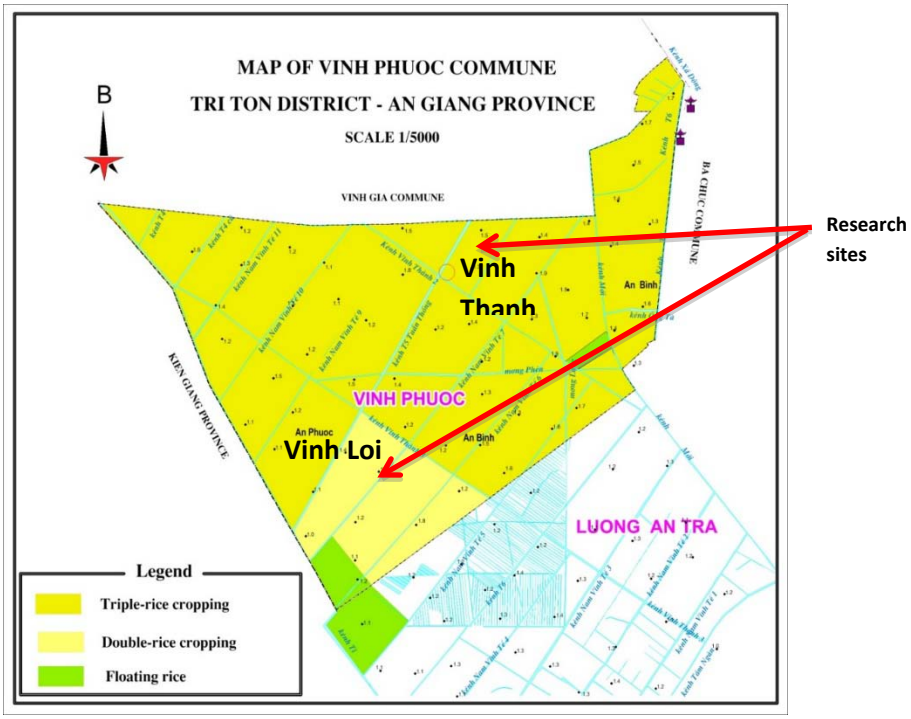

Source: Pham Duy Tien (2018)

Fig. 1: Location of study sites

III. Data Collection Methods

a) Secondary data

Secondary data is very important for understanding the background of research sites, domestic water supply services, socio-economic conditions as well as issues related to women and water. The secondary data used in this study was obtained from different sources: annual local government reports on socio-economic development, recorded information about the implementation of DWSS programs and their impacts on water users and human health, and unpublished papers and International Journal of Water Resources Development, Journal of Gender and Development. I visited provincial and local institutions to obtain the local government reports on the issues of gender and water supply programs. I went through the abstract, methodology and findings of each paper to determine whether the article follows the aims, research questions as well as the relevant paradigms and research methods.

b) Collection of empirical material

In-depth semi-structure interviews

Semi-structure interviews were carried out with the participation of government officials, including Department of Natural Resources and Environment, Centre for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation and People's Committee of Vinh Phuoc Commune regarding gender and the water services sector. The research used open-ended questions, which were designed for the participants as follows:

- The interaction between relevant stakeholders in the water supply services (How often and how they interact with the community and other stakeholders?)
- Who has the responsibility for delivering policies on the water services sector; and who report and receive the feedback from results of water-related projects.
- How effective the implementation of DWSS policies have been achieved?
- Whether policies or guidelines with regard to gender and the water sector are at provincial and local levels?

Focus group discussions (FGDs)

Women in the two communities were selected to be involved in the FGDs. The groups varied in size from 8 – 10 people. The two focus groups were carried out in the Vinh Phuoc commune with women – the water users and managers in the domestic water supply programs. FGDs were set based on a list of designed open-ended questions. The participants are allowed to add topics for discussion if they wanted to. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) techniques were used to allow women to share their knowledge and experience involved in the DWSSs. The four tools were used: timeline, seasonal calendar, Venn diagram, and SWOT analysis. Such techniques give women the opportunities to express their voice about the actual implementation of

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DWSS programs and challenges of women's participation in water management activities.

IV. Results and Discussion

a) Household water use and water fetching

The water use in the household

The research findings indicated that people in Vinh Loi preferred to collect water for cooking, washing and bathing from the hand pumps near their houses, while in Vinh Thanh bathing and washing clothes are sometimes done in the canal. Generally speaking, the canal water remains the primary water source for people in both villages. Bottled water was identified as the main water source for drinking, while several households in the Vinh Thanh use piped water for cooking, washing and bathing. In the Vinh Loi, some better-off families can afford bottled water for drinking, while many poor households drink rainwater, and some drink water from hand pumps (after filtering it for seven days).

Water quality can be improved by treatment; this helps to improve human health by avoiding water-borne diseases. However, the FGD findings show that not all households in the Vinh Phuoc community treat their water before use. The main reason is that the water treatment methods currently available in the community are limited and expensive. Rural households in both villages often boil the water for drinking (other than those with access to hand pumps because they believe that these supply clean water).

Chlorination was once widely used to treat water, especially by poor people, but this method is no longer used; most households now buy bottled water instead. No FGD participants reported using solar disinfection because they believe that it takes several hours for water to settle and become clean and safe for household consumption.

Responsibility for collecting water for domestic use

The FGDs showed that women in the Vinh Phuoc community have the primary responsibility for collecting water for household use. Most women in Vinh Thanh collect water by the water taps from piped water systems and store it in domestic water tanks for later use. The participants stated that it was an easy task for them to meet water demands in the household. Women in Vinh Loi collected water from hand pumps for cooking, washing and cleaning, also storing it in private water tanks. The participants stated that men took over water collection tasks when their wives were sick or absent from the house.

As women have the main responsibility for water collection, they are first to detect water-related problems, such as the water source declining in volume, reduced water quality due to pollution or water taps breaking down. Most women in Vinh Loi said that they identify problems with the hand pumps, and then their husbands help to fix them.

Policy effectiveness and its impacts on women and water

The main sources of water supply in the Vinh Phuoc commune are communal. According to local officials, the communal water supply station provides water to 442 households living in Vinh Thanh, Vinh Loi and Vinh Thuan villages in the Vinh Phuoc commune. An estimated 90% of households in Vinh Thanh collect water from the communal water supply station while in the Vinh Loi, 70% of the households depend on traditional water sources such as hand pumps and canals. Such water sources are located close to people's homes, but the water is sometimes of poor quality and possibly unsafe.

Vinh Thanh's water supply station was built in 2006 with funds from UNICEF. In Vinh Loi, some households accessed to water from hand pumps under the support of the Research Centre for Rural Development (RCRD) in the year of 2013 (results of the Timeline – a PRA tool). Nonetheless, participants from both villages said that they were unhappy with the quality of water from the water supply services. Some participants mentioned that there is a water testing team that is responsible for the evaluation of water quality annually, but local people had not heard from this team. Similarly, little or no assessment of the water quality from hand pumps occurs in Vinh Loi. Reliability of supply, cost of water, water accessibility, quality and quantity are significant elements that help to determine how policy guidelines in relation to women and water under the National Target Program for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation (NTP) at the national level are being practised at the local level, and how these policies have impacted on the lives of people, especially women in the Vinh Phuoc community. These criteria are discussed in the following sections.

Seasonal unreliability of water sources

The FGD findings show that domestic water supply in Vinh Phuoc commune is impacted by seasonal variations, particularly in the dry seasons. In Vinh Loi, from January to March, traditional water supply sources like canals dry up, water tables fall, so hand pumps produce less and poorer-quality water, and rainwater harvesting is not productive. In Vinh Thanh, where people depend mainly on the communal water supply station. FGD participants said that though water supply station can store plenty of water for the dry season, the quality of the water was poor. Seasonal calendar – a PRA tool was used to collect the information on the reliability of water supply sources in the selected communities. Figure 2 identifies all water-related issues that households in both villages are facing over a 12-month period.

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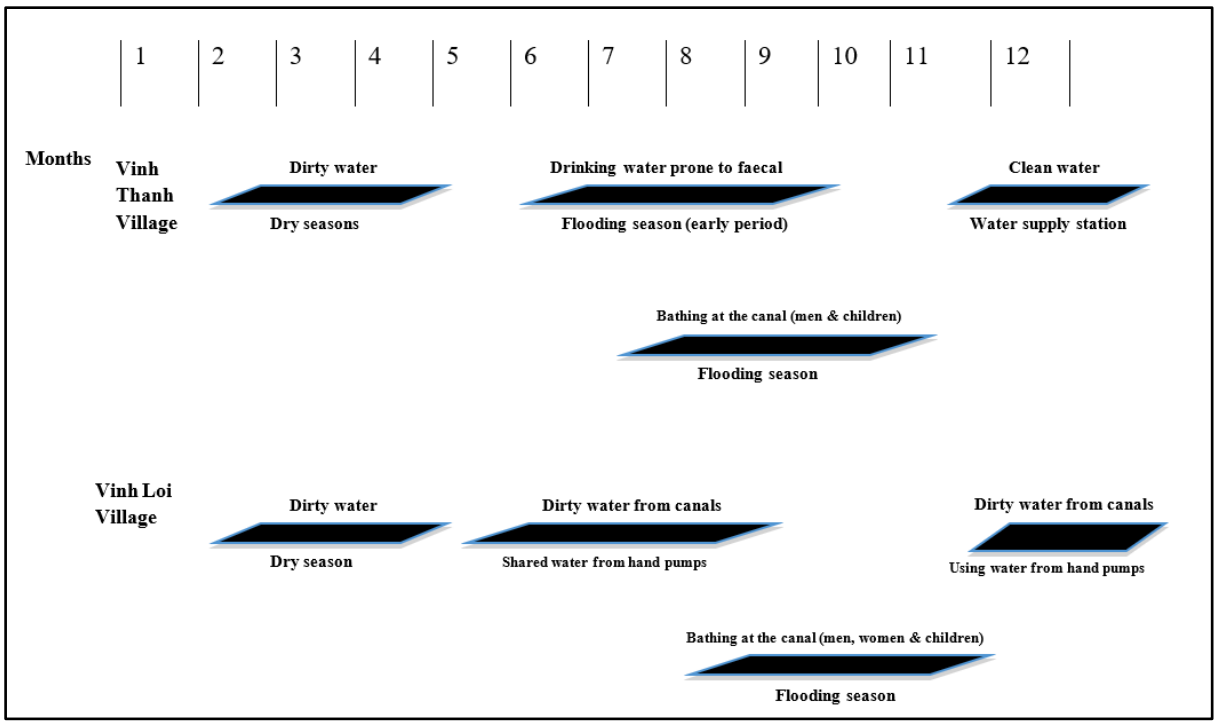

Source: Own illustration based on focus group discussion.

Fig. 2: Seasonal unreliability of the water sources in the two villages

As shown in Figure 2, seasonal unreliability powerfully affects the use of water in households. In particular, most households in both villages suffered from dirty water sources in the early flooding season. Women in Vinh Thanh stated that though they had access to a treated water supply from the water supply station the water is not suitable for drinking. For instance, the participants said that they often get diarrhoea after drinking water from water supply stations, especially in the first two months of the flooding season, even when the water is boiled first. In Vinh Loi, the canal water is dirty in this season and this affects water from hand pumps used for domestic purposes. In this period, water sources from hand pumps are shared among many households, and this also reflects the value of the communal water resources.

Women are generally identified as the group most affected by seasonal unreliability of water sources, because they carry the main responsibility for water collection, use and management in the home. Therefore, seeking alternative ways to meet the water needs of households puts a heavy burden on women.

The cost of water

Charges for water differ in the two villages. In Vinh Thanh, every household is expected to contribute a monthly fee for water supply. However, as previously noted, many households in Vinh Loi use hand pumps, so no monthly contributions are necessary. According to local officials, rural households pay for water under decision 23/2015/QD-UBND of the Provincial People's Committee. The first 10 m3 of water are priced at 4.500 VND per m3 this price applies for households in both urban and rural areas of An Giang province. The price rises to 11.000 VND per m3 for use of 10 m3 of water or more. However, poor people pay only 3.600 VND per m3 for the first 10 m3, and 4.500 VND per m3 for use between 10 and 20 m3. Although poor households pay less than rural households in general for water use, some of them cannot afford access to piped water.

The FGD findings show that women in Vinh Thanh experience great financial constraints for water use. This forces them to collect water from traditional water sources, such as canals. One woman in the Vinh Thanh's FGD said:

> *Due to limited financial assets, households often use water from canals for bathing and washing while they use piped water for cooking and drinking.*

Thus, DWSS programs that provided piped water will be unsuccessful if women cannot afford the water use and return to their old sources (canals).

Water accessibility

A SWOT analysis of water supply programs was carried out in the two selected villages (see Box 1). The researcher found that some responses from the two FGDs were similar. In particular, participants identified similar strengths, opportunities and threats; weaknesses varied with regard to the implementation of DWSS programs. Hence, this information is presented in an integrated SWOT analysis, which presents the finding of how local women take advantages of strengths and opportunities regarding water use and management to mitigate its weaknesses and threats.

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Information Box 1: SWOT analysis of water supply programs in Vinh Phuoc

STRENGTHS (S)	WEAKNESSES (W)
• Easy access to water; reduced time and effort to collect water. • More time to engage in other productive activities. • Water from water supply station and hand pumps is better quality than water from canals.	• Water from the new water sources is sometimes turbid and smells bad. • Water-borne diseases occur when there is no water treatment. • The water supply mainly depends on the power station (Vinh Thanh). • Seeking alternative sources; for instance, canals to collect water in the dry season (Vinh Loi).
OPPORTUNITIES (O).	**THREATS (T)**
• Cooperation between the local authority and donors in community-based development projects, such as floating rice conservation and water-related projects will bring benefits to local people's lives.	• More droughts will result in the water scarcity. • Being scary the flooding with very low levels in the future. • It is necessary to prepare the tanks to harvest rainwater in order to store and use in cases of severe droughts.

Source: Own illustration based on focus group discussion.

As shown in Box 1, the distance that must be travelled to collect water is no longer a problem for women in either village. Women have more time to participate in productive activities, such as rice seeding and transplanting, and small trade – activities that boost their family income. However, the water supply station represents a new source of instability in the water supply to households in Vinh Thanh. The main reason is that this water supply source is heavily reliant on the power supply station, thus when power outages occur consumers cannot access water. One woman from Vinh Thanh said:

> *The water supply is reliant on the operation of the power supply system, thus if power outages occur, especially on the weekend and in the dry season, this means households cannot have access to water sources.*

As already noted, many people in Vinh Loi collect water from hand pumps, which are very close to their houses. However, during the dry season the women in this village had to seek alternative water sources, mainly canals.

Women in the FGDs were concerned that future water scarcity would once again burden them with the responsibility to fetch water. One woman in Vinh Loi said:

> *The weather today is hotter than in the past few years; people here have experienced prolonged hot days along with flooding with very low levels and the rainfall was less than usual, and this led to dry canals up in the last year.*

People in the Vinh Phuoc community are worried about climate-change-induced water shortages that will restrict both agricultural production and daily activities, forcing them to use traditional sources, such as canals and rainwater, to meet their water needs.

The SWOT analysis indicates that women in the two selected villages experience challenges of water accessibility differently. In Vinh Thanh, the water supply station is unreliable because it depends on the power supply station; this compels women to fetch water from canals or collect rainwater for domestic use. In the Vinh Loi, women have to collect water from canals during the dry season as the water supply from hand pumps falls. Hence, DWSS programs in these villages have failed to give women (water users) stable access to water since these challenges force them to seek alternative water sources to meet their household water demands.

Water quality

It is a common observation that due to different water supply services among the two research sites, women in the Vinh Phuoc have different ways to contribute to water management activities, such as recognising water quality and therefore making decision about how best to utilise it or identifying other ways to collect water. In the Vinh Thanh, the water is supplied by the communal water supply station, and sometimes the construction itself failed to meet the desired qualities, which are culturally perceived by the local community. For instance, in the Vinh Thanh village in the Tri Ton district in An Giang Province, the water supply station supplies water that is not regarded as 'good quality' or 'safe and hygienic' water because it is coloured. One participant said:

> *The water from the water supply station is sometimes turbid and even contains alum, and the water must be boiled for drinking purposes.*

Such water is seen as unfit for drinking. Instead, the water from water supply stations is utilised for cooking, washing and bathing, while for drinking, women (except those from poor households) buy bottled water.

Similarly, the water supply from hand pumps is the main water source for households in Vinh Loi. However, such water also has limitations. Most participants agreed with this statement from a participant from Vinh Loi village:

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The taste of the water from the hand pumps is sweet which is very necessary for drinking water. However, women realise that the initial quality of the water is muddy, especially in the morning, thus they have to pump out the first 10 – 20 litres before collecting water.

Furthermore, women find it difficult that they will have to look for alternatives serving for the household water needs in the dry season when the water from hand pumps gets low and contains lots of alum. For this reason, rainwater harvesting is the main remedy for several households to meet the water demands; some can afford to buy bottled water in this instance. Therefore, this reflects that water supply from hand pumps failed to obtain the goal of sustainability in the water management programs, specifically evidenced from in the shortage of water in the scenario of climate variability.

The FGD findings show that women in both villages listed health problems associated with poor water quality in their villages, notably water-borne diseases such as dysentery and diarrhoea. These illnesses put a heavy burden on women, who are overwhelmingly the carers in their families. Poor water quality increases women's workloads, because water needs to be boiled before drinking, and this is especially hard on people who cannot afford bottled water. However, boiling has its own cost: it takes a lot of time and requires lots of firewood, which must also be collected. Thus, DWSS programs have once again failed to achieve their basic goal of providing clean and safe water to households in the Vinh Phuoc commune. Poor water quality poses health risks and increases women's workloads due to the time spent on collecting firewood and water and boiling water.

Water quantity

Households in both villages utilise water for drinking, cooking, bathing, washing clothes and other activities including watering plants and animals. The FGD data indicate that the water consumption of Vinh Loi households averages 100 litres/day, while the average water use per household in Vinh Thanh is an estimated 80 litres/day. Water needs varied depending on household size and priorities. To explain: differences in geography and water supply services drive differences in water use between the villages. Some households in Vinh Thanh live along the canal, and sometimes their water supply source is water piped from it. Most of the participants in this area said that they had to pay for water from the communal water supply station. To save money, they use piped canal water for washing, and personal hygiene. In Vinh Loi, most households rely on water from hand pumps, and a smaller proportion uses water from the canal. Households relying on the hand pumps do not pay for water use, because they are exploiting a natural underground water resource. This explains the differences in the estimated average water use per household in the two villages.

The FGD findings indicate that women in both villages experience water shortages, especially in the dry season and in times when the water from water supply sources is dirty and unsafe. To obtain sufficient water for domestic use, women often collect water from canals and harvest rainwater. However, such sources are unsafe; such as unhygienic post-harvest practices greatly affect the quality of rainwater (Wilbers et al. 2013). Thus, DWSS programs have not achieved success on the criterion of water quantity; lack of water continues to burden women with the work of fetching water from alternative sources.

b) Factors that influence women's participation in water management

Traditional norms and practices

The results show that traditional norms and practice in the Vietnamese society and particularly in the Vinh Phuoc community constitute a major barrier for women to be involved in the public sphere and specifically in water management. In this respect, socially constructed roles and male-dominated society are identified as the major traditional norms and practices that impede women's opportunities to participate in the arena of water management.

Socially constructed roles are the major obstacle affecting women's involvement in water management in Vietnam. Traditional roles refer to how men, women and children traditionally divide the daily work of life (Svahn 2011). Through many generations these roles have become norms in Vietnamese society. Because traditional roles have been norms for women over centuries, and even women think that this is the way things should be organised. Most FGD participants agreed with the following statement by one woman:

Labour division between women and men in the family is reasonable; for instance, men must go out to work, women have to fulfil household chores. Thus, water collection and allocation are women's tasks in the home, and it is fair and it is difficult to change this now.

It has been argued that traditionally constructed roles establish social behaviour within the culture of water management (Minoia 2007) that influences its level of success. To illustrate this, practices among international institutions and donors sometimes disregard the traditional norms within a cultural context (Svahn 2011). Therefore, complex cultural barriers are seen as the result of social behaviours and traditional roles that restrict women's involvement and these are often ignored when developing the practices of water management. From this perspective, traditional norms and practices may reinforce the complex gender roles that restrict women's participation in the community as well as improvements of their situation as a whole.

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Another significant barrier influencing women's involvement in water management is the dominant position of men in Vietnamese society. FGD participants stated that women's exclusion from water management is commonly due to their husbands' lack of support for their wives' engagement in such activities. Specifically, some of the women in the FGDs agreed that:

> *Men have the voice in the family, and they do not like women who often go out of the house and take part in social activities because that is not their role.*

This indicates that women in these rural communities find it difficult to gain support from male family members. However, the FGD participants also stated that while women are often excluded from activities related to water management at the community level, they also restrict their own involvement; one said:

> *It is not only men hindering women to involve in such activities and positions, women hinder themselves because they think that it is the role of men.*

Women often experience limited and different opportunities and are excluded from decision-making processes, thus their viewpoints on various issues are different from men(Stamp 1989). This can result in conflicts between men and women with regard to resource management and development processes. These conflicts may increase disparities between men and women and threaten the power balance in gender relations(Stamp 1989). Women can even face domestic violence related to water consumption, as one participant implied:

> *Women are often blamed and shouted at as their husbands find that there is not enough water for bathing when they get home after work.*

Therefore, men in this case find that women have failed to fulfil their household tasks that at times may lead to conflicts in the family, and sometimes even violence. This indicates that women's exclusion from decision making processes at both household and community levels are mainly rooted in social and cultural barriers, in which the gender roles have been conditioned over decades, and where the male is superior to the female. Power imbalances between men and women in the household and community participation activities, especially in water management are clearly discussed in the next section.

Power imbalances

It has been argued that once power imbalances in the household and the public spheres are altered, approaches designed to increase female participation will become more effective (Ivens 2008). Power imbalances exist in terms of the ownership of assets and resources in families and communities. As already mentioned, male-dominated hierarchical structures remain common in Vietnamese society, rooted in traditional norms and practices. Due to the male-dominated nature of society, women in many parts of the country lack the power to make decisions unless their husband or father gives permission. As one FGD participant stated:

> *Traditionally, the head of the house is the men, thus women must obtain the consent of men to make decisions about any activities, especially financial investment plans or business matters.*

The FGD findings also show that lack of decision-making power prevents women from participating in water management. Although women are the main manager of water in the households, they are still afraid of speaking about water-related activities in the presence of men due to the restrictive culture. Participants expressed this in statements such as:

> *When men have said something, women must be silent because they do not want to cause the conflicts in the family.*

Men in these communities own all the resources because they are the decision-makers and the head of the family. Women are not expected to oppose or argue with men and are not allowed to speak in public due to the culture. Therefore, women find it difficult to adopt leadership roles and positions in the arena of water management at both the household and community level.

Male dominance within Vietnamese society not only prevents women's involvement and empowerment in community activities but has other pernicious effects. A case study in the Vinh Phuoc commune indicates that women's participation was greatly opposed since the men were reluctant to relinquish leadership positions, especially in the water-related project management committee. Men in Vinh Phuoc are involved in the processes of designing, planning and decision-making in water projects to a much greater extent than women. As one of the Vinh Thanh FGD participants stated:

> *The water supply station was constructed with the involvement of the males in the community and male local officials. The importance of female participation in decision-making was disregarded, and that raised some major concerns for the communities.*

The male dominance within Vietnamese society strongly hinders women's engagement in the public sphere. Women will not have opportunities to participate in water management without the creation of an enabling environment.

Time allocation

The FGD findings show that time allocation is also a key barrier to women's participation in water management in the Vinh Phuoc community. This finding corresponds with the literature, which notes that due to the double workload, such as household tasks and childcare, women are often restricted in taking part in water management and water-related project activities (UN Habitat 2006 cited by Svahn 2011). The UNDP (1995) estimated that women spent 9.7 hours and men

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0.9 hours per day on fuel (mainly wood) and water collection. Girls devote more than seven times as many hours per day as adult males to such activities and 3.5 times as much as boys.

A case study in the Vinh Phuoc community found that women spent 8 – 10 hours per day on productive domestic activities, including water collection and family care tasks, while men spend much less time than women in these activities. As previously explained, this time has large opportunity costs. Women have little opportunity to engage in other productive activities, such as community development, education and income-generating activities that could improve their situation. Participants from both villages agreed with one woman's statement that:

> *Women have to take on domestic tasks, including the care of the home, of children, of families; thus they do not have much time to be involved in other activities beyond their own households.*

Due to their domestic workload, women are often unwilling to participate in water management activities. Nevertheless, the women involved in the FGDs were happy to attend the public meetings in general and meetings on water-related issues in particular. One said:

> *When women are invited to take part in local meetings, we are ready to join in, because we can sit together and share and learn from other women's experiences of daily living problems and gain new information.*

However, when the discussion turned to women's participation in decision-making positions and water management teams, women in the two communities studied did not want to be part of it. The main reason is that women believe that undertaking community activities will add to their burden, since their responsibilities for household tasks are not reduced. Ways must be found to increase women's free time and their ability to take part in water management meetings and activities at local levels.

c) A synthesis of women's participation in the DWSSs

Neither of the villages studied maintains specific water or water user committees that have the potential to take responsibility for water supply planning, operation and maintenance. Generally, local government constructs, monitors and manages the performance and progress of water supply programs. This contrasts with local officials' statements that selected local staff would be in charge of operating and maintaining the water supply system, including monitoring, assessment and repair of water treatment facilities. Issues of women's empowerment may be discussed in the local meetings, but the principle actors intend to maintain the status quo. Hence, women are seen as the beneficiaries and their views are not taken into account in the processes of operation and maintenance of the DWSSs in Vinh Phuoc.

Another factor determining women's lack of involvement in the operation and maintenance of the DWSSs is traditional norms. Vinh Thanh's women believe that the idea of them engaging in the operation and maintenance of water supply station is unconventional, thus they find it hard to adopt. The main reasons they gave were, firstly, that men are considered to have primary responsibility for the maintenance of water sources, and secondly, women trying to participate in these matters are likely to face negative attitudes because they are not expected to work outside the domestic sphere. The FGD data shows that these women do not care about water supply activities as long as the water needs of their households are met. Hence, few women living in the Vinh Thanh had any role in the maintenance of the water supply station.

As previously noted, women in these communities had no opportunities to influence decisions concerning the construction of the water supply station. The main reason is that the local government holds the power to decide where water supply systems should be installed, and who is selected for the management of this system.

Furthermore, women from these villages do not recognise the potential contribution they could make in leadership roles, partly due to cultural dimensions. As previously outlined, social norms strongly influence women's perspectives on such participation. One FGD participant in a statement supported by many others said:

> *Management of domestic water supply is female's business, such as water distribution, water fetching and payment for water costs, but we do not think that we expect to be part of the water managing team at the local because these activities and positions are proper for men rather than ours.*

Previous authors have argued that women naturally want to engage in water management activities, but in the Vinh Phuoc's case study cultural barriers prevent them from doing so.

Traditional norms and lack of confidence have been identified as the factors that prevent women's participation in water resources management in Vinh Phuoc. Women are not expected to participate in the management of programs and are not encouraged to work outside of the home in such activities. The local government made no attempt to involve women in water management programs. The corollary, and conclusion, is that efforts of policymakers to encourage women's participation in the DWSS programs and policies have been ineffective.

V. Conclusion

Policies on domestic water supply in the Vinh Phuoc commune and in An Giang province in general aim to provide water supply services, such as piped

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water systems and hand pumps to rural households. However, the policies view women as mere 'passive recipients' of the output of these water-related programs. Almost all women involved in the study are not encouraged to engage in the process of planning, implementation, maintenance and decision-making within the water sector. Households and women were merely seen as the end beneficiaries of the DWSS programs being implemented in the community.

NTP policy guidelines state that women are encouraged to participate in water management activities, ensuring that their needs and interests are met at national and local levels. However, the research found that women's needs in the actual implementation of DWSS programs, particularly in Vinh Phuoc have been generally known. In fact, assessments of the water needs of local users are not included in local government policy. Moreover, water needs were identified by the outsiders, which may differ from and be irrelevant to the actual needs of local communities. For example, the quality of drinking water has been universally identified as a crucial aim from the local government's perspectives. However, it is biased in the fact that other daily domestic water uses such as cooking and personal hygiene, which are also women's concerns. In addition, the water from water sources supply for households is perceived as the safe and hygienic drinking water under the policy framework, but this notion is divorced from the local belief about drinking water with good quality. In the case studies, women in both villages employed more than one water source, such as water from canals or rainwater, to ensure that their households' water needs were met rather than they only utilise a single source (the water supply station in Vinh Thanh and hand pumps in Vinh Loi). If the water supply station and hand pumps could fulfil the water needs of rural women in the communities, the work of women related to water fetching would be greatly reduced. Therefore, water needs and interests must be understood in relation to the social and cultural context of the community.

The participation of women in decision-making in the water service sector in particular and in community management mechanisms in general is supported by agencies at national and local levels. However, the results of the research show that there is no scope for consideration of the gender aspects in the water service sector at the local level. The FGD findings indicate that women in the communities were not given positions to participate in the activities of management, operation and maintenance, especially at the water supply station. Therefore, although women are globally recognised as the primary water managers in water-related activities, women's participation as well as their roles and responsibilities are still disregarded in the perspectives of policymakers and Vietnamese society as a whole.

In rural Vietnamese society, men are regarded as able to fix technical water-related problems, and women are socially and culturally regarded as the main collectors and managers of water in the households. Social principles do not allow women to assume responsibility for equipment maintenance in the water sector. The existing DWSS policy has failed in its intent to include women in this aspect of water management.

Women in the communities lack decision-making power in both the household and the public sphere, especially in activities of operation and maintenance of the Vinh Thanh's water supply station. The FGD data show that women are recognised as the main managers of water at both household and community levels, whereas the site location and mode of operation of the water supply station was decided by the local government, which is male-dominated. Setting up the water supply source, seen as a part of planning, is a significant issue, because this may come along with factors that influence the process of achieving the final outcomes, especially the basic concern is to make decisions on proper technology options. This indicates that a delegation of women in such an activity is limited at the local level. Thus, Vinh Phuoc's women hold little power over the process of planning, implementation, operation and maintenance of the water sources; this is due to local governance structures where males dominate, but also factors including social and cultural barriers that prevent them from being involved in this arena. These factors adversely impact on women's participation throughout the public sphere. It can be said that GAD is an analytical approach to why DWSS programs, particularly in An Giang province did not work because power imbalances and socio-cultural factors were not taken into account and addressed.

The modern water sources – the water supply station and hand pump – have failed to fully replace traditional sources such as rainwater harvesting and water from canals in the Vinh Phuoc community. Such sources provide water, which may be used for activities, such as cooking, washing and bathing, other than drinking. Hence, the DWSS programs recently implemented in Vinh Phuoc have failed to reach their basic goal of providing safe and clean water for all domestic uses. This is particularly in aspects like reliability, cost of water, accessibility, water quality and quantity. In reality, the introduction of a "modern" water source namely hand pumps in Vinh Loi still meant that women have to spend considerable time and energy fetching water from canals for household use. Similarly, the study indicated that the water supply station constructed in Vinh Thanh did not reduce the burden of local women because they continued to use alternative sources to meet water needs in times when the quality of piped water was not good and when the electricity supply failed. Therefore, Vietnamese DWSS policies or programs have been ineffective in encouraging

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women's participation in decision-making because the specific needs of women are not addressed in local communities.

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The Causal Nexus between Public Debt and Economic Growth, A Multivariate Time Series Analysis: Experience from a SAARC Nation

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Abstract- This research paper enquires about the topicality of the dependence of Bangladesh's economy on public debt. Several authors examined the bearings of public debt and economic growth in different counties and they provided mixed results about the direction of the relation. This study is conducted to find out the causal relationship between public debt and growth from the perspective of Bangladesh's economy, and we use export as a control variable. We excerpted annual time series data from the World Bank website (WDI), IMF, and fiscal year 1986 to2018 data were gathered. One can treat budget deficit as the mother of public debt because the incarnation of the former usually precedents to the creation of the later. Several econometric tools have been behaved as Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF), Phillips – Peron (PP), Johansen co integration, Vector error correction model, and Granger casualty to explore short-run causality of public debt on growth.

Keywords: GDP, PUBLIC DEBT, EXPORT, ADF, PP, johansen cointegretion, VECM, granger causality.

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The Causal Nexus between Public Debt and Economic Growth, A Multivariate Time Series Analysis: Experience from a SAARC Nation

Subroto Dey[α], Subrata Saha[σ] & Dipti Bhowmik[ρ]

Abstract- This research paper enquires about the topicality of the dependence of Bangladesh's economy on public debt. Several authors examined the bearings of public debt and economic growth in different counties and they provided mixed results about the direction of the relation. This study is conducted to find out the causal relationship between public debt and growth from the perspective of Bangladesh's economy, and we use export as a control variable. We excerpted annual time series data from the World Bank website (WDI), IMF, and fiscal year 1986 to2018 data were gathered. One can treat budget deficit as the mother of public debt because the incarnation of the former usually precedents to the creation of the later. Several econometric tools have been behaved as Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF), Phillips – Peron (PP), Johansen co integration, Vector error correction model, and Granger casualty to explore short-run causality of public debt on growth. From ADF and PP test we have received, the concerned variables are nonstationary at the level, and they would be stationary if we convert them into the first difference. Overall the results reincarnate the findings of empirical literature that Government debt hinders economic growth. By adapting the granger causality Wald test, we traced that public indebtedness and economic growth have a bidirectional causal relationship in the short-run. The invention from the study elicits that the concerned variables are co integrated into the long-run.

Keywords: GDP, PUBLIC DEBT, EXPORT, ADF, PP, johansen cointegretion, VECM, granger causality.

I. Introduction

The issue of public debt and debt sustainability has long been a concern for policy makers of both fiscal and monetary authority in Bangladesh. Bangladesh recorded a government debt equivalent to 27.90 percent of the country's Gross Domestic Product in 2018. The public debt rose to 32.5 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP) in December 2018, up by 2.1 percentage points from a year earlier, according to estimates of the Institute of International Finance (IIF).

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It is high time the government took a prudent debt management plan, otherwise, risk will abound. The government debt went on rising in the year 2018, mainly due to an increased sale of the national savings certificate (NSCS). Sustainability may emerge as a challenge. The high public debt stems from persistent fiscal deficit can have a significant negative effect on economic activity. It leads to high taxes and puts upward pressure on real interest rates, which may crowd out private investment. When a government no longer able to finance its deficit, it is forced to cut spending on raise revenues, often, at times when expansionary fiscal policy is needed to stabilize the economy. Government debt, also known as public debt, national debt, and sovereign debt, a contrast to the annual government budget deficit, which is a flow variable that equals the difference between government receipts and spending in a single year. Government debt can be categorized as internal debt (owed to the lenders within the country), external debt (owed to the foreign lenders). The government has increased its bank borrowing target by more than 54 percent to nearly taka 730 billion to partly finance the budget deficit of the current fiscal year. The government revised the net bank borrowing target at taka 729.51 billion from the original goal of taka 473.64 billion for FY-2019-20. Bangladesh's national debt is sharply increasing year to year. In 2018, per capita debt was 567 dollars, which was 501 dollars in the previous year. This is due to budget deficit (in 2018, 33.99 %of GDP), which was $271 in 2009 per capita debt. How should the budget deficit be funded? Public finance provided three alternative sources of financing deficits: taxes, debts, and user fees (Rosen and Gayer, 2008). Developing nations faced with weak tax regimes and low incomes; opt for debt as the best option for financing government budget. Economic theory tells that if debt financing is met by borrowing from the central bank, it is inflationary if borrowing it from commercial banks, there is a possibility of crowding out private investment, and if it met by issuing bonds, the cost of debt financing will be high. The external debt is like an unfavorable tax on future generations, which they have to pay for nothing. Excessive dependency on public debt will not only hamper the current economic growth but also will affect the economy negatively in the long run, as the future generations have to bear the burden of

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the large amounts of debt servicing. Close coordination is needed to choose an appropriate mix of financing and policy adjustment to facilitate economic recovery while preventing the build-up of an unsustainable debt burden (Islam and Biswas, June 2005). Most policymakers do seem to think that high public debt reduces long-run economic growth. A negative effect of government debt on long-run growth is consistent with both neoclassical and endogenous growth models (Diamond, 1965; saint-paul, 1992). My policy question is, do high levels of public debt reduce economic growth? And is there any causal relation among the concerned variables.

II. Literature Review and Theoretical Background

Jacobs, J., Ogawa, K., Sterken, E., & Tokutsu, I. (2020) found no causal link from public debt to growth, irrespective of the levels of the public debt ratio. Rather, they have found a causal relationship from growth to public debt.

Le, M. G., Murillo, J. W. R., & Hern, E. A. R. (2019) examined the effect of public indebtedness on economic growth in Latin American economies. Their main findings indicate that a Public Debt-GDP ratio of 75% leads to a deceleration in growth. By using a Panel VAR, they also found that external shocks, such as the foreign capital flows and the terms of trade, influence the public debt effect on economic growth.

Wang, Z. (2019) showed that the local government debt and economic growth in China are the second-order sequences that are of a single integer. And there may not exist long-term cointegration relationship between DEBT and GDP. In the short term, the economic growth of local government is Granger causes of local government debt, but the local government debt is not a Granger cause of economic growth of local government. In the long term, economic growth and government debt of local government exit the Reciprocal causation relationship.

Onafowora, O., & Owoye, O. (2019) confirmed that the examined variables are co integrated. FDI, domestic investment, trade openness, human capital (HC), and institutional quality were found to have significant positive effects on economic growth, while higher public debt and inflation rates hampered growth. The results also indicate one-way causality from output growth to public debt in three countries and bidirectional causality between these two variables in two other nations.

Yusuf, S., & Omar Said, A. (2018) utilized co-integration and Vector Error Correction Mechanism (VECM) Approach to test the relationship between public debt and economic growth and granger causality test to examine the causal relationship between variable. The unit root tests showed that all variables were integrated after taking the first difference: the Johansen co-integration result showed that the variables were co-integrated. The VECM estimate showed that there is a negative relationship between public debt and economic growth in Tanzania over the study period.

Munasinghe, M.A.A., Attapattu, A.M.C.P, and Padmasiri, H.M.N. (2018) used domestic debt, external debt, and educational expenditure as explanatory variables to determine their effect on GDP in the long run. The long run is estimated by employing the Johansen test of cointegration analysis relies on Vector Error Correction Model (VECM). The coefficient of Error Correction Term (ECT) suggests disequilibrium that is corrected at the speed of 58 percent over each year. Significant ECT is proof of the existence of a long-run relationship.

TARIQ, M. N. B. (2017) found that external public debt hurts GDP, which supports the debt overhang theory. Although Bangladesh heavily depends on external public debt as we see it earlier, ultimately, its effect is adverse on GDP. For the case of crowding out model, the main target variable shows that external public debt hurts private investment, which means external borrowing crowds out private investment. It also helps us to understand the overall effect of public external debt stock on economic development.

Owusu-Nantwi, V., & Erickson, C. (2016) revealed a positive and statistically significant long-run relationship between public debt and economic growth. Also, in the short run, a bidirectional Granger causality link exists between public debt and economic growth.

Panizza, U., & Presbitero, A. F. (2014) used an instrumental variable approach to study whether the public debt has a causal effect on economic growth in a sample of OECD countries. The results are consistent with the existing literature that has found a negative correlation between debt and growth. Theirfinding t hat there is no evidence that public debt has a causal effect on economic growth is important in the light of the fact that the negative correlation between debt and growth is sometimes used to justify policies that assume that debt has a negative causal effect on economic growth.

Alam, N., & Taib, F. M. (2013) studied a dichotomous analysis that covers the panels of a group of six “Debt Trap Countries (DTC)” namely as, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Thailand and eight “Non-Debt Trap Countries (NDTC)” as Bangladesh, Fiji, Korea, Malaysia, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, and Singapore, of Asian Pacific Developing Countries (APDC). Findings showed a positive relationship between external public debt (EPD) with the budget deficit (BD), current account deficit (CAD), and exchange rate depreciation (ERD).

Dritsaki, C. (2013) evaluated that the short and long-run relationships exist among these variables. Specifically, the results show that there is a unidirectional Granger causality that runs from exports to economic growth as well as from economic growth to

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government debt. In contrast, there is no short-run causal relationship between exports and government debt. In the long run, the results show that there is a unidirectional Granger causality that runs from economic growth to government debt.

Mahmud and Shahida (2012) investigated the relevance of the dependence of the Bangladesh economy on external public debt. Long run significant negative effects of external public debt service and positive effect of external public debt stock on GDP growth have been found from this investigation. In the short run, only external debt service has a negative effect, but the debt stock does not have any significant effect. Thus the investigation did not find any evidence of debt overhang provided that there is no significant adverse effect of debt stock on GDP growth.

Egbetunde, T. (2012) examined the causal nexus between public debt and economic growth in Nigeria between 1970 and 2010 using a Vector Autoregressive (VAR). The co-integration results show that public debt and economic growth have long-run relationship. The findings of the VAR model revealed that there is bi-directional causality between public debt and economic growth in Nigeria. The paper concluded that public debt and economic growth have long-run relationship, and they are positively related if the government is sincere with the loan obtained and use it for the development of the economy rather than channel the funds to their benefit.

Rahman, M. M., Bashar, M. A., & Dey, S. (2012) explored the relationship between external debt and Gross Domestic Products in Bangladesh for the period of 1972-2010. The results show that there is a positive significant correlation between Gross Domestic Products (GDP) and External Debt (ED). The empirical results suggest the existence of a long-run relationship between GDP and ED. The result of Granger's Causality test implies that there is bi-directional causality runs through GDP to ED as well as ED to GDP.

Akhter, T., & Hassan, H. (2012) reported that a significant positive relationship exists between total public debt & investment and between total public debt & government's reserves. On the other hand, a negative relationship exists with the manufacturing sector and government subsidy. However, no strong statistical evidence has been found regarding the negative impact of external debt on the GDP growth. But with domestic debt, it has been found a negative relationship with little statistical significance.

Ferreira, M. C. (2009) analyzed the Granger-causality relationship between the growth of the real GDP per capita and the public debt, here represented by the ratio of the current primary surplus/GDP and the ratio of the gross Government debt/GDP. They conclude that there is clear Granger causality and that it is always bi-directional. These results have important policy implications since not only does public debt restrain economic growth, but also real GDP per capita growth influences the evolution of public debt.

III. Data & Methodology

The Current study investigates the relationship between GDP and Public debt in Bangladesh. For this purposes, annual time series data of GDP and public debt as well as export as a control variable, spanning of the period of 1976 to 2018, has been used. GDP and export data collected from the World Development Indicators database (World Bank) and public debt data collected from the World Economic Outlook (IMF). Data are expressed in billion US dollars.

Following procedures have been used to conduct this study:

- Time series unit root tests
- Test of the co-integration among the variables
- Granger causality test based on VECM

For diagnostic checking Jarque-Bera test for normality and Lagrange-multiplier test for residual autocorrelation has been employed.

IV. Model Specification

The econometric relationship among GDP, export, and public debt has been studied by the following model:

$$lnGDP_t = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 lnExport_t + \beta_3 lnDebt_t + e_t$$

But the problem is that if GDP, Export and Public debt are non-stationary and I(1) when the residual (e_t) is stationary at the level I(0) then it follows that the linear combination of integrated variables given by the right-hand-side of the following equation must also be stationary.

$$e_t = lnGDP_t - \alpha_0 - \beta_1 lnExport_t - \beta_3 lnDebt_t$$

If the above equation becomes stationary, we can say that the illustrated concept is co-integrated as introduced by Engle and Granger (1987).

V. Unit Root Test

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) tests are used to determine the presence of unit roots in the data sets. In the ADF test, different lag values of the dependent variable should be used as an independent variable for considering residual autocorrelation. The ADF test is based on an estimate of the following regression:

$$\triangle Y_t = \delta_0 + \delta_1 t + \delta_2 Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i \triangle Y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t$$

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Table 1: Unit root test

Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF)					Phillips-Perron (PP)			
	Level		First Difference		Level		First Difference	
Variable	Intercept	Trend & Intercept	Intercept	Trend & Intercept	Intercept	Trend & Intercept	Intercept	Trend & Intercept
GDP	-2.895 (0.0459)	-6.039 (0.0000)	-11.015 (0.0000)	-11.019 (0.0000)	-6.141 (0.0000)	-10.610 (0.0000)	-19.862 (0.0000)	-19.711 (0.0000)
Export	-0.439 (0.9034)	-2.527 (0.3144)	-4.705 (0.0001)	-4.635 (0.0009)	-0.572 (0.8771)	-2.765 (0.2101)	-6.593 (0.0000)	-6.511 (0.0000)
Debt	-1.837 (0.3624)	-3.205 (0.0834)	-5.511 (0.0000)	-5.494 (0.0000)	-1.779 (0.3907)	-2.930 (0.1527)	-7.501 (0.0000)	-7.777 (0.0000)
Residual	-6.150 (0.0000)	-6.114 (0.0000)			-10.745 (0.0000)	-10.783 (0.0000)		

Notes: p-values shown in parentheses.
Source: Authors' computation

Unit test result presented in Table 1 that show all the variables are stationary at first difference because the respective p-value is less than 5%, hence, we reject the null hypothesis that the data has unit root, but GDP is also stationary at level, Phillips-Perron unit root test also conclude the same result. Residual is also presented in table 1, which shows residual is stationary at the level because the p-value is less than 5% at the level. We can see that all the variables are stationary at first difference. Still, residual is stationary at the level, so we can say that there exists a linear combination of these non-stationary variables become stationary. So the variables are co-integrated that was suggested by Engle and Granger (1987). For checking co-integration, we further conduct Johansen multivariate co-integration test in the next section.

VI. Selection-Order Criteria

Table 2: Lag selection criteria

Lag length	Final prediction error (FPE)	Akaike information criterion (AIC)	Schwarz Bayesian information criterion (SBIC)	Hannan-Quinn information criterion (HQIC)
0	.00427	3.05743	3.1854	3.10334
1	3.8e-06	-3.96406	-3.4522	-3.78041
2	3.1e-06	-4.17141	-3.27565	-3.85002
3	2.3e-06	-4.48826	-3.20859	-4.02912
4	1.2e-06*	-5.19645*	-3.53289*	-4.59958*

Source: Authors' computation

In the VAR model, one use the dependent variable in one side and different lagged value of the dependent and independent variable of the other side. Different level of lag provides different result in the model, so the appropriate lag selection is an important task in every model. In this study, we use the following selection criteria, i.e., Final prediction error (FPE), Akaike information criterion (AIC), Schwarz Bayesian information criterion (SBIC), and Hannan-Quinn information criterion (HQIC). Table 2 shows all of that lag selection criteria, and all criteria suggest that the appropriate lag length should be four in this study. So here we should use four lags for every variable.

VII. Co-Integration Test

Since all the variables are integrated of order one, I(1) and residual is stationary at a level, so the variables are co-integrated. For testing co-integration of the variables, we further conduct the Johansen co-integration approach as the following form:

$$\lambda_{\text{trace}}(r) = -T\sum_{i=r+1}^{g}\ln(1-\hat{\lambda}_i)$$

and

$$\lambda_{\max}(r, r+1) = -T\ln(1-\hat{\lambda}_{r+1})$$

Where r is the number of co-integrated vectors under the null hypothesis, and $\hat{\lambda}_i$ is the estimated value for the *i*th ordered Eigen value from the long-run coefficient matrix. The term T is the available observations under consideration. A significantly non-zero Eigen value indicates a significant co-integrating vector (Chris Brooks, 2014).

Sample: 1976 - 2018
Number of obs = 42
Lags = 4

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Table 3: Trace Statistics for Johansen co-integration test

Null Hypothesis	Alternative Hypothesis	Eigenvalue	Trace statistics	5% Critical Value
r = 0	r > 0	-	87.1959	29.68
r ≤1	r > 1	0.84340	14.8863*	15.41
r ≤2	r > 2	0.30652	0.6111	3.76
r ≤3	r > 3	0.01555	-	-

Source: Authors' computation

Table 4: Max Statistics for Johansen co-integration test

Null Hypothesis	Alternative Hypothesis	Eigenvalue	Max Statistics	5% Critical Value
r =0	r =1	-	72.3096	20.97
r =1	r =2	0.84340	14.2752	14.07
r =2	r =3	0.30652	0.6111	3.76
r =3	r =4	0.01555	-	-

Source: Authors' computation

Tables 3 and 4 presents the Johansen multivariate co-integration test result. The result consists of both the trace and maximum Eigenvalue tests. These tests determine the number of co-integration vectors.

The null hypothesis is that the number of co-integrating vectors is less than or equal to 0, 1, 2 or 3 and the null hypothesis is tested against the alternative hypothesis that the number of co-integrating vectors is greater than or equal to 0 or 1 or 2 or 3 for every particular case. In this study, trace statistics indicates that there is one co-integrated vector in the considered variables because 5% critical value is greater than the associated trace statistics value at order one, so we don't reject the null hypothesis that the co-integrated vector is equal or less than one. In this circumstance, we run an error correction model with one co-integrated vector.

VIII. Vector Error Correction Model (VECM)

Since all the variables are integrated of order one and also co-integrated, the appropriate procedure is to run an error correction model that considers the long-run association among variables. So we run the vector error correction model of the following form:

$$\triangle lnGDP_t = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{1i} \triangle lnGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_{1i} \triangle lnExport_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_{1i} \triangle lnDebt_{t-i} + \beta_i \mathrm{ECT} + u_{1t}$$

$$\triangle lnExport_t = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_{2i} \triangle lnExport_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{2i} \triangle lnGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_{2i} \triangle lnDebt_{t-i} + \beta_i \mathrm{ECT} + u_{2t}$$

$$\triangle lnDebt_t = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_{3i} \triangle \mathrm{lnDebt}_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{3i} \triangle \mathrm{lnGDP}_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_{3i} \triangle \mathrm{lnExport}_{t-i} + \beta_i \mathrm{ECT} + u_{3t}$$

	Null hypothesis	Implied restriction
1	Lags of Export do not explain current GDP	$\beta_{1i}=0$
2	Lags of Public debt do not explain current GDP	$\gamma_{1i}=0$
3	Lags of GDP do not explain current Export	$\alpha_{2i}=0$
4	Lags of GDP do not explain current Public debt	$\alpha_{3i}=0$

We will consider the above hypothesis to test the short-run effect of every variable. If we reject the above null hypothesis, then we can say that the considered lagged variable has a significant impact on the respective dependent variable.

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Table 6: Vector Error Correction Model

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Statistics	P-Value
ECT	-2.420665	.277201	-8.73	0.000
GDP (-1)	.7379467	.234405	3.15	0.002
GDP (-2)	.4661497	.1711965	2.72	0.006
GDP (-3)	.316428	.0975153	3.24	0.001
Export (-1)	-.6412148	.3426745	-1.87	0.061
Export (-2)	-.3574544	.3167044	-1.13	0.259
Export (-3)	.3722875	.2893063	1.29	0.198
Debt (-1)	-1.27794	.4595839	-2.78	0.005
Debt (-2)	-2.276607	.4599664	-4.95	0.000
Debt (-3)	-1.011148	.4803636	-2.10	0.035
Constant	.0287451	.1394992	0.21	0.837

Source: Authors' computation

Table 6 shows the long run and short-run individual coefficient. In this case, we consider GDP as the dependent variable and three lag values of GDP, export, and public debt as independent variable. We use four (k=4) lagged in VECM, but (K-1) lagged variable is created in this system. We can see that the coefficient of the error correction term is negative and statistically significant. We also see the short-run individual coefficient among them debt has a negative coefficient for all the three lag levels, so we can say that previous debt has a negative impact on current GDP.

Table 7: Granger causality Wald tests

	Independent variables – Chi-square value		
Dependent variable	$\sum_{i=1}^{k} GDP_{t-i}$	$\sum_{i=1}^{k} Export_{t-i}$	$\sum_{i=1}^{k} Public\ debt_{t-i}$
GDP		6.79 (0.0791)	29.67 (0.0000)
Export	1.54 (0.6738)		11.77 (0.0082)
Public debt	8.26 (0.0409)	1.100 (.7766)	

Notes: p-values shown in parentheses.
Source: Authors' computation

Table 7 shows the Granger causality Wald test result. In Granger causality, we test whether all the lag value of one variable jointly causes another variable. In this test, the null and alternative hypothesis is as follows:

Null hypothesis: H_0 = jointly one variable does not Granger causes to another variable.

Alternative hypothesis: H_a = jointly one variable does Granger causes to another variable

Considering the above hypothesis in this study, public debt has bidirectional Granger causes to GDP because p-value attached to both the coefficient public debt to GDP and GDP to public debt is less than 5% ,so we can reject the null hypothesis that both variables do not Granger cause to each other. On the other hand, export has unidirectional Granger causes to GDP at 10% level, and public debt has unidirectional Granger causes to export because we do not reject the null hypothesis that export does not Granger causes to public debt.

Diagnostics Checking: For diagnostics checking, we conduct the Jarque-Bera test for normality and Lagrange-multiplier test for residual autocorrelation.

Table 8: Jarque-Bera test

Equation	Chi-square value	df	P-value
ΔlnGDP	0.326	2	0.84952
ΔlnExport	0.425	2	0.80860
ΔlnDebt	0.956	2	0.62015
All	1.707	6	0.94461

Source: Authors' computation

Table 8 shows the Jarque-Bera test statistics. In Jarque-Bera test the null and alternative hypothesis is as follows:

Null hypothesis: H_0 = Variable is normally distributed

Alternative hypothesis: H_a = Variable is not normally distributed

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In this study, Jarque-Bera test shows all the variables are normally distributed because-value of associated Chi-square value is too high (above 5%), so we don't reject the null hypothesis, and the null hypothesis is that variables is normally distributed. When we consider all the variables at the same time that is also normally distributed because the associated p-value is 94.46% so in this case, we again not reject the null hypothesis. So the variables under consideration are normally distributed in this study.

Table 9: Lagrange-multiplier test

lag	Chi-square value	df	P-value
1	19.8798	9	0.01867
2	5.9185	9	0.74804
3	11.1662	9	0.26449
4	13.3978	9	0.14542

Source: Authors' computation

Table 9 shows the Lagrange-multiplier test for residual auto-correlation. Lagrange-multiplier test the null and alternative hypothesis is as follows:

Null hypothesis: H_0 = Residual is not auto-correlated

Alternative hypothesis: H_a = Residual is auto-correlated

Considering the above hypothesis, we can say that in this study among 4 lagged value, only lag one is auto-correlated.Still, the other residual is not serially correlated because the p-value of associated Chi-square value is too high (above 5%) so we don't reject the null hypothesis. In conclusion, we can say that the maximum lagged that was used in this study is not serially correlated.

IX. Conclusion

This paper peruses the direction of causality between public debt and economic growth in Bangladesh within the context of the VECM framework. The paper also experiments Unit root and co integration tests among the series adapting ADF, PP, and Johansen tests. The unit root blazons that all the variables are stationary at first difference. The co integration test discloses that all the variables are co integrated, signification that they have a long-run relationship. The direction of causality between public debt and economic growth is bidirectional, whereas unidirectional bearing from export to economic growth has been found from using the granger causality Wald test. Overall the results impersonate the findings of empirical literature that public debt impedes economic activity. This study vindicates that debt negatively impacts economic growth both over the short and long run. Policy makers should be cautious in acquiring an unsustainable high level of debt. Debt limits and fiscal space are country-specific, as it often depends on the country's ability to tolerate a high level of debt. Debt is needed for growth but has to be careful about its use, rate of service payment and reconciliation. Above all ensuring transparency and reduction of corruption, is a crying need. If a high level of debt leads to contractionary policy or retrenchments in fiscal policy, it would be a serious problem and obviously reduce growth. Internal debt (borrowing from the central bank, commercial bank, other internal sources) and external debt (borrowing from outside from country boarder) must not become a common practice. Still, on the contrary, this option should be reserved especially for those situations in which economy is envisaged with unusual affairs, calling for large scale government intervention and important financial resources.

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Les Déterminants de l'Auto Emploi Des Primo- Demandeurs Au Cameroun

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Keywords: *self-employment, first-time applicants.*

GJHSS-E Classification: *FOR Code: 349999*



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Les Déterminants de l'Auto Emploi Des Primo-Demandeurs Au Cameroun

Joel Stephan Tagne [α], Prevost Fotso [σ] & Severin Tamwo [ρ]

Abstract- The aim of this study is to identify the determinants of the self-employment of first-time applicants in Cameroon. To achieve this goal, we used data from the Second Survey of Employment and the Informal Sector (EESI 2) conducted by the National Institute of Statistics in 2012, and using a binary logit model, we achieved the following results: i) If we leave a first-time applicant who has at most a primary level of education for another secondary or higher level, the probability that the latter will be pushed towards self-employment decreases by 12% and 48% respectively. ii) A first-time applicant who comes from a household where at least one parent is an entrepreneur is 6% more likely to be an entrepreneur himself compared to a first-time applicant who has no entrepreneurial parent.

Keywords: self-employment, first-time applicants.

Résumé- La présente étude s'est fixée comme objectif d'identifier les facteurs déterminants l'auto emploi des primo-demandeurs au Cameroun. Pour atteindre cet objectif, nous avons utilisé les données issues de la deuxième enquête sur l'emploi et le secteur informel (EESI 2) conduite par l'institut national de la statistique en 2012, et à l'aide d'un modèle logit binaire, nous sommes parvenus aux résultats suivants : i) Si l'on quitte d'un primo-demandeur qui a au plus un niveau d'instruction primaire pour un autre de niveau secondaire ousupérieur, la probabilité que ce dernier soit poussé vers l'auto emploi baisse respectivement de 12% et 48%. ii) Un primo-demandeur qui vient d'un ménage où au moins un parent est entrepreneur a 6% plus de chance d'être lui-même entrepreneur comparativement à un primo-demandeur qui n'a aucun parent entrepreneur.

Motsclés: auto emploi, primo-demandeurs.

I. Introduction

Il a été fortement démontré dans la littérature qu'il existe de fortes relations entre le niveau d'emploi et la croissance économique. Certains économistes ont montré que les fluctuations du produit intérieur brut avaient des conséquences considérables sur le taux de chômage dans un environnement donné. C'est par exemple le cas d'Okun (1962) qui montre qu'une hausse de 3% de la production réduit de 1% le taux de chômage. D'autre part,certains auteurs à l'instar Totan(2013) ont analysé l'effet inverse et ont trouvé qu'un faible niveau d'emploi surtout chez les jeunes est source de violences et de criminalité, ce qui pourrait par la suite nuire au développement économique. Toutefois, les problèmes liés à l'emploi des jeunes constituent une préoccupation universelle. Akeju et Olanipeun (2014) affirment que l'un des plus grands défis des économies d'Afrique subsaharienne aujourd'hui est le taux de chômage élevé qui a maintenu une tendance à la hausse au fil des ans.

Si l'on s'en tient aux données de la banque mondiale, pour un pays comme le Cameroun, le taux de chômage est passé de 4,26% en 2016 et 4,24% en 2017 pour atteindre 4,23% en 2018. Si ce taux de chômage apparaît à première vue faible, cela ne traduit cependant pas l'efficacité du marché du travail comme on l'aurait pensé dans un pays développé. Ces faibles taux de chômage résultent de l'abondance des emplois précaires. Alors, à la sortie du système éducatif, les jeunes camerounais, pour ne pas affronter le chômage, exercent des emplois qui ne correspondent pas à leurs qualifications etsont de ce fait sous-payés. D'aprèsTagne et Evou (2017), l'emploi le plus probable d'un jeune diplômé de l'enseignement supérieur par exemple en physique nucléaire est chauffeur de moto taxi. Même si le gouvernement camerounais avait pris l'engagement de ramener le taux de sous-emploi de 75% à 2005 à moins de 5% en 2020, les jeunes font toujours faceà ce problème de sous-emploi (selon le Fond National de l'Emploi, le niveau de sous-emploi aujourd'hui est de 71,5%).

L'initiative du gouvernement de recruter 25000 jeunes à la fonction publique en 2011 n'a pas véritablement renversée la tendance de la situation des jeunes sur le marché du travail au Cameroun. D'autres initiatives très tôt prises, à l'instar de la mise en place Fonds National de l'Emploi, du Programme d'Appui au Développement des Emplois Ruraux et bien d'autres ont contribué certes à donner une formation adéquate en phase avec certains besoins du marché de l'emploi mais leur portée reste limitée. L'entrepreneuriat des jeunes, en général et leur auto emploi en particulier peut donc constituer une parade dans la lutte contre le chômage et le sous-emploi (Katz, 2003; Stevenson et Jarillo, 2007).

Plusieurs expressions interviennent dans la désignation de l'auto emploi. D'abord, l'expression auto emploi met un accès sur la dimension réflexive où l'employé et l'employeur désignent une même personne physique (Chervrier et Tremblay, 2004). On désigne également l'auto emploi à travers les expressions de travail indépendant, de travail autonome ou

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d'entrepreneuriat. Bien que l'expression travailleur autonome soit la plus courante, certains distinguent la personne qui exerce un travail autonome sans employé (travailleur indépendant) des autres qui exercent leur activité avec une aide rémunérée (Roy, 1998). Ce dernier auteur fait une distinction nette entre deux formes d'emplois alternatifs: les emplois rémunérés (ou salariaux) et les emplois indépendants.

Naît-on ou devient-on travailleur indépendant? Quels sont les principaux critères, les motivations et les processus sur lesquels se fonde la décision d'entreprendre? Dans le présent travail, il s'agit bien pour nous de chercher les réponses à ces différentes questions mais en nous intéressant seulement sur le cas des primo-demandeurs. Ces derniers sont entendus comme des individus n'ayant jamais travaillés et qui sont à la recherche de leur premier emploi (selon l'Institut National de la Statistique, près de 56,2 % des chômeurs au Cameroun sont primo-demandeurs). En effet très peu expérimentés, souvent concurrencés par leurs ainés, les primo-demandeurs qui arrivent sur le marché du travail rencontrent les plus grandes difficultés pour trouver un emploi. Lorsque l'on ne parvient pas à trouver un emploi, la création d'entreprise devient une solution attractive (Evina, 2010).

Selon Arenius et Minniti (2005), les facteurs démographiques, les facteurs économiques, les facteurs perceptuels et les facteurs socio-environnementaux sont les principaux groupes de facteurs pouvant encourager les individus à travailler à leur propre compte. Dans le même sens, d'après Shapero et Sokol (1982), plusieurs groupes de variables sont source d'auto emploi: les variables situationnelles qui peuvent précipiter l'auto emploi, les variables liées à la perception et la désirabilité de l'auto emploi, les variables en rapport avec la faisabilité de l'acte d'auto emploi et en fin les variables psychologiques. Mais, Peel et Inkson (2004) regroupent ces différents facteurs en seulement deux grands groupes: le contexte structurel (push) qui montre que la détérioration de l'économie contraint de plus en plus des gens à créer leur propre emploi et contexte volontariste (pull) qui montre que les individus sont plutôt agents proactifs dans la construction de leur propre carrière.

Cependant au Cameroun, on sait peu de choses sur les facteurs favorisant ou pénalisant la promotion de l'auto emploi des jeunes surtout des primo-demandeurs. On note néanmoins la prolifération des TPE[1] et PME[2]. Cette prolifération est-elle due à l'existence des dispositifs institutionnels avantageux ou des caractéristiques personnelles particulières? D'une manière plus précise, cette étude cherche à répondre à la question suivante: Quels sont principaux facteurs déterminant de l'auto emploi des primo-demandeurs au Cameroun?

Si cette question a déjà été abordée dans d'autres pays du monde, les travaux empiriques réalisés sur les données camerounaises sont encore inexistants ou peu nombreux, et l'on ne connait pas véritablement ce qui inciterait les primo-demandeurs à s'orienter vers l'auto emploi dans un contexte camerounais.

L'objectif principal de ce travail est donc d'identifier les déterminants de l'auto emploi des primo-demandeurs au Cameroun.D'une manière spécifique il s'agit de montrer la contribution des facteurs structurels et des facteurs volontaristes dans la création du travail autonomepar les primo-demandeurs. Cette étude postule que le niveau d'instruction est une variable push qui influence significativement et négativement sur l'auto emploi des primo-demandeurs au Cameroun. De même, l'auto emploi du chef de ménage est une variable pullincite le primo-demandeur à s'orienter lui aussi dans l'auto emploi.

La suite de ce travail est organisée de la manière suivante : à la section 2, il est présenté la revue de la littérature, la section 3 expose la méthodologie, la section 4 discute des différents résultats et enfin la section 5 conclue l'étude et propose quelques recommandations.

II. Revue de la Litterature

Contrairement au point de vue de Casson (1982) qui affirme de manière catégorique, l'absence d'une théorie économique bien établie de l'entrepreneur ou de l'auto employeur, cette section présente les travaux antérieurs sur les déterminants de l'auto emploi.

a) Cadre théorique

En psychologie sociale, l'analyse théorique de l'auto emploi repose essentiellement sur l'importance de l'intentionnalité dans le processus d'émergence organisationnelle qui a été prôné par Krueger et Carsrud (1993). Le modèle de comportement planifié d'Ajzen (1991) et le modèle de Krueger (1993) sont considéré comme des modèles prédisant le comportement humain à partir des intentions. Ce modèle part du constat que les individus adoptent des décisions rationnés et que le comportement est le résultat de l'intention de s'y engager. Il postule que l'intention d'un individu de se comporter d'une certaine manière est un déterminant immédiat de son action (Emin, 2004). Ainsi, plus l'intention est forte plus l'individu aura tendance à aller vers ce comportement et plus il sera probable qu'il s'engage dans ce comportement (Steg, 2016). En se référant à ce modèle, l'auto emploi peut être considéré commeun comportement résultant de l'intention de créer sa propre entreprise.

Le modèle de choix occupationnel peut également être utilisé pour justifier le comportement de l'individu à s'orienter vers l'auto emploi. En effet, ce

[1] Très petite entreprise
[2] Petite et moyenne entreprise

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modèle répartit la main-d'œuvre en deux catégories: d'un côté les individus qui deviennent des entrepreneurs et de l'autre côté les individus qui choisissent une autre profession. Dans ce sens, Lucas (1978) a soutenu que les individus diffèrent en termes de capacité entrepreneuriale innée. Cependant, pour Kilhstrom et Laffont (1979), les agents diffèrent dans leur niveau d'aversion au risque, ainsi les individus les moins averses au risque deviennent des entrepreneurs et digèrent les plus grandes entreprises.

Les modèles de Lucas (1978) et Kihlstrom et Laffont (1979) sont plus adaptés pour les pays développés où les individus sont soit des entrepreneurs soit des salariés. Étant donné qu'une grande proportion de la population des pays en développement est constituée des travailleurs indépendants encore appelé l'auto-employeur (Dollinger, 2008), ces deux modèles ne peuvent pas être appliqués pour ce groupe de pays. Banerjee et Newman (1993) viennent construire un modèle de choix occupationnel intégrant l'auto emploi. Ce modèle est basé sur une répartition initiale de la richesse. Ces auteurs font une catégorisation des individus selon le niveau de richesse. Ils distinguent les individus situés dans la partie supérieure de la distribution de richesse (les riches), les individus situés à mis parcourt entre la partie supérieur et la partie inférieure et enfin les individus situés dans la partie inférieure. En raison de l'existence d'une garantie, les individus riches peuvent recevoir un prêt pour devenir des entrepreneurs de grande échelle, tandis que les agents situés au milieu de la distribution de richesse initiale reçoivent des prêts plus petits leur permettant d'entrer dans l'auto emploi avec un processus de production à petite échelle. Par contre, les agents situés dans la partie inférieure de la distribution de la richesse, n'ont pas de garantie suffisante et par conséquent ne peuvent qu'être des salariés.

b) Fondements empiriques

Sur le plan empirique, Knight (1921) considère que les individus ne sont pas de nature entrepreneurs, ils peuvent choisir entre le travail salarié et le travail indépendant l'option qui offre la plus grande utilité. Cependant, selon Arenius et Minniti (2005), trois groupes de facteurs peuvent encourager les individus à travailler à leur propre compte: les facteurs démographiques et économiques, les facteurs perceptuels et les facteurs socio-environnementaux.

Comme facteurs économiques, le gain ou le bénéfice prévisionnel est le plus souvent mentionné. Ainsi, le succès financier détermine fortement l'activité d'auto emploi (Scheinberg et MacMillan, 1988). D'autres auteurs mettent l'accent sur les facteurs sociaux et montrent que les individus entreprennent par ce qu'ils veulent non seulement continuer la tradition familiale (Shane et al., (1991) mais aussi atteindre un niveau de reconnaissance sociale, hausser le statut familial et avoir plus d'influence dans leur milieu (Scheinberg et MacMillan, 1988). En ce qui concerne les facteurs environnementaux, ils revoient le plus souvent aux différentes politiques publiques mises en œuvre afin d'encourager l'activité entrepreneuriale, au savoir-faire en matière d'entrepreneuriat, aux ressources financières et non financières (Gnyawali et Fogel, 1994). Les facteurs perceptuels renvoient à la capacité des individus à entreprendre alors que les facteurs démographiques sont constitués de l'âge, du statut au travail et du niveau d'éducation (Himrane, 2018).

Plusieurs travaux ont mis en évidence le rôle de la scolarité et de l'expérience sur le travail indépendant en s'appuyant sur la théorie du capital humain de Becker (1975). Considéré comme l'une des extensions à l'approche néoclassique, cette théorie s'intéresse aux investissements dans les personnes qui permettent d'anticiper en retour de meilleurs revenus dans le futur. Appliquée au travail indépendant, cette théorie se situe dans la continuité de la théorie du choix occupationnel: l'individu calculateur choisirait la forme de travail qui lui permettrait de maximiser le rendement de son capital humain. Sous un autre angle, Fayolle et al. (2006) s'intéressent aussi à la relation niveau d'éducation et l'entrepreneuriat ; il souligne que les entreprises à haute technologie font appel aux personnes très qualifiées et très formées ce qui freinerait ces dernières à s'orienter vers la création de leur propre entreprise. Un autre résultat majeur est que les entreprises à fort potentiel ont été fondées par des entrepreneurs possédant une solide formation technique et commerciale. Le système éducatif permet donc de sensibiliser les étudiants, de valoriser l'image de l'entreprenariat et apporte les connaissances et les compétences qui aident les individus à prendre les bonnes décisions, à élaborer des projets solides et à créer des entreprises dotées d'un potentiel important de croissance.

En somme, il n'y a pas de cadre consensuel pour étudier les déterminants de l'auto emploi. Certains adoptent le statut d'autonome parce qu'ils ne peuvent trouver un autre travail, alors que d'autres sont motivés par l'esprit d'entreprise. C'est dans cette logique que Peel et Inkson (2004) présentent deux types de facteurs favorables à l'entrepreneuriat: le contexte structurel (push) qui montre que la détérioration de l'économie contraint de plus en plus des gens à créer leur propre emploi et contexte volontariste (pull) qui montre que les individus sont plutôt agents proactifs dans la construction de leur propre carrière. Selon ces derniers auteurs, l'un des points de vue n'empêche pas l'autre, puisque certains individus d'abord contraints au travail autonome, finissent par y trouver un style de vie qui convient à leur nature et deviennent proactifs dans le choix qu'ils font de continuer leur carrière avec ce statut d'emploi.

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III. Methodologie

Les données que nous utilisons pour ce travail sont celles de la deuxième enquête sur l'emploi et le secteur informel (EESI 2) qui a été réalisée par l'institut national de la statistique du Cameroun en 2012. Ces données ont été collectées sur tout le territoire national et ce sur douze régions d'enquête: Yaoundé, Douala et les 10 régions administratives.

La modélisation s'appuie sur l'hypothèse d'hétérogénéité entre les primo-demandeurs par rapport à leurs différentes caractéristiques. Les préférences des individus en matière d'auto emploi sont représentées par une fonction d'utilité. Comme avait souligné D'amour (2006) l'individu choisit la catégorie socioprofessionnelle qui lui permettra de maximiser son utilité. Soit U_{ij} le maximum d'utilité possible du primo-demandeur i lorsqu'il choisit l'une des deux (auto emploi ou non) alternatives j, cette fonction est décomposée en une composante déterministe et en une composante stochastique tel que:

$$U_{ij} = X_i \beta_j + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (1)$$

Avec X_i vecteur de caractéristiques observables, β_j vecteur des paramètres du primo-demandeur lorsqu'il choisit l'option j et ε_{ij} le terme d'erreur. Considérons que le primo-demandeur i doit choisir entre l'auto emploi (AU) et le travail salarié (TS). L'utilité de ce choix n'est pas observable, ce qui est observable c'est plutôt le choix Y_i tel que.

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 \ si \ le \ primo-demandeur \ s'auto \ emploi \\ 0 \ si \ non \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Cette décision est prise par comparaison entre l'utilité que procure l'auto emploi et l'utilité que procure le travail salarié.

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 \ si \ U_{iAU} \succ U_{iTS} \\ 0 \ si \ non \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Ainsi la probabilité qu'il s'auto emploi est donné par:

$$\Pr_{AU} = \Pr\left(U_{iAU} \succ U_{iTS}\right) \quad (4)$$

Si on suppose que le terme d'erreur suit une loi logistique de moyenne nulle et de variance $\pi^2/3$, on a:

$$\Pr\left(Y_i = 1\right) = \frac{e^{\beta_j X_i}}{1 + e^{\beta_j X_i}} \quad (5)$$

Il y a lieu de noter que la régression logistique utilise la méthode du maximum de vraisemblance pour estimer les paramètres du modèle d'où:

$$\hat{\varepsilon} = \arg\max\left[L\left(X, \varepsilon\right)\right] \quad (6)$$

Avec

$$L\left(Y, \varepsilon\right) = \prod_{k=1}^{n}\left[F\left(X_i \beta_j\right)\right]^{Y_i}\left[1 - F\left(X_i \beta_j\right)\right]^{1-Y_i} \quad (7)$$

Cette méthode est essentiellement probabiliste. Elle fournit des coefficients de régression β_j à partir desquels on calcule les effets marginaux. Pour parvenir aux résultats, nous allons donc estimer les équations suivantes:

$$ENT_i = \alpha_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{J} \beta_j \, pusch_i + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \lambda_k \, pull_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (8)$$

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$$AU = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 AG + \beta_2 SEX + \beta_3 STAT + \beta_4 MIL + \beta_5 CHOM + \beta_6 HAND + \beta_7 INST + \lambda_1 GAIN + \lambda_2 TYP + \lambda_3 HEUR + \lambda_4 FPROF + \lambda_5 CSPCM + \varepsilon \quad (9)$$

Le vecteur des variables est donc composé d'un côté du groupe d'âge (AG), du sexe (SEX), du statut matrimonial (STAT), du milieu de résidence (MIL), de la durée au chômage (CHOM), du handicap (HAND), du niveau d'instruction(INST) et de l'autre côté du gain (GAIN), de la formation professionnelle (FPROF), du nombre d'heure de travail (HEUR), du type d'activité (TYP), de la catégorie socioprofessionnelle du chef de ménage (CSPCM).

IV. Resultats

En visitant le tableau 1 ci-dessous qui résume les résultats de l'estimation de l'équation 9, plusieurs analyses peuvent être avancées. Le modèle est globalement significatif au seuil de 1% et les variables choisies expliquent à près de 27% le modèle. Seulement 47% de primo-demandeurs de notre échantillon s'orientent vers le travail autonome.

a) Résultats relatifs aux facteurs structurels

Le sexe du primo-demandeur est une variable importante dans la décision de création d'une entreprise au Cameroun. On remarque que la probabilité pour qu'un primo-demandeur de sexe masculin devienne entrepreneur baisse de 0,19 par rapport à un primo-demandeur de sexe féminin.Ainsi, les primo-demandeurs de sexe féminin sont plus poussés à travailler à leur propre compte comparés à leur homologue de sexe masculin. La présence des facteurs sociaux (le chômage, le divorce, la discrimination et les problèmes familiaux) pousse le plus souvent les femmes à travailler à leur propre compte. De nombreuses études ont montré que les hommes devenaient plus souvent des chefs d'entreprise par désir d'entreprendre ou de ne pas travailler pour quelqu'un, alors que pour les femmes, l'élan dominant était le désir de créer un emploi qui permette une flexibilité permettant de concilier travail et famille. Les chercheurs ont conclu que les entrepreneurs masculins poursuivent des objectifs économiques alors que les femmes entrepreneurs sont poussées à la création de leur propre entreprise par la frustration liée au travail salarié (Kaplan, 1988).

La probabilité de choisir le travail indépendant augmente de 9% lorsque le primo-demandeur quitte d'une situation de vie seul pour une situation de vie en couple. Ce résultat pourrait être expliqué par le fait que lorsqu'un promo-demandeur qui vit seulchange de statut et opte pour une situation de vie en couple, cela occasionne des charges supplémentaires l'obligeant donc à chercher des voies et moyens pour essayer de les amortir d'où le recours au travail indépendant.

On constate également que le niveau d'instruction intervient également comme un facteur push qui détermine l'orientation du primo-demandeur vers l'auto emploi. En fait, quittant d'un primo-demandeur qui a au plus le niveau primaire pour un autre de niveau secondaire ousupérieur, la probabilité que ce dernier soit poussé vers l'auto emploi baisse respectivement de 12% et 48%. Ce résultat est accords les travaux de Bruyat (2001) qui montrent comment les plus instruits sont moins poussés à l'auto emploi. En fait, les primo-demandeurs moins diplômés ont le plus souvent moins de chance de décrocher un emploi salarié faute de compétence et d'expérience, l'auto-emploi reste ainsi pour ces derniers l'unique possibilité d'insertion.

b) Résultats relatifs aux facteurs volontaristes

La variable catégorie socioprofessionnelle du chef de ménage influence significativement la décision de création du travail indépendant des individus qui sont à la quête de leur premier emploi. En fait, si l'on quitte d'un primo-demandeur qui n'a aucun parent entrepreneur pour un primo-demandeur où au moins l'un de ses deux parents travaille à son propre compte, alors la probabilité que ce dernier s'oriente également vers l'emploi autonome augmente de 0,06. Il est donc indéniable que les jeunes issus de familles entrepreneuriales constituent un public déjà sensibilisé à la carrière entrepreneuriale volontaire. Frugier et Verzat (2005) mentionne de ce fait que le milieu familial et le contexte socioculturel exercent une influence prégnante[3] sur l'intention d'entreprendre.

La formation professionnelle intervient également significativement dans le choix de l'auto emploi comme catégorie socioprofessionnelle. En effet, les primo-demandeurs ayant suivi une formation professionnelle ont 17% moins de chance de créer leur propre emploi comparé à leurs homologues qui n'ont effectué aucune formation professionnelle. Ce résultat peut être justifié par le fait que les primo-demandeurs ayant suivi une formation professionnelle ne sont pas moins entreprenants que les autres mais ils se voient offrir très rapidement des postes gratifiants à statut social prestigieux avec des conditions de rémunération attrayantes et surtout des responsabilités et des pouvoirs de décision de premier plan. Il est assez difficile qu'ils mettent sur pied des projets entrepreneuriaux pouvant, dans l'avenir conduire à une situation plus satisfaisante que la situation actuelle qu'ils occupent. Cependant ce résultat est contradictoire à celui trouvé par Boissin et al. (2010) qui montre que les étudiants des filières professionnalisantes sont beaucoup plus sensibles à la création d'entreprise.

[3] Qui prédomine

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Pour finir, le revenu intervient significativement dans l'orientation professionnelle des primo-demandeurs. Il en ressort que de nos résultats que, lorsqu'on quitte d'un primo-demandeur qui souhaite avoir un revenu de 28500 par mois pour un autre qui souhaite avoir un revenu inclus dans l'intervalle [28500 376000], la probabilité que ce dernier s'oriente vers l'auto emploi baise de 0,08. Ainsi, plus le gain ou le revenu espéré augmente moins le primo-demandeur aura tendance à choisir le travail indépendant. Ce cas de figure avait déjà été présenté dans le modèle de Jacob (2007) qui montre comment certains individus sont des travailleurs indépendants donc les activités économiques ne fournissent qu'un niveau de subsistance et qui sont par conséquent plus pauvre que les salariés.

Tableau 1: Effets nets des variables sur la décision de création de travail autonome

Variables		Auto-emploi
Push	Age De 18 à 35 ans Plus de 35 ans	Ref 0,0204(0,0256)
	Sexe Féminin masculin	Ref -0,1943(0,0241)***
	Statut matrimonial Seul En couple	Ref 0,0877(0,0262)***
	Milieu de résidence Rural Urbain	Ref -0,0106(0,0283)
	Niveau d'instruction Au plus le primaire Secondaire supérieur	Ref -0,1243(0,0299)*** -0,4869(0,0527)***
	Durée au chômage Au plus 5 ans Plus de 5 ans	Ref -0,0226(0,0495)
	Handicap Pas de handicap Handicap	Ref -0,0578(0,0679)
Pull	Gain Moins de 28500 Entre 28500 et 376000 Plus de 376000	Ref -0,0829(0,0344)** 0,0326(0,0378)
	Type d'activité Occasionnel Régulier	Ref -0,0094(0,0421)
	Nombre d'heure de travail Au plus 4h Entre 5 et 8h Plus de 8h par semaine	Ref -0,0249(0,0462) 0,0216(0,0446)
	Formation professionnelle Non Oui	Ref -0,1789(0,0242)***
	CSP du chef de ménage Salarié Travailleur indépendant	Ref 0,0612(0,0317)*
Nombre d'observation: 1064 Prob > chi2: 0,0000		LR chi2 (12): 227,92 Pseudo R2: 0,2757

Source: estimation des auteurs à partir de la base de données EESI 2. (***), (**) et (*) représentent respectivement la significativité à 1%, 5% et 10%.

V. Conclusion

L'objectif principal de cette étude était d'identifier les déterminants l'auto emploi des primo-demandeurs au Cameroun. Nous sommes parvenus aux résultats suivants en utilisant la base de données EESI 2: les facteurs à la fois structurels et volontaristes influencent l'orientation professionnelle du primo-demandeur; pendant qu'un faible niveau d'instruction oblige le primo-demandeur à créer son propre emploi

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(les individus les plus diplômés s'orientent rarement vers l'auto emploi), l'auto emploi du chef de ménage incite le primo-demandeur à s'orienter lui aussi dans l'auto emploi (les individus issus des familles entrepreneuriales s'orientent facilement vers l'auto emploi). Suite à ces résultats, nous pouvons recommander aux autorités gouvernementales de mettre en œuvre une politique visant à initier les élèves et les étudiants à entreprendre en instaurant dans les programmes scolaires et académiques des enseignements relatifs à l'entrepreneuriat et au monde de l'entreprise afin de favoriser la transmission aux apprenants une vision du monde mieuxinformée des réalités de l'entreprise, comme c'est le cas dans les facultés des sciences économique et de gestion et dans les écoles de commerce.

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We typeset manuscripts using advanced typesetting tools like Adobe In Design, CorelDraw, TeXnicCenter, and TeXStudio. We usually recommend authors submit their research using any standard format they are comfortable with, and let Global Journals do the rest.

Alternatively, you can download our basic template from https://globaljournals.org/Template.zip

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Acknowledgments

Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned in Acknowledgments. The source of funding for the research can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with their addresses.

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Authors can submit papers and articles in an acceptable file format: MS Word (doc, docx), LaTeX (.tex, .zip or .rar including all of your files), Adobe PDF (.pdf), rich text format (.rtf), simple text document (.txt), Open Document Text (.odt), and Apple Pages (.pages). Our professional layout editors will format the entire paper according to our official guidelines. This is one of the highlights of publishing with Global Journals—authors should not be concerned about the formatting of their paper. Global Journals accepts articles and manuscripts in every major language, be it Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Greek, or any other national language, but the title, subtitle, and abstract should be in English. This will facilitate indexing and the pre-peer review process.

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Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

Structure and Format of Manuscript

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

i) Discussion should cover implications and consequences and not just recapitulate the results; conclusions should also be summarized.
j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

Authors should carefully consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate effectively. Papers are much more likely to be accepted if they are carefully designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and follow instructions. They will also be published with much fewer delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

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Author details

The full postal address of any related author(s) must be specified.

Abstract

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Keywords

A major lynchpin of research work for the writing of research papers is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and internet resources. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining, and indexing.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy: planning of a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Choice of the main keywords is the first tool of writing a research paper. Research paper writing is an art. Keyword search should be as strategic as possible.

One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, “What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?” Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

Numerical Methods

Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Abbreviations

Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

Formulas and equations

Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

Tables, Figures, and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.

Figures

Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

Preparation of Eletronic Figures for Publication

Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

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Tips for writing a good quality Social Science Research Paper

Techniques for writing a good quality homan social science research paper:

1. Choosing the topic: In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.

2. Think like evaluators: If you are in confusion or getting demotivated because your paper may not be accepted by the evaluators, then think, and try to evaluate your paper like an evaluator. Try to understand what an evaluator wants in your research paper, and you will automatically have your answer. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

3. Ask your guides: If you are having any difficulty with your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty with your guide (if you have one). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work, then ask your supervisor to help you with an alternative. He or she might also provide you with a list of essential readings.

4. Use of computer is recommended: As you are doing research in the field of homan social science then this point is quite obvious. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable of judging good software, then you can lose the quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various programs available to help you which you can get through the internet.

5. Use the internet for help: An excellent start for your paper is using Google. It is a wondrous search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question of how to write your research paper or find a model research paper. You can download books from the internet. If you have all the required books, place importance on reading, selecting, and analyzing the specified information. Then sketch out your research paper. Use big pictures: You may use encyclopedias like Wikipedia to get pictures with the best resolution. At Global Journals, you should strictly follow here.



6. Bookmarks are useful: When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right? It is a good habit which helps to not lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on the internet also, which will make your search easier.

7. Revise what you wrote: When you write anything, always read it, summarize it, and then finalize it.

8. Make every effort: Make every effort to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in the introduction—what is the need for a particular research paper. Polish your work with good writing skills and always give an evaluator what he wants. Make backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making a research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either on your computer or on paper. This protects you from losing any portion of your important data.

9. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

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11. Pick a good study spot: Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

12. Know what you know: Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.

Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.
Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

19. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

20. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon 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 for 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 of your research.

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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 criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to 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 progression.

General style:

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To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.



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- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

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

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite 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 approaches 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. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a 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 limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—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 for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity 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 of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets 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 for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate 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 to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate 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 section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show 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:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the 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—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and 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.



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Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as 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. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give 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 manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit 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 section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an 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 implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully 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 the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or 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 an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of 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 other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
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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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