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Teaching Classical Ballet

Trade Liberalisation

Demographic Dimensions

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Chinese Entrepreneurship in Portugal: Traditional Ethnic Strategies?

By Dr. Catarina Reis Oliveira

Gulbenkian Foundation

Abstracts - Although immigrant entrepreneurial activities have always been present in Europe, three historical circumstances rendered them more visible in recent decades. The increase in immigration flows and the concentration of immigrants in urban contexts stimulated the creation of a different type of demand associated with immigrant communities. Also the economic growth and expansion of several markets during the 1950s and 1960s produced a decline in native small and medium enterprises, leaving opportunities for immigrants in certain traditional sectors. Finally, the oil crisis in 1973/74 had substantial impacts in terms of the increase in immigrant unemployment. Within this framework immigrants found in entrepreneurship an alternative to economic integration in European societies. They were therefore responsible for the increase in rates of entrepreneurship between 1970 and 1980 (Light and Rosenstein 1995: 12-13, Waldinger et al. 1990: 80).

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Chinese Entrepreneurship in Portugal: Traditional Ethnic Strategies?

Dr. Catarina Reis Oliveira

I. INTRODUCTION

Although immigrant entrepreneurial activities have always been present in Europe, three historical circumstances rendered them more visible in recent decades. The increase in immigration flows and the concentration of immigrants in urban contexts stimulated the creation of a different type of demand associated with immigrant communities. Also the economic growth and expansion of several markets during the 1950s and 1960s produced a decline in native small and medium enterprises, leaving opportunities for immigrants in certain traditional sectors. Finally, the oil crisis in 1973/74 had substantial impacts in terms of the increase in immigrant unemployment. Within this framework immigrants found in entrepreneurship an alternative to economic integration in European societies. They were therefore responsible for the increase in rates of entrepreneurship between 1970 and 1980 (Light and Rosenstein 1995: 12-13, Waldinger et al. 1990: 80).

Furthermore the present change in consumer preferences, linked to globalisation, leads some scholars to believe that favourable conditions exist for the continuing growth of immigrant entrepreneurial strategies (Mars and Ward 1984, Boissevain 1984, Sassen 1991). As a result, today it is unthinkable to imagine cosmopolitan cities such as London, Amsterdam, Paris or Lisbon without immigrant entrepreneurs.

In Portugal, as in other receiving countries, during recent decades immigrants achieved higher entrepreneurial rates than natives. However, a deeper analysis of official data makes it clear that not all immigrant groups have the same propensity to become entrepreneurs. The Chinese stand out in this respect, with the highest rates of entrepreneurship in Portugal, although their migration is relatively recent, dating back only to the 1990s. Which factors then explain the Chinese community's disproportionate entrepreneurial rates? Do the Chinese have particular resources that make them more entrepreneurial than the natives and other immigrant groups? Does the Portuguese context hamper specific opportunities or constraints to their economic integration in the labour market? Or do we find similar entrepreneurial strategies among other Chinese entrepreneurs residing in different receiving societies? Why did Chinese entrepreneurship grow at

such an exceptional rate in the late 1990s in Portugal?

In seeking an answer to these questions, this article aims to scrutinise Chinese entrepreneurial strategies in Portugal and explain these exceptional rates in comparison to other immigrant entrepreneurs. This assessment will be provided through the analysis of data collected in a survey of 309 Chinese entrepreneurs residing in Portugal.ⁱ

II. IMMIGRANT ENTREPRENEURSHIP LITERATURE REVIEW

Immigrant entrepreneurship has been incorporated in academic research since the 1970s. This reflects in itself the growth and economic impact of immigrant entrepreneurial activities in different host contexts.

Several arguments have emerged to explain why certain immigrant groups are more entrepreneurial than others. The main contributions emphasise two explanatory dimensions. One dimension takes into account the characteristics of the immigrant community and another highlights the influences of the host context, including economic, social and institutional spheres.

The first explanatory dimension, developed essentially in the United States of America, is founded on the idea that entrepreneurial behaviour is a consequence of specific cultural motivations and of solidarity within the community. In this context the importance of certain family and ethnic resources was emphasised (Light and Gold 2000). Some researchers even found evidence of immigrant entrepreneurial communities who built closed and protected markets – *ethnic enclaves* – where immigrants were guaranteed higher incomes than they would attain in the open economy (Wilson and Portes, 1980, Portes and Manning, 1986, Portes and Stepick, 1993).

However, evidence from other research conducted has indicated that analyses based purely on cultural attributes and ethnic resources are responsible for the stereotyping of different immigrant groups. Furthermore, differences in entrepreneurial rates among identical ethnic groups in diverse countries and cities confirm the necessity of finding other explanatory variables (Oliveira 2007: 62).

Bearing in mind some of the criticisms aimed at the former explanatory models, new arguments have appeared that take into account the influence of both the opportunities and the constraints of the host contexts in the immigrants' definition of entrepreneurial

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strategies. Several researchers have highlighted the phenomenon of entrepreneurial behaviour as a reaction by immigrants to discrimination or unemployment in the receiving country's labour market, or even to obstacles to accessing opportunities for upward social mobility (Ward and Jenkins, 1984, Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990, Sassen 1995, Jones et al 2000). Furthermore, the policies of the host context (including the banking system and regulatory and institutional frameworks) can also imply different opportunities or constraints that affect immigrants' options in the host labour market. In other words, immigrants can only become entrepreneurs if they have the opportunity to do so.

The study of immigrant entrepreneurship all over the world has shown that these explanatory dimensions are not mutually exclusive. Immigrant entrepreneurial strategies are the result of the combination of several factors and not only the result of ethnic resources (Waldinger et al. 1990, Kloosterman and Rath 2001, Oliveira 2007).

In this context, several models have been developed, taking into account both the influence of the opportunity structures of the host societies and of the immigrant community's resources. The interactive model of Waldinger, Aldrich and Ward (1990) was the first effort at a multidimensional approach. The authors argued that group characteristics should be considered in their interaction with an opportunity structure. Therefore immigrant entrepreneurship was explained in accordance with the relationship between supply and demand, that is, what customers wanted to buy and what immigrants could provide.

Later, Kloosterman and Rath (2001), in a critical overview of research on immigrant entrepreneurship, provided an even more wide-ranging explanation with the *mixed embeddedness* hypothesis. The authors suggested that immigrant entrepreneurship is a much more complex field than analyses of supply and demand indicate, stressing that the opportunities on the demand side have to be accessible for aspiring entrepreneurs.

Even though Kloosterman and Rath recognised that immigrants' embeddedness in cultural, social, economic and political spheres is quite complex and can be relatively diverse, they did not take into account that immigrants do not necessarily mix all spheres in which they are embedded to define entrepreneurial strategies (Oliveira 2007:63). On the other hand, not all immigrants have access to the same resources and opportunities in defining their entrepreneurial activity (Oliveira 2005).

Therefore the definition of an entrepreneurial strategy is a creative process that can include different economic strategies, depending on the combination of resources and opportunities chosen. Immigrants do not necessarily bring together or capitalise on all spheres of their embeddedness (cultural, social, economic and

political) in setting up an entrepreneurial activity, but only those that guarantee better outcomes for their economic purposes.

Taking all of this into account, the analysis that will be undertaken in this article is based on the heuristic model created in previous research undertaken in Portugal. This summarises the most relevant explanatory elements - and their relationships with each other - in the definition of immigrant entrepreneurial strategies in host contexts (Oliveira 2005, Oliveira 2007). The model follows other attempts to show that there are no random factors in immigrant entrepreneurship and aims to reflect the resourceful dealings that immigrants establish within the context of their personal resources, social networks and structural opportunities, with the aim of defining entrepreneurial tactics (see figure 1).

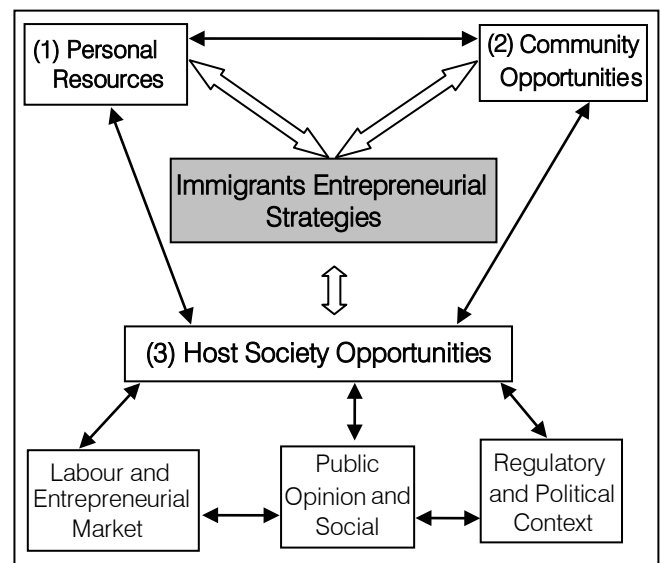


Figure 1 : The main components of entrepreneurshipⁱⁱ

Viewed within this model, immigrant entrepreneurs are not seen as passive, but as actors who react to the opportunities and constraints with which they are confronted during the process of business creation. Furthermore, bearing in mind that opportunities are not necessarily obvious or transparent to all actors, nor are they available to all individuals or ethnic groups, these theoretical hypotheses consider that immigrant entrepreneurial strategies are a result of negotiation, adaptation, imagination and even reproduction of entrepreneurial options already pursued by others.

The application of this heuristic model to immigrant entrepreneurs in Portugal (Oliveira 2005) highlighted the fact that immigrant entrepreneurial strategies emerge from an inventive and lively interaction of three different components:

- 1) The individual with his or her *personal resources*. These personal resources include predisposing factors to entrepreneurship such as savings, education, entrepreneurial and work experience,

age, legal status in the receiving country, language skills, migratory experience and ambitions.

- 2) The immigrant community, that is, the social networks in which immigrants are embedded and their resources. The importance of *ethnic resources* to immigrant entrepreneurship has been highlighted by several authors.ⁱⁱⁱ These resources include financial support, labour,
- 3) Consumers, suppliers and advice based on the community's entrepreneurial experience.
- 4) The host society, including both the labour market, the policy and the regulatory framework and public opinion. In other words, this component emphasises the *opportunity structure* that immigrants find in the receiving country. To do well in business, immigrants have to find openings in the entrepreneurial market, no constraints in the receiving country's regulatory regime and no negative public opinion, especially if their business is dependent on native customers.

The absence of opportunities in either one or two of these components does not necessarily mean that immigrants will not develop an entrepreneurial strategy, since they can also rely on only one strong source of resources. However, the lack of certain key resources can affect the levels of profit or success of the business. As will be shown in further detail, this is particularly true of Chinese entrepreneurs in Portugal, who belong to a group with a prior history of entrepreneurship and strong ethnic resources. Nevertheless they have been significantly affected by the Portuguese opportunity structure at certain periods of time. It is important to take into account that resources and opportunities that immigrants have access to the definition of entrepreneurial strategies are not necessarily constant in time or space. The change of a policy or a certain incident that generates negative or positive public opinion on immigration - or about a certain ethnic group -, for example, can define clear alterations in the opportunity structure for immigrant entrepreneurship.

In sum, the interaction and flow of resources between these three components is the vibrant core of the explanation as to why some immigrants develop entrepreneurial activities and others are not able to do so in certain spatial contexts and through time (Oliveira 2004a).

III. CHINESE ENTREPRENEURIAL OPPORTUNITIES AND RESOURCES IN PORTUGAL

Historical relations between Portugal and China date back to the sixteenth century, when Macao was colonised and gradually occupied by the Portuguese.

Nevertheless, the presence of Chinese immigrants in Portugal only became noticeable during the twentieth century, and they mainly hailed from

Zhejiang Province, namely from Qingtian and Wenzhou (Oliveira 2002:229, Oliveira and Costa 2008: 254).

The increase in Chinese immigrants was particularly intense during the 1990s, when two extraordinary regularisation processes took place in Portugal (one in 1992/93 and another in 1996). In 1985 there were 785 Chinese immigrants officially registered in Portugal, while in 1995 that figure grew to 2,202, reaching 9,695 in 2006. Close to 71% of the Chinese entrepreneurs surveyed declared that they had arrived in Portugal during the 1990s (see table 1).

Table 1 : Decade of arrival of Chinese entrepreneurs in Portugal

Decade of arrival to Portugal	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
1960s	3	1.0
1970s	9	3.0
1980s	76	25.1
1990s and after	215	71.0
Total	303	100

Source : Oliveira (2005 : 77).

Note : 6 entrepreneurs declined to answer this question

The framework that justified the Chinese flow during the 1990s highlights very well the influence of the opportunity structure of Portugal on Chinese entrepreneurial strategies in the country. The fact is that some of these Chinese migrants did not intend to come and invest in Portugal, but merely to acquire a legal status within Europe (Oliveira 2003). A significant number of the Chinese people surveyed declared that they had come from another European country, and that they had eventually stayed when they discovered the lack of competition in their business sectors in Portugal (see table 2).

Table 2 : Migratory Experiences of Chinese Entrepreneurs

Countries of passage	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
Directly from China to Portugal	177	57.3
Through European countries	116	37.5
Spain	48	15.5
France	20	6.5
The Netherlands	15	4.9
Germany	8	2.6
Through non-European countries	16	5.2
Total	309	100

Source : Oliveira (2005 : 86)

The arrival of the Chinese, and the Asians in general, contributed to the diversification of both the nationalities and the occupations of immigrants in Portugal. Immigration in the country until the 1980s was essentially dominated by Africans from former

Portuguese colonies, who entered the low-skilled sectors of the labour market, mainly in construction and cleaning. Hence the Chinese immigrants not only defined alternative forms of immigrant economic integration in the Portuguese labour market, by revealing an aptitude for entrepreneurship and self-employment, but also defined new economic niches for immigrants, for example, retail and ethnic restaurants. As a result, gradually during the past decades, the Chinese have become the immigrant group with the highest rates of entrepreneurship in Portugal (see table 3).

Table 3 : Entrepreneurship Rates¹ among immigrants between 1981 and 2001

Nationality	Rate of Entrepreneurship 1981	Rate of Entrepreneurship 1991	Rate of Entrepreneurship 2001
Europeans	12.0	13.3	9.9
Africans	1.1	3.4	6.7
Americans	5.1	8.8	13.6
Asians	9.8	21.3	19.1
Chinese	22.2	24.1	36.0
Indians	7.9	17.6	7.6
Pakistanis	1.7	30.7	6.3
TOTAL	3.2	6.2	9.8
Foreigners	5.1	7.7	10.2
Portuguese	3.1	6.2	9.8

Source : Census, Portuguese National Institute for Statistics

In this context, what explains the growth of Chinese entrepreneurial rates in Portugal from 1981 to 2001? And what explains the exceptional entrepreneurial rates of Chinese immigrants in comparison to the other immigrant groups?

As discussed above, in order to understand the patterns of entrepreneurial strategies, different explanatory components should be considered, and not only ethnic or community resources. Nevertheless, the influence of the Portuguese opportunity structure and community resources will be emphasised as the most relevant explanatory dimensions to Chinese entrepreneurship in Portugal.

IV. THE OPPORTUNITY STRUCTURE FOR CHINESE ENTREPRENEURS IN PORTUGAL

Similarly to other Southern European countries, Portugal only started experiencing immigration in the end of the 1970s and beginning of the 1980s, after the end of the dictatorial regime. The first immigration act dates back only to 1981, when Portugal was in a transition period, preparing for accession to the

European Economic Community. In reference to the particularities of Portugal, several researchers have also proven the existence of a relatively large informal economy and a fragile welfare state (Baganha et al. 1999). Others contend that Portugal as a host context for immigrants represents a strong market and a weak state (Peixoto, 2002).

With respect to entrepreneurship, Portuguese policies do not construct explicit or formal barriers to immigrant investment. The law recognises equal rights for national and foreign citizens with legal residence in Portugal. However, certain laws had indirect effects on immigrant entrepreneurship.

Two examples of the previous Portuguese regulatory framework highlight very well how the host context can inhibit or impose constraints on the formal entrepreneurial activities of immigrants. The first was a consequence of the previous labour law. Until 1998, enterprises with more than five workers (even counting unpaid workers) were obliged to employ 90% Portuguese workers. Considering that a significant number of immigrant entrepreneurial strategies are based on employing co-ethnic workers, this imposed a clear constraint. The disappearance of that requirement in 1998, with the change in the law, is one of the explanations for the growth of entrepreneurial rates among Chinese from 1991 to 2001 (see table 3). As will be shown below, Chinese entrepreneurial strategies in Portugal are almost totally based on the employment of co-ethnic workers.

The second example is linked to the immigration act that was in force until 2007. According to the previous law only immigrants with an authorisation of residence or with a special work visa for self-employment could create a (formal) business in Portugal. Those who had other statuses would have to wait from three to five years before they were able to commence a legal entrepreneurial strategy. A limitation was also foreseen in the previous law: immigrants who had any status other than an authorisation of residence or a special work visa for self-employment, and who paid social security contributions, could benefit from unemployment payments but could not create their own job through entrepreneurship.

These impediments stimulated a certain level of informal entrepreneurship among Chinese immigrants in Portugal. Some of the Chinese entrepreneurs interviewed declared that although they were the person responsible for all of the business activities, a co-ethnic whom they trusted gave the name to the business because they were not entitled to do so.

Other obstacles are linked to the private sector. In Portugal immigrants have serious difficulties in accessing capital other than co-ethnic resources or savings. Only very few immigrant entrepreneurs have access to bank loans. As a consequence, the majority of foreigners to whom bank loans were refused are

¹ The entrepreneurship rate corresponds to the number of employers per 100 active workers.

strictly dependent on community support, savings, micro-credit schemes, or loans from banks in their country of origin. These constraints reduce the range of immigrant entrepreneurial options. Apparently this is not seen as a constraint by the majority of Chinese entrepreneurs. Only 14 Chinese entrepreneurs (out of 309) declared that constraints in accessing bank loans were among the most relevant difficulties in the definition of entrepreneurial strategies in Portugal.^{iv}

As discussed above, immigrants mobilise and take advantage of the most relevant resources and opportunities in the different spheres that they are embedded in. It is clear that in the Chinese case, potential entrepreneurs are able to evade this particular constraint in the Portuguese opportunity structure through capitalisation on community resources. Similar to what has been observed in other receiving countries^v, Chinese entrepreneurs in Portugal mainly mobilised economic support from relatives (66.3%). Some of those entrepreneurs also had complementary financial support from friends and other members of the Chinese community settled in Portugal (44%). Of the 309 Chinese entrepreneurs interviewed only 10% had access to bank loans from Portuguese banks (Oliveira 2005: 126).

Among the most relevant difficulties in the definition of an entrepreneurial strategy in Portugal, the Chinese entrepreneurs interviewed identified lack of knowledge and of understanding of Portuguese laws (64.9%), and lack of clients (38.2%).

These two main difficulties reflect the vulnerabilities of Chinese entrepreneurial strategies in Portugal. Lack of knowledge of Portuguese laws has led, indirectly, to informality and disrespect for certain rules among some Chinese entrepreneurs. The media has reported that labour inspections in Chinese restaurants highlighted the existence, in some cases, of certain illegalities in relation to health and safety regulations. In 2006, in particular, the Portuguese State undertook several inspections, which degenerated into a negative campaign by the media about Chinese restaurants. This affected the demand for those restaurants^{vi} and the Chinese community declared that they had been the target of discrimination. As a consequence the Commission Against Discrimination (CICDR) of Portugal made several public statements about the illegality and stigmatisation associated with these actions by the labour inspection targeting only Chinese.^{vii}

This example underlines very well how public opinion about these entrepreneurs has important impacts in terms of their entrepreneurial success, particularly in view of the fact that the majority of Chinese businesses in Portugal are dependent upon native clients (see table 4).^{viii}

Table 4 : Chinese Entrepreneurs' clients

Origin of the Clients	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
Co-ethnics	6	1.9
Portuguese	200	64.7
Other immigrant nationalities	3	1.0
Co-ethnics and Portuguese	9	2.9
Co-ethnics and other immigrant nationalities	1	0.3
Other immigrant nationalities and Portuguese	3	1.0
Diverse clientele	87	28.2
Total	309	100

Source : Oliveira (2005 :117).

The host context can also have other important consequences for the characteristics of Chinese entrepreneurial strategies. Similarly to other European societies and contrary to what was observed in North America and Southeast Asia, Chinese immigrants in Portugal are dispersed around the country, mainly in urban areas (Oliveira 2002: 230). Furthermore, unlike what happens elsewhere in the world, the Chinese in Portugal have thus far not formed *Chinatowns*. This does not necessarily mean, however, that they did not want to do so. In a particular area of Lisbon – Mouraria - Chinese entrepreneurs, acknowledging a commercial potential, have been lobbying for the change of the neighbourhood's identity into a Chinatown. However, as has been shown above, it is not only the motivation of the immigrants that make them succeed, they also need to be able to do so. The opportunity structure of the local context played a key role in this case. A conflict arose as the Municipal Council did not authorise the identity change of the area, arguing that the neighbourhood was part of the city's heritage (Oliveira 2008).

This section mainly sought to highlight how Portugal – as an opportunity structure for immigrant entrepreneurship – has affected Chinese entrepreneurial strategies during recent years. However, because other explanatory components can make the difference in terms of business success, a deeper analysis of the Chinese community's resources is crucial in explaining why this group has the highest entrepreneurial rates in Portugal.

V. ETHNIC RESOURCES OF CHINESE IMMIGRANTS IN PORTUGAL

Ethnic resources vary from country to country and with time. The migratory experiences and the situation of each immigrant population in the receiving country frame the resources that immigrants can mobilise in their community. As outlined above, ethnic resources can be crucial for the definition of an entrepreneurial strategy (Waldinger et al 1990, Light and Gold 2000).

In the Chinese case in Portugal the resources sourced in the community proved to be the key element in entrepreneurial behaviour (Oliveira 2005, Oliveira 2007). The first crucial resource provided by the Chinese community is labour. Family workers play a fundamental role: only 22.8% of the Chinese entrepreneurs interviewed do not employ family workers (see table 5). In comparison with other immigrant entrepreneurs in Portugal, Chinese entrepreneurs are also exceptional in terms of unpaid family workers: 16.2% of these entrepreneurs declared that they did not pay a salary to relatives who work in their businesses (Oliveira 2005: 132).

Table 5 : Number of Family Workers in the Chinese Businesses

Number of Family Workers	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
0	70	22.8
1	51	16.6
2	96	31.3
3	42	13.7
4 or more	48	15.6
Total	307	100

Source : Oliveira (2005 : 131).

Note : 2 entrepreneurs declined to answer to this question.

Moreover, as observed in other countries^{ix}, co-ethnic workers are vital to Chinese businesses. Chinese entrepreneurs in Portugal prefer to contract co-ethnic workers - only 22.7% declared that they preferred to contract non co-ethnic workers. The social networks that these entrepreneurs mobilise support them with a workforce who accepts longer working days and lower salaries. The Chinese entrepreneurs interviewed justified their choice because they trust co-ethnics more and because it is easier to communicate in their native language.

The same social networks also provide relevant information and strategic knowledge for entrepreneurial strategies. The majority of Chinese entrepreneurs (70.6%) meet their suppliers through informal contacts within the community (see table 6).

Table 6 : How the Chinese entrepreneur met his or her supplier

How the entrepreneur met the suppliers	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
Through relatives, friends and community members	218	70.6
Through publicity, Chambers of Commerce	39	12.6
Mixing formal and informal contacts	38	12.3
Do not remember	14	4.5
Total	309	100

Source : Oliveira (2005 : 138).

The same entrepreneurs also confirmed that privileged contacts with the community were crucial for the definition of their entrepreneurial strategy in Portugal:

71.8% declared that they had contacts with co-ethnic entrepreneurs in the same business sector. Most also declared that the co-ethnic community guaranteed access to their first job in Portugal (69.9%), and 50.8% had actually arrived to the country already contracted by a co-ethnic entrepreneur (Oliveira 2005: 135).

The professional experience acquired in co-ethnic enterprises was also an important resource for some of the entrepreneurs in defining their own strategy, because it provided the necessary information about Portugal for them to make a safer investment.

However, these same privileged relations of solidarity and trust that characterise Chinese entrepreneurship in Portugal can also result in conflicts. As Waldinger et al (1990: 146) stressed, competition between co-ethnics is quite common among entrepreneurs with similar entrepreneurial experiences and social mobility plan

Table 7 : Origin of the Chinese Entrepreneurs' Competitors

Origin of the Competitors	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
Without competitors	21	6.8
Co-ethnics	223	72.2
Portuguese	21	6.8
Other immigrant nationalities	5	1.6
Co-ethnics and Portuguese	25	8.1
Co-ethnics and other immigrant nationalities	9	2.9
Other immigrant nationalities and Portuguese	1	0.3
Diverse competitors	4	1.3
Total	309	100

Source : Oliveira (2005 : 122).

As observed in table 7, the majority of the Chinese entrepreneurs interviewed declared that the most relevant competitors for their business were co-ethnics (72.2%). The formation of an ethnic business niche by Chinese immigrants, within the retail and ethnic catering sectors, also explains the competition within the community.

The analysis of the proliferation of immigrant entrepreneurial strategies, however, is not complete if does not take into account the individual competences and the personal resources of the individual. As Light and Gold (2000: 83) reinforce, ethnic resources are not accessible to all members of a community. The capacity to mobilise ethnic resources is not homogeneous for all the community members. In other words, other factors can affect the mobilisation of ethnic resources.

VI. CHINESE ENTREPRENEURS' PERSONAL RESOURCES

Different immigrant nationalities has been characterised as having special cultural and psychological qualities that make them more inclined to entrepreneurship or even to develop successful entrepreneurial strategies. Asians are very often

described as more ambitious, hard-working people who tend to risk more, while Africans have difficulties in giving up work as an employee (Portes and Zhou 1999: 165). Due to the risk of resorting to stereotypes, it is difficult to prove that it is cultural characteristics that explain the different propensities of immigrant groups towards entrepreneurship. The data that have been collected in Portugal make it clear that other factors explain the higher inclination of certain immigrants to develop a business. Among these factors are personal resources. Asked about the three main reasons that prompted them to become an entrepreneur in Portugal, Chinese immigrants identified mainly personal motivations, such as “because I wanted to be independent” (34.6%); and “because I wanted a better life” (48.9%).

Table 8 : Motivations to become an entrepreneur in Portugal

Motivations to become an entrepreneur	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
Family pressure	78	25.2
I wanted to become independent	107	34.6
I saw that others were successful	43	13.9
I knew the business sector very well	64	20.7
Because I felt some discrimination in the labour market	1	0.3
Because I had some capital available to invest	13	4.2
Because I wanted a better life	151	48.9
For reasons of prestige	8	2.6
I did not find work	0	0
It happened by coincidence	7	2.3

Source : Oliveira (2005 : 141).

In addition, some entrepreneurs also referred to the reason “because I knew the business sector very well” (20.7%). In other words, professional experiences proved to have a positive influence on entrepreneurial initiative, particularly in the choice of a certain business sector. Chinese immigrants first work in co-ethnic businesses before defining their own entrepreneurial strategy. This is usually in the same sector where they worked before, mainly in ethnic restaurants or retail activities. This professional experience also set the entrepreneurial networks that are crucial for the business (e.g. information about suppliers, labour, suppliers of credit). As Waldinger et al (1990:140) suggest, immigrants' entrepreneurial investments become safer due to the experience and knowledge acquired in the labour market. The majority of these entrepreneurs had one or two employers (62.8%) before creating their own business. A fewer number of employers before creating a business does not necessarily mean less time working as an employee (Oliveira 2005: 142). In the research undertaken in Portugal, Chinese entrepreneurs proved to be the immigrant group most likely to create a business later on in life – at an average age of 31, while on average immigrant entrepreneurs started at the age of 25 (Oliveira 2005 : 143).

Table 9 : Qualifications of Chinese Entrepreneurs

Qualifications	Chinese Entrepreneurs	
	N	%
No schooling	1	0.3
Primary School	56	18.1
Middle School	42	13.6
High School	181	58.6
University level	29	9.4
Total	309	100

Source : Oliveira (2005 : 144).

The qualifications of the entrepreneurs were also analysed as an entrepreneurial resource of the Chinese people interviewed. However, as Portes and Zhou (1999: 152) also verified in the United States, qualifications prove not to be a determinant for immigrant entrepreneurial behaviour. The majority of the Chinese interviewed had only a high school qualification (59%) – see table 9. It is important to contextualise these results with the fact that immigrants invest mainly in sectors where no special qualification is needed.

VII. CHINESE ENTREPRENEURS IN PORTUGAL : TRADITIONAL ETHNIC ENTREPRENEURIAL STRATEGIES?

Bearing in mind the heuristic model of immigrant entrepreneurial strategies developed before, it is clear that it is not cultural reasons that make some immigrants more entrepreneurial than others (Oliveira 2007). The research undertaken in Portugal highlights the fact that the resources and the opportunities mobilised by immigrants in the different spheres that they are embedded in – including the host society, the community and the individual - explain the main differences in entrepreneurial behaviour (Oliveira 2005). Hence, immigrant entrepreneurial strategies are neither uniform nor constant, but vary by group and through time and space in a constant process of adaptation and negotiation.

As highlighted by the results of the interview process, Chinese entrepreneurs mobilise different opportunities and resources in the definition of their strategies in Portugal and to overcome the main obstacles that they face in the Portuguese opportunity structure. In other words, it is important to acknowledge that Chinese entrepreneurial behaviour in Portugal cannot be understood solely through the analysis of ethnic resources.

In fact, constraints, difficulties and lack of opportunities experienced in the Portuguese host society in the definition of entrepreneurial strategies – namely previous impediments in the legal framework, lack of knowledge of Portuguese laws, difficulties in understanding the Portuguese language, episodes of negative public opinion - explain Chinese choices and,

as a consequence, clarify the dependence on community resources for their economic integration in Portugal. The analysis undertaken shows that certain key entrepreneurial resources sourced in privileged social networks explain Chinese entrepreneurial success in Portugal - for example, access to labour, financial support, entrepreneurial advice, and links to suppliers - and the higher entrepreneurial rates among Chinese people in comparison to other immigrant groups. Do Chinese entrepreneurs therefore define ethnic strategies in Portugal? The ideal type of ethnic strategy essentially mobilises opportunities and resources from a certain ethnic group. Networks of solidarity and reciprocity inherent to the ethnic group can provide the immigrant with cultural, financial, human, political and social resources. Hence the Chinese entrepreneurs analysed here constitute the group who best illustrate this strategy in Portugal.

However, these ethnic strategies do have certain specificities in Portugal. Contrary to what was observed in other host societies^x, ethnic populations did not constitute a consumer market that encouraged the growth of a Chinese entrepreneurial class in the country. As examined above, the majority of Chinese entrepreneurs in Portugal target a market of Portuguese consumers. This tendency may be related to the investment sector of these entrepreneurs, but it could also be a temporary pattern given the recent settlement and small size of the Chinese population in Portugal. Also, in contrast to what has been observed in other research studies, the majority of Chinese immigrants in Portugal give personal reasons for their decision to become an entrepreneur, not making reference to the necessities of the community.

In conclusion, this article highlights the multiple factors that explain immigrant entrepreneurship and makes it clear that Chinese entrepreneurial strategies are not homogeneous all over the world. If one takes into account, on the one hand, the diversity of characteristics and resources of Chinese communities in different countries and the particularities of the opportunity structures of host societies, and, on the other hand, that the definition of an entrepreneurial strategy is a creative process that results from an individual's ability to gather resources in a given space and period of time, this conclusion is not surprising.

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A Comparative Study of Shashi Deshpande's and Anita Nair's Feminism

By Ms. Anjali Barnes

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Abstracts - Shashi Deshpande is a contemporary Indo-English novelist who has presented the plight of middle-class Indian women, who are oscillating between traditional and modern roles. Shashi Deshpande's works are based on purely Indian Setting. She has illustrated the subordinate position of women in the orthodox tradition-bound Indian society. These existing norms axe the rights of women and sideline their existence as human beings. She has taken up the issues of gender discrimination and social conditioning of the girl-child, husband – wife relationship: the aggressor and the suppressed, and the sexual exploitation of women within and outside the marital frame. Shashi Deshpande has assertively exhibited the plight of the girl-child who has to endure the trauma of gender-discrimination and social conditioning and is made to feel inferior to the progeny since her childhood. Social conditioning restricts the flowering of a girl's personality as it lays stress on the inculcation of pre-defined feminine traits-self-abnegation, servility, endurance, patience and forgiveness. Marriage is set as an ultimate goal for girls. Women have to mould and transform themselves to suit the interests of their male counterparts and in this process suppress their self-identity. She states in an interview given to Lakshmi Holmstrom.

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"I am different from other Indians who write in English, my background is very firmly here. I was never educated abroad. My novels don't have any westerners, for example. They are just about Indian people and the complexities of our lives. Our inner lives and our outer lives and the reconciliation between them" (1998: 248-249).

Dark Holds No Terrors (DHNT) exhibits the cruelty of undue gender discrimination of mothers inflicted on their girl-child. The protagonist of the novel, Saru, is acutely aware of her mother's preference for her brother, Dhruva, even as a child. Saru cannot tolerate the preference which her mother gives to her brother, Dhruva, simply because he is a boy. Saru recalls that there was "always a puja on Dhruva's birthday. A festive lunch in the afternoon and an aarti in the evening. My birthdays were almost the same – but there was no puja" (DHNT 168-69). Saru finds her mother's inclination towards her brother Dhruva and a nonchalant attitude

towards her as humiliating because they were nullifying her existence as a human being in the family. Dhruva dies by drowning in water. Though Saru tried her best to save him yet all her effort went in vain. She recalls, "Dhruva was swiftly, silently going away from me" (DHNT 145). Saru was deprived of all the rights of a child after the death of Dhruva, her brother. Mourning envelops the family and Saru's existence was not noticed. The reminiscence of her girlhood reminds Saru of her fifteenth birthday which was special to her as she received a pair of earrings as a gift from her friend, Smita. After adoring the earrings secretly, Saru feels a sense of superiority and importance. However, Saru resents the gift given to her by her mother because she becomes aware that the gift was to give her a flamboyant appearance as a young girl and was not a gesture of love. She decides, "So that was it! It was not for me, not to please me and make me happy, but because I should, as a growing girl, have these things to wear...I don't want them, I don't want to eat, I don't want anything" (DHNT 171). Saru is never forgiven by her mother for the death of her brother, Dhruva.

Anita Nair is a popular Indian-English writer. she is considered as a bold and straightforward writer. Her novels depict the real life of her characters without hiding anything from her readers.

The other point that her novels reveal is the effect of social conditioning on women. Society uses many differment means to propagate beliefs. We have literature as one of the means to carry these ideas further surrounded by such massages. The girls are reared in a conventional way which teaches them to self-evident truths or wisdom. This is the process of conditioning. Anita Nair has very beautifully, portrayed this concept in her novels. Especially through Akhila in *ladies Coupe*.

The characters of Anita Nair's novels commit adultery and sacrilege as depicted in *Mistress*. They break the leash of social norms and do not confine themselves to the boundaries of women. Her female characters are bold and confident enough to fulfil their desires by going against the society. Many of character experience sex before entering the social institute of marriage or indulge in extra marital affairs that is strictly against the Indian society. So we can say that she break the chains of the society in portraying her women character which can lead to its fragmentation. She never

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hesitates to tell the truth however bitter it is and simultaneously she forces us to think on the importance of removing adultery to save family life.

Anita Nair has portrayed some of her protagonists are economically independent women but still they don't have control over their own life even major decisions of their life are taken by others, she has very clearly brought this concept in the light that women in modern India may be educated and financially independent but still the rope their life is in the hands of others. Here we find some similarity between the protagonists learn to resist against such social atrocities by going beyond the family boundaries. In the *Mistress* the character of Radha is bold and dominating. Being dissatisfied with her husband she opts for an extra marital affair with Chris her husband Shyam tries his level best to bring her back to him, he is ready to forgive her for all her mistakes, he is ready to accept her at any cost

"I think of the other Radha.to go back to him" (*Mistress* 247)

In many of her novels, Anita Nair has depicted husband-wife relationship. Her female characters are bold enough to fulfil their desires by negating family bond to the extent of establishing physical gratification with other men. "Shyam's call leaves me angrier than ever....." (*Mistress* 206) She admits that in spite of being married some women are not satisfied with their marital life and they indulge in extra marital affairs. The faithfulness in husband-wife relationships lost which puts a big question on the existence of such relationship. Anita Nair's feminism does not suit the Indian social system as it advocates that all human relationship should be restored. This article makes a comparative study of Shashi Deshpande's and Anita Nair's Feminism.

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A Comparative Study of Error Patterns in English Language of C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board Students in Meerut District of Uttar Pradesh

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Abstracts - Education is undoubtedly one of the most important factors that impact the growth and development of a country as well as the future course of the country's people as a whole. Education improves functional and analytical ability and thereby opens up opportunities for individuals and also groups to achieve greater access to livelihoods. India has made a huge progress in terms of increasing primary education attendance rate and expanding literacy to approximately two thirds of the population. The Indian educational system mainly comprises of CBSE and ICSE board systems, apart from this various Indian states have their own educational boards. In the following paper a comparative study has been done among the students of CBSE and Uttar Pradesh board students to know the pattern of errors committed in the use of English language. The study also finds the pattern of errors among the students of rural, urban and semi-urban areas.

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A Comparative Study of Error Patterns in English Language of C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board Students in Meerut District of Uttar Pradesh

Satyapal^a, Pankaj Sharma^a, Atul Dogra^b

Abstract - Education is undoubtedly one of the most important factors that impact the growth and development of a country as well as the future course of the country's people as a whole. Education improves functional and analytical ability and thereby opens up opportunities for individuals and also groups to achieve greater access to livelihoods. India has made a huge progress in terms of increasing primary education attendance rate and expanding literacy to approximately two thirds of the population. The Indian educational system mainly comprises of CBSE and ICSE board systems, apart from this various Indian states have their own educational boards. In the following paper a comparative study has been done among the students of CBSE and Uttar Pradesh board students to know the pattern of errors committed in the use of English language. The study also finds the pattern of errors among the students of rural, urban and semi-urban areas.

I. INTRODUCTION

Education is undoubtedly one of the most important factors that impact the growth and development of a country as well as the future course of the country's people as a whole. Education improves functional and analytical ability and thereby opens up opportunities for individuals and also groups to achieve greater access to livelihoods. Education is not only an instrument of enhancing efficiency but is also an effective tool of widening and augmenting democratic participation and upgrading the overall quality of individual and societal life. The present education system in India mainly comprises of primary education, secondary education, senior secondary education and higher education. Elementary consists of eight years of education. Each of secondary and senior secondary education consists of two years of education. Higher education in India starts after passing the higher secondary education or the 12th standard. Depending the stream, doing graduation in India can take three to five years. Post graduate courses are generally of two to three years of duration. After completing post graduation, scope for doing research in various educational institutes also remains open. India has made a huge progress in terms of increasing primary education attendance rate and expanding literacy to approximately two thirds of the population (World Bank).

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India's improved education system is often cited as one of the main contributors to the economic rise of India (PTI, 2008).

Much of the progress in education has been credited to various private institutions. The private education market in India is estimated to be worth \$40 billion in 2008 and will increase to \$68 billion by 2012 (Anuradha, 2008). However, India continues to face stern challenges. Despite growing investment in education, 35% of its population is still illiterate; only 15% of Indian students reach high school, and just 7% graduate.

II. EDUCATIONAL SCENARIO IN UTTAR PRADESH

Uttar Pradesh situated in the northern part of India is best known for its significant contributions made in the field of education. The persistent efforts of the state government have played a crucial role in increasing the overall literacy rate of the state. Several adult educational programs have also been launched for improving the scenario of education in Uttar Pradesh. The state government of Uttar Pradesh has always encouraged the participation of the private sector in the education system of the state. It has also done major investments for education at all levels. In order to promote education at the primary and secondary level the state has also introduced compulsory and free education for all students. Scroll down the page to learn more about schools in Uttar Pradesh.

III. EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN UTTAR PRADESH

Year	Literacy Rate		
	Persons	Male	Females
1951	12.01	19.16	4.07
1961	20.87	32.08	8.36
1971	23.99	35.01	11.23
1981	32.64	46.65	16.74
1991	40.71	54.82	24.36
2001	57.36	70.22	42.97

Note : Literacy rates for 1951, 1961 and 1971 relate to population aged five years and above.

Note : The rates for the years 1981 to 2001 relate to the population aged seven years and above.

Source : Indian Census

Schools in Uttar Pradesh are either run by private organizations or by the government. Some of the schools in the state are either affiliated to Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) or Council for The Indian School Certificate Examinations (CISCE). However, one can also come across schools affiliated to the state education board. There are 1,23,540 (approx.) schools in Uttar Pradesh which consists of pre-primary schools, elementary schools, primary schools, secondary schools and senior secondary schools. Most of the schools in Uttar Pradesh follow Hindi as their medium of instruction. However, schools affiliated to the CBSE and ICSE board use English as their medium of study. Uttar Pradesh has made a significant progress in education in the recent decades from 1951-2001.

IV. EDUCATIONAL PROFILE OF MEERUT DISTRICT

The Meerut district is purposely selected for the study because it has diversified type of education system which comprises CBSE, ICSE and UP board based schooling systems. The district has a good educational infrastructure as well as the district has made a significant progress in the field of education which is clearly visible from the following table 1.

Table 1 : Physical Infrastructure and Educational Progress in Meerut district

Physical Infrastructure	
Primary Schools	1282
Upper Primary Schools	396
Education Gurantee Scheme (EGS / AS AIE)	123
Teachers (Primary) (Only Govt.Schools)	2813
Teachers (Upper Primary) (Only Govt. Schools)	827
Educational Progress	
Literacy Rate (Female) (Census 2001)	54.12
Literacy Rate (Total) (Census 2001)	65.96
Total No. Of Children (6 - 14)	255823
GER	74.61
Pupil Teacher Ratio	1:53

Source : Uttar Pradesh Education for All (UPEFA)

Objectives

- 1) To study the error pattern in English language among the students of different educational boards.
- 2) To analyze the difference in English language error pattern among the students of urban, suburban and rural areas.

V. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

a) Venue and Sample

i. Instrument

A pre - tested schedule was prepared to collect the information. Students perception on various aspects were recored and analysed laterly.

b) Data collection and analysis procedures

For data collection intermediate schools of Meerut district have been taken. Meerut district is situated in the North West of Uttar Pradesh. It is a divisional head Quarter. Adjacent districts of Meerut are Bagpat, Muzzaffar Nagar Ghaziabad and BulandShahr. Meerut district is considered as an advanced district in comparison to adjacent districts. There is a university and a Medical College in Meerut. So in the interest of the study only Meerut district has been chosen. In order to get proper results the district has been divided into three parts--urban, sub-urban and rural, school of these three parts have been selected separately. First a list of renowned school which are affiliated to U.P. Board and C.B.S.E. Board was made. Then samples of students were taken from these schools for the collection of data. Lists of schools affiliated to both Boards have been given systematically. The data have been proceed an analysis with the help of computer using SPSS 16 version and suitable mathematical and statistical tetchiness like averages , standard deviation and 't' test have been employed for data analysis.

The t-statistic was introduced in 1908 by William Sealy Gosset, a chemist working for the Guinness brewery in Dublin, Ireland ("Student" was his pen name). Gosset had been hired due to Claude Guinness's innovative policy of recruiting the best graduates from Oxford and Cambridge to apply biochemistry and statistics to Guinness' industrial processes. Gosset devised the *t*-test as a way to cheaply monitor the quality of stout. He published the test in Biometrika in 1908, but was forced to use a pen name by his employer, who regarded the fact that they were using statistics as a trade secret. In fact, Gosset's identity was unknown to fellow statisticians

c) Testing the significance of difference between two sample means

The *t* statistic to test whether the means are different can be calculated as follows:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}$$

$$\text{where, } S = \frac{\sqrt{\sum(X_1 - \bar{X}_1)^2 + \sum(X_2 - \bar{X}_2)^2}}{(n_1 - 1) + (n_2 - 1)}$$

or

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d_1^2 + d_2^2}{(n_1 + n_2 - 2)}}$$

Here **S** is the standard deviation (or pooled standard deviation), 1 = group one, 2 = group two. The denominator of *t* is the standard error of the difference between two means.

For significance testing, the degrees of freedom for this test is $n_1 + n_2 - 2$ where n is the number of participants in each group.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Table No. 1 reveals that there is significant difference between spellings error and punctuation error among the boys students of both the boards (i.e. C.B.S.E. and U.P.), because the calculated 't' values are greater than tabular 't' value. Although Preposition, Articles, Verbs, Tenses, and Conjunction error have no significant difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board Boys students, since in the case of above cited errors, calculated 't' values are less than tabular 't' value. In

other words we can say that null hypothesis is accepted. The table 1 also explores that the calculated 't' values, are greater than tabular 't' value for punctuation, articles and tenses errors of Girls students. As a result there is significant difference in grammatical errors of girls students of C.B.S.E. and U.P. Boards. However spellings, preposition, verbs and conjunction errors have no significant difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school Girls students, because the calculated 't' values are less than tabular 't' value. Based on this interpretation we conclude that girl students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearly more grammatical mistakes than boys students of these schools boards.

Table 1 : Mean, S. D. and t value of different grammatical error in English of Boys & Girls class C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school students

Grammatical errors in English of Students	Boys			girls		
	Mean	S.D.	t' Value*	Mean	S.D.	t' Value*
Spellings error in C.B.S.E. Board	29.7500	11.1700	5.3840	34.98	10.0020	1.6830
Spellings error in U.P. Board	37.8500	0		37.23		
Punctuation error in C.B.S.E. Board	32.7100	15.1770	3.0210	35.89	9.8910	1.9860
Punctuation error in U.P. Board	38.8900	0		38.52		
Preposition error in C.B.S.E. Board	28.2900	13.1640	1.2190	33.18	11.5260	1.3560
Preposition error in U.P. Board	30.4500	0		31.09		
Articles error in C.B.S.E. Board	27.7300	11.7420	0.1720	32.5	8.5940	2.4100
Articles error in U.P. Board	27.4500	0		29.73		
Verbs error in C.B.S.E. Board	28.4500	13.7810	1.5460	34.41	9.1690	1.2240
Verbs error in U.P. Board	31.3300	0		32.91		
Tenses error in C.B.S.E. Board	31.0500	12.3120	1.1280	37.02	9.1200	2.4180
Tenses error in U.P. Board	32.9300	0		34.07		
Conjunction error in C.B.S.E. Board	32.8000	15.7340	0.3510	37.55	13.6120	1.0410
Conjunction error in U.P. Board	33.5500	0		35.66		

* at 5 % level of significance for 108 degree of freedom.

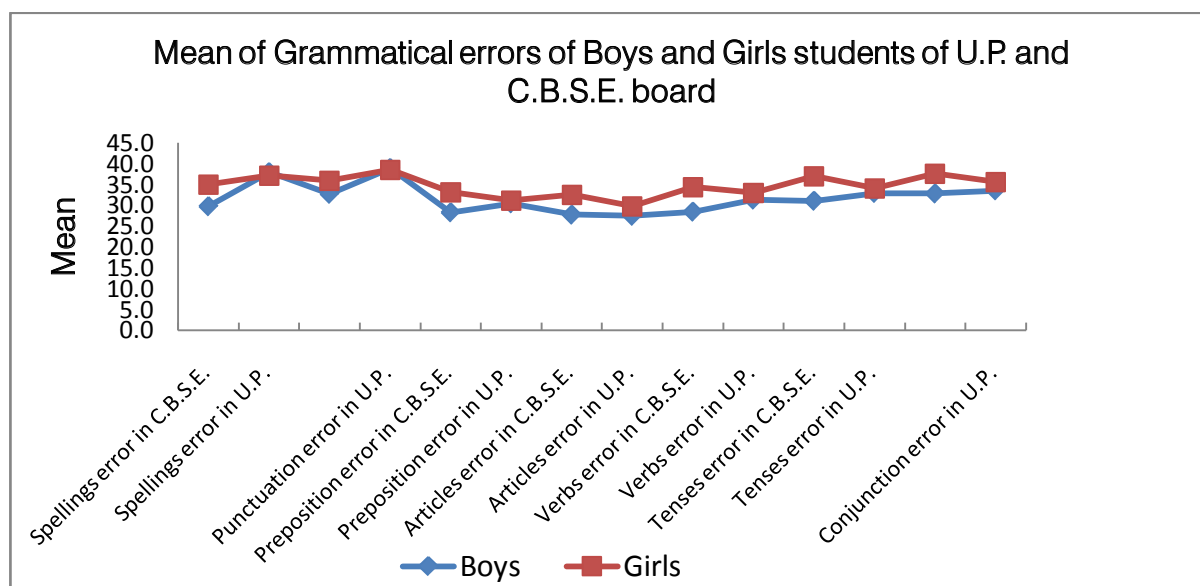


Table No. 2 reveals that there is significant difference between spellings error, punctuation error, verbs and tenses error in both boards (C.B.S.E. and U.P.) of urban areas students, because the calculated 't' values is greater than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.00 for 48 degree of freedom at 5% significant level. Although Preposition, Articles, and Conjunction errors have no significance difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board urban areas students, since in the case of above cited errors as the calculated 't' values are less than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.00 at 5% level of significant for 48 degree of freedom. It also explores that the calculated values, are greater than tabular 't' values (i.e. 2.021) at 5 per cent level of significant for 38 degree of freedom of

punctuation, preposition, articles and tenses errors in suburban areas students. As a result there is significant difference between above cited grammatical errors students in C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school in suburban areas students. However spellings, verbs and conjunction errors have no significant difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school students of suburban area, because the calculated values are less than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.021 for 38 degree of freedom at 5% significant level. Based of this interpretation we conclude that urban areas students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearby similar grammatical mistakes and suburban areas students of these schools boards.

Table 2 : Mean, S. D. and 't' value of different grammatical error in English of Urban& Suburban class C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school students

Grammatical errors in English of Students	Urban			Suburban		
	Mean	S.D.	't' Value*	Mean	S.D.	't' Value**
Spellings error in C.B.S.E. Board	51.8400	14.4610	5.2700	56.44	27.921	0.7740
Spellings error in U.P. Board	36.6000			52.12		
Punctuation error in C.B.S.E. Board	53.3200	15.4460	5.3740	61.8	22.827	2.5930
Punctuation error in U.P. Board	69.9200			49.96		
Preposition error in C.B.S.E. Board	50.6000	12.3530	0.6310	45.52	19.331	2.1830
Preposition error in U.P. Board	52.1600			37.08		
Articles error in C.B.S.E. Board	47.7200	8.3000	0.4100	45.2	16.616	3.1420
Articles error in U.P. Board	47.0400			34.76		
Verbs error in C.B.S.E. Board	48.6000	11.9240	2.1970	48.32	21.264	1.7490
Verbs error in U.P. Board	53.8400			40.88		
Tenses error in C.B.S.E. Board	53.0000	10.1000	3.4660	54.68	25.026	3.1330
Tenses error in U.P. Board	60.0000			39		
Conjunction error in C.B.S.E. Board	62.8000	10.1200	1.1660	44.44	24.2330	1.1220
Conjunction error in U.P. Board	60.4400			39		

* at 5 % level of significance for 48 degree of freedom.

** at 5 % level of significance for 38 degree of freedom.

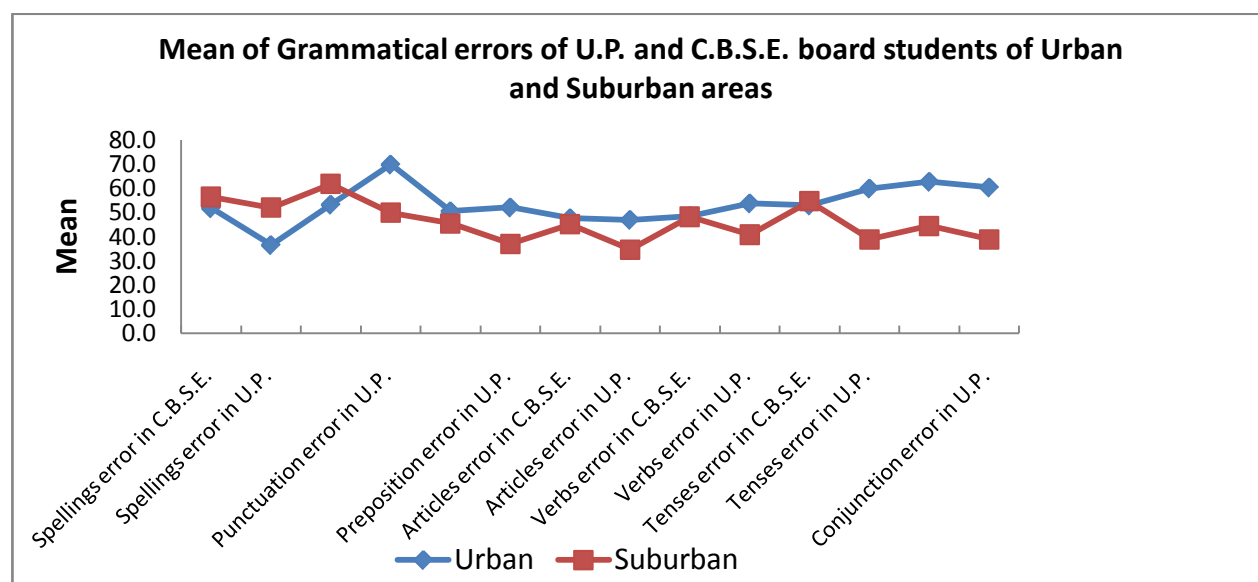


Table No. 3 reveals that there is significant difference in spellings error, punctuation error, verbs and tenses error in both boards (C.B.S.E. and U.P.) of urban areas students, because the calculated 't' values is greater than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.00 for 48 degree of freedom at 5% significant level. Although Preposition, Articles, and Conjunction errors have no significance difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board urban areas students, as in this case the calculated 't' values are less than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.00 at 5% level of significant for 48 degree of freedom. The table 3 also explore that the calculated values, are greater than tabular 't' value (i.e. 2.048) at 5 per cent level of significant for 28 degree of freedom, for spellings, punctuation, and preposition, errors in rural areas

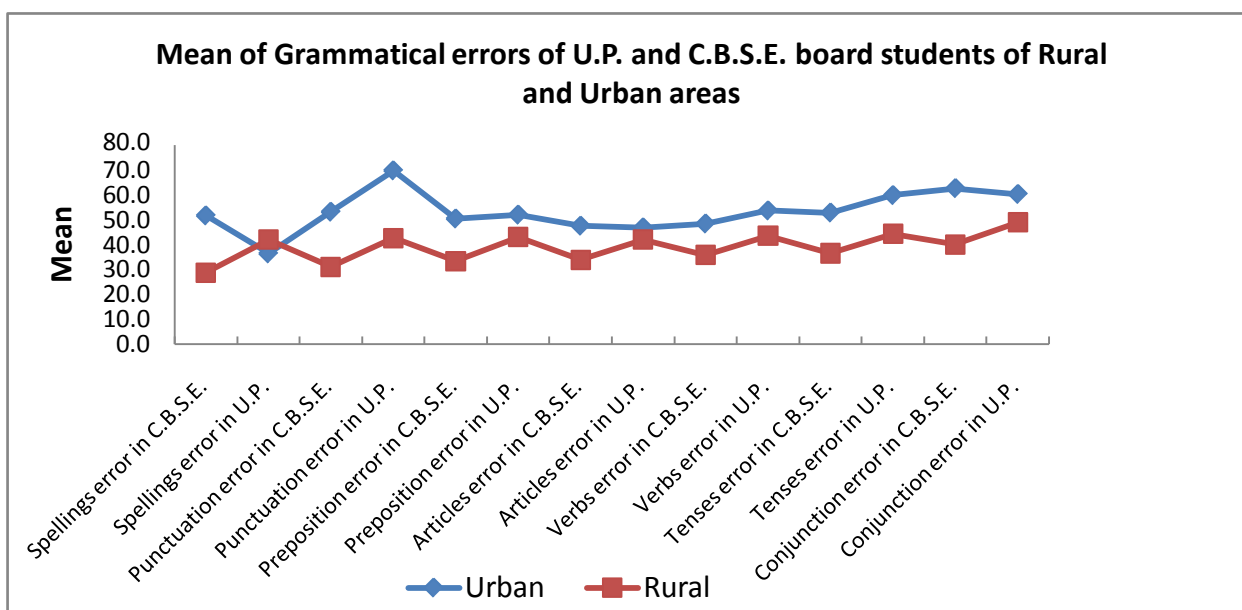
students. In other words the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis accepted. As a result there is significant difference between above cited grammatical errors among the students of C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board schools in rural areas. However articles, verbs, tenses and conjunction errors have no significant difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school in rural areas students, because the calculated 't' values are less than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.048 for 28 degree of freedom at 5% significant level. Based on the above interpretation we conclude that urban areas students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearby similar grammatical mistakes as compared to rural areas students of these schools boards.

Table 3: Mean, S. D. and t' value of different grammatical error in English of Urban & Rural class C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school students

Grammatical errors in English of Students	Urban			Rural		
	Mean	S.D.	t' Value*	Mean	S.D.	t' Value*
Spellings error in C.B.S.E. Board	51.8400	14.4610	5.2700	28.88	19.7970	3.3440
Spellings error in U.P. Board	36.6000			42.12		
Punctuation error in C.B.S.E. Board	53.3200	15.4460	5.3740	31.12	18.7100	3.1110
Punctuation error in U.P. Board	69.9200			42.76		
Preposition error in C.B.S.E. Board	50.6000	12.3530	0.6310	33.52	19.4780	2.4850
Preposition error in U.P. Board	52.1600			43.2		
Articles error in C.B.S.E. Board	47.7200	8.3000	0.4100	34.04	21.6950	1.8710
Articles error in U.P. Board	47.0400			42.16		
Verbs error in C.B.S.E. Board	48.6000	11.9240	2.1970	35.96	24.4310	1.5720
Verbs error in U.P. Board	53.8400			43.64		
Tenses error in C.B.S.E. Board	53.0000	10.1000	3.4660	36.68	24.5720	1.5710
Tenses error in U.P. Board	60.0000			44.4		
Conjunction error in C.B.S.E. Board	62.8000	10.1200	1.1660	40.16	29.1180	1.5250
Conjunction error in U.P. Board	60.4400			49.04		

* at 5 % level of significance for 48 degree of freedom.

* at 5 % level of significance for 28 degree of freedom.



The table 4 explores that the calculated values, are greater than tabular 't' value (i.e. 2.048) at 5 per cent level of significant for 28 degree of freedom, of spellings, punctuation, and preposition errors in rural areas students. As a result there is significant difference between above cited grammatical errors students in C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school in rural areas students. However, articles, verbs, tenses and conjunction errors have no significant difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school in rural areas students, because the calculated 't' values are less than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.048 for 28 degree of freedom at 5% significant level. It also explore that the calculated values, are greater than tabular 't' value (i.e. 2.021) at 5 per cent level of

significant for 38 degree of freedom, of punctuation, preposition ,articles, and tenses errors in suburban areas students. As a result there is significant difference between above cited grammatical errors students in C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school in suburban areas students. However spellings, verbs and conjunction errors have no significant difference between C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school in suburban areas students, because the calculated values are less than tabular 't' value i.e. 2.021 for 38 degree of freedom at 5% significant level. Based on the above interpretation we conclude that suburban areas students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearby more grammatical mistakes than rural areas students of these schools boards.

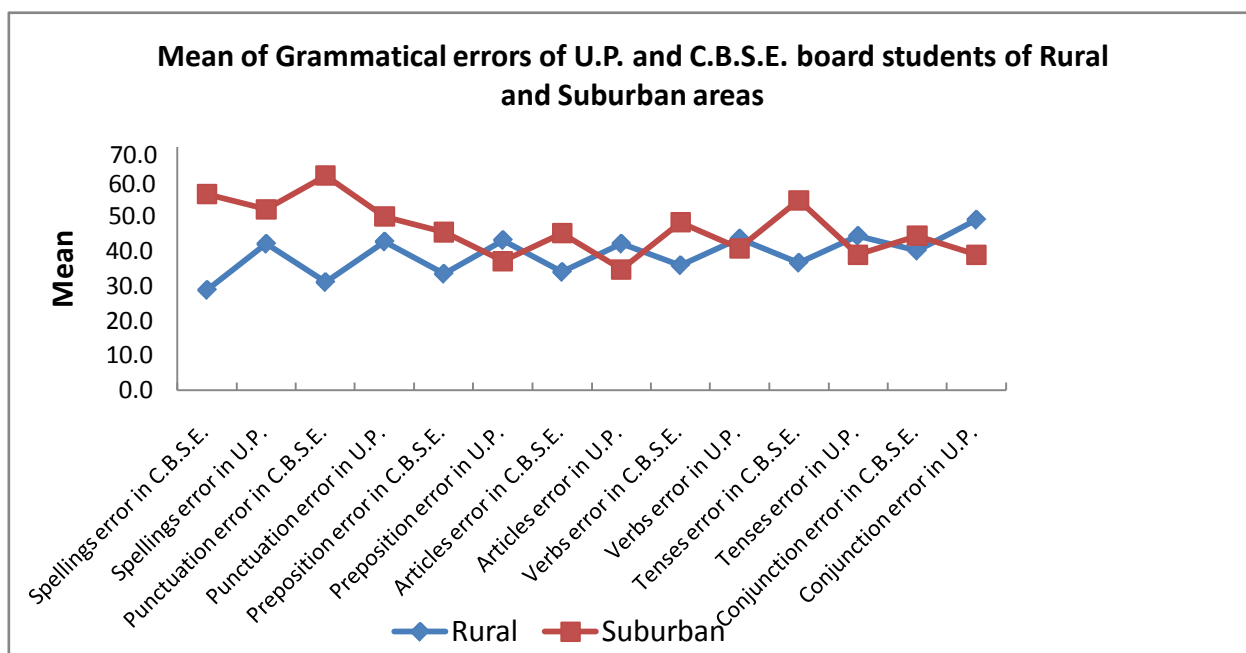


Table 4 : Mean, S. D. and t' value of different grammatical error in English of Rural & Suburban class C.B.S.E. and U.P. Board school students

Grammatical errors in English of Students	Rural			Suburban		
	Mean	S.D.	t' Value*	Mean	S.D.	t' Value**
Spellings error in C.B.S.E. Board	28.88	19.7970	3.3440	56.44	27.9210	0.7740
Spellings error in U.P. Board	42.12			52.12		
Punctuation error in C.B.S.E. Board	31.12	18.7100	3.1110	61.8	22.8270	2.5930
Punctuation error in U.P. Board	42.76			49.96		
Preposition error in C.B.S.E. Board	33.52	19.4780	2.4850	45.52	19.3310	2.1830
Preposition error in U.P. Board	43.2			37.08		
Articles error in C.B.S.E. Board	34.04	21.6950	1.8710	45.2	16.6160	3.1420
Articles error in U.P. Board	42.16			34.76		
Verbs error in C.B.S.E. Board	35.96	24.4310	1.5720	48.32	21.2640	1.7490
Verbs error in U.P. Board	43.64			40.88		
Tenses error in C.B.S.E. Board	36.68	24.5720	1.5710	54.68	25.0260	3.1330
Tenses error in U.P. Board	44.4			39		
Conjunction error in C.B.S.E. Board	40.16	29.1180	1.5250	44.44	24.2330	1.1220
Conjunction error in U.P. Board	49.04			39		

* at 5 % level of significance for 28 degree of freedom.

*at 5 % level of significance for 38 degree of freedom

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This paper provides an overview of school education in India. It also examines the quality of education in Meerut district of Uttar Pradesh which is one of the developed city of the state. There is a perception among the people that the quality of education in private schools (comprising mainly C.B.S.E. board) is much better than the government owned schools i.e. mainly comprising of U.P. board schools. This paper examines the quality of education in terms of error commitment in English language usage among the students of different educational boards as well as from different locations as well as it also examines the commitment of errors on the basis of gender. The results clearly shows that girl students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearby more grammatical mistakes than boys students of these schools boards. The paper also concludes that urban areas students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearby similar grammatical mistakes and suburban areas students of these schools boards. It also shows that urban areas students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearby similar grammatical mistakes as compared to rural areas students of these schools boards. It is also inferred that suburban areas students of C.B.S.E. & U.P. Board do nearby more grammatical mistakes than rural areas students of these schools boards. The paper also describes that the overall quality of education is not so good in the district as it should be and Serious attention needs to be paid towards the school education system. There is a need to develop new policies to strengthen and improve the education system in the district as well as in the state.

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Teaching Classical Ballet : educational features and health conditions Study of the plantar stance of the students of the school of Classical Ballet of the San Carlo Theatre of Naples (Italy) while performing the ballet

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Abstracts - Many neurophysiological and biomechanics studies researched the importance of the foot as main receptor of the postural system, highlighting the importance of the podalic afferents in the regulation and control of the body both in static and dynamic positions. Hence, a specific study of the dancers' feet shows the complexity of their anatomical structure stimulated by many stresses which can produce some pathological changes. The dancer's foot is a specific field of research since the foot is a strong, steady, precise and powerful structure which is highly sensitive and fast and which is constantly stimulated according to the muscular work required by the dance at loads that affect the capsular ligaments. Moreover, the performances required by the dance demand complex, static, dynamic, and, in some cases, "extreme" conditions from the foot. In fact, unlike ordinary actions such as walking, running and jumping, the classical ballet demands an alternation of the bipodalic and monopodalic stances and a redistribution of the load of the body at the level of the arch of the foot; so the foot is constantly required to ensure conditions of equilibrium and at the same time to test the limits of its biomechanical structure.

Keywords : performance, balance, proprioceptive information, stance, stabilometry.

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Teaching Classical Ballet : educational features and health conditions Study of the plantar stance of the students of the school of Classical Ballet of the San Carlo Theatre of Naples (Italy) while performing the ballet

Carmen Palumbo^a, Maurizio Sibilio^a

July 2011

21

Abstract - Many neurophysiological and biomechanics studies researched the importance of the foot as main receptor of the postural system, highlighting the importance of the podalic afferents in the regulation and control of the body both in static and dynamic positions. Hence, a specific study of the dancers' feet shows the complexity of their anatomical structure stimulated by many stresses which can produce some pathological changes. The dancer's foot is a specific field of research since the foot is a strong, steady, precise and powerful structure which is highly sensitive and fast and which is constantly stimulated according to the muscular work required by the dance at loads that affect the capsular ligaments. Moreover, the performances required by the dance demand complex, static, dynamic, and, in some cases, "extreme" conditions from the foot. In fact, unlike ordinary actions such as walking, running and jumping, the classical ballet demands an alternation of the bipodalic and monopodalic stances and a redistribution of the load of the body at the level of the arch of the foot; so the foot is constantly required to ensure conditions of equilibrium and at the same time to test the limits of its biomechanical structure.

Keywords : performance, balance, proprioceptive information, stance, stabilometry.

1. INTRODUCTION

M Fokine, who was the first choreographer of the *Ballets Russes* and a forerunner of the neoclassical style, stated: "*To judge a dancer, all you have to do is to see how he uses his feet ...*"

Posture has a main role in the classical ballet, since it is essential to put all the parts of the body in the right position. Specifically, its anatomical supports are the following ones:

- forefoot, arch of the foot and heel
- coxo-femoral and sacroiliac joints
- spine
- blades

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The right position is given by the exact relation among the above mentioned elements, which should be perfectly balanced and linked by an ideal line which starts from the occiput and goes down till the heels. The head should be hold up high and be on the same vertical line of the feet. Moreover, it is important that the trunk is always hold up and stretched out, with the shoulders down and the neck stretched. The right position of the body expects the trunk to be upright and stiff, thanks to a counter-rotation movement (back tilt) of the pelvis, and a consequent reduction of the width of all the physiological curves of the rachis and a horizontal position of the pelvis itself.

According to this theory, the horizontal position of the pelvis allows the coxo-femoral joint to move more freely, since the head of the thigh-bone can widen the rotation inside the acetabulum. This introduces a new factor, the *en dehors*, which completes the right position of the body of a ballet dancer. The French word *dehors* means "outside" and it refers to a 90° extra-rotation position of the coxo-femoral joints and of the whole lower limbs. Anyway, this position, which fixes the direction of the movements and the main positions of this technique, can be also a natural talent of the ballet dancer and so it can be considered a bent.

There is an extension of all joints of the foot in the execution of the tip; in this case the most important role is played by the tibio-talar, involved in the formation of the "neck of the foot". The plantar flexion in fact leads to the alignment of the bones of the foot so that the weight is unloaded only along an imaginary "knee-malleolus-metatarsal head-foot fingers" axis.

Many neurophysiological and biomechanics studies (Bricot, B., 1998 Villeneuve, P., 2010) showed the importance of the role of the foot as main receptor of the postural system and the importance of the podalic afferents while regulating and controlling the posture. In static conditions, the foot rests on the ground mainly with the head of the first metatarsal, on the fifth metatarsal and on the back alcaneal tuberosity.

On these points you should download, respectively, download, respectively, 33%, 17% and 50% of the body's weight. The posture of a person depends on a specific muscle activity known as "postural". This activity is mainly carried out by the extensor muscles of the lower limbs, the muscles of the trunk and those of the neck. It aims at maintaining the projection on the floor of the center of gravity of the subject within the bearing surface (polygon). The maintenance of the orthostatic posture also requires the integration of visual, proprioceptive, labyrinthine and foot information. Many experimental protocols use stabilometry as a method of measuring postural equilibrium in man. Stabilometry records the coordinates of the center of pressure (COP) on a platform on which the subject is in an orthostatic position. Starting from these coordinates, it is possible to calculate many different parameters which Chiari, Rocchi and Cappello (2002) have classified into three different categories:

- The first one includes the most common parameters in literature which consider the space and time features of COP. For example, it is possible to calculate the type of postural balance and the needed energy to maintain it, the COP area, distances, the speed, etc. Moreover, it is possible to calculate the COP average position in terms of a fixed reference or relation to anthropometric data (for example, the size of the polygon, Kirby, Price e MacLeod, 1987).
- The second category consists of parameters such as the specific type of the frequency (Fast Fourier Transform: FFT).
- The third one represents the stochastic parameters (Collins e De Luca, 1993).

Hence, the second and third categories allow to evaluate the dynamic aspect of the control of the orthostatic posture. The study of the dancer's foot has to consider complex elements, because of the many stresses the foot anatomic structure receives and the many pathological changes that might rise. In fact, the dancer's foot is a strong, steady, particularly sensitive, fast and exact structure, which is constantly stressed during the exploitation of its capsule-ligament structure according to the required strong muscular work. Actually, unlike other motor activities, such as walking, running or jumping, it is evident that during the classical ballet the foot has to continuously change its trim, repeatedly and almost cyclically going from bipodalic stances to monopodalic ones; in this way it distributes the load on the arch of the foot. These changes of the balance, causing muscle-skeletal imbalances, constantly undermine not only the foot but also several areas of the body. The research studied the dancers of the Ballet School of the San Carlo Theatre of Naples. The course attended by the students provides an eight levels program; besides the study and the practice of the ballet, there are other subjects such as solfeggio, the

history of the music, the history of the dance, gym, athletic training, modern dance, character dance, Spanish dance, *pas de deux* and physio-technique.

The student's training starts with a tree time a week course which lasts 1.30 hour a day for the preliminary students. First class students attend a 1.30 hour training daily course 5 times a week. Seventh and eighth courses students attend a 3 hours training daily course 6 times a week. The training schedules a two phases lesson, during the first phase there are bar exercises. These exercises gradually help the joints mobility, the strength of the legs and the feet, the motor control and the movements coordination. The second phase of the training schedules exercises to be performed in the center and new elements of the allegro, tours, aplomb and jump elevation and ballon are gradually introduced.

Therefore it is a kind of training which demands highly concentrated physical activities, which become more and more demanding as years go. The training program, which during the seventh and eighth year courses has to reach an excellent technical and performing perfection, diversifies the male and female technical activities starting from the second year course. This different kind of training is carried out through some specific exercises, that is the study of the tips for the women, starting from the second year course (11/12 years old), and the jumping technique for the men. It is useful to highlight that the female dancers make greater efforts because they use the pointe shoes. These shoes expose them to continuous trauma and their use may cause aches and dysmorphology of the foot, because of the poor distribution of the load and the support, with consequences borne by the rachis and the lower limbs.

The required performance, the strong technique and the severe and systematic training techniques, make the dance a highly competitive sport activity. The subject can get a great advantage from this activity which, especially when practiced since a very young age, can develop in a harmonious way the muscular system, increasing the joints mobility and giving tonicity and suppleness to the muscular system. (Morris N.R. Van de Wetering A.W., De Rooij and. Sabapathy S., 2009). The research studied the possible relationship between the biomechanic conditions demanded by the technique of the ballet and by the possible changes of the plantar support, analysing any possible effect on the posture. The survey also meant to highlight any significant difference between the plantar support of the female and male students.

II. METHODS

The protocol of the research has been previously set thanks to the joint action of the researchers of the University of Salerno and the management of the Ballet School, which promoted and

shared the aims of the survey. The adopted procedural choices scheduled the following:

- 1) A specific agreement between the two bodies;
- 2) The group of research of the University of Salerno and the teachers of the San Carlo Theatre shared the use of the technology aimed at a descriptive study about the possible relationship between the foot structure and the practice of the ballet technique, studying the students of the Ballet school of the San Carlo Theatre of Naples.

In our case, the area of application covered the simple and fast static analysis of the load distribution, in order to fix the functionality of the foot in young dancers performing the classical ballet as a high competitive sport.

The actions performed at the school to carry out the experimental phase have been :

- 1) Setting up an integrated plan Ballet School of the San Carlo Theatre-University to share the aims, the methodologies and the procedures of the research.
- 2) Setting up an information sheet to collect data on the age, anthropometric data, the diet, the lifestyles and the type of sport practiced by students.
- 3) Analysis of the plantar support through a practical and prompt system of analysis : PDM – Platform of multi-functional strength.

It seems worthwhile to underline that the sharing of the research project has provided a first opportunity for comparison among the researches, the teachers and the director of the school in order to discuss about the organizational and executive methods of the research and obtain specific information about the training of the subjects observed. A later meeting with the students has been organized to obtain personal anthropometric information (parameters of structure, age, sex, height). The criteria of inclusion have been:

- absence of dimorphism.
- standard weight and height,
- postural treatment performed during sports training.

On the basis of the data collected, it has been expected the following:

- 1) To compare the values of the Ellipse Area (AE), the COP length (LCOP), the Mean of the Force (MF), the left forefoot force (FAS), the right forefoot force (FAD), strength on the left hind-foot (FRS), Strength on the right hind-foot (FRD) in different situations (a bipedal stance with the eyes open (ABOA), bipedal stance with the eyes closed (ABOCA), sporting gesture with the eyes open (GSOA), sporting gesture with the eyes closed (GSOC) in each course.
- 2) To compare the values between the first and the eighth course in order to identify significant differences related to the intensive study of classical ballet.

The results have provided the following:

- Description through tables containing the average values, standard deviation and coefficient of variation;
- Layout of the synthesis charts;
- Inferential analysis of the data.
- ✓ Comparison of the average values (AE, LCOP, MF, FAS, FAD, FRS, FRD) through Students' two-tailed t test for independent data with a significance alpha level = 5% in the group of the first course in different situations.
- ✓ Comparison of the average values (AE, LCOP, MF, FAS, FAD, FRS, FRD) through Students' two-tailed t test for independent data with significance alpha level = 5% within the group during the eighth course in different situations.
- ✓ Comparison of the average values (AE, LCOP, MF, FAS, FAD, FRS, FRD) through Students' two-tailed t test for independent data with significance alpha level = 5% between the two groups (first course and eighth course) for each of the 4 situations (bipedal stance with open eyes, bipedal stance with closed eyes, sport gesture with open eyes and sport gesture with closed eyes).

The hypotheses of the statistical analysis, with regard to the comparisons within each group, have been the following ones:

- ✓ Null hypothesis $H_0: \mu' = \mu''$ (the average value of the size in the first course equals the average value of the same size in the second course)
- ✓ Alternative hypothesis $H_1: \mu' \neq \mu''$ (the average value of the size in the first course differs the average value of the same size in the second course)

For the comparisons among the groups, they have been:

- I. Null hypothesis $H_0: \mu' = \mu''$ (the average value of the size in the first course equals the average spine blades
- II. value of the same size in the second course)
- ✓ Alternative hypothesis $H_1: \mu' \neq \mu''$ (the average value of the size in the first course differs the average value of the same size in the second course)
- ✓ The data of the two samples are different because they refer to different students. It has been chosen the two-tailed test because values are not expected to increase or decrease a priori, meaning that any significant change can be increasing or decreasing.

III. SAMPLE

The research has been carried out on a survey of 31 students of the Ballet School of the San Carlo Theatre, of whom 23 students (aged between 10 and 11) belonged to the first course, and 11 students (aged between 17 and 20) attended the seventh and eighth

courses. Twenty-three students of the first course have been studied (eight males and fifteen females) with an average age of about 11,2 years.

With regard to the seventh and eighth courses, eleven students have been studied (three males and eight females), with an average age of about 18,9 years.

IV. INSTRUMENTS

The group of research carried out a **Stabilometric and Posturometric Examination** on the group of control. The evaluation has been performed with a postural **MULTIFUNCTION MEASUREMENT PLATFORM**, Zebris FDM 153X60.5X2.1 cm (L x W x H), which works with 8064 capacitive sensors arranged in a next-generation matrix of 144 by 56 cm.

This platform provides a method that **measures the distribution of plantar pressure** in the upright position, during both the **static phase** (position of attention) and **walking**, providing *graphical* images and *numerical values*. The examination is carried out to identify the shape, the pressure, the surface, the acceleration of the foot and ground contact time to better assess any abnormal movement and areas of overload. The study of the posture and the gait highlights how the load distribution on the plantar surface may vary according to the structural characteristics of the subject and how it can be influenced by possible alterations of different bone segments (tarsus and metatarsus, tibia, femur, pelvis).

The application areas cover a quick and simple dynamic analysis of the rolling and a static analysis of the distribution of loads. This analysis can easily be used to determine the functionality of the foot because:

- It can register an unlimited number of tests and the calculation of the average value will automatically appear in the "Report".
- The system records the ground reaction forces during the foot-ground contact.
- The development of the load distribution can be displayed in 2 and 3 dimensions charts and in a color scale.
- Up to 4 simultaneous tracks facilitate the direct comparison between the left and the right side and the comparative analysis in terms of interest.
- It allows the analysis of static and dynamic forces and of the pressure distribution of the foot.
- It records the ground reaction forces during the foot-ground contact.

The protocol provided a Plumb test, a bipodalic Romberg test and a test of the sport gesture for the first year course students; it carried out a Plumb test and a bipodalic Romberg test, and a Plumb test and a monopodalic Romberg test and a test of the sport gesture for the students of the seventh and eighth year courses. (Lanski 2000).

V. RESEARCH PLAN

a) Time, subjects and methods of implementation of the protocol:

The subject was positioned to evaluate the static standing position *without shoes*, with only the socks on.

i. Tests

Plumb test and a bipodalic Romberg test

1. head in neutral position with eyes to infinity (no staring point: drawings, etc.)
2. upper limbs lowered and along the trunk and thighs
3. aligned feet, tips slightly apart, heels almost together
4. the person is not allowed to speak or make any voluntary movement during the test.
5. it always begins with open eyes, then, it goes on with the eyes closed.

Plumb test and a monopodalic Romberg test

1. head in neutral position with eyes to infinity (no staring point: drawings, etc.)
2. arms crossed in the chest;
3. the supporting leg is bent of about 30 degrees and the other is slightly bent;
4. the person is not allowed to speak or make any voluntary movement during the test.
5. it always begins with open eyes, then, it goes on with the eyes closed.

Test of the technical movement:

1. head in neutral position with eyes to infinity (no staring point: drawings, etc.)
2. upper limbs lowered and along the trunk and thighs
3. getting the first "en de hors" position with the with heels jointed and the points of the toes turned 180 degrees.
4. the person is not allowed to speak or make any voluntary movement during the test.
5. it always begins with open eyes, then, it goes on with the eyes closed.

ii. Duration of the test

The literature generally indicates that the length of the test is *30" both with the eyes open and closed for the bipodalic stance test and 10" both with the eyes open and closed for the monopodalic stance test.* The team of the researchers, considered the main technical features of the courses attended by the students, decided to do the following doses:

First course students:

The following four doses have been given:

- The first one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in bi-podalic position and with open eyes;

- The second one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in bi-podalic position and with the eyes closed;
- The third one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in sports mode with open eyes;
- The fourth one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in sports mode with the eyes closed;

Seventh and eighth courses students:

The following four doses have been given:

- The first one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in bi-podalic position and with open eyes;
- The second one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in bi-podalic position and with closed eyes;
- The third one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in sports mode with open eyes;
- The fourth one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in sports mode with the eyes closed;
- The fifth one i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in monopodalic position and with open eyes;
- The second one, at T0 time, i.e. before the lesson and at the beginning of the course, in monopodalic position and with closed eyes;

VI. EMERGED DATA

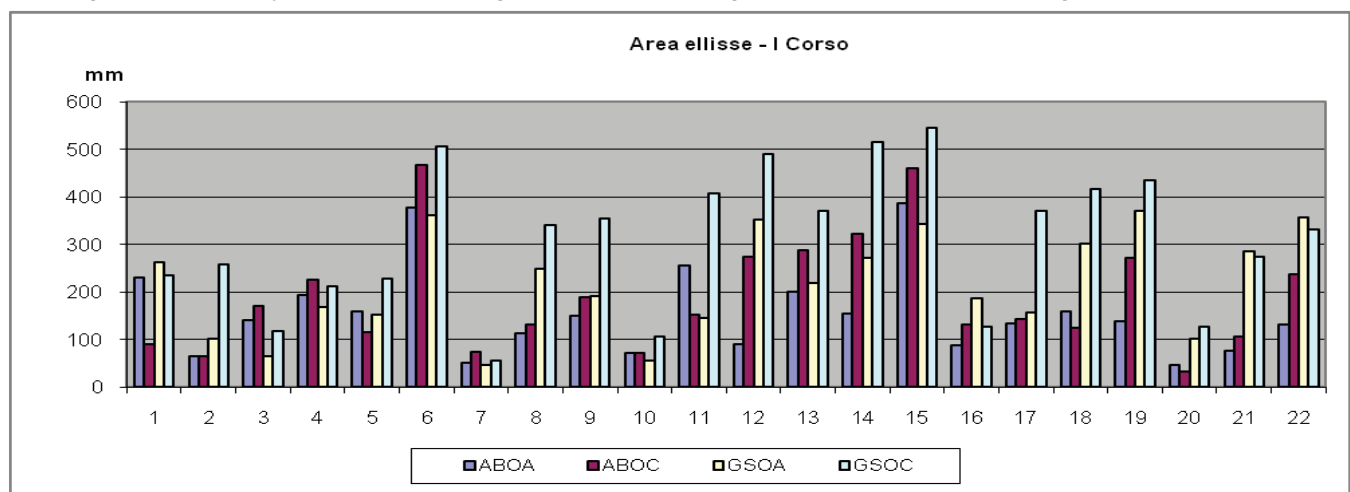
I Course

1. It has been recorded a progressive increase of the Area of Ellipse and of the COP length, while passing from the bipodalic stance to the technical gesture and, in each case, while moving from the open eyes position to the closed eyes position.

VII. RESULTS

I course

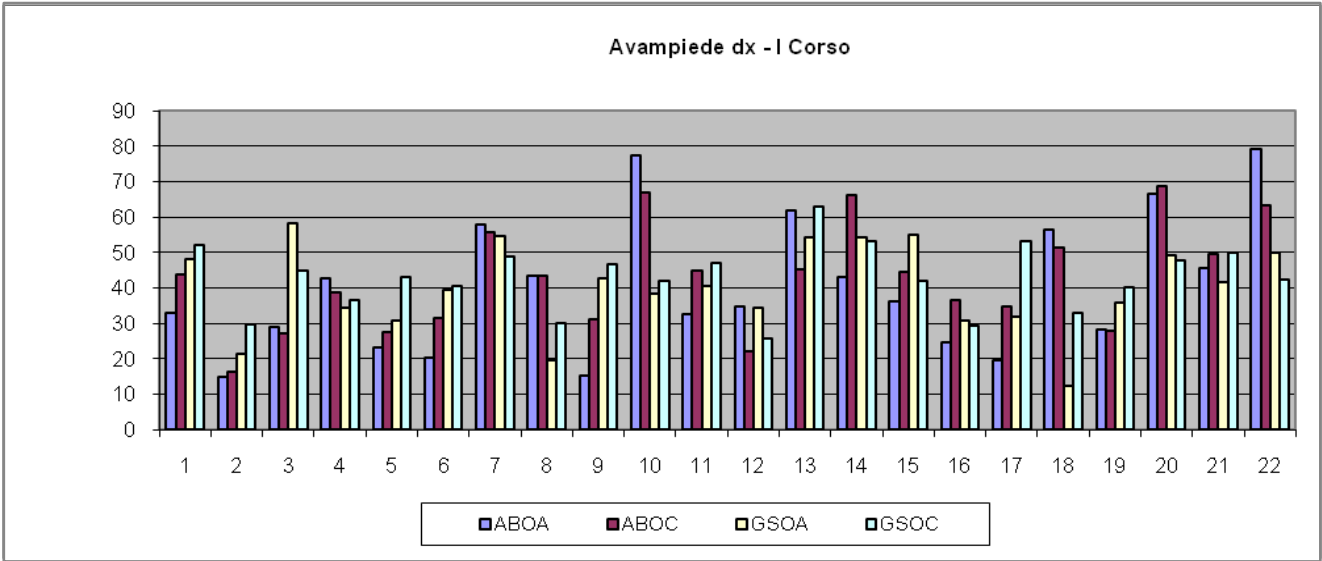
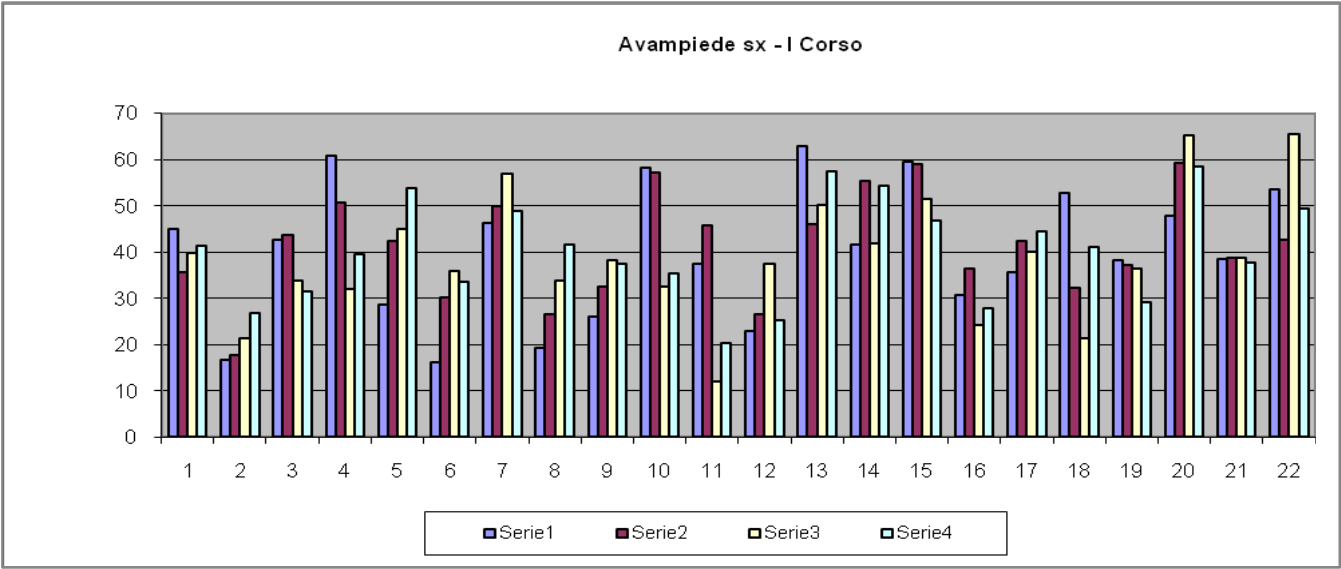
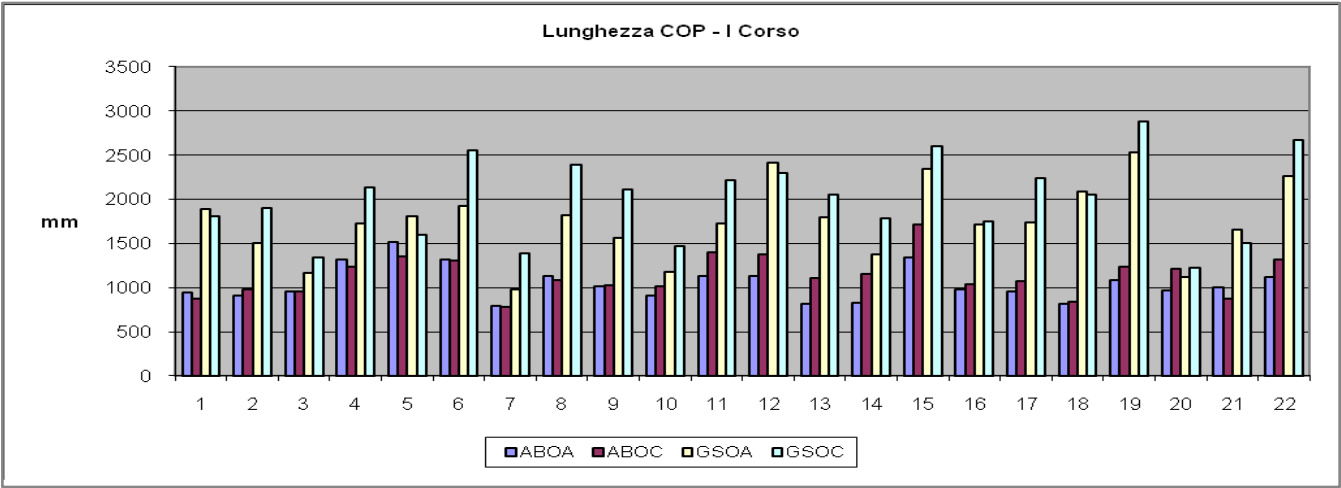
Histograms of the Ellipse Area, COP Length, Left Forefoot, Right Forefoot, Left foot and Right Hind-foot variables

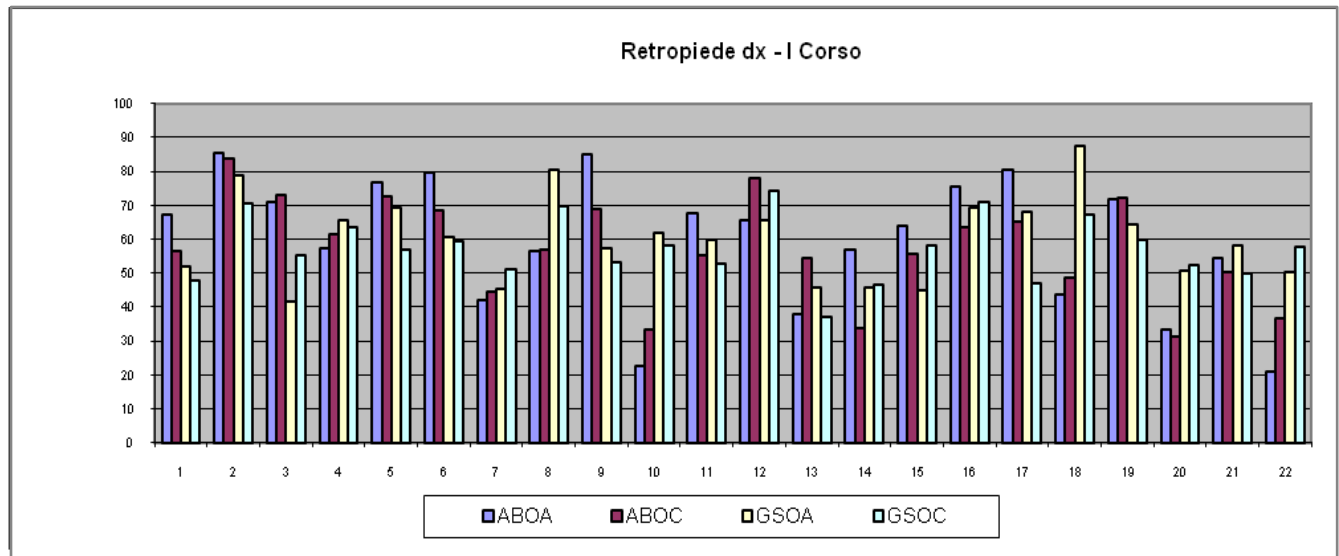
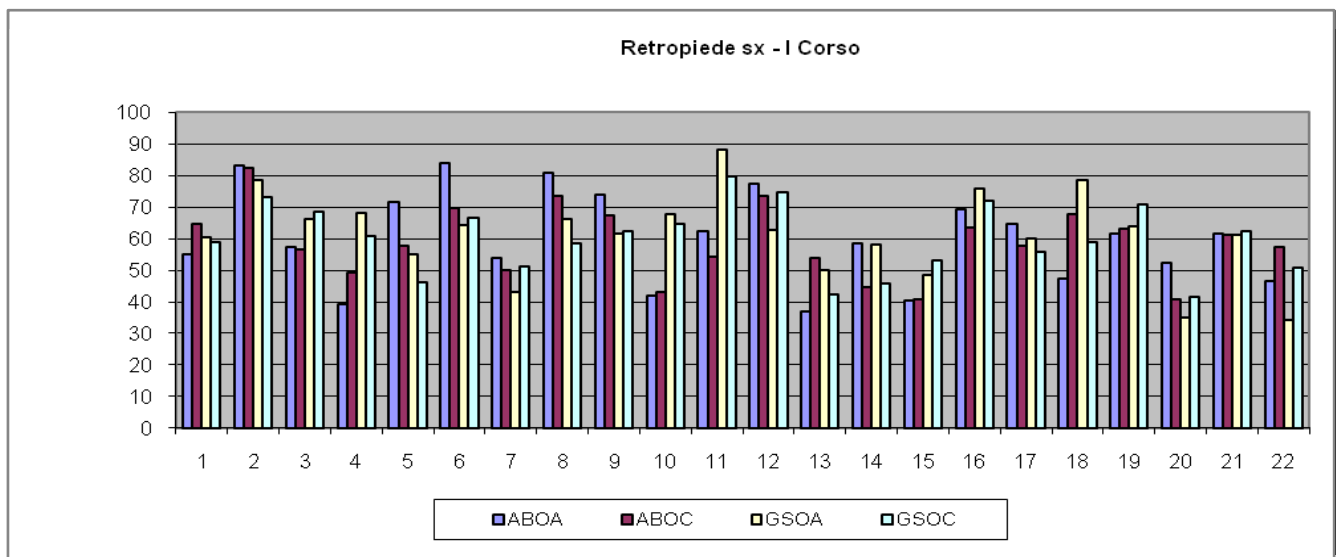


2. The force on the forefoot and the hind-foot is almost constant in each of the four cases.
3. The forces are always balanced on the left and right forefoot and on the left and right hind-foot.
4. The support on the hind-foot is higher than that on the forefoot.
5. The average support forces are steady on each of the four points (left and right forefoot and on the left and right hind-foot).
6. The values of the force on the left foot (forefoot and hind-foot) are highly concentrated around the mean value of the sport gesture with closed eyes. It shows a low variability of the behavior.

VIII Course

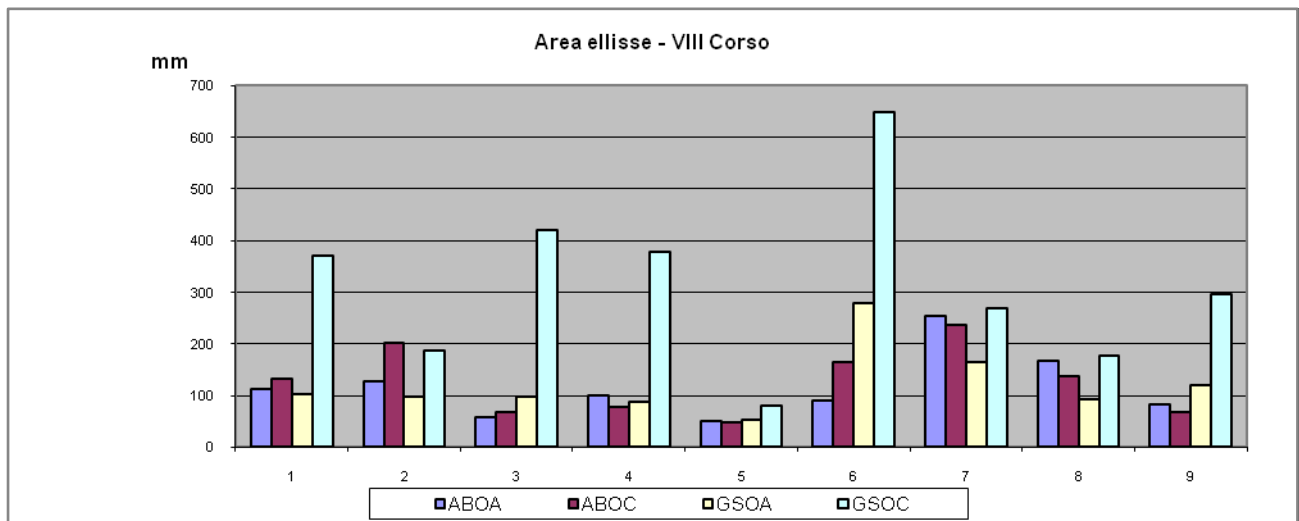
1. There have been recorded fixed values of the Area of the Ellipse and a progressive increase of the COP length while moving from the open to the closed eyes position and from the stance to the sport gesture.
2. The strength on the forefoot tends to strongly decrease while moving from a bipodalic stance to a sport gesture; of course, vice versa for the hind-foot.
3. The forces are always balanced on the left and right forefoot and on the left and right hind-foot.
4. The support on the forefoot is higher than that on the hind-foot.
5. The support on the forefoot generally increases with the eyes closed and decreases during the sport activity related to the bipodalic support; of course, vice versa for the hind-foot.
6. The values of the force on the left foot (forefoot and hind-foot) during the sport gesture with the eyes closed are closer to the average value; that means a low variability and, hence, a regular behavior.

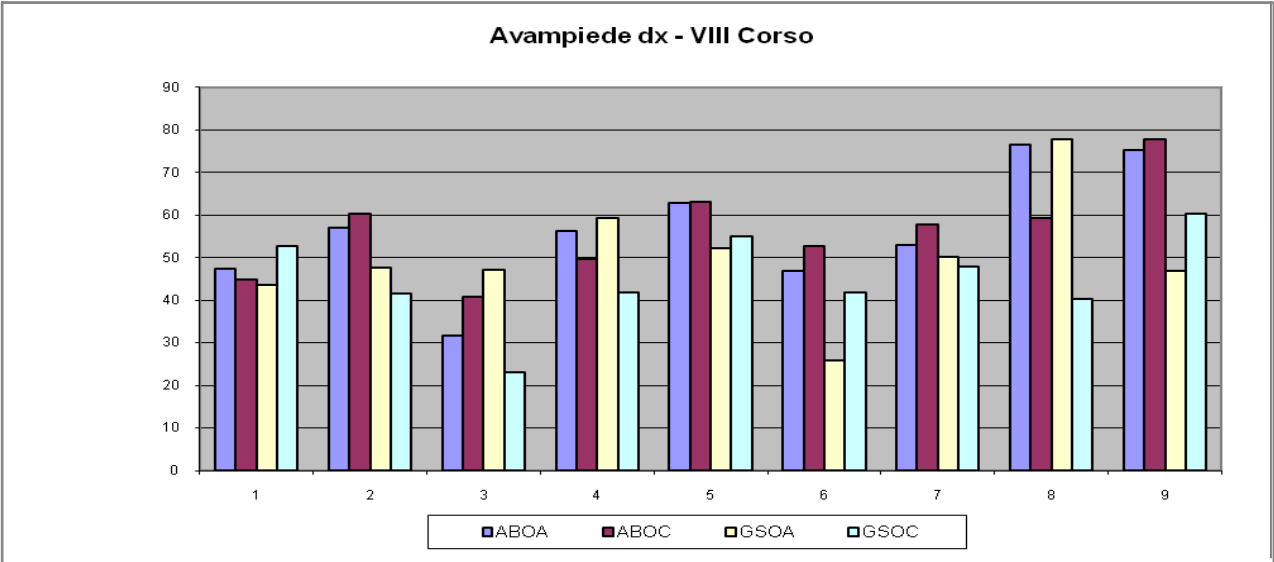
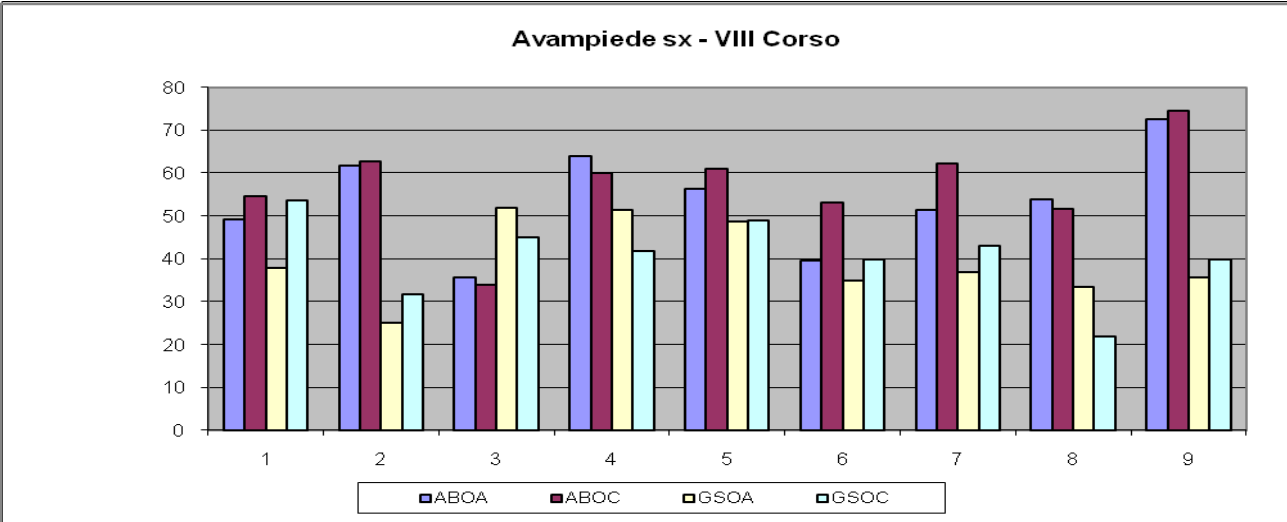
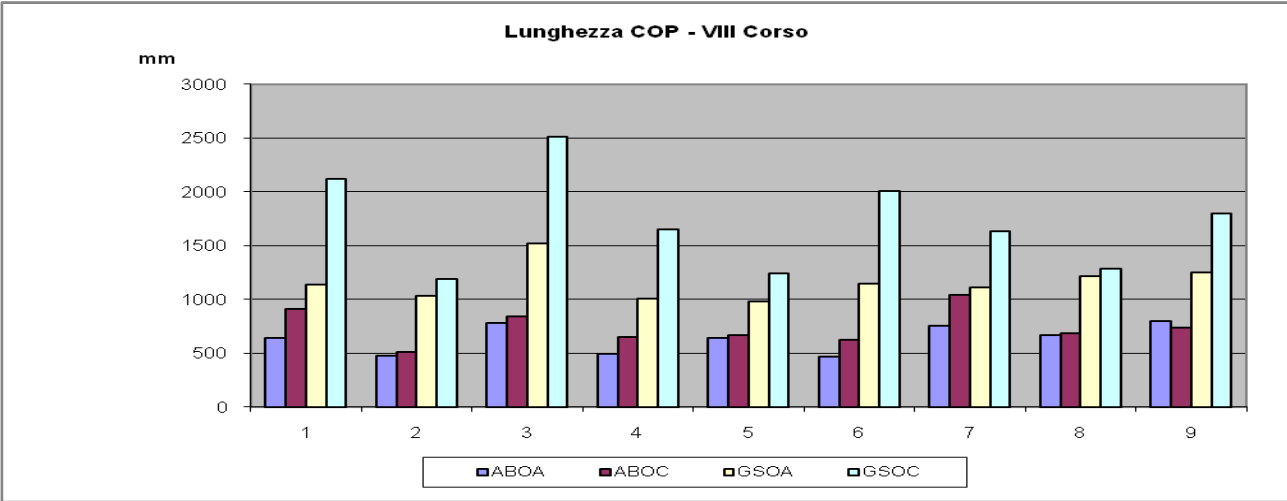


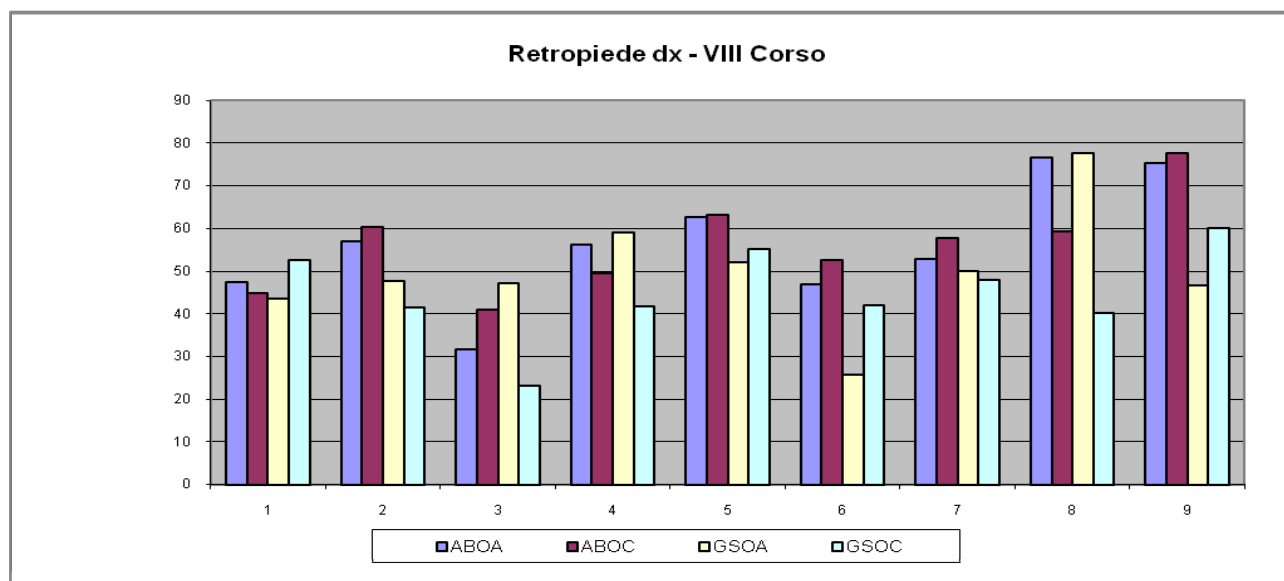
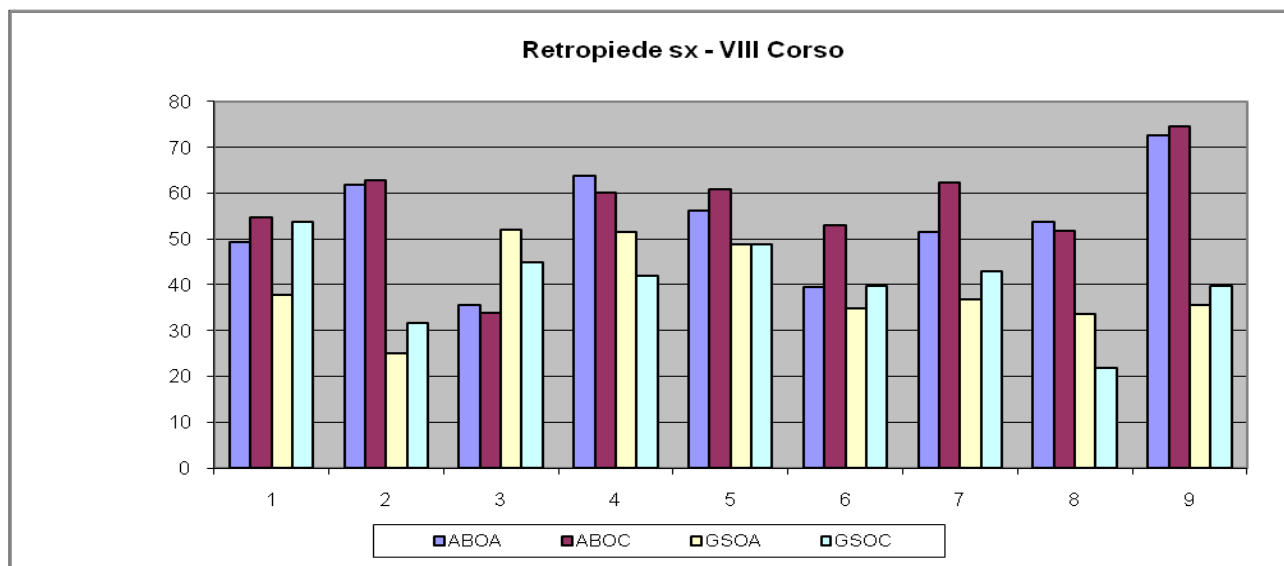


VIII course

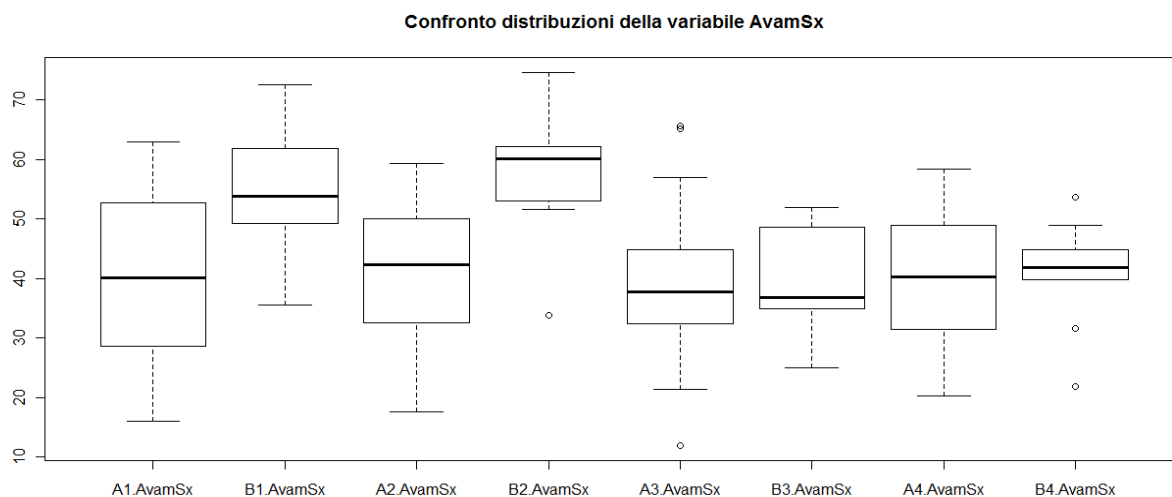
Histograms of the Ellipse Area, COP Length, Left Forefoot, Right Forefoot, Left foot and Right Hind-foot variables



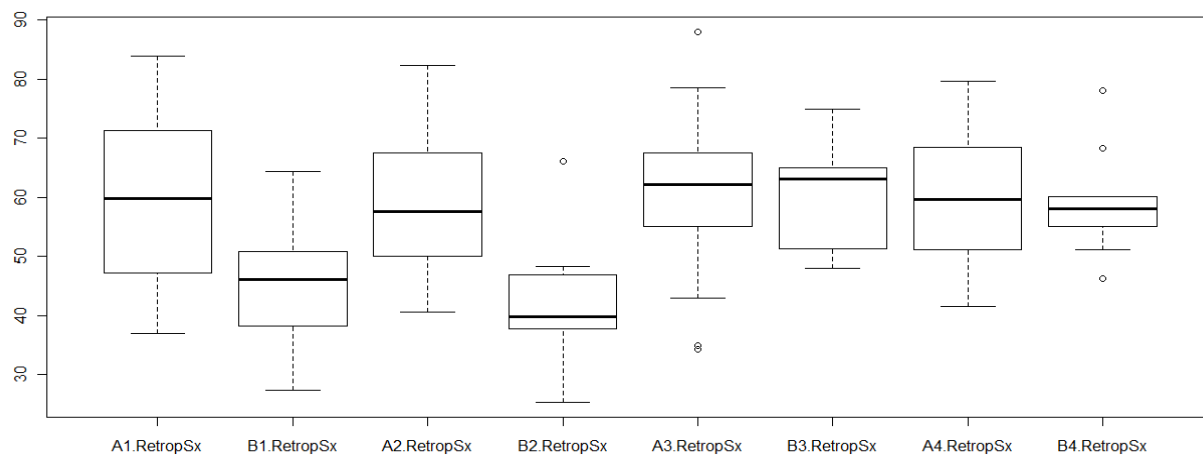




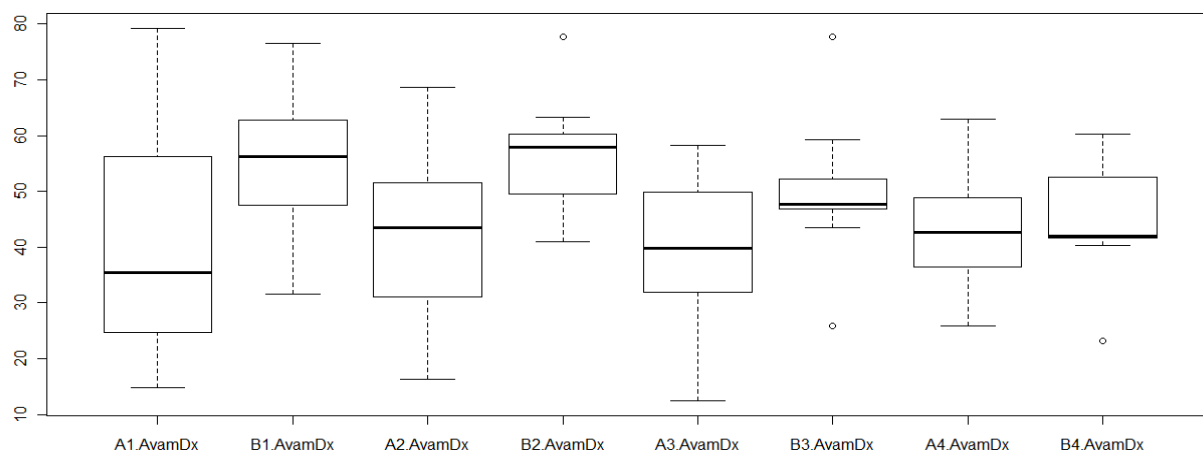
BOXPLOT OF THE AVAMSX, AVAMDX, RETROPSX AND RETROPDX VARIABLES



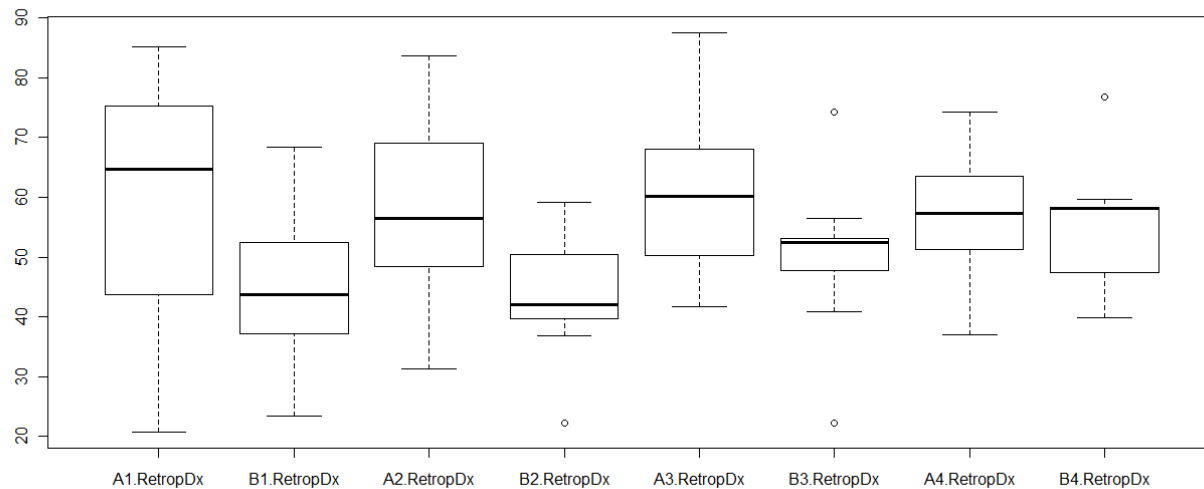
Confronto distribuzioni della variabile RetropSx



Confronto distribuzioni della variabile AvamDx



Confronto distribuzioni della variabile RetropDx



Key:

A = I Course

B= VIII Course

Comparing the values of the first course with those of the eighth course and analysing the following table of the p. values, it can be stated the following:

1. There are no significant differences between the first course and the eighth one with regard to the Area of the Ellipse (AE) and the mean of the forces (MF) both on the left and the right foot. This is true for the bipodalic support both with the open and the closed eyes. Hence, the attendance in the courses doesn't significantly modify the AE and the MF.
2. The length of the COP is different in the first and eighth course as regard as the support both with open and closed eyes, and the difference goes beyond the 99,9% (i.e., there is less than 0,1% probability to make mistake in admitting that the values are different). The study carried out in the following eight years of the course significantly changes the length of the COP..
3. During the bipodalic support with open eyes, between the first and the eighth course there are significant differences at 95% for both the forefoot and the hindfoot, and in both cases both for the left and the right foot (there is less than 5% probability to make a mistake if it is assumed that the values are different).
4. During the bipodalic support with open eyes, between the first and the eighth course there are significant differences at 95% for both the right forefoot and the right hind-foot.
5. During the bipodalic support with closed eyes, between the first and the eighth course there are significant differences at 99% for both the left forefoot and the left hind-foot (in this case, there is less than 1% probability to make a mistake if it is assumed that the values are different).
6. The influence of the study carried out during the following eight years of the course, involves more significant changes on the left foot rather than on the right one.
7. There aren't significant changes ($p_value > 0,05$) during the technical activity with the eyes closed.
8. During the technical activity with the eyes open, there aren't significant changes with regard to MF and the forces both on the left and right forefoot and hind-foot.
9. During the technical activity with open eyes, there is a significant change at 95% with regard to the Area of the Ellipse between the first and the eighth courses.
10. During the technical activity with the eyes open, there is a significant change at 99% with regard to the length of the COP between the first and the eighth courses.
11. The length of the COP of the male students of the eighth course is shorter than that of the female students.

P_Value Tables To Compare The Values Between The I Course And The Viii Course

Bipodalic Stance with Open Eye

<i>size</i>	<i>means</i>	<i>p.value</i>
AE	The same (both with open and closed eyes)	0.25
MF (sx e dx)	The same (both with open and closed eyes)	0.77
Lungh. COP	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	<0.001
AvSx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	0.018
AvDx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	0.031
RpSx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	0.018
RpDx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	0.031

Bipodalic Stance with Closed Eyes

<i>size</i>	<i>means</i>	<i>p.value</i>
AE	The same (both with open and closed eyes)	0.15
MF (sx e dx)	The same (both with open and closed eyes)	0.77
Lungh. COP	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	<0.001
AvSx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	<0.01
AvDx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	0.02
RpSx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	<0.01
RpDx	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	0.02

Sport Activity with Open Eyes

<i>size</i>	<i>means</i>	<i>p.value</i>
AE	Different	0.02
MF (sx e dx)	Different (both with open and closed eyes)	0.73
Lungh. COP	The same	<0.001
AvSx	The same	0.88
AvDx	The same	0.06
RpSx	The same	0.88
RpDx	The same	0.06

Sport Activity with Closed Eyes

<i>size</i>	<i>means</i>	<i>p.value</i>
AE	Not Comparable Data Because Of The Different Variance Of The Data	-----
MF (sx e dx)	The same	0.083
Lungh. COP	The same	0.13
AvSx	The same	0.90
AvDx	The same	0.57
RpSx	The same	0.90
RpDx	The same	0.57

VIII. CLUSTERING

According to the general features of the stances, it has been possible to split the students of the first group into subgroups with a 30 distance in each of the four cases:

Bipodalic Stance with Open Eyes

	AvamSx	AvamDx	RetropSx	RetropDx
Cluster 1	53.6	66.5	46.5	33.5
Cluster 2	45.5	36.3	54.5	63.7
Cluster 3	24.5	24.5	75.5	75.5

Bipodalic Stance with Closed Eyes

	AvamSx	AvamDx	RetropSx	RetropDx
Cluster 1	52.9	64.1	47.1	35.9
Cluster 2	50.4	43.3	49.6	56.7
Cluster 3	37.8	31.0	62.2	69.0
Cluster 4	33.3	47.0	66.7	53.0

Sport Activity with Open Eyes

	AvamSx	AvamDx	RetropSx	RetropDx
Cluster 1	37.6	40.8	62.4	59.2
Cluster 2	37.6	40.8	62.4	59.2
Cluster 3	22.6	24.88	77.4	75.2

Sport Activity with Closed Eyes

	AvamSx	AvamDx	RetropSx	RetropDx
Cluster 1	51.9	46.2	48.1	53.8
Cluster 2	40.7	33.1	59.3	66.9
Cluster 3	32.4	41.8	67.6	58.2
Cluster 4	40.2	50.2	59.8	49.5
Cluster 5	26.6	28.2	73.4	71.8

IX. CORRELATIONS

The following important correlations have been identified:

- A high force on the left forefoot implies a high force on the right forefoot and vice versa, a low force on the right and left hindfoot, particularly in the case of the bipodalic stance.
- Increasing the length of the COP increases the Area of the Ellipse, particularly during the sport activity.

X. CONCLUSION

The survey meant to examine the relationship between the technique of the classical ballet and the possible appearance of abnormalities of the plantar support and the possible effects of these changes on the posture. The survey also meant to highlight every significant difference between the plantar support of both the female and male students. It should be clear, indeed, that the female dancer does greater efforts due to the technical features and to the pointe shoes, which expose her not only to frequent and sudden injuries; moreover, their use may also cause dysmorphism and foot pains, poor load distribution and support, with effects borne by the spine and the lower limbs.

The results showed:

- ✓ In the first year students, the support on the hind-foot is greater than that on the forefoot, while the eighth year students stand more on the forefoot than on the hind-foot. This might mean that the constant study would tend to encourage an adequately distributed support over the whole foot.

- ✓ In the eighth year students the force on the forefoot tends to strongly reduce while going from the bipodalic support to the sport gesture (and vice versa on the hind-foot). This might mean that the *en dehors* study improves an adequately distributed support over the whole foot.
- ✓ The length of the COP is different in the first and eighth course (both for the open and closed eyes support) and the difference is beyond 99,9% (i.e. there is a probability of less than 0,1% to make mistake if it is assumed that the values are different). The study carried out during the following eight years of the course changes the length of the COP very significantly, improving a lot the centre of gravity of the studied subjects.
- ✓ The influence of the study carried out during the eight year course shows greater changes on the left foot rather than on the right one. This might be due to the fact that the activities tend to favour the use of both the parties of the body in a symmetrical way, while performing all the routine activities.
- ✓ During the sport gesture with open eyes there is a significant differences at 95% with regard to the Area of the Ellipse of the first and eight year course and this might mean that the influence of the study done during the eight years of the course implies changes on the motor control abilities.

The results of the survey highlighted, indeed, a possible relationship between the motor activity of the ballet and the features of the support on the foot. The research opens up further studies on the *modelling* and *characterizing* features of the practice of the academic ballet technique, because the quality of the body's movement, even in the air phase, depends on the control and on the refinement of the support of the lower limb.

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ⁱ For further details about the research methodology of the interview process, please see Oliveira (2005).

ⁱⁱ Adapted from Oliveira (2005: 43) and Oliveira (2007: 66).

ⁱⁱⁱ For further detail see Light and Gold (2000).

^{iv} This figure is contrasts particularly with Indian entrepreneurs interviewed in the same study. Almost 30% of Indian entrepreneurs (of 253 interviewed) declared that one of the most relevant difficulties in the definition of entrepreneurial strategies was constraints in accessing bank loans (for further details about this comparative analysis, see Oliveira 2005: 82).

^v For examples of other host contexts for Chinese entrepreneurs, see: Chan and Cheung (1985: 149), Beltrán and Sáiz (2007: 211).

^{vi} See: *Jornal de Notícias*, 28 June 2006.

^{vii} Details in: *Diário de Notícias*, 12 April 2006.

^{viii} About 64.7% of Chinese entrepreneurs interviewed declared that they had only Portuguese clients (Oliveira, 2005: 117).

^{ix} For further details, see: Chan and Cheung (1985:149), Waldinger et al. (1990: 142) and Light and Gold (2000: 119).

^x See: Chan and Cheung, (1985:149), Portes (1999:58).



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Leadership Style of Urban Barangay Chairmen in Ozamiz City

By Dr. Anna C. Bocar, Prudelen C. Pasok

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Abstracts - A descriptive survey method was utilized in this study to look into the existing leadership styles of the urban barangay chairmen in Ozamiz City as ascertained by themselves, council members, purok presidents, and health workers. It was the main tool for gathering data which was supplemented with random interviews conducted among the respondents to clarify their answers and solicit their opinions. The factor average of 3.38 showed that the barangay chairmen to a very great extent practiced participative leadership. They generally encouraged participation, facilitated teamwork, and empowered their officials to make decisions.

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Abstract - A descriptive survey method was utilized in this study to look into the existing leadership styles of the urban barangay chairmen in Ozamiz City as ascertained by themselves, council members, purok presidents, and health workers. It was the main tool for gathering data which was supplemented with random interviews conducted among the respondents to clarify their answers and solicit their opinions. The factor average of 3.38 showed that the barangay chairmen to a very great extent practiced participative leadership. They generally encouraged participation, facilitated teamwork, and empowered their officials to make decisions.

1. INTRODUCTION

A country needs leaders and for a country to change and develop it needs active political leaders. Change and development of a country is a major function of political activity.

Cunningham (2003) remarked that leaders of today cannot be successful without having a broad understanding of the social, political and economic dynamics that influence and are shaped by global competition. Leaders must be aware of the ideologies, political pressures, a shifting economic and social conditions, if they are to provide effective leadership.

Effective leadership is characterized by attention on the welfare of the citizens. Lipham (2004) and his colleagues have developed a four factor theory of leadership. The first is the structured leadership. It indicates taking immediate action on important issues, delegating task to subordinates, stressing organizational goals and monitoring implementation of decisions. This leadership behavior indicates that the leader lets the subordinates know what is expected of them, provides specific guidelines concerning what is to be done and how to do it, sets performance standards, schedules and coordinates work.

The second is facilitative leadership. This is a leadership style where the barangay chairmen will obtain and provide required resources, minimize bureaucratic work, offering suggestions for solving problems and scheduling of activities. A facilitative leader sets challenging goals for subordinates, emphasizes excellence in performance and shows confidence in subordinate's ability to achieve high standards of performance.

The third type of leadership role is supportive.

This means the leader encourages other's efforts, demonstrates friendliness and collegiality, trusting others with delegated responsibility and enhancing staff morale. A supportive leader is friendly, approachable, and concerned with the needs, status and well being of subordinates. He/she treats them as equals and frequently goes out of his way to make their work environment pleasant and enjoyable.

The fourth leadership role is participative. It indicates that the leader seeks decisional input and advice, working actively with individuals and groups, involving others in decision making and maintaining willingness to modify preconceived positions. A participative leader consults with subordinates concerning work related matters, solicits their opinions and frequently attempts to use subordinate's ideas in making decisions.

Leadership then serves as a balancing act between self and others. An effective leader recognizes his or her personality and how operational factors or daily tasks affect his or her relationship with others.

a) Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to look into the existing leadership styles of the urban barangay chairmen of Ozamiz City as ascertained by themselves, council members, purok presidents, and health workers. Specifically, the study was undertaken to answer the following:

1. As evaluated by the urban barangay chairmen, council members, purok presidents, health workers, to what extent do the barangay chairmen manifest the following leadership roles:
 - 1.1 structured
 - 1.2 facilitative
 - 1.3 supportive
 - 1.4 participative
2. Are there significant differences on the evaluations made between the barangay chairmen and their subordinates concerning the former's manifestation of the following determinants?
 - 2.1 structured
 - 2.2 facilitative
 - 2.3 supportive
 - 2.4 participative

b) Hypothesis

H₀: There are no significant differences in the assessments made by the different respondents regarding the leadership styles of the urban barangay chairmen in Ozamiz City.

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c) *Significance of the Study*

This study is significant to the different urban barangays in Ozamiz City which is served by the chairmen.

i. *The City Government Officials.*

They will find this study useful as a mechanism in their deliberations concerning the movement of the barangays in the various levels. They can also utilize the data to analyze the leadership styles of the urban barangay chairmen and in making decisions essential in managing the affairs of the barangay.

ii. *The Barangay Chairmen.*

Benefits can be gained from this study by the barangay chairmen in Ozamiz City. Their evaluation of their own leadership style provides them with useful insights into the competencies required of individuals handling sensitive and key positions in the barangay. As such, this will pave the way for their improvement.

iii. *The Councilors and Purok Presidents.*

They will also stand to benefit from this study. The evaluative nature of this research serves as guidelines for the councilors and purok presidents to assess objectively the leadership style commonly expected of all barangay chairmen. Ultimately, these councilors and purok presidents who have the potential to be elected as barangay chairman will be aware of what may be expected of them.

iv. *The Barangay Health Workers.*

They will also find this study relevant and meaningful. They can gain insights into the leadership style assumed by their chairmen, resulting in an improved work relationship with their barangay chairmen.

v. *The Residents.*

As the primary clients of the barangay chairmen, the residents are the direct recipients of quality services emanating from effective leadership.

vi. *The Researchers.*

The proponents, as academic members of the university will also find this study useful and worthwhile. By experiencing the various phases of the research process, they become more appreciative of their positive contribution to the local government unit.

nineteen (119) council members, two hundred forty six (246) barangay health workers, and one hundred fourteen (114) purok presidents. The number of respondents in this study totaled 492.

a) *Leadership Style Survey*

The questions in this instrument were formulated for the purpose of determining the extent the barangay chairmen manifested their leadership style. Each question was followed by a number of possible responses. Each item corresponded to numeric scales with the following qualitative equivalents:

- 4 – Very Great Extent (VGE) – means that the barangay chairmen manifest the leadership in all cases.
- 3 – Great Extent (GE) – means that the barangay chairmen manifest the leadership in majority of the cases.
- 2 – Less Extent (LE) – means that the barangay chairmen manifest the leadership in a few instances only.
- 1 – Never (N) – means that the barangay chairmen do not manifest the leadership at all.

b) *Statistical Tools*

The data were assumed to be normally distributed and treated as interval levels. Parametric tests were utilized; thus, arithmetic mean was used as a numerical descriptive measure for the central tendency and the analysis of variance (Anova) was used to find significant differences between the respondents' responses.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

a) *Structured Leadership Styles of the Urban Barangay Chairmen*

Table 1 highlights the extent to which structured leadership style was manifested by the respondents.

II. METHODOLOGY

The descriptive survey method was utilized in this study. Researcher-made instrument was the main tool for gathering data supplemented with random interviews conducted among the respondents.

The City of Ozamiz has fifty-one barangays classified into rural and urban barangays. This study focused on the fifteen urban barangays of the city.

The respondents of the study comprised thirteen (13) urban barangay chairmen; one hundred

Table 1 : Structured Leadership Styles of Barangay Chairmen

Items	Barangay Chairman	Council Members	Health Workers	Purok Presidents	Item Average	
	μ	μ	μ	μ	μ	INT
1. Enact ordinance for improving socio- economic condition	3.0	3.25	3.31	3.13	3.19	GE
2. Put programs and improvement efforts into action	3.38	3.26	3.38	3.21	3.31	VGE
3. Develop a vision and establish clear goals	3.38	3.08	3.18	3.14	3.20	GE
4. Perceive the needs and concerns of all residents in the barangay	3.3	3.32	3.39	3.29	3.33	VGE
5. Take prompt actions as issues and problems emerge	3.46	3.25	3.28	3.21	3.3	GE
6. Estimate the likelihood of such possible outcome to each alternative or decision	3.53	3.01	3.21	3.07	3.21	GE
Factor Average	3.35	3.20	3.29	3.18	3.26	VGE

As shown in Table 1 the factor average of 3.26 structured leadership style was manifested to a very great extent.

The barangay chairmen were inclined to enact ordinance for improving socio-economic condition to a great extent (3.19). This meant that the barangay chairmen planned their work so that resources could be appropriately utilized.

The item average of 3.31 denoted that the barangay chairmen put programs and improvement efforts into action. Projects undertaken had definite timelines and changes were managed effectively (Interview, December 2006).

To a great extent ($\mu=3.20$), the barangay chairmen were deemed capable of developing the vision and establishing clear cut goals which gave purpose and a sense of direction to the barangay.

As to whether the barangay chairmen were able to perceive the needs and concerns of all residents in the barangay, this leadership style was manifested to a very great extent ($\mu=3.33$). It can be inferred from this

information that the administrators were quite perceptive in ascertaining the concerns of all interested individuals in the barangay.

The item average of 3.30 revealed that the administrators to a great extent made prompt actions as issues and problems emerged. The respondents opined that their barangay leaders were responsive to their needs and were not hesitant to take remedial actions to correct certain situations.

With regard to the ability of the administrators to estimate the likelihood of such possible outcome to each alternative or decision made, this was done to a great extent ($\mu=3.21$). This implied the barangay chairmen had the habit of anticipating the impact of their decisions upon implementation.

b) *Facilitative Leadership Styles of Urban Barangay Chairmen*

Table 2 presents information concerning the extent to which the barangay chairmen manifested facilitative leadership styles.

Table 2 : Facilitative Leadership Style of Barangay Chairmen

Items	Barangay Chairman	Council Members	Health Workers	Purok Presidents	Item Average	
	μ	μ	μ	μ	μ	INT
1. Know what to delegate and to whom	3.38	3.26	3.26	3.08	3.25	GE
2. Secure commitment to a course of action from individuals or groups	3.38	3.23	3.37	3.23	3.30	VGE
3. Make the decision but tries to persuade the officials to accept it	3.53	3.10	3.26	3.08	3.24	GE
4. Resolve short term issues while balancing them against long term objectives.	3.46	3.23	3.24	3.18	3.27	VGE
5. Schedule flow of activities according to the agreed time frame	3.46	3.14	3.30	3.16	3.26	VGE
6. Improve the officials' readiness to accept change	3.38	3.14	3.26	3.21	3.24	GE
Factor Average	3.43	3.18	3.28	3.16	3.26	VGE

As exhibited in Table 2 the barangay chairmen practiced facilitative leadership styles to a very great extent. An item by item analysis revealed the following information. An item average of 3.25 pointed out that the barangay chairmen to a great extent knew what and to

whom to delegate the task. This implied that the barangay chairmen were capable of assigning tasks, projects or responsibilities to the right people and made follow ups on the delegated activities. As to whether the barangay chairmen were capable of securing

commitment to a course of action from individuals or groups, this was manifested to a very great extent as shown by the item average of 3.30. Since the barangay chairmen were able to facilitate coordination and collaboration of tasks, it was not difficult for them to seek the support and dedication of those responsible for carrying out the identified tasks.

The item average of 3.24 indicated that to a great extent, although the barangay chairmen made the decision, they tried to persuade their barangay officials to accept it. This was true in the sense that the former tried to solicit the opinions of their barangay officials on the merits of the issues before making a conclusion.

To a very great extent ($\mu=3.27$), the barangay chairmen resolved short term issues while balancing them against long term objectives. This meant that the barangay chairmen were generally adept in prioritizing short and long term goals to ensure proper utilization of resources.

As to the ability of the barangay chairmen to schedule the flow of activities according to the agreed time frame, this was observed to be fulfilled to a very great extent ($\mu=3.26$). This did not come as a surprise considering that the barangay chairmen provided distinct timetables for each program/activity undertaken (Interview, December 2006).

Lastly, the item average of 3.24 revealed that to a great extent, the barangay chairmen were able to improve their officials' readiness to accept change. This was due to the fact that the officials were involved in decision making; thus, there was no problem in stimulating them to be significant contributors to change effectiveness.

c) Supportive Leadership Styles of the Urban Barangay Chairmen

Table 3 highlights the information concerning the supportive leadership styles manifested by the barangay chairmen.

Table 3: Supportive Leadership Style of Barangay Chairmen

Item	Barangay Chairman	Council Members	Health Workers	Purok Presidents	Item Average	
	μ	μ	μ	μ	μ	INT
1. Support group accomplishment	3.69	3.42	3.36	3.36	3.46	VGE
2. Accept suggestions from officials regarding solutions to problems	3.84	3.42	3.39	3.4	3.51	VGE
3. Provide the required resources/logistics for projects/management	3.46	3.21	3.44	3.26	3.34	VGE
4. Am/are concerned with the needs, status and well-being of officials	3.3	3.28	3.33	3.34	3.31	VGE
5. Treat officials as equal	3.61	3.38	3.39	3.47	3.46	VGE
6. Am/are friendly and approachable	3.53	3.5	3.58	3.53	3.54	VGE
7. Go out of my/their way to make the environment more pleasant and enjoyable	3.3	3.27	3.36	3.28	3.30	VGE
Factor Average	3.53	3.35	3.41	3.38	3.42	VGE

As shown in Table 3 the factor average of 3.42 obtained from the weighted mean of 3.35 from the council members, 3.53 from the barangay chairmen, 3.41 from the health workers, 3.38 from the purok presidents, the barangay chairmen leadership styles to a very great extent.

Specifically, the item average of 3.46 indicated that the barangay chairmen supported group accomplishment to a very great extent. The former supervised and monitored their subordinates by providing feedbacks on performance levels of the officials.

Furthermore, the barangay chairmen to a very great extent ($\mu=3.51$) accepted suggestions from their officials regarding solutions to problems. The barangay chairmen tended to rely on their officials to come up with solutions or directions about how to get the task done as the latter were deemed to be in the best

position to analyze the problems. When it came to certain undertakings like program or projects, the barangay chairmen to a very great extent ($\mu=3.34$) did not hesitate to allocate the necessary funds to support the programs. This was the case as all projects were allocated with adequate logistics.

The item average of 3.31 pointed out that the barangay chairmen to a very great extent were concerned with the needs, status and well being of their officials. This interpersonal sensitivity was quite strong particularly in perceiving the needs of others. They treated their subordinates as equal to a very great extent ($\mu=3.46$). Sentiments were often heard and handled tactfully.

The barangay chairmen to a very great extent ($\mu=3.54$) were viewed to be friendly and approachable. They dealt with others with finesse and recognized individual differences. Corollary to this finding, the

barangay chairmen ($\mu=3.30$) to a very great extent went out of their way to make the work environment pleasant and enjoyable for all. People empowerment was ably applied to all in the barangay.

d) *Participative Styles of the Urban Barangay Chairmen*

Table 4 highlights the information pertaining to the participative leadership styles demonstrated by the barangay chairmen.

Table 4 : Participative Leadership Styles of Barangay Chairmen

Items	Barangay Chairman	Council Members	Health Workers	Purok Presidents	Item Average	
	μ	μ	μ	μ	μ	INT
1. Make decisions together with officials	3.76	3.32	3.45	3.32	3.46	VGE
2. Help their officials come up with excellent ideas	3.53	3.29	3.3	3.38	3.38	VGE
3. Consult with subordinates concerning work related matters	3.46	3.31	3.39	3.4	3.39	VGE
4. Solicit the opinions of others in making a decision	3.38	3.31	3.36	3.21	3.32	VGE
5. Encourage the involvement of officials in implementing program improvements	3.61	3.35	3.36	3.39	3.43	VGE
6. Attempt to use officials' ideas in making decision	3.38	3.13	3.26	3.3	3.27	VGE
7. Develop official teamwork and morale	3.53	3.36	3.51	3.24	3.41	VGE
Factor Average	3.52	3.30	3.38	3.32	3.38	VGE

As shown in the Table above, the factor average of 3.38 indicated that the barangay chairmen assumed their participative leadership styles to a very great extent. It appeared decisions were made in consultation with other officials. This implied that the former practiced participative decision-making on issues affecting the barangays.

Likewise, the barangay chairmen to a very great extent ($\mu=3.38$) provided intellectual stimulation to other officials to come up with ideas to solve work related matters. They served as role model. (3.39) to a very great extent by consulting these officials on work related matters. They solicited opinions and feedbacks on certain concerns affecting the efficiency of the barangay council. This was practiced effectively to a very great extent ($\mu=3.32$).

To a very great extent ($\mu=3.43$), the barangay chairmen encouraged the involvement of their officials in implementing program improvements. This was not a

difficult task to do considering the barangay chairmen made sure other officials took active part in the planning and decision making process. Because of this practice, the barangay chairmen to a very great extent framed decisions based on the input of other officials ($\mu=3.27$). The barangay chairmen prioritized significant issues that had an important bearing on their officials' welfare.

Finally, the barangay chairmen to a very great extent ($\mu=3.41$) developed officials teamwork and morale. This was not a difficult task to do as the former encouraged officials participation in all aspects of the barangay's operations.

e) *Test of Hypotheses*

This study advanced one null hypotheses which was tested at the 0.05 level of significance. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) among the means of the groups of respondents was used for testing the hypotheses. The succeeding tables present the data.

Table 5 presents the structured leadership styles.

Table 5 : Analysis of Variance Pertaining to Structured Leadership Styles

Structured Leadership	Respondents	Sig.	Decision	Interpretation
Barangay Chairmen against	Council members	.12	Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is no significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Health workers	.79	Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is no significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Purok Presidents	.07	Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is no significant difference

The Table above shows the significance (sig.) were greater than 0.05. Since the level of significance was 0.05, then the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Thus, the evaluation made between the barangay chairmen and their subordinates concerning the former's manifestation in terms of the structured

leadership style do not differ significantly. This would indicate that the responses agreed on one another and can be regarded to be the same on statistical bases.

Table 6 presents the analysis of variance on the facilitative leadership style of the urban barangay.

Table 6 : Analysis of Variance Pertaining to Facilitative Leadership Style

Facilitative Leadership	Respondents	Sig.	Decision	Interpretation
Barangay Chairmen against	Council members	.00	Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is a significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Health workers	.01	Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is a significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Purok Presidents	.00	Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is a significant difference

The Table above shows the significance (sig.) were less than 0.05. Since the level of significance was 0.05, then the null hypothesis can be rejected. Thus, the evaluation made between the barangay chairmen and their subordinates concerning the former's manifestation in terms of the facilitative leadership style differ significantly. This would indicate that the responses do not agree on one another and can be regarded to be

different on statistical bases. Therefore, as what was evaluated by the chairmen, they were not aligned with what were evaluated by their subordinates in terms of their facilitative leadership style.

Table 7 contains the results of the analysis of variance on the supportive leadership style manifested by the urban barangay chairmen.

Table 7 : Analysis of Variance Pertaining to Supportive Leadership Styles

Supportive Leadership	Respondents	Sig.	Decision	Interpretation
Barangay Chairmen against	Council members	.07	Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis	No significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Health workers	.29	Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis	No significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Purok Presidents	.14	Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis	No significant difference

The Table above shows the significance (sig.) were greater than 0.05. Since the level of significance was 0.05, then the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Thus, the evaluations made between the barangay chairmen and their subordinates concerning the former's manifestation in terms of the supportive

leadership style did not differ significantly. This would indicate that the responses agreed on one another and can be regarded to be the same on statistical bases

Table 8 highlights the analysis of variance on the extent to which the urban barangay chairmen manifested their participative leadership styles.

Table 8 : Analysis of Variance Pertaining to Participative Leadership

Participative Leadership	Respondents	Sig.	Decision	Interpretation
Barangay Chairmen against	Council members	.00	Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is a significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Health workers	.04	Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is a significant difference
Barangay Chairmen against	Purok Presidents	.00	Reject the Null Hypothesis	There is a significant difference

The Table above shows the significance (sig.) were less than 0.05. Since the level of significance was 0.05, then the null hypothesis can be rejected. Thus, the evaluations made between the barangay chairmen and their subordinates concerning the former's manifestation in terms of the participative leadership style differ significantly. This would indicate that the responses do not agree on one another and can be regarded to be different on statistical bases. Therefore, as what was evaluated by the chairmen, they were not aligned with what were evaluated by their subordinates in terms of their participative leadership style.

former's manifestation in terms of the facilitative leadership style and the participative leadership style differ significantly. While the evaluations made between the barangay chairmen and their subordinates concerning the former's manifestation in terms of the structured leadership style and the supportive leadership style do not differ significantly.

b) Conclusion

In the light of the findings of the study, it can be concluded that although the urban barangay chairmen manifested capabilities in performing their leadership that contributed to the attainment of the goals of the barangays, there were certain areas that they needed to improve on. Also, it can be inferred that for the barangay chairmen, their facilitative and the participative leadership styles should be more emphasized and refined since the perceptions of their subordinates did not coincide with their own perceptions. On the other hand, their structured and supportive leadership styles should be continued and be polished further because the responses of their subordinates supported their own evaluations.

IV. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

a) Findings

As evaluated by the chairmen and their subordinates, the most manifested leadership style was the supportive leadership styles with a factor average of 3.42. The evaluations made between the barangay chairmen and their subordinates concerning the

c) *Recommendations*

In the context of the findings of the study, the researchers recommend that the city government:

1. encourage the barangay chairmen to enact more ordinances to improve socio-economic conditions.
2. initiate an annual review of the goals of the barangay together with their officials to clarify each member's role in the attainment of the barangay's objectives.
3. intensify participation of council members, health workers, and purok presidents in taking actions as issues and problems emerged.

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Trade Liberalisation and The Formal-Informal Sector Dichotomy in Nigeria

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Gulbenkian Foundation

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Keywords : *Trade Liberalization, Registered and Non-registered workers, Manufacturing Sector*

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Trade Liberalisation and The Formal-Informal Sector Dichotomy in Nigeria

Matthew, A. Oluwatoyin

Abstract - This study assesses the role of trade liberalization on the formal-informal sector of Nigeria. It looks at whether or not the trade liberalization process have any effect on both the reduction in the wage differential between registered and non-registered (roughly formal and informal) workers and the fall in the proportion of registered workers. The study uses both secondary and primary data via the administration of questionnaires to discuss the channels through which trade liberalization could affect these two variables and put forward an empirical approach to test the existence of any correlation between them. The results suggest that the fall in the wage gap between registered and non-registered workers in the manufacturing sector was affected by trade-related variables, particularly, by the import penetration ratio. However, we do not find robust evidence that trade liberalization had a substantial effect on the fall in the proportion of registered workers.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A common feature of several middle-income developing countries in the late 1980's and early 1990's was the undertaking of several structural reforms, particularly trade liberalization measures. Many recent studies have tried to assess the impact of these reforms on the labour market of these countries. Basically, researchers have looked for evidences of any of the Hecksher-Ohlin/Stolper-Samuelson (HOS) framework's implications in developing country labour markets. More specifically, they have looked for evidence that trade liberalization has triggered the following sequence of events : (1) increases in the relative price of unskilled intensive products/firms/industries; (2) a positive effect of these price increases on the demand for unskilled workers; (3) a reduction in the wage premium of skilled workers, leading to lower wage inequality in these countries and finally, (4) an increase in the share of skilled workers in all sectors due to the increase in the relative price of unskilled workers. Besides this interest on the distributional consequences of trade liberalization based on the HOS framework, researchers have also tried to measure the impact of trade liberalization on employment and on the wage structure as a way to

assess the importance of rent-sharing in the protected sectors. Despite these numerous studies on the impact of trade liberalization on developing country labour markets, several questions remain to be explored. In particular, as pointed out by Behrman (1999), the impact of trade liberalization on the "informal" manufacturing sector and the existence of possible spillover effects on the rest of the economy have been overlooked. This is important because if dual labour markets are important in developing countries, then to overlook the implications of trade liberalization for the wage differential between "formal" and "informal" workers and on their mobility pattern may yield an incomplete description of its impact on the entire labour market.

The objective of this paper is to fill the gap on the empirical literature using the Nigerian trade liberalization experience as a quasi-natural experiment. We assess whether trade liberalization can be considered a serious candidate to explain both the fall in the wage differential between registered (formal) and non-registered (informal) workers, and the fall in the proportion of registered workers in the economy. The episode of trade liberalization in Nigeria is particularly interesting for this task because it implied a huge fall in tariff and non-tariff barriers and it occurred during a short period of time, basically within three years. Besides, the schedule of tariff reduction announced in 1990 was brought forward several times, making a strong case for the exogeneity of the trade reforms.

The structure of the paper is as follows: First, we will describe the evolution of the proportion of registered workers and of the wage gap between registered and nonregistered workers in the manufacturing sector during the 1980's and 1990's. Second, we will discuss the literature on the impact of the trade liberalization on the labour market of developing countries, and the channels through which trade liberalization could affect both the wage differential between registered and non-registered workers and the proportion of registered workers. Third, we will put forward a procedure to identify whether or not trade liberalization had any impact on the fall in the wage differential between registered and non-registered workers and on the increase of the proportion of non-registered workers. This procedure is based on; 1) exploiting industry variation of trade-related measures such as effective tariffs, import penetration and export

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orientation ratios for a panel of 10 tradable manufacturing industries.

Our results suggest that trade liberalization had a statistically significant impact on the reduction of the wage differential between registered and non-registered workers in the manufacturing sector. However, we do not find evidence of spillover to entire economy. As for the impact on the proportion of registered workers, the results are not very robust, and in our opinion, it is not possible to make a strong case for the link between trade liberalization and this phenomenon.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

a) *Registered and Non - registered Workers in the Manufacturing Sector in Nigeria*

The proportion of non-registered workers increased –at least, for non-farming activities – and the wage differential between the two groups diminished during the 1990's. The proportion of non-registered workers increased from 30 percent in 1981 to about 60 percent in 2008, and the bulk of this increase was concentrated after 1990, just after the country started the market-oriented reforms, such as the programmes of privatization and the process of trade liberalization. While the proportion of non-registered workers increased, the raw wage gap between registered and non-registered workers fell between 1981 and 2008. In 1981, the raw ratio of log real hourly-wage between registered and non-registered workers was 1.08, but in 2008 it was down to 0.71. As non-registered workers are less likely to be found in the manufacturing sector, one could associate the fall in the proportion of registered workers with the reduction in the number of workers in the manufacturing sector. A lower proportion of "manufacturing jobs" would lead to a higher proportion of non-registered jobs in the whole economy.

b) *The Impact of Trade Liberalisation on Developing Country Labour Market*

The Heckscher-Ohlin theorem states that a country will tend to export goods that are relatively intensive in the abundant factor. The Stolper-Samuelson theorem shows that changes in the output price have a more than proportional effect on the return of the relatively abundant factor in the industry where the shock occurred. The combination of these two theorems yields the prediction that trade policy changes that lead to a higher relative price of unskilled-intensive goods should bring about an increase in the relative wage of unskilled workers. Assuming the special case where the functional form of the production functions for all sectors and for the aggregate utility function is Cobb-Douglas, the proportional change in the relative wage rate between skilled workers (s) and unskilled workers (u) in an open economy can be expressed as:

$$\left\{ \frac{\hat{W}_s}{\hat{W}_u} \right\} = \frac{1}{\beta_1 - \beta_2} \left\{ \frac{\hat{P}_1 A_1}{\hat{P}_2 A_2} \right\} \quad (1)$$

where β_1 and β_2 are the proportion of skilled workers in the skilled-intensive sector and in the unskilled-intensive sector, respectively; A_1 and A_2 are technology parameters in these same sectors, and P_1 and P_2 the respective product prices. Since $\beta_1 > \beta_2$ changes in prices and/or technology have a more than proportional effect on changes in the relative wage, an increase in P_2 , the price of the product in the unskilled-intensive sector, should lead to a more than proportional fall in the relative wage of the skilled workers. However, the above result only holds if we assume that: 1) the economy is small so that it cannot affect the international price of the product, which is assumed to be exogenous, 2) the economy is inside the cone of diversification, meaning that tradable goods intensive in both factors, skilled and unskilled labour, are produced in that economy; 3) there is no product differentiation, i.e., foreign and domestic goods are perfect substitutes; and 4) there are no mobility barriers for workers to respond to wage changes. A corollary of this theory is that changes in the supply of different factors do not alter their relative prices (as changes in the relative price do). Changes in the factor endowment of a country would increase the production in the industries intensive in the factor, without altering its relative price (Johnson and Stafford, 1999). So far the empirical literature on the developing countries has found at best mixed results regarding HOS predictions.

For the Mexican experience in the mid-1980s, Hanson and Harrison (1999) show that the reduction in tariff protection disproportionately affected low-skilled industries, contrary to what one would expect for a developing country. This is so, because the Mexican import substitution strategy extended trade protection preferentially to industries that made relatively intensive use of unskilled labour. The relative higher protection of industries in which the countries would, in principle, have comparative advantage was also noticed by Currie and Harrison (1997) for the Moroccan manufacturing sector. Goldberg and Pavcnik (2003) also found that the structure of tariff protection benefited more the industries with a higher share of unskilled workers in Colombia and in Brazil. These studies highlight the necessity to understand the previous structure of protection before assuming that any trade liberalisation reform would trigger a reduction in wage inequality, as measured by the relative wage between skilled and unskilled workers. If the protected sectors were the ones in which the country already had comparative advantage, then the openness measures could lead to a fall in their product prices and then trigger an increase in

the relative demand for the scarce factor (skilled workers). Behrman et al. (2001) do not find evidence that trade liberalization has any overall widening effect on wage differentials for a panel of 18 Latin American countries - including Brazil - for the period 1977 to 1998. Robbins (1996a) also fails to find any relationship between trade liberalisation and wage inequality for Colombia. Gindling and Robbins (2001) find evidences consistent with a positive correlation between trade liberalization and higher returns to education in Chile. Galiani and Sanguinetti (2001) find that manufacturing sectors where the import penetration increased the most, wage inequality also widened relatively more in favour of the most skilled workers in Argentina.

According to Pavcnik et al (2002), they showed that the increase in the return of the college-educated workers coincides with the trade liberalization in Brazil. They do not find any relationship between trade related measures and the increase in wage premium in sectors more affected by the reform, but they do find that the sector specific skill premium did rise for skilled workers. Green et al. (2001) also stress the coincidence between trade liberalisation in Brazil and the increase in the relative wage of college-educated workers, but fail to find any causal relationship. Unlike Pavcnik et al (2002), however, they do find that the wage premium increased in sectors more affected by the trade reform. Dickerson et al. (2001) using a pseudo panel approach find that the returns to education for college-educated workers fell after the trade liberalization in Brazil, but do not find any correlation between trade measures and the return to education for college workers. Note that this result is at odds with Green et al. (2001). This is so due to the fact that the pseudo-cohort approach adopted by Dickerson et al. (2001) points to an overestimation of the returns to education yielded by the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method employed by Green et al. (2001). Arbache et al. (2004) reinforce the results in Green et al. (2002) and argue that within the traded sector, increasing openness was associated with lower wages but the downward impact of openness on wages was insignificant at the highest two education groups.

Gonzaga et al. (2002) argue that the wage differential between skilled and non-skilled workers fell after trade liberalisation in Brazil and that the mechanism of transmission of this fall through tariff to prices and prices to wages is in line with HOS predictions. The lack of strong evidence for HOS implications in developing countries has been rationalized via three hypotheses. The first is related to the perception that developing countries with higher proportion of semi-skilled workers may have been suffering strong competition from countries with a higher proportion of unskilled workers (Wood, 1997 and Hanson and Harrison, 1999). This halfway position of some industrialized developing countries, mainly in Latin America, would prevent HOS framework from working.

The second hypothesis assumes that trade may have caused a higher contact with leading-edge technology. In order to install this newly available technology, firms might have demanded more skilled workers to operate them and to adapt the production process to this more efficient technology. Such reasoning is advocated by the skill-enhancing trade hypothesis due to capital-skill complementarity (Robbins, 1996b) and by the learning-by-trade hypothesis (Pissarides, 1997).

The third hypothesis argues that empirical studies fail to find any HOS trade related impact on income distribution because of global/pervasive skill biased technological change (Berman and Machin, 2000). In this case, no correlation between trade measures and the increase in the premium of skilled workers would be observed, since this would be an economy-wide phenomenon. A second point that has been emphasized in the literature is the role of trade liberalization in changing institutional features of industrial relations and then indirectly affecting the wage and employment structure (mainly in the manufacturing sector) of countries that have undertaken trade reforms. The main hypothesis has to do with the loss of union power triggered by trade reforms. Both the fall of trade barriers and tariff reductions increase the price elasticity of product demand, hence reducing rents that sustained the union wage premium. We will briefly report some results of empirical studies on the impact of trade reforms on relative wages. Driffil et al. (1998) show that when non-tariff barriers were reduced in Britain, the wages in the relevant establishments fell significantly. Revenga (1992) observes a similar effect associated with falls in import prices in the United States of America. Lang (1998) argues that the small effect of trade liberalization in New Zealand on the composition of employment suggests that the effect of tariffs on wages and firms' monopoly power, reducing both of them, eliminated any effect on the distribution of employment.

Borjas and Ramey (1995) show that the impact of international trade on relative wages (skilled/unskilled wages) depends on the market structure of the industry affected. They argue that many of durable goods industries in the United States of America in the 1980s that employed a disproportionate share of less educated workers were highly concentrated, earned significant rents, and shared those rents with their workers by paying them higher-than-average wages. Their empirical evidence shows that employment changes in a small group of trade-impacted concentrated industries can explain not only part of the aggregate rise in wage inequality in the United States of America, but also some of the differences in trends in wage inequality across metropolitan areas. Somewhat against those findings, Johnson and Stafford (1999) in their review of the impact of trade on labour market institutions argued that despite the theoretical negative

relationship between increased international competition and “monopoly rents” enjoyed by the firms protected in the past, there is no strong evidence of a negative effect of increased trade on unionism either in the United States of America or in the United Kingdom.

The findings on the impact of trade-related variables on wages and on employment for developing countries also tend to place this sort of rent-sharing argument as a possible explanation for decreases in the average wage, at least, in the manufacturing sector. Arbache (1999) argues that the market-oriented reforms in Brazil, and particularly trade liberalisation, led to a higher demand for skilled workers that ended up increasing union power. This happened because unlike developed countries, the unionized workers are relatively more educated in Brazil than non-unionized workers. Revenga (1997) finds evidences that the (negative) impact of trade liberalisation on wages in Mexico was higher than the (negative) effect on employment. She argued that this fact may be explained by the prevalence of rent-sharing schemes in the period previous to trade liberalization. Such schemes would have allowed unions and firms to agree in cutting “excessive wages” rather than adjusting the employment margin after the reforms. Similarly, Currie and Harrison (1997) analysing the Moroccan trade liberalization argue that in an imperfect competitive framework where some rents were captured by workers in the form of higher wages, firms could also respond to their rent loss by cutting wages and substituting temporary workers for permanent ones. Menezes-Filho and Arbache (2002) show evidences of rent-sharing for unionized workers in the manufacturing sector in Brazil. However, they also find that the increase in quasi-rents brought about by trade liberalization was not shared with unionized workers.

c) Trade Liberalisation and the Segmented Labour Market

The impact of trade liberalisation on the informal sector is less understood and less documented. Behrman (1999) points out that most studies have focused on the impact of trade liberalization on the formal manufacturing sector, but less is known about its effect on the informal sector, both in the manufacturing sector¹⁷ and in the entire labour market. In this section, we will highlight possible effects of trade liberalization on segmentation – in terms of the registered *versus* non-registered classification – in Brazil. The first thing to notice about the relationship between trade liberalization and the relative wage of registered and non-registered workers is that such a classification is an institutional feature and not a skill-based classification. Unlike the classifications by educational attainment; occupational categories; production and non-production workers as traditionally used in the literature and that are based on productivity related features; the classification between registered and non-registered workers parallels the classifications between union/non-union workers and/or

temporary/permanent workers, which are much more related to institutional features of the labour market. The second thing to notice is that the informal sector has been traditionally linked to the non-tradable sector, leading to the view that the informal sector would not be affected directly by trade liberalisation. The presence of a non-tradable sector where non-registered status is prevalent, however, would not affect the predictions according to the model we presented in the last section, i.e. the world prices of goods 1 and 2 would still determine the relative wage as in equation (1). Nevertheless, the presence of a non-tradable sector with such characteristic would make the cone of diversification of that country thinner, and more likely that a fall in the relative price of the “non-registered” prevalent good would lead that industry to close down so that non-registered workers would be employed only in the non-tradable sector (Johnson and Stafford, 1999). In this case, equation (1) would no longer represent the skilled/unskilled (or registered/nonregistered) wage rate. The relative wage would be determined as in the case of a closed economy:

$$\left\{ \frac{\hat{W}_s}{W_u} \right\} = \frac{\beta_4}{1 - \beta_4} \left\{ \frac{U_4}{S_4} \right\} \quad (2)$$

where the subscript 4 stands for the non-tradable sector 4, which is “non-registered” prevalent and unskilled intensive. It is clear from equation (2) that regardless of the changes in prices in the tradable sector, the relative wage would be unaffected. In this context, one should not expect to find any effect of trade-related variables on the relative wage of skilled/unskilled workers or registered/non-registered workers.

Midway situations between the result of the closed model represented by equation (2) and the open model in equation (1) arise if one assumes that a) domestic and foreign goods are not perfectly substitutes and b) labour types cannot move in response to wage changes (Johnson and Stafford, 1999). In fact, some commentators have used the tradable *versus* non-tradable approach to explain the dichotomy between formal *versus* informal sector in Nigeria. The idea behind this correspondence is that the earnings of workers in the informal (non-tradable sector) is determined by supply and demand in that sector, whereas the earnings of workers in the formal sector is determined by the external demand for the export goods. The demand for the national manufactured product would be lower after the trade reform due to the access to cheaper products, whereas the non-tradable sector would be protected from that competition. The difficulty in such argument is how to justify the lack of mobility between workers from the formal to the informal sector. It could be argued that the informal sector would act as a cushion for workers displaced from the tradable

sector, leading to a downward pressure on wages in that sector. Therefore, it is not clear how trade liberalization would affect the wage of the employees in the tradable sector, but would not affect the wage of the employees in the non-tradable sector.

This sort of argument would be more justifiable in a context of imperfect competition where one would focus on the effect of trade reforms on institutional features of developing country labour markets. In this framework, trade reform would squeeze rents that would have been captured by protected firms and shared with their employees. As seen above, if the protected firms were the ones abundant in the scarce factor (skilled labour) then one should expect under HOS assumptions that the reduction or elimination of trade barriers would reallocate resources to the now more competitive firms based on the abundant factor and hence increase the demand for unskilled labour. However, as many papers have shown this is not necessarily the case, and the protected sector may have been in fact the one that had a higher proportion of the abundant factor. Alternatively, if the protected sector cannot be characterised as perfectly competitive, then there is space for some sort of rent sharing. Therefore, workers in most affected industries would experience a reduction in their bargaining power –and so in their wages - since the ground for rent sharing would be reduced. Assuming that the most protected sectors are the ones with a higher proportion of registered workers, or where registered workers profit more from rents thanks to the market power of their firms, one should observe a reduction in the wage premium for registered workers after the reforms. In Nigeria, registered workers are more likely to be unionized and to work in large firms, which are more likely to have market power and therefore to have some loss due to trade liberalization.

Therefore, it would be reasonable to assume that the degree of segmentation, as measured by the wage premium for registered workers, is positively correlated with trade protection measures. The process of trade liberalization should hence curb the wage differential between registered and non-registered workers. Besides this direct effect, skilled workers displaced from registered jobs may have joined the pool of non-registered workers, increasing their average skill level and contributing to the reduction in the wage differential due to changes in the composition of the two groups.

So far we have focused on wage differential, but as mentioned above, trade liberalization can also affect the allocation of different type of workers between and within industries. In particular, Nigerian firms may have reacted to the trade liberalization shock not only by substituting non-registered workers for registered workers, but also sub-contracting part of the tasks that they could have performed earlier in an attempt to reduce costs. The reallocation of part of the production to smaller firms may have led to a higher participation of

the non-registered workers in the pool of manufacturing employee. Similarly, the reduction in absolute terms of the number of jobs in the manufacturing sector due to adjustments in the size and composition of its workforce may have led to an increase in the proportion of nonregistered workers in the entire economy. Most of these channels are hard to assess since there is no available and compatible data on “informal firms” in Brazil that would allow one to compare its performance over the recent period with the performance of medium to large firms.

Nevertheless, data from the Brazilian annual household survey (PNAD) shows that the proportion of non-registered workers increased in the manufacturing sector from 15 percent to 24 percent from 1981 to 2008, which is a clear indication of a possible lower degree of compliance within the manufacturing sector. Furthermore the proportion of workers in small firms (up to ten employees) increased from 40 percent to 50 percent in the entire economy and from 15 percent to 23 percent in the manufacturing sector during the same period. These changes may have two causes: a) more firms decided to contract workers illegally; b) the balance on the birth and death of firms favoured smaller firms that are more likely to employ non-registered workers. Somewhat supporting this latter hypothesis, Muendler (2001), based on an unbalanced panel of medium to large size manufacturing firms, finds that in the period 1992-1998, the probability of transition from active status to extinct (shut down), and from suspended to extinct had increased considerably in comparison to the period 1986-1990. This evidence lends some support to the argument that there was a cleanup effect among medium to large firms after trade liberalisation that may have led to a reduction in the proportion of registered workers.

IV. METHODOLOGY

a) Model Specification

In order to test whether or not trade liberalisation have an effect on the degree of segmentation and on the expansion of the informal sector in either the manufacturing sector or in the entire labour market, we use the strategy which relies on the variation of the degree of protection enjoyed by different industries, and on the different speed of the reform for different industries, since tariffs are uniform within the country in a given period of time.

This strategy allows us to check whether the industries most affected by the trade reform were also those that experienced the strongest reduction in both the degree of segmentation as measured by the wage differential and in the proportion of registered workers. Thus, in order to avoid bias due to the correlation between unobserved industry specific characteristics and trade related variables, we estimate this relationship using industry fixed-effect models and time dummies.

Controlling for time invariant unobserved industry characteristics is important because industry features that affect the relative wage of registered workers (and its proportion) may also affect their ability to lobby the government and/or the government priority in tariff reduction. Likewise, time dummies would control for common macroeconomic shocks that would affect both the relative wage and the proportion of registered workers and the behaviour of trade related variables. For instance, during a recession it is likely that the import penetration ratio would fall as well as the relative wage of informal sector workers, whereas the proportion of workers in that sector increases. If the recessive period coincides with the trade liberalization measures and we do not control for this common macroeconomic shock we would find a spurious relationship between the wage gap and the size of the informal sector and the trade measures.

i. *The Impact of Trade Liberalisation on the Manufacturing Sector*

To test whether or not trade liberalisation had any impact on the fall in the wage differential between the registered and non-registered workers and on the increase in the proportion of the non-registered workers in the pool of manufacturing employees between 1981 and 2008, we run a fixed-effect model for both the coefficient of the “registered worker” dummy variable obtained from a standard semi-log Mincerian wage equation and the proportion of registered workers on a set of variables related to trade: effective tariff, nominal tariff, import penetration ratio and export orientation for a panel of 10 industries. The industry classification was developed in order to make the data from the household survey compatible with the trade-related data used in this paper. The sample is restricted to employed individuals between 14 and 65 years old with positive earnings and who worked more than 20 hours per week. In the case of the effect of trade openness measures on the wage differential, we first estimate the following log wage equation for each pair of industry j and year t separately between 1981 and 2008.

$$w_{ijt} = \alpha_{jt} + \Gamma_{jt}X_{ijt} + \beta_{jt}Reg_{ijt} + \varepsilon_{ijt} \quad (3)$$

where w_{ijt} is the log of the real hourly-wage for the individual i in industry j and year t and Γ is a vector of coefficients of the following independent variables X : region, gender, education (6 groups), experience, experience squared and metropolitan area, and β_{jt} is the coefficient for the dummy variable Reg that indicates whether the individual is a registered worker. In a second step, we regress the estimate coefficient β_{jt} on the trade-related variables :

$$\beta_{jt} = \alpha + \delta TM_{jt} + \phi_j + \theta_t + \varepsilon_{jt} \quad (4)$$

where TM_{jt} stands for trade measure variables in period j and time t and ϕ_j are industry dummies and θ_t are time period dummies and ε_{jt} is assumed to be a

white noise. The second reduced-form estimates refer to the impact of trade-related measures on the proportion of registered workers in the industries:

$$Preg_{jt} = \alpha_2 + \lambda TM_{jt} + \phi_j + \theta_t + \varepsilon_{jt} \quad (5)$$

where $Preg_{jt}$ is the proportion of registered worker in industry j and year t and the remaining variables are as stated in equation (4). The fixed-effect regression versions of equation (4) are weighted by the inverse of the sampling variance of the dependent variable.

Saxonhouse (1976) shows that estimations where the dependent variable is estimated in a first step and then regressed against a set of variables intended to explain it, suffer from heteroscedasticity because the stochastic term in the first stage is individual specific (in our case, industry specific). Similarly, equation (5) is estimated using the share of the industry in the total manufacturing employment as weight. Besides this weighting scheme, the standard errors in both equations are Huber-White corrected for any other source of general heteroscedasticity. We run separate regressions for each trade measure and a joint one with effective tariff, import penetration and export orientation; we also include other variables related to the structure of the industry in order to test the robustness of the results. These variables are value-added and the proportion of workers who earn less than the minimum wage. Additionally, we run one specification adding the industry specific nominal exchange rate to the joint specification. The set of regressions also contains year dummies aimed at capturing aggregate shocks that may have had some impact on all manufacturing industries.

b) Analysis and Interpretation of Results

Table 1 : Nominal Tariff and Import Penetration Coefficient (in %)

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
Effective Tariff	0.0008 [0.0007]				0.0007 [0.0007]	0.0008 [0.0007]	-0.0003 [0.0009]
Nominal Tariff		0.0009 [0.0013]					
Import Penetration			-0.0042 [0.0013]**		-0.0039 [0.0013]**	-0.0033 [0.0015]*	-0.0064 [0.0015]**
Export Orientation				-0.0011 [0.0016]	-0.0009 [0.0016]	-0.0004 [0.0017]	-0.0004 [0.0021]
% workers w<mw	[0.3437]						0.6548
Value							0.0131
constant	0.4076 [0.0604]**	0.4152 [0.0844]**	0.4669 [0.0327]**	0.4711 [0.0323]**	0.4132 [0.0600]**	0.2252 [0.1876]	0.0640 [0.3437]
N	170	170	170	170	170	170	153
Adj. R2	0.71	0.71	0.72	0.71	0.72	0.72	0.73
F test : industry	19.18	18.48	21.24	16.20	19.62	19.86	15.33
Prob> F	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Source : Researcher's Computations Robust standard errors in brackets

* Significant at 5%; ** Significant at 1% Industry and time dummy variables not shown.

Note : As we do not have data on value-added for 1998, specifications that include it have their sample size reduced from 170 to 153.

The results in Table1 above suggest that trade liberalisation as measured by the import penetration ratio had a diminishing effect on the wage differential between registered and nonregistered in the manufacturing sector. Overall something between 10 percent and 14 percent of the 42 percent decrease in the wage gap in the manufacturing sector can be attributed to the 10 percent increase in the import penetration ratio observed in the period. As for the other trade measures directly affected by the reform, the coefficients for nominal and effective tariff is correctly signed as we would expect based on our discussion in the last section, i.e., they have a positive impact on the registered workers wage premium, but they are very small and not statistically significant. The regressions for the proportion of registered workers in the pool of employees were weighted by the share of workers in the industry for each industry/year pair. The standard errors are Huber-White corrected. Table 2 shows the results for the fixed effect specifications with time dummies. Both effective and nominal tariffs have a negative effect on the proportion of registered workers for all specifications, and their coefficients are significant for most of them. The coefficients for the import penetration ratio and for the export orientation are not significant, but while the import penetration ratio shows a negative impact in most specifications, the export orientation has a positive impact in all specifications. The proportion of workers earning below the minimum wage is, as expected, negatively correlated with the proportion of registered workers. Including the industry-specific exchange rate does not change the coefficient (column [6]) of the other variables.

Table 2 : Regressions for Wage Premium: Fixed Effect with Time Dummies (Contemporaneous Regressors)

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
Effective Tariff	-0.0003 [0.0001]**				-0.0004 [0.0001]**	0.0004 [0.0001]**	-0.0002 [0.0001]
Nominal Tariff		-0.0003 [0.0002]					
Import Penetration			-0.0002 [0.0003]		-0.0003 [0.0002]	-0.0003 [0.0003]	0.0001 [0.0002]
Export Orientation				0.0006 [0.0004]	0.0008 [0.0004]*	0.0008 [0.0004]	0.0006 [0.0004]*
% workers w<mw	[0.0709]**						-0.275
Value							-0.0021
Constant	0.3861 [0.0116]**	0.5788 [0.0116]**	0.4703 [0.0087]**	0.4693 [0.0090]**	0.3928 [0.0118]**	0.3931 [0.0421]**	1.2582 [0.0197]**
N	170	170	170	170	170	170	153
Adj. R2	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.97
F test : industry	289.99	280.66	226.76	302.16	203.35	203.19	46.03
Prob> F	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Source : Researcher's Computations Robust Standard Errors in brackets.

* Significant at 5%; ** Significant at 1%. Industry and Time Dummy Variables not shown.

Note: As we do not have data on value-added for 1998, column [7] specification has only 153 observations.

The results in Tables 1 and 2 are somewhat puzzling. Whereas the import penetration ratio seems to have had a negative impact on the wage differential, it has not affected (significantly) the proportion of registered workers, despite its negative sign in most specifications. The effective tariff has had no effect on the wage differential (despite its positive sign), but it has had a negative impact on the proportion of registered workers. Thus, industries most affected by the reduction in effective tariff were the same that witnessed an increase in the proportion of registered workers. Therefore, at least for the manufacturing sector, trade

liberalisation may have had an impact on cutting the wage *premia* of registered workers, but if anything, it had the effect of increasing the proportion of registered workers in the most affected industries. In order to check the robustness of these results, allowing for some delay in the adjustments to the new tariffs and to the more competitive environment, and also to avoid problems of simultaneity between import penetration ratio and export orientation and the wage differential, we re-run equations (4) and (5) using lagged regressors rather than contemporaneous.

Table 3 : Regression for Wage Premium: Fixed Effect with Time Dummies (Lagged Regressors)

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
Effective Tariff	0.0002 [0.0008]				-0.0001 [0.0008]	-0.0000 [0.0008]	-0.0003 [0.0009]
Nominal Tariff		-0.0005 [0.0014]					
Import Penetration			-0.0048 [0.0016]**		-0.0061 [0.0016]**	-0.0055 [0.0019]**	-0.0064 [0.0022]**
Export Orientation				-0.0001 [0.0019]	0.0013 [0.0022]	0.0018 [0.0023]	0.0018 [0.0026]
% workers w<mw	[0.6606]						-0.1119
Value							0.0418
Constant	0.3861 [0.0349]**	0.5788 [0.0979]**	0.4703 [0.0328]**	0.4693 [0.0321]**	0.3928 [0.0367]**	0.3931 [0.1704]*	1.2582 [0.0235]
N	153	153	170	170	153	153	119
Adj. R2	0.71	0.71	0.72	0.71	0.72	0.72	0.70
F test : industry	16.32	15.26	20.32	15.00	17.75	18.05	9.0
Prob> F	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Source : Researcher's Computations Robust standard errors in brackets.

* Significant at 5%; ** Significant at 1%. Industry and Time Dummy variables not shown.

Note : As we do not have data on value - added for 1998, column [7] specification has only 153 observations.

As for the results for the wage premium, Table 3 reveals that the main difference is that the coefficient of effective tariff is negative in most specifications, but again it is never statistically significant. The coefficients of export orientation turn out to be positive for most the fixed-effect specifications with time dummies, but they are not significant either. The coefficients for import penetration are negative and show a point estimate somewhat higher than the one with contemporaneous effect, ranging from -0.0048 to -0.0064 . The inclusion of the lagged industry-specific exchange rate does not change this result (see column [6]).

c) Discussion of Findings

The study found out the following :

Firstly, we found evidence that the trade liberalisation process is behind the fall in the wage gap in the manufacturing sector. It seems that rents that went to registered workers were cut due to the more competitive environment in the economy. This result was found in strategy used in this study. The strategy used only within-manufacturing industry variation and revealed a negative effect of import penetration on the wage gap.

Secondly, the fall in the proportion of registered workers, however, does not seem to be correlated with trade liberalisation. The strategy did not yield robust evidence that the trade measures were correlated with the fall in the proportion of registered workers. The evidence found in the strategy that effective tariff led to an increase in the proportion of registered workers in the manufacturing sector was not robust to the use of lagged regressors in the specification with additional controls. Similarly, the evidence yielded by the strategy that the increase in the import penetration ratio led to a fall in the proportion of registered workers in the entire labour market is not robust to the use of lagged regressors.

Lastly, the study found out that the weak evidence for the effect of trade liberalization on the proportion of registered workers suggests that the fall in the proportion of registered workers was due to macroeconomic factors or institutional changes that had affected in a homogenous way regions and industries within the country.

d) Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. The Government should encourage the informal sector by providing the needed financial and infrastructural facilities to facilitate their smooth operations. If this is done these micro enterprises will be able to employ more people and pay the required wages to their employees and compete with their counterparts in the advanced countries.

2. The formal manufacturing sector should also be provided with the necessary logistics- in terms of the access to raw materials and infrastructural/social amenities to make their operations effective, this way they will be able to employ more and pay commensurate salaries to their workers.
3. The gap between the wages earned by registered and non-registered workers should be narrowed as much as possible. One of the ways to do this is via trade liberalization which opens up the economy to international trade, where informal sector enterprises will be able to export their goods and earn income with which they can pay their employees.

V. CONCLUSION

Therefore, based on the findings of this study, we conclude that since the fall in the wage differential between registered and non-registered workers as well as the fall in the proportion of registered workers are two stylized facts of the Nigerian labour market in the 1990s and 2000s, the Government should encourage the informal sector by lending out money to its operators in order to be able to set up enterprises that will compete favourably with their counterparts abroad. Furthermore, since the wage differential is one of the main determinants of the queue for formal jobs, it is reasonable to infer that the size of the queue can be reduced after trade liberalization by narrowing of the wage gap between formal and informal workers.

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Demographic Dimensions and Their Implications on The Incidence of Street Begging In Urban Areas of Central Tanzania: the Case of Dodoma and Singida Municipalities.

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Abstracts - The population of beggars on our streets and public spaces is growing exponentially in many urban areas of Tanzania. Today, their presence in the streets of urban areas of developing countries is recognized to be a serious problem that requires urgent redress. This problem is becoming acute and one of the development hindering factors in central zone Tanzania as compared to other zones. This study explores the implications of demographic dimensions on the incidence of street begging in urban areas of central Tanzania with Dodoma and Singida Municipalities as case studies. This study was conducted on different days at different streets and public spaces in Dodoma and Singida Municipalities to obtain data on incidence of street begging. A cross-sectional survey was employed involving 130 street beggars, 60 focus group members and 30 key informants. Structured questionnaires were administered on randomly selected beggars to obtain data on their demographic dimensions. Group discussions, key informant interview, and observations were also used to collect data relevant for the study. The data revealed high incidence of street begging on Friday and during public holidays. The demographic of street beggars reflect that begging is more pronounced among natives or indigenous, physical disabled, male, single, widowed, and Illiterates. Among others, the study recommends that deliberate efforts to improve the socio-economic security of the families of street beggars through empowerment programmes and to embark on public enlightenment on the negative consequences of begging on various dimensions of development.

Keywords : *Demographic dimensions, incidence, street beggars, street begging, beggary*



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Demographic Dimensions and their Implications on the Incidence of Street Begging in Urban Areas of Central Tanzania: The Case of Dodoma and Singida Municipalities

Baltazar M.L. Namwata^a, Maseke R. Mgabo^a, Provident Dimoso^b

Abstract - The population of beggars on streets and public spaces is growing exponentially in many urban areas of Tanzania. However, the problem of street begging is becoming acute and one of the development challenge in urban areas of central Tanzania. This study examined the implications of demographic dimensions on the incidence of street begging in urban areas of central Tanzania with Dodoma and Singida Municipalities as case studies. A cross-sectional survey was employed involving 130 street beggars, 60 focus group members and 30 key informants. Structured questionnaires were administered to street beggars who were found on streets and various public spaces using convenience sampling technique. Moreover, group discussions, key informant interview, and observations were used to collect data relevant for the study. The findings revealed that high incidence of street begging on Friday, Saturday, Sunday and public holidays. The findings show that begging is more pronounced among natives or indigenous, physical disabled, male, single, widowed, and illiterates. The study recommends that deliberate efforts to improve the socio-economic security of the families of street beggars and street beggars themselves through empowerment programmes and to embark on public enlightenment on the negative consequences of begging on various dimensions of development.

Keywords : Demographic dimensions, street begging, gathering alms, street beggars.

1. INTRODUCTION

Bryson (2004) defines street begging, or gathering alms as the solicitation of a voluntary unilateral gift--most often money--in a public place. Street begging is also defined as an act to simply ask people for money, food, clothes etc as a gift or charity or without as exchange of services in a public space. However, street begging is sometimes a syndrome as it exists in association with other things (Tambawal, 2010; Jelili, 2006). People engaged in street begging are known as street beggars. A street beggar is known to be an individual such as children, elderly, disabled people, and families who normally beg in public spaces such as shopping areas, banks, public offices, churches,

mosques, busy streets, among others (Adugna, 2006). The presence of street beggars in many public spaces of urban areas of both developed and developing countries is recognized to be a serious problem that requires urgent redress. Not only have their numbers grown over the years, their lifestyles and the display of overtly aggressive behaviour make them the subjects of suspicion and hostility by the public at large and the law enforcement agencies in particular. The menace of street begging as a potential threat to the environmental, economic and social survival of humanity societal fabric is evident (Fawole *et al.*, 2010; Ogunkan and Fawole, 2009; Amman, 2006; CRISIS, 2003).

Although, the begging problem of begging is a worldwide phenomenon, it is more pronounced in the third world countries particularly Sub-Saharan countries like Tanzania. The begging problem has to be seen on the basis of many factors that have occurred over time. Poverty is the most frequent precipitant of the problem of beggary. Beneath poverty lies the widespread scarcity of resources needed to lead a proper life. Other factors include physical disability, culture, the inadequacy of social security schemes, drug, alcohol and gambling dependencies. The plight of the street beggars, concentrated more in urban areas of developing countries is becoming worse rather than better (Fawole *et al.*, 2010; Ogunkan and Fawole, 2009; Namwata *et al.*, 2010; Woubishet, 2005).

People engaged in begging themselves also recognized begging to be a 'problem'. To them, it's harsh, humiliating, demeaning, degrading and frustrating (Hindu, 2005; Lynch, 2005; Rowntree, 2009). Begging is recognized and cast as a 'problem' by diverse stakeholders, including the media, politicians, retailers and traders, law enforcement officers and agencies, welfare and social service providers, the general public and people who beg. Each of these stakeholders has a common interest in reducing the incidence of begging. The continued relevance of begging as both a political and a public policy problem is evidenced by extensive media coverage of the issue in recent years, together with governmental consideration of the regulation and governance of

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begging (Lynch, 2005; CRISIS, 2003; Kamala *et al.*, 2002; Maganga, 2008; Petro and Kombe, 2010).

Convincingly, the incidence of begging is function of many demographic dimensions. As such, among others, demographic factors like ethnic background, gender, marital status, religion, education levels and body physique play a basic role in composing and patterning the beggars' informal social relationships and in determining the choice of friends (Demewozu, 2005). As a result of the threat of widespread marginalization and exclusion, the beggars struggle to maintain or establish a viable social interaction among themselves. The modes of social interaction in the form of interpersonal relations enable the beggars to amend their loss of social articulation (Demewozu, 2005). For instance, Adugna (2006) argues that young street beggars are more engaged in begging than older ones. They have better chance to get sympathy because their needs are emotional which provokes immediate sympathy than the older ones. Hetch (1998) cited by Adugna (2006) rightly stated that age and successes at begging are unsurprisingly inversely related. There is high competition among beggars to occupy better location which often, are accompanied by fight or quarrel. However, they negotiate within the group or among groups in order to reduce conflicts.

In Tanzania, many urban authorities have made various efforts to tackle the problem of street begging but without setting strategies on how to make street beggars attaining their basic necessities of life. These efforts among others include sending street beggars back to their homes, reintegrating them with their families where possible and taking them to rehabilitation centers. As a result many urban authorities have been striving to control the influx of street beggars in their areas without success. A quick assessment of these efforts indicates that most of them are focused more on the symptoms rather than on prevention or eradication of the deeper structural causes of the problem (Nipashe, 2010; Petro and Kombe, 2010; Maganga, 2008). As a result, the incidence of street begging has increased rapidly during the last decade in Tanzania. This problem is acute in urban areas of central zone where the population of street beggars in public spaces is growing (Shekighenda, 2006).

Despite the problems of begging to the development of Tanzanian urban centres, it is unfortunate that much research works have not been directed towards the implications of demographic dimensions on the incidence of street begging. We find very limited literature which directly focused on the problem of street begging. This study therefore meant to bridge the gap which directly focuses on implications of demographic dimensions on the incidence of street begging in central zone of Tanzania in which Dodoma

and Singida Municipalities were taken as case study areas.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study on the implications of demographic dimensions on the incidence of street begging in urban areas was carried out in central zone Tanzania in which Dodoma and Singida Municipalities were taken as case study areas. This is due to the fact that central zone lead in production of street beggars in the country (Shekighenda, 2006). Primary and secondary data were utilized in the study. Primary data were collected from street beggars, community members and local leadership. The secondary data were collected from various documentary sources such as journal papers, internet materials and other documents relevant for the study.

Since the street beggars keep moving it would have been very difficult to prepare any sampling frame, out of which to select the desired sample applying principles of random method. Within this framework, convenient sampling technique was used to get street beggars for interview using structured questionnaire. In this regard, the places where the street beggars were generally found were selected for study. There was no way by which the representative nature of the sample could be verified except to say that street beggars were selected from a very wide variety of public spaces, which may ensure a good representative. In this regard, relevant information of the study was collected from 130 street beggars, 60 focus group members and 30 key informants such as Chancellors, Mtaa or Ward Executive Officers and Social Welfare Officers. The study as whole draws from a wide range of data collection instruments so as to meet objectives of the study. These included documentary review, structure questionnaires, focus group discussions, key informant interview and observation techniques. These techniques have sought, inter alia, to understand the experience of begging from the beggars' perspective, face-to-face encounters with the general public or non-street beggars, the implications of demographic dimensions on the incidences of street begging and policy responses to begging.

Qualitative and quantitative data were analyzed separately but in interpreting the data collected, quantitative and qualitative data is complementing and supplementing each other. Qualitative data obtained from participant observation, focus group discussions (FGDs) and interview with key informants were analyzed through themes and content analysis. Subsequently, the responses from the questionnaires were coded, summarized and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used to obtain frequency counts and percentages of various coded responses.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section is trying to shed light on the implications of demographic dimensions on the incidence of street begging. The assumption is that the question of street beggars and begging life is connected to the dimensions of demographic realities that prevail in their families' and that of the local community. The demographic dimensions of the street beggars examined in this study were age, sex, marital status, educational level, household size, major sources of income, religion, place of birth, tribe and body physique.

a) Area of Residence of Street Beggars

Table 1 presents the distribution of street beggars by area of residence. The results show that street beggars were found in various residential areas across the municipalities. The variation in the incidence of begging so observed is adduced to area of residence of street beggars. In Dodoma municipality, a large population of street beggars came from various areas of residence as shown in Table 1 such as Dodoma Mjini (19%), Maili Mbili (11.4%) and Miyuji (10.1%). For the case of Singida municipality most street beggars came from such areas as Kibaoni-Seduka (16%), Minga (12%), Kindai (10%), Stand ya Zamani (10%) and Unyankindi (8%).

Table 1 : Area of Residence of Street Beggars by Municipality

Dodoma Municipality		Singida Municipality	
Mtaa or Village	% (N)	Mtaa or Village	% (N)
Tatilai	1.3 (1)	Stand ya zamani	10.0 (5)
Miyuji	10.1 (8)	Mnung'une	8.0 (4)
Kikuyu	7.6 (6)	Ulyampiti	2.0 (1)
Maili mbili	11.4 (9)	Mtaa wa sokoni	2.0 (1)
Vyeyula	5.1 (4)	Nyanza	4.0 (2)
Ng'ong'ona	1.3 (1)	Kibaoni-Seduka	16.0 (8)
Michese	1.3 (1)	Kitungukia	4.0 (2)
Nzuguni	2.5 (2)	Michunduruni	4.0 (2)
Chinyoya	3.8 (3)	Minga	12.0 (6)
Mkonze	1.3 (1)	Sido	4.0 (2)
Chang'ombe	5.1 (4)	Unyankindi	8.0 (4)
Bahi	1.3 (1)	Mandewa	4.0 (2)
Kizota	3.8 (4)	Kindai	10.0 (5)
Majengo	6.3 (5)	Mwenge	4.0 (2)
Chadulu	7.6 (6)	Singida Mnangi	2.0 (1)
Dodoma Mjini	19.0 (15)	Mjini	2.0 (1)
Makole	1.3 (1)	Ihungukia	2.0 (1)
Chamwino	1.3 (1)	Sebuka	2.0 (1)
Mbabala	1.3 (1)		
Njedengwa	2.5 (2)		
Bahi road	1.3 (1)		
Masalato	2.5 (2)		
Bahi sokoni	1.3 (1)		
	100.0 (80)	Total	100.0 (50)

Focus group discussions revealed that majority of street beggars live in unplanned residential areas and some live in public spaces such as motor parks, churches, mosques, markets, venue of ceremonies among other public places. From this observation, it is evident that majority of sampled street beggars in the study municipalities live in unplanned residential areas where the most of urban poor normally live. According to Ogunkan and Jelili (2010), consciousness of this fact is widely disseminated, yet many urban planners failed to reckon with a strong, often dominant influence of land use in generating social problems like street begging.

b) Ethnicity and Home of Origin of Street Beggars

Table 2 presents the distribution of street beggars by ethnicity and home of origin. The findings indicate that majority of the overall sampled beggars (93.0%) in both municipalities are indigenous living in their home areas. This imply that majority of beggars conduct their begging life in their home areas or regions. Very few overall sampled beggars (7%) migrate to other areas for some reasons where they find themselves engaging in street begging.

Table 2 : Distribution of Street Beggars by Ethnicity and Home of Origin

Variable	Municipality		Total
	Dodoma	Singida	
Whether Indigenous or a Migrant	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
Indigenous	90.0 (72)	98.0 (49)	93.1 (121)
Migrant	10.0 (8)	2.0 (1)	6.9 (9)
Sub-total	100.0 (80)	100.0 (50)	100.0 (130)
If indigenous, tribe of the respondent			
Nyaturu	Nil	91.8 (45)	37.2 (45)
Nyiramba	Nil	8.2 (4)	3.3 (4)
Gogo	100.0 (72)	Nil	59.5 (72)
Sub-total	100.0 (72)	100.0 (49)	100.0 (121)
If Migrant, Place of origin (Region)			
Mwanza	Nil	100.0 (1)	11.1 (1)
Kigoma	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Tabora	25.0 (2)	Nil	22.2 (2)
Singida	25.0 (2)	Nil	22.2 (2)
Mtwara	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Morogoro	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Dar Es Salaam	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Sub-total	100.0 (8)	100.0 (1)	100.0 (9)

However, Gogo people of Dodoma region were found mostly migrating as compared to the Nyaturu and Nyiramba of Singida region (Table 2). It was also found that the migrants in Singida region were not willing to disclose their home origin while the migrants in Dodoma region revealed that they came from various home of origins. These findings suggest that some of the migrant street beggars especially in Dodoma municipality came from various regions such as Dar Es Salaam, Mwanza, Kigoma, Tabora, Singida and Mtwara.

The findings in Table 3 suggest that most of sampled street beggars (50%) migrated to Dodoma municipality have been living there for more than five years. However, sampled beggars in Singida municipality did not disclose the time horizon over which they have stayed in the municipality. The migrant beggars in the study municipalities had various reasons that made them to migrate into the regions. Only one sampled respondent in Singida municipality mentioned official transfer as the reason for him to migrate into the municipality while majority of them did not respond (Table 3). On the other hand, sample migrant beggars in Dodoma municipality mentioned seeking of employment (37.5%), official transfer (12.5%), follow of relatives in town (12.5%) and seeking medical care (12.5%) as the main reasons for migrating into the areas before they find themselves in begging life and ultimately increase the incidences of street begging.

Table 3 : Time Beggars Had Been in the Area and Reasons for Migrating

Variable	Municipality		Total
	Dodoma	Singida	
Time of Staying in the place	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
Less than one year	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
One year	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Two years	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Three years	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
More than five years	50.0 (4)	Nil	44.4 (4)
I don't remember	Nil	100.0 (1)	11.1 (1)
Sub-total	100.0 (8)	100.0 (1)	100.0 (9)
Reasons for Migrating to the Area			
Seeking employment	37.5 (3)	Nil	33.3 (3)
Official transfer	12.5 (1)	100.0 (1)	22.2 (2)
Had relatives in town	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Seeking medical care	12.5 (1)	Nil	11.1 (1)
Sub-total	100.0 (8)	100.0 (1)	100.0 (9)

c) Religion of Street Beggars

Table 4 shows the distribution of street beggars by municipalities. The findings show that in all the municipalities studied, majority of overall sampled street beggars (58.5%) were Christians against (41.5%) who were Muslims. However, the findings show that majority of sampled street beggars in Dodoma municipality are Christians (76.3%) as against as Muslims (23.7%).

Table 4 : Distribution of Street Beggars by Religion

Religion	Municipalities		Total
	Dodoma	Singida	
	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
Christian	76.3 (61)	30.0 (15)	58.5 (76)
Muslim	23.7 (19)	70.0 (35)	41.5 (54)
Total	100.0 (80)	100.0 (50)	100.0 (130)

Likewise, the findings reveal that 70% of the beggars in Singida municipality are Muslims against (23.7%) Christians. These findings in Table 4 suggest existence of a controversial on the religions of the sample street beggars across the municipalities. Also, the study suggests that most of the Gogo in Dodoma municipalities are Christians while Nyaturu and Nyiramba in Singida municipality are Muslims. This distribution of the sampled street beggars in terms of their religious affiliation could be adduced to the fact that Christians usually fall prey to these beggars as they believe giving money to someone who begs is a charitable art. However, the Bible abhors laziness and therefore says in 2 Thessalonians 3:10 that, "For also when we were with you we enjoined you this, that if any man does not like to work, neither let him eat." The Christian's belief in giving which is captured in 1 Timothy 6:18-19, which says, "Command them to do good, to be rich in good deeds, and to be generous and willing to share. In this way they will lay up treasure for themselves as a firm foundation for the coming age, so that they may take hold of the life that is truly life."

The findings further suggest that most of sampled street beggars in Singida municipality who invariably are Muslims and to the general belief that the doctrine of Islam directly or indirectly encourages begging. Nevertheless, Tambawal (2010) and Obidoa *et al.* (2007) asserted that where there is a beggar, there is a giver, several Nigerians give alms to the poor basing on religious belief that they are counted as righteous people before God. On the other hand, the Qur'an (30:39) states: "That which you give in usury for increases through the property of (other) people, will have no increase with Allah: but that which you give for charity, seeking the Countenance of Allah, (will increase); it is those who will get a recompense multiplied." Focus group discussions revealed that Muslims believe that "Begging is similar to scratching the flesh off your face; so if someone wants to save his face he should avoid it, except for asking from the ruler or asking in case of dire need." Therefore the Muslim must not beg unless in extreme situations where life and honour is at risk.

d) Sex of Street Beggars

Table 5 presents the distribution of street beggars by sex. The study found that both men and women in the study municipalities were involved in begging activities. Majority of the overall sampled beggars (51.5%) are males as against as females (48.5%). This finding suggests that begging is more of male than female. This situation has a negative implication for city's economy as men are culturally placed as family benefactors. Similar findings were reported by Ogunkan and Fawole (2009) who found that men are highly involved in begging related activities than women.

Table 5: Distribution of Street Beggars by Sex

Sex	Municipalities		Total
	Dodoma	Singida	
	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
Male	58.8 (47)	40.0 (20)	51.5 (67)
Female	41.3 (33)	60.0 (30)	48.5 (63)
Total	100.0 (80)	100.0 (50)	100.0 (130)

However, it was found that the proportion of sampled female beggars in Singida municipality (60%) were relatively higher as opposed to sampled female beggars (41.3%) in Dodoma municipality. On the other hand, sampled male beggars (58.8%) in Dodoma municipality were relatively higher than sampled male beggars (40%) in Singida municipality. This study therefore suggests that the incidence of street begging by sex in the study municipalities is influenced by location among other factors.

e) Age of Street Beggars

Table 6 summarizes the age of street beggars. The ages of sampled street beggars ranged from 11 years and 89 years while their mean age of the beggars was 44 years.

Table 6: Distribution of Street Beggars by Age Group

Age Group (Years)	Municipalities		Total
	Dodoma	Singida	
	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
Below 15	11.3 (9)	14.0 (7)	12.3 (16)
15-24	13.8 (11)	4.0 (2)	26.0 (13)
25-34	12.3 (9)	4.0 (2)	8.5 (11)
35-44	12.5 (10)	2.0 (1)	8.5 (11)
45-54	13.8 (11)	6.0 (3)	10.8 (14)
55-64	5.0 (4)	2.0 (1)	3.8 (5)
Above 64	21.3 (17)	30.0 (15)	24.6 (32)
I don't remember	11.3 (9)	38.0 (19)	21.5 (28)
Total	100.0 (80)	100.0 (50)	100.0 (130)
Minimum years=11, Maximum years=89 and Mean age=44 years			

The sampled street beggars were categorized into seven age groups. The findings indicate Singida municipality had a large percentage of sampled street beggars (38%) who did not remember their age as against as 11.3% in Dodoma municipality (Table 6). The findings show that most of sampled street beggars (26%) were in the age bracket of 15-24 years, 24.6% were above 64 years while 12.3% were below 15 years and 10.8% were 45-54 years. It can, therefore, be deduced that aged people constitute the high proportion of beggars in Dodoma and Singida municipalities. However, mixed responses were observed between and among the study districts. All the study municipalities seemed to have a large population

of the aged street beggars. Likewise, within each study municipality the findings suggest that people engaging in begging life ranged from the young, teenagers to the old ones. This distribution reflects the relative distribution size of each of these groups in Dodoma and Singida municipalities.

f) Education Levels of Street Beggars

The findings in Table 7 show that majority of the overall sampled street beggars (60.8%) had no formal education with Singida municipality having relatively higher proportion (66%) as compared to Dodoma municipality (52.5%) as indicated in Table 10. However a significant number of the sampled beggars accounting to 23.8% had not completed primary education majority of them being found in Dodoma municipality (26.3%) against (20%) found in Singida municipality. Some of the beggars have not completed standard seven primary education level. These findings suggest that street begging is more pronounced amidst illiterates as majority of street beggars have no formal education.

Table 7: Distribution of Street Beggars by Education Level

Education Level	Municipality		Total
	Dodoma	Singida	
	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
No formal education	52.5 (42)	66.0 (33)	57.7 (75)
Adult education	3.8 (3)	Nil	2.3 (3)
Uncompleted primary education	26.3 (21)	20.0 (10)	23.8 (31)
Completed primary education	17.5 (14)	2.0 (1)	11.5 (15)
Sub-total	100.0 (80)	100.0 (80)	100.0 (130)

Focus group discussions revealed that most of the sampled street beggars had no formal education due to such reasons as lack assistance from families (either because of families' economic difficulties and disharmony), cycle of poverty, peer pressure, lack of financial support and time to attend school. Focus group discussions further showed that the influence of peers who are already in the street for begging and lack of the necessary material and financial support for schooling were identified as serious obstacles for not attending school among street beggars.

g) Marital Status of Street Beggars

Table 8 shows the distribution of street beggars by marital status. The findings indicate that majority of overall sampled street beggars (41.5%) were single. In Dodoma municipality, 50% of its beggars were single as compared to Singida municipality which has 28% single beggars. On the other hand, Singida municipality has 48% widowed of the total sampled street beggars as compared to 20% of those were found in Dodoma municipality.

Table 8 : Distribution of Street Beggars by Marital Status

<i>Marital Status</i>	<i>Municipalities</i>		<i>Total</i>
	Dodoma	Singida	
	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
Single	50.0 (40)	28.0 (14)	41.5 (54)
Married	23.8 (19)	4.0 (2)	16.2 (21)
Widowed	20.0 (16)	48.0 (24)	30.0 (39)
Separated	6.3 (5)	20.0 (10)	10.0 (13)
Total	100.0 (80)	100.0 (50)	100.0 (130)

Table 8 further reflects that Dodoma municipality has more married sampled street beggars (23.8%) as compared to Singida municipality (4%). However, results show that Singida municipality has more sampled street beggars who were separated (20%) as compared to Dodoma municipality (5%). Generally, the study findings reflect that begging is more of singles than married in Dodoma municipality as opposed to Singida municipality. These findings is contrary to what were observed by Ogunkan and Fawole (2009) who found that begging is more of married than single in Ogbomoso in Nigeria as an indication that poverty and need to provide for the family form parts of the major reasons for begging among married women than single women.

h) Body Physique of Street Beggars

Table 9 shows the distribution of street beggars by body physique. Findings indicate that majority of all sampled street beggars (35.4 %) were physically impaired (legs and hands/arms) with Dodoma municipality leading to have more physically impaired beggars (36.3%) than Singida municipality (34%).

Table 9 further indicated that some sampled street beggars were visually impaired, skin impaired, hearing impaired, old, young children and some were suffering from leprosy and epilepsy. These findings suggest that body physique of the beggars compels them to engage in begging life as they do lack alternatives to sustain their livelihood as some of them are neglected by their family members. These finding imply that there is a need for the government and civil society organizations to sensitize families with children with disabilities to value their children and take them to schools with special programmes to impart these children with necessary skills and knowledge. On the other hand, the government and other development actors need to give the necessary required support to schools providing special education and evenly distribute special need schools allover the country.

Table 9 : Body physique of the Street Beggars

<i>Body physique</i>	<i>Municipalities</i>		<i>Total</i>
	Dodoma	Singida	
	% (N)	% (N)	% (N)
Normal	22.5 (18)	12.0 (6)	18.5 (24)
Visually Impaired (<i>Kipofu</i>)	23.8 (19)	2.0 (1)	15.4 (20)
Physically Impaired (Hands/Arms or Legs)	36.3 (29)	34.0 (17)	35.4 (46)
Skin Impaired (Albino)	1.3 (1)	2.0 (1)	1.5 (2)
Hearing Impaired (<i>Kiziwi</i>)	Nil	2.0 (1)	0.8 (1)
Old	6.3 (5)	34.0 (17)	16.9 (22)
Child	7.5 (6)	14.0 (7)	10.0 (13)
Leprosy and epilepsy	2.5 (2)	Nil	1.5 (2)
Total	100.0 (80)	100.0 (50)	100.0 (130)

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Demographic backgrounds of the street beggars contribute to the incidences of street begging. The study found that street begging is carried out by the diversity of people regardless of age, sex, religion, marital status and body physique. A short drive on the streets of Dodoma and Singida Municipalities reveals persons of both sexes, ages, all forms of disabilities and some without any kind of physical challenge along the streets begging for alms. There are also the mentally challenged who beg for alms, some rather menacingly or aggressively. A number of reasons have contributed to the increase of the population of street beggars and incidence of begging on the streets. These reasons include poverty, death of parents, family disintegration, traditional life, laziness and many more.

Based on the conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made in addressing the incidence of street begging in the study areas.

- To improve the socio-economic security of the families of street beggars and street beggars themselves through direct assistance programme with emphasis on various demographic dimensions.
- To embark on public enlightenment on the negative consequences of begging on the development of individuals, community and the nation at large.
- Policy planners and urban authorities must adopt multi-faceted, multi-targeted and multi-tiered approaches if they have to make any impact at all on the lives of street beggars.

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The recommended size of original research paper is less than seven thousand words, review papers fewer than seven thousands words also. Preparation of research paper or how to write research paper, are major hurdle, while writing manuscript. The research articles and research letters should be fewer than three thousand words, the structure original research paper; sometime review paper should be as follows:

Papers: These are reports of significant research (typically less than 7000 words equivalent, including tables, figures, references), and comprise:

- (a) Title should be relevant and commensurate with the theme of the paper.
- (b) A brief Summary, "Abstract" (less than 150 words) containing the major results and conclusions.
- (c) Up to ten keywords, that precisely identifies the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
- (d) An Introduction, giving necessary background excluding subheadings; objectives must be clearly declared.
- (e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition; sources of information must be given and numerical methods must be specified by reference, unless non-standard.
- (f) Results should be presented concisely, by well-designed tables and/or figures; the same data may not be used in both; suitable statistical data should be given. All data must be obtained with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage. As reproduced design has been recognized to be important to experiments for a considerable time, the Editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned un-refereed;
- (g) Discussion should cover the implications and consequences, not just recapitulating the results; conclusions should be summarizing.
- (h) Brief Acknowledgements.
- (i) References in the proper form.

Authors should very cautiously consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate efficiently. Papers are much more likely to be accepted, if they are cautiously designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and be conventional to the approach and instructions. They will in addition, be published with much less delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.



The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and to make suggestions to improve briefness.

It is vital, that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.

Format

Language: The language of publication is UK English. Authors, for whom English is a second language, must have their manuscript efficiently edited by an English-speaking person before submission to make sure that, the English is of high excellence. It is preferable, that manuscripts should be professionally edited.

Standard Usage, Abbreviations, and Units: Spelling and hyphenation should be conventional to The Concise Oxford English Dictionary. Statistics and measurements should at all times be given in figures, e.g. 16 min, except for when the number begins a sentence. When the number does not refer to a unit of measurement it should be spelt in full unless, it is 160 or greater.

Abbreviations supposed to be used carefully. The abbreviated name or expression is supposed to be cited in full at first usage, followed by the conventional abbreviation in parentheses.

Metric SI units are supposed to generally be used excluding where they conflict with current practice or are confusing. For illustration, 1.4 l rather than $1.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$, or 4 mm somewhat than $4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$. Chemical formula and solutions must identify the form used, e.g. anhydrous or hydrated, and the concentration must be in clearly defined units. Common species names should be followed by underlines at the first mention. For following use the generic name should be constricted to a single letter, if it is clear.

Structure

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals Inc. (US), ought to include:

Title: The title page must carry an instructive title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) wherever the work was carried out. The full postal address in addition with the e-mail address of related author must be given. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining and indexing.

Abstract, used in Original Papers and Reviews:

Optimizing Abstract for Search Engines

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or similar. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. This in turn will make it more likely to be viewed and/or cited in a further work. Global Journals Inc. (US) have compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Key Words

A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

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

Search engines for most searches, use Boolean searching, which is somewhat different from Internet searches. The Boolean search uses "operators," words (and, or, not, and near) that enable you to expand or narrow your affords. Tips for research paper while preparing research paper are very helpful guideline of research paper.

Choice of key words is first tool of tips to write research paper. Research paper writing is an art. A few tips for deciding as strategically as possible about keyword search:



- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
- One should avoid outdated words.

Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

Numerical Methods: Numerical methods used should be clear and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Acknowledgements: Please make these as concise as possible.

References

References follow the Harvard scheme of referencing. References in the text should cite the authors' names followed by the time of their publication, unless there are three or more authors when simply the first author's name is quoted followed by et al. unpublished work has to only be cited where necessary, and only in the text. Copies of references in press in other journals have to be supplied with submitted typescripts. It is necessary that all citations and references be carefully checked before submission, as mistakes or omissions will cause delays.

References to information on the World Wide Web can be given, but only if the information is available without charge to readers on an official site. Wikipedia and Similar websites are not allowed where anyone can change the information. Authors will be asked to make available electronic copies of the cited information for inclusion on the Global Journals Inc. (US) homepage at the judgment of the Editorial Board.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals Inc. (US) recommend that, citation of online-published papers and other material should be done via a DOI (digital object identifier). If an author cites anything, which does not have a DOI, they run the risk of the cited material not being noticeable.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals Inc. (US) recommend the use of a tool such as Reference Manager for reference management and formatting.

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Tables: Tables should be few in number, cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g. Table 4, a self-explanatory caption and be on a separate sheet. Vertical lines should not be used.

Figures: Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always take in a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g. Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in electronic form by e-mailing them.

Preparation of Electronic Figures for Publication

Even though low quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (or e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Do not use pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings) in relation to the imitation size. Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement Form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution (at final image size) ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs) : >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.



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Upon approval of a paper for publication, the manuscript will be forwarded to the dean, who is responsible for the publication of the Global Journals Inc. (US).

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the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area? If the answer of these types of questions will be "Yes" then you can choose that topic. In most of the cases, you may have to conduct the surveys and have to visit several places because this field is related to Computer Science and Information Technology. Also, you may have to do a lot of work to find all rise and falls regarding the various data of that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information.

2. Evaluators are human: First thing to remember that evaluators are also human being. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So, present your Best.

3. Think Like Evaluators: If you are in a confusion or getting demotivated that your paper will be accepted by evaluators or not, then think and try to evaluate your paper like an Evaluator. Try to understand that what an evaluator wants in your research paper and automatically you will have your answer.

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

12. Make all efforts: Make all efforts to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in introduction, that what is the need of a particular research paper. Polish your work by good skill of writing and always give an evaluator, what he wants.

13. Have backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either in your computer or in paper. This will help you to not to lose any of your important.

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16. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense, to present those events that happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate future happening events. Use of improper and wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid the sentences that are incomplete.

17. Never use online paper: If you are getting any paper on Internet, then never use it as your research paper because it might be possible that evaluator has already seen it or maybe it is outdated version.

18. Pick a good study spot: To do your research studies always try to pick a spot, which is quiet. Every spot is not for studies. Spot that suits you choose it and proceed further.

19. Know what you know: Always try to know, what you know by making objectives. Else, you will be confused and cannot achieve your target.

20. Use good quality grammar: Always use a good quality grammar and use words that will throw positive impact on evaluator. Use of good quality grammar does not mean to use tough words, that for each word the evaluator has to go through dictionary. Do not start sentence with a conjunction. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Ignore passive voice. Do not ever use a big word when a diminutive one would suffice. Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. Prepositions are not expressions to finish sentences with. It is incorrect to ever divide an infinitive. Avoid clichés like the disease. Also, always shun irritating alliteration. Use language that is simple and straight forward. put together a neat summary.

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

22. Never start in last minute: Always start at right time and give enough time to research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

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

24. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if evaluator has seen it anywhere you will be in trouble.

25. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend for your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health then all your efforts will be in vain. For a quality research, study is must, and this can be done by taking proper rest and food.

26. Go for seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.

27. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give rest to your mind by listening to soft music or by sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory.

28. Make colleagues: Always try to make colleagues. No matter how sharper or intelligent you are, if you make colleagues you can have several ideas, which will be helpful for your research.

29. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, then search its reasons, its benefits, and demerits.

30. Think and then print: When you will go to print your paper, notice that tables are not be split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

31. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information, like, I have used MS Excel to draw graph. Do not add irrelevant and inappropriate material. These all will create superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should NEVER take a broad view. Analogy in script is like feathers on a snake. Not at all use a large word when a very small one would be



sufficient. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Amplification is a billion times of inferior quality than sarcasm.

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

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

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

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Key points to remember:

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

Final Points:

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

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

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To make a paper clear

· Adhere to recommended page limits

Mistakes to evade

- Insertion a title at the foot of a page with the subsequent text on the next page



- Separating a table/chart or figure - impound each figure/table to a single page
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence

In every sections of your document

- Use standard writing style including articles ("a", "the," etc.)
- Keep on paying attention on the research topic of the paper
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding for the abstract)
- Align the primary line of each section
- Present your points in sound order
- Use present tense to report well accepted
- Use past tense to describe specific results
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- Shun use of extra pictures - include only those figures essential to presenting results

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

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

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shortening the outcome. Sum up the study, with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to maintain the initial two items to no more than one ruling each.

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

Approach:

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- A conceptual should situate on its own, and not submit to any other part of the paper such as a form or table
- Center on shortening results - bound background information to a verdict or two, if completely necessary
- What you account in an conceptual must be regular with what you reported in the manuscript
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The **Introduction** should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable to comprehend and calculate the purpose of your study without having to submit to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give most important references but shun difficult to make a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. In the introduction, describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will have no attention in your result. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here. Following approach can create a valuable beginning:

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

Approach:

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- Present surroundings information only as desirable in order hold up a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read the whole thing you know about a topic.
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- Explain materials individually only if the study is so complex that it saves liberty this way.
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- Do not take in frequently found.
- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

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

Approach:

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

What to keep away from

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

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

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

Content

- Sum up your conclusion in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In manuscript, explain each of your consequences, point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation an exacting study.
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- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surroundings information, or try to explain anything.
- Not at all, take in raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.



- Do not present the similar data more than once.
- Manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate the identical information.
- Never confuse figures with tables - there is a difference.

Approach

- As forever, use past tense when you submit to your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.
- Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report
- If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results part.

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- If you put figures and tables at the end of the details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attach appendix materials, such as raw facts
- Despite of position, each figure must be numbered one after the other and complete with subtitle
- In spite of position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other and complete with heading
- All figure and table must be adequately complete that it could situate on its own, divide from text

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The Discussion is expected the trickiest segment to write and describe. A lot of papers submitted for journal are discarded based on problems with the Discussion. There is no head of state for how long a argument should be. Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implication of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and hold up for all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of result should be visibly described. Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved with prospect, and let it drop at that.

- Make a decision if each premise is supported, discarded, or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."
- Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work
- You may propose future guidelines, such as how the experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
- Try to present substitute explanations if sensible alternatives be present.
- One research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind, where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

- When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from available information
- Submit to work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.
- Submit to generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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