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Cultural and Economic Discourses on Child Labour

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Cultural and economic discourses present two strands around the issue of child labour. These strands may have some common grounds, but in essence their analyses and interpretations differ. The cultural discourse contextualizes that norms, tradition and belief system determine child development practices; while the economic discourse does not go much beyond the family's poverty to explain the existence of child labour practices.

Keywords: child labour; economic discourse; cultural discourse; poverty; education

The role that families assign to children may vary from one culture to another; however, their wellbeing and the desire to prepare them for their future responsibilities remains a key concern for parents and societies. The manifestation of this desire and its interpretation differ in accordance with the cultural settings and socioeconomic conditions in which families find them. Poverty, coupled with cultural norms accepting and promoting children's responsibilities in the world of work, assigns multiple roles to children beyond education and play. Anthropologists as well as economists have tried to understand the phenomenon of a child's presence at the workplace.

This paper presents the *cultural* discourse – that conceptualizes the phenomenon of child labour in terms of tradition – as well as the *economic* discourse – that conceptualizes it in terms of the family's poverty – regarding the social construct of child development. Since the two discourses overlap with each other, the focus is on understanding the phenomenon of child labour along with the factors responsible for it.

Cultural Discourse on Child Labour

The 20th century witnessed the rise of literature trying to understand child labour and its various manifestations. This literature has greatly shaped our generation's understanding about the nature of children's involvement in the world of work. Children perform a wide range of activities and tasks outside the school, the home and the playground. These activities and tasks can be categorized as *acceptable* and *unacceptable* forms of work, primarily on the basis of the child's

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age, but also the work being performed by him or her.

Certain types of work are acceptable for children to perform, though the understanding of such work remains limited. The categories of child work include 'light work', 'hazardous forms of child labour' and 'worst forms of child labour'. However, this global text on child labour often comes into conflict with cultural practices mostly followed by poor communities. The argument around cultural determinism of child labour hinges primarily on traditions and norms prevalent among these communities.

Historically, two spaces have existed for children – *private* (home) and *public* (play and work) – with their boundaries not very well-defined. Aries (1962) writes that societies, before the dawn of the modern era, tended to let children integrate with the adult community and take part in the practical life: “as soon as the child could live without the constant solicitude of his mother, his nanny or his cradle-rocker, he belonged to adult society (p. 128).” He argues that the word 'child' then had a different meaning than it has now.

Language did not give the word 'child' the restrictive meaning we give it today: people said 'child' much as we say 'lad' in everyday speech. The absence of definition extended to every sort of social activity: games, crafts, arms. There is not a single collective picture of the times in which children are not to be found, nestling singly or in pairs in the trousse hung round women's necks, or urinating in a corner, or playing their part in a traditional festival, or as apprentices in a workshop, or as pages serving a Knight (ibid.).

Thus, children would learn trades and life skills by mingling with the adult community through play and apprenticeship. The idea of a transitory period between childhood and adulthood was non-existent. This transition period was later conceived and promoted as a preparatory period for the move from one stage of human development to another. Mead, in her classical work *Coming of Age in Samoa*, identifies how Samoan children were educated.

The four or five little boys who all wish to assist at the important business of helping a grown youth lasso reef eels, organize themselves into a highly efficient working team; one boy holds the bait, another holds an extra lasso, others poke eagerly about the holes in the reef looking for prey, while still another tucks the captured eels into his lavalava (1973, p. 126).

Mead also shows how young girls of six or seven years were required to learn different skills in addition to taking care of younger sibling.

The little girl learns to weave firm square balls from palms leaves, to make pin-wheels of palm leaves or frangipani blossoms, to climb a coconut tree by walking up the trunk on flexible little feet, to break open a cocoanut with one firm well-directed blow of a knife as long as she is tall to play a number of groups games and sing the songs with them, to tidy the house by picking up the litter on the stony floor, to bring water from the sea, to spread out copra to dry and to help gather it in when rain threatens, to roll the pandanus leaves for weaving, to go to a neighbouring house and bring back a lighted fagot for the chief's pipe or the cook-house fire, and to exercise tact in begging slight favours from relatives (pp. 125–126).

Besides the fact that in traditional societies, adults were comfortable with children

growing up while participating in adult life, the roles for boys and girls were also well-defined from the onset of childhood. However, such practices where children would learn a task along with adults gradually became unacceptable. Aries (1962) argues that during the 16th and 17th centuries, the moralist and reformist passionately fought for an idea of education confined to children. "This was how these moral champions of moral order were led to recognize the importance of education (p. 412)."

Aries states that literature in the 16th and 17th centuries propagated and convinced parents that they were spiritual guardians, that they were responsible before God for the souls, and indeed the bodies too, of their children. "Henceforth, it was recognized that the child was not ready for life and that he had to be subjected to a special treatment, a sort of quarantine, before he was allowed to join the adults (ibid.)." Children were then subjected to receive training for life. It was believed that this training should be provided by the school. Aries asserts that "traditional apprenticeship was replaced by the school, an instrument of strict discipline, protected by the law-courts and the police-courts (p. 413)."

In the developed world, both family and school together took children away from society. This practice of allowing children to take on 'adult responsibilities', though abandoned to a large extent in the developed world (Western Europe and North America), continued in many regions across the world, including South Asia.

Scheper-Hughes (1989) indicates that in most of the traditional societies, "children are expected to contribute to the economic subsistence of the household. Their value and status within the family are achieved, instrumentally based, and usually increase with age (p. 11)." In contrast, the modern and industrialized societies started to have fewer children and invest heavily in each child. Consequently, in modern and industrial societies, Scheper-Hughes contends, "the instrumentality value of children has been largely replaced by their expressive value. Children have become relatively worthless (economically) to their parents, but priceless in terms of their psychological worth (pp. 11–12)."

This also changed the discourse around children regarding their roles and responsibilities within the family and society, as Zelizer (1985) argues: "While in the 19th century, the market value of children was culturally acceptable, later the new normative ideal of the child as an exclusively emotional and affective asset precluded instrumental or fiscal considerations (p. 11)." Therefore, the rising normative ideal labelled such non-conforming parents as 'mercenaries' or 'insensitive' who accepted wages or labour contribution of a useful child. Furthermore, the emergence and expansion of a large informal sector, primarily in the urban setting, created more opportunities for children to find apprenticeship and employment.

According to Bromley (1978), analysts of urban employment in the developing world have used 'two sector' terminology, activities in the *traditional* and the *modern* sectors. He also points out that subsequently these terminologies were renamed while dividing the economy into *informal* (traditional) and *formal* (modern) sectors. Bromley provides the distinctions, based on activities, between the informal and formal sectors.

The *formal* sector is characterized by difficult entry, frequent reliance on overseas resources, corporate ownership, large-scale operations, capital-intensive and (often) imported technology, formally acquired skills, and (often) expatriate and protected markets (through tariffs, quotas and trade license). On the other hand, the *informal* sector is characterized by ease of entry, reliance on indigenous resources, family ownership of enterprises, small-scale operations, labour-intensive and adapted technology, skills acquired outside the formal school

system, and unregulated and competitive markets.

Informal activities are largely ignored, rarely supported and sometimes even actively discouraged by governments around the world. Given these characteristics of the informal economy, it further thrived on the cultural tradition that hinged on the instrumental value of children and on making them useful to the household and community.

Nieuwenhuys (1994) considers the notion of child labour inadequate to analyze the work that children perform. He argues that this "notion works from the ingrained assumption of an immature specimen of the human race being exposed to a certain type of undesirable activity (p. 119)." Research focussing on children's work in peasant societies, he claims, has seriously suffered because of preconceived assumptions about which activities are suitable for children and which are not. He traced the moral basis of such judgement to the ideals of socialization introduced by colonial powers in former colonies and reflected in their labour legislation.

Nieuwenhuys identifies three major categories of work: (1) activities that relate to extracting resources from the physical and social environment; (2) activities concerning 'un-paid' allocation, preparation and distribution of these resources; and (3) activities that relate to the care of human beings. He asserts that many of these activities are aimed at the production of socially-valued goods and services, but many may not be recognized as such, particularly when carried out in the context of the household.

When children are not present to carry out child minding, housekeeping or errands, other services would have to be bought and domestic help hired. Thus, Nieuwenhuys asserts, "household-based work, though difficult to value exactly, represents in itself an important asset (p. 120)." In other words, this analysis questioned, in many ways, the constructs of the child labour concept that views work of children at the workplace only.

Certain cultural norms around gender, age and idleness also contribute to the incidence of child labour. Delap (2001), while describing the importance of economic and cultural determinism around the child labour debate, suggests that economic factors certainly influence decision-making about child labour. While using data from her research carried out in the slums of Bangladesh, she maintains that four factors cannot be explained purely in economic terms: (1) the decision to deploy child labour instead of available adult labour is often made on gender norms; (2) gender also plays an important role in deciding whether to deploy male or female child labour; (3) age subordination plays a significant role in determining what tasks are assigned to children; and (4) the cultural importance of avoiding idleness plays a key role that stems from the fear of deviancy. The fourth aspect, around idleness and deviancy, also forms one of the focuses of this research.

The way child *work* and child *labour* are defined is equally important. Some researchers do not agree that children's work is harmful to them. For example, Fyfe (1989) makes a distinction between child work and child labour. Though these two concepts are often used interchangeably, he argues that all work is not harmful to children. In fact, Fyfe asserts, "There is little doubt that many children welcome the opportunity to work, seeing it in the rite of the passage to adulthood. Work can be a gradual initiation into adulthood and a positive element in the child's development (p. 3)."

The social construction of child labour and the notion that the child should be removed from labour is a pretty modern phenomenon. The traditional concept in most societies has been that children should contribute to the family's maintenance. Children start work early in

life by entering into apprenticeship. These practices are coming into direct conflict with laws and conventions that prohibit child labour. However, in many countries, including in India and Pakistan, despite the presence of legislation against child labour, the state does not make any serious effort to end child labour. Weiner and Noman (1995) reveal that some government officials and opinion-makers in India hold certain cultural beliefs that actually allow child labour practices to flourish.

The Indian position (on child labour) rests on deeply-held beliefs that there is a division between people who work with their minds and rule and people who work with their hands and are ruled, and the education should reinforce rather than break down this division. These beliefs are closely tied to religious notions and to the premises that underlie India's hierarchical caste system (pp. 5–6).

Furthermore, there is literature available that describes the notion of child labour as a western concept that does not recognize the roles that children need to perform in other parts of the world. Jo Boyden (1990), trying to make sense of how images and perceptions about childhood have permeated in the globalized world from the North to the South, emphasizes:

As the 20th century progressed, highly selective, stereotyped perceptions of childhood of the innocent child victim on the one hand and the young deviant on the other have been exported from the industrial world to the South. They have provided a focal point for the development of both human rights legislation at the international level and social policy at the national level in a wide range of countries. It has been the explicit goal of children's rights specialists to crystallize in international law a universal system of rights for the child based on these norms (of the modern and industrialized societies) of childhood (p. 191).

Significant debate has taken place among academics to culturally understand the concept of children's presence at workplace. International conventions on child labour have also been analyzed from this perspective. Some academics have suggested that the formulation of these conventions has primarily been dominated by western understanding of children and their roles.

For example, Myers (2001) questions the definition of a child that has become the baseline for international child rights norms, and regrets that international child labour policies have unjustly adopted European and North American values while ignoring more representative global views. Discussing the historical context of three international conventions that deal with the issue of child labour – the ILO Minimum Age Convention (C138), 1973; the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989; and the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (C182), 1999 – he states that these conventions have, in the past three decades, helped in understanding the issue of child labour from an international perspective, rather than from just a European or North American one.

Comparison of these three conventions in their historical sequence indicates a progression of children's rights thinking about child labour, first from globalized Northern ethnocentrism (ILO Convention 138) to a more open and culturally-adaptable approach still set within Northern concepts of children's rights (the CRC), and from there to a more democratic model better structured to accommodate diversity while

Economic Discourse on Child Labour

Economic determinism, which links the family's poverty with the presence of children at the workplace, has also remained a dominant theme within the large body of available scholarship on child labour. Ilahi, Orazem, and Sedlacek (2005) maintain:

Parents have their children specialized in schooling rather than go to work in part because they expect that children will earn enough as adults to repay the lost earnings as a child. However, children from poor households may not have the luxury of waiting to grow up before entering the labour market. Sending their children to work may be the only option poor parents have to sufficiently raise income to meet current consumption needs (p. 1).

Economic determinism tends to see the phenomenon of children in the world of work from the demand and supply prism, and presents the determinants of both sides. On the *supply* side, the major determinants include poverty, skill training, household size, a dysfunctional education system, labour substitution within the household, a rise in the status of income earning members within the household, lack of bequests, the inability to access the credit market, and limited availability of financial resources. On the other hand, the *demand* side factors include employers' desire to cut down on production cost to remain competitive, lower and flexible wages of children, flexibility of working hours (generally longer), suitability of child labour for some products, a rise in the informal sector of the labour market, lack of implementation of labour legislations, and ineffective penalty structure for violators (Ali, 1999; Dehejia & Gatti, 2002; Jamil, 1995).

Regarding the demand side, it has been argued that the specific characteristics of child workers, such as their 'nimble fingers', make them much more attractive to certain employers for performing certain tasks. A study conducted two decades ago reported that 90% of the one million workers in the carpet industry in Pakistan were children (GoP & UNICEF, 1992). However, it can be debated whether children possess special characteristics to perform tasks that adults cannot. Edmonds (2003) believes that the majority of activities undertaken by child labourers in Nepal, Pakistan and Vietnam could be substituted by adult workers.

Several researches indicate a co-relation between child labour and household poverty (Grootaert & Kanbur, 1995; Hamid, 1994). Others like Rajan (2001) contend that in an economy with inefficient child labour, greater income inequalities are linked with more child labour. Basu and Van (1998) capture the role of poverty regarding child labour. They assume that children work only when subsistence limitations bind them and subsequently focus on how this supply behaviour could result in multiple equilibria in the labour market. This only establishes the normality of child leisure or confirms that households do not have enough cash.

Basu and Van also attempt to investigate the adult workforce and wages to determine how the role of family income affects the choices between school attendance and child labour. They put forward a model that indicates altruistic partners would withdraw their children from labour once adult wage increases beyond a certain level. Their model strengthens the

argument for children's compulsory education. The link between poverty and the supply of child labour has been explored by various researchers with different results for boys and girls. Bhalotra (2007) also investigates the hypothesis that child labour is compelled by poverty. She uses a large household survey for rural Pakistan and estimates labour supply models for boys and girls in wage work. Her findings indicate different results for boys and girls, based on which she suggests that gender-specific interventions should be designed to address the issue of child labour.

Poverty compels boys to work. This suggests that cash transfers offered to households supplying child labour will be effective in reducing child labour amongst boys. In the case of girls, the evidence is ambiguous. While the hypothesis that poverty compels girls to work cannot strictly be rejected, the results in this article and in related research suggest that girls may work even when poverty is not compelling, possibly because the perceived return to their education is relatively low. While poverty reduction may reduce work and increase schooling amongst boys, to achieve similar results for girls, it may be necessary to also raise the returns to schooling for girls, to do which it may be necessary to first alter attitudes to girls' education (p. 50).

Another argument propagates that children from relatively rich backgrounds are prone to work while those from poorer backgrounds are more likely to attend school. Skoufias (1995) finds out that in India families may have been experiencing difficulties in employing farm labour or leasing out land. Employing family labour on the farm may have less monitoring costs, thus the children of land-rich households are more prone to work and less likely to attend school as compared with the children of land-poor households. Similarly, others researchers also conclude that poverty does not always create a supply of child labour since empirical evidence suggests that family assets could increase the incidence of child labour.

Cockburn (2001) asserts that though child labour and poverty are considered to be associated, weak empirical evidence exists to establish any link between the two. He uses a simple agricultural household model with missing labour market to demonstrate his point. His analysis of rural Ethiopian households' data indicates that certain assets will produce child labour-increasing effects, while other assets will produce child labour-decreasing results.

The worrying exceptions, where the income opportunities provided by asset ownership appear to dominate, concern hoes (boys only), small animals and permanent crops, which increase the relative probability of children working rather than attending school. Also, results obtained without site variables suggest that land ownership may increase child work and reduce schooling due to the specialisation of children in land-intensive herding activities. Generally speaking, access to assets that are used in child work activities (complements to child work) is more likely to increase child work and less likely to increase child schooling. Income is found to have a clear positive impact on child schooling and, when it is instrumented, a negative effect on child work (p. 29).

Nardinelli (1990) argues that the gradual reduction in children's workforce participation in British industrialization can be understood by changes in the demand and supply of child work. The demand for skilled workforce subdued the need to have child workers. He maintains that higher and better wages for the adult skilled workforce reduced the family's reliance on children's income. Moreover, the benefit of long-term returns on the

investment of the child's education influenced the family's decision-making to choose school instead of labour for their children.

Psacharopoulos (1997), in his empirical analysis of household surveys in Bolivia and Venezuela, approaches the issue of child labour in relation to the educational attainment of working children.

The fact that a child is working reduces his or her educational attainment by about two years of schooling relative to the control group of non-working children. Grade repetition, a common phenomenon in Latin America, is closely associated with child labor. Working children contribute significantly to total household income. Thus, beyond the issue of child labor having an adverse effect on the child's physical development, the fact that a child is obliged to work has detrimental effect on the accumulation of human capital; and, of course, on the subsequent private and social returns from it (p. 377).

On the other hand, some researchers also view child labour from an intergenerational perspective to establish its link with poverty. For example, Venkateswaran (2007), using the intergeneration framework, suggests:

The notion of intergenerational span of time is a useful framework to apply when assessing the long-term benefits of schooling and education, especially for the children who are 'first generation learners', and even who for a variety of reason drop out of schools. The cycle of poverty and lack of alternate income-generating opportunities is circumvented not so much by schooling and education as by securing some permanent employment obtained through the offices of the families who have employed them as children to work in their homes. Such employment, often with additional benefits or superannuation provisions attached to them, kick starts a course of events whereby the next generations finally reap the fruits of schooling or go on to pursue a higher degree. They thereby transcend the deeply entrenched cycle of poverty and failure of landless whose only asset is their labour. Despite not completing their own schooling, or their own alienation or exclusion from the prevailing schooling system, many children employed as domestic servants, through their propinquity with the socio-cultural milieu of the families within whose 'homes' they worked, have absorbed the values of education, and have understood the opportunities that it provides, and will apply it to their own children (p. 246).

However, as Toor (2001) tries to demonstrate, parents do not always agree about the value of education, perhaps because they are unsure about its practicality.

It is indisputably true that child labor is not an aberration due to lack of awareness of the sanctity of childhood or the importance of education. On the contrary, studies have shown that poor, rural people have a conscious critique of the kind of education imparted by government and private schools alike, which neither prepares children for the future nor corresponds with their reality and is hardly ever a means of social mobility (p 221).

Toor further asserts that it would not be possible to understand or address the issue of child labour without contextualizing it against the neoliberal international political economic

system.

The real issue is, of course, that child labor is a function of poverty, but that poverty is not just an unfortunate feature of life in Pakistan. Poverty is structurally created, maintained and now under the process of intensifying. The structural reasons are both domestic and international and, under the current international political regime, are unlikely to be reversed without political intervention (ibid.).

Moreover, Behera (2007) links the problem of child labour with poverty, unemployment and insufficient educational system.

A highly visible problem in recent decades in South Asia is child labour. Many children work either as unskilled or as apprentices in skilled production. While unskilled child labour is because of the problem of poverty and infrastructural bottlenecks in education and employment, apprenticeship is a complex system within which skills and ethical training are imparted and future employment guaranteed. Children working as apprentices in trades such as weaving and pottery work in domestic settings and are not neglected or abused though they certainly are not given the separate spaces, resources and consumer goods taken as normative in the West (p. 7–8).

Behera points out that child labour is both the cause and consequence of poverty. She, however, acknowledges the role of cultural norms in the prevalence of child labour.

Tradition and culture also play a role, and perceptions of the nature of childhood and the role and responsibilities of children towards their elders and siblings often decide whether a child is sent to school or into labour. In some societies, this is especially true for girl children (p. 8).

At the same time, other researchers suggest that all work is not harmful to children, and that removing children from work may not be in their best interest. For example, Marcus (1998) argues that the international focus on child labour issue rests on the northern and international trade-focused agenda and on erroneous assumptions regarding the nature of children's employment. While describing socially responsible actions towards working children, he suggests:

Responsible action must be based on an analysis of how the 'best interests' of working children can be promoted. Working should not be assumed to be against children's best interests. These can only be identified with reference to local circumstances, and to current and possible future options for children and families. Thus action that safeguards children's or family income, facilitates their access to education and does not endanger their health, even where this means that they remain in work, is usually more responsible than simply removing them from work without putting alternatives in place. Only where children face extreme hazard and exploitation should they be removed from the workplace instantly (p. 11).

Conclusion

Mostly children from poor households go into child labour, but not all poor parents send their children into labour. Sometimes, relatively well-off parents also send their children to

work or assist in family business or agricultural activities. Therefore, it appears that only the economic perspective is insufficient to fully grasp the full scope of child labour, and the interplay of cultural and economic perspectives better describes this phenomenon and its continued existence in different parts of the world.

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Audience Perception of Sensationalism in Programmes of Pakistani Private News Channels

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This study aimed at documenting sensationalism in news and current affairs programmes of six leading Pakistani private news channels, identified as Geo TV, Dunya News, Express TV, Aaj TV, ARY News and Samaa News. Three independent variables of 'dramatic subject', 'breaking news' and 'soft news' were used to measure the frequency of sensationalism in news and current affairs programmes of these channels. The population of the study comprised urban and rural residents of Pakistan's capital city Islamabad with access to cable television. Data were collected through a questionnaire from 310 respondents aged above 25 who regularly followed news and current affairs programmes on these channels. The results show that Geo TV has the highest viewership, but at the same time it is also considered to be the most sensational channel. The results further indicate that a reasonable portion of news bulletins consists of soft news; and that private news channels often sensitize issues related to politics, crime, terrorism, showbiz, entertainment, sports, etc., by faking routine news events as breaking news.

Keywords: mass media; breaking news; soft news; sensationalism; viewership

Over the past decade or so, both news critics and scholars have argued that market-driven journalism progressively urges news producers and owners to capture the attention of the viewers (Hendriks Vettehen, Nuijten, & Peeters; 2006). The selection of news stories becomes even more crucial when a news team gives priority to *soft news* over *hard news*, by sidelining straight news to attend the advertisers.

According to Patterson (2000), any news that meets three criteria is *soft news*: (1) no clear connection with policy issues; (2) sensational, human-interest related or incidence-based (such as a disaster or crime); and (3) more personal, subjective and less institutional. According to McQuail (2005), 'sensationalism' is the use of exciting and even shocking stories,

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graphics or language at the expense of accuracy to generate heightened interest and excitement. A more recent phenomenon in television news is that of *breaking news*, *news alert* or *exclusive*. Miller (2006) defines 'breaking news' as an unexpected important event.

The Study

This study used three independent variables of *dramatic subject*, *breaking news* and *soft news* to measure the frequency of sensationalism in news and current affairs programmes of six leading Pakistani private news channels, identified as Geo TV, Dunya News, Express TV, Aaj TV, ARY News and Samaa News. All these are Urdu-language channels since Pakistan currently does not have even a single English-language channel. The research questions for the study have been given in the following:

1. How do the audiences perceive sensationalism in news and current affairs programmes of Pakistani private news channels?
2. Does credibility bear an association with sensationalism?
3. Which Pakistani private news channel is rated as the most credible by the audiences?

The data were collected from urban and rural residents of Pakistan's capital city Islamabad through a questionnaire (*Appendix 1*). The study sample comprised 310 respondents representing different strata of the society who regularly followed news and current affairs programmes on the six leading Pakistani private news channels chosen for this study. All of them were aged above 25, in line with the age of most Pakistani private news channels. The study attempted to investigate the relationship between the three independent variables – *dramatic subject*, *breaking news* and *soft news* – and the dependent variable of *sensationalism*. To understand the phenomenon, the data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

The study is important for Pakistani private news channels, especially in the current context of their unprecedented freedom. It provides information about their preferences and priorities while covering, selecting and presenting different news items. It may also help in developing a paradigm for presenting effective and useful news and current affairs programmes according to informational needs of the audiences. The results of the study cannot be generalized for the whole population of Pakistan because of the limitations of the sample, which comprises residents of only one city.

Literature Review

The term 'sensationalism' is commonly used in reference to the mass media. Critics of media bias of all political stripes often charge the media with engaging in sensationalism in their reporting and conduct (Demers, 2005). "Media outlets often bias their editorial focus to report heavily on stories with shock value or attention-grabbing names or events, rather than reporting objectively on more significant and relevant topics to the general public. Stories are glorified so frequently on the news that it becomes difficult to differentiate between reality and entertainment; most often, the entertainment quotient is higher than the information value (Krishnan, 2008).

Pakistani private news channels generally give more attention to family conflicts,

domestic violence and riots. For example, the media, particularly electronic media, gave out-of-proportion coverage to the marriage of Pakistani cricketer Shoaib Malik and Indian tennis star Sania Mirza, as if it had a serious impact on the life of common Pakistan. Ahmad (2009) discusses this trend and the reasons behind it in Pakistan chapter of the *Asia Media Report*:

Commercial interests dominated during the period 2006-08. Events sponsored by big business companies – the major sources of revenue – got excessive coverage. For example, events like the Lux Style Awards or Rafi Peer festivals received disproportionate coverage, while many newsworthy items failed to make it to the headlines (p. 42)

The private channels focus on excitement and drama in even their news programmes, but at the cost of the core function of journalism. In their quest for better ratings and more advertisements, these channels completely ignore the investigative and informative aspect of journalism, which is essential to build the nation's opinion on important issues. McManus, in his market theory of news production, provides insights into the causes of this unhealthy trend in the media (Kleemans & Hendriks Vettehen, 2009):

According to McManus, newsmakers are confronted with conflicting norms in their daily work. On the one hand, their task is to serve the public by informing them about significant events in accordance with traditional norms of proper journalism. However, on the other hand, newsmakers only maintain their advertising revenues in case their newscasts are watched by a considerable proportion of the population. Thus, market-driven journalism increases the need for news programmes that attract viewers' attention. Moreover, news programmes have been confronted with a media environment that has grown much more competitive over the past (few) decades (p. 233).

The private news channels prefer to download stories from Internet to fill the slot and keep the audiences busy regardless of the importance and utility of the information. The presentation of soft news in a huge quantum is a common practice on these channels. According to Ashraf (2008), lack of organizational checks, not to mention encouragement, has seen news not only being dramatized but also created with ingredients being added to stimulate public interest.

The ethics demands some kind of responsible attitude while giving information to the viewers because their vast majority trusts the news blindly. The actual ethical practices come down to the person in charge. Choosing to not air scandalous photos that may hurt someone's family is an ethical move. Some would argue that television news programmes have started to sensationalize stories as well, at the cost of their ethics at times. However, it all comes down to one important thing – the public wants all the sordid details; and whether it comes from a tabloid journalist or a television journalist, the demand will be met.

Usually, Pakistani private news channels give hype to less important issues under the garb of breaking news. For example, a leading private news channel gave breaking news that (twice former prime minister) 'Nawaz Sharif gets his boarding pass!' Similarly, live coverage was given to Chief Justice of Pakistan Iftikhar Muhammad Chaudhry while he was attending a

wedding ceremony. Apparently, the private news channels are keen on highlighting social problems, instead of suggesting their solutions; and journalists are keen on giving their point of view in commentary on news events, instead of reporting objectively on issues in a manner that does not undermine facts.

Findings

The results show that 35.8% of the respondents watch Geo TV, followed by Dunya News with 21%; however, at the same time, the majority (51.6%) of them consider Geo TV to be the most sensational news channel (*Table 1*). Therefore, a significant positive relationship exists between frequency of a channel's viewership and audience perception of sensationalism in its programmes.

Table 1
Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Most Watched and Most Sensationalism News Channel

Channel	Most Watched News Channel		Most Sensational News Channel	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Geo TV	111	35.8	160	51.6
Dunya News	65	21.0	28	9.0
Express TV	40	12.9	20	6.5
Aaj TV	12	3.9	00	00
ARY News	62	20.0	84	27.1
Samaa News	20	6.5	18	58
Total	310	100.0	310	100.0

Two-thirds (75%) of the respondents believe that the private channels often sensationalize news events; while 46% strongly agree that they present news in a shocking way, thus a positive relationship exists between audience perception of sensationalism in a channel's programmes and presentation of news in a shocking way. Also, 58% of the respondents consider Geo TV to be a genuine news-breaking channel, while 57% of them agree that the private channels use breaking news to create hype among the audiences, thus a positive relationship exists between frequency of a channel's breaking news and audience perception of sensationalism in its programmes.

The results show that 42.6% of the respondents watch the political segment of news and current affairs programmes with most interest (*Table 2*). The same respondents also observe more sensationalism in programmes of the private channels, thus a positive relationship exists between frequency of a channel's political news and perception of sensationalism in its programmes.

Table 2
Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Most Watched Programmes

Nature of Programme	Frequency	Percent
Political	132	42.6
Crime	25	8.1
Economic	34	11.0
Entertainment	60	19.4
Religious	23	7.4
Educational	36	11.6
Total	310	100.0

The results indicate that 56% of the respondents consider Geo TV to be the most biased channel in terms of tone, language and presentation of its news and current affairs programmes, followed by Express TV with just 31%; thus a positive relationship exists between frequency of a channel's viewership and bias in its news and current affairs programmes. The results further show that while Geo TV is rated as the most-watched channel by 35.8% of the respondents, only 22.9% of them consider it as the most credible channel (*Table 3*). In comparison, Dunya News is considered to be the most credible channel by 31% of the respondents, though it is rated as the most-watched channel by only 21% of them, thus a negative relationship exists between frequency of a channel's viewership and its credibility.

Table 3
Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Most Watched and Most Credible News Channel

Channel	Most Watched News Channel		Most Credible News Channel	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Geo TV	111	35.8	71	22.9
Dunya News	65	21.0	96	31.0
Express TV	40	12.9	43	14.9
Aaj TV	12	3.9	15	4.8
ARY News	62	20.0	57	18.4
Samaa News	20	6.5	20	6.5
Total	310	310	302	100.0

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of the study indicate that the three independent variables of *dramatic subject*, *soft news* and *breaking news* have a substantial role in sensationalizing news and current affairs programmes of Pakistani private channels. The results further indicate that the dependent variable of *sensationalism* has a significant impact in motivating the audiences to view some programme, since the entertainment segment of news and current affairs programmes was the second most-watched after the political segment.

The results show that Geo TV, which has the highest viewership, is the most sensational channel at the same time, thus a significant positive relationship exists between

frequency of a channel's viewership and audience perception of sensationalism in its programmes. Similarly, a significant positive association exists between audience perception of sensationalism in a channel's programmes and its frequency of breaking news. However, according to the results, a negative relationship exists between frequency of a channel's viewership and its credibility. To give the devil its due, the increasing sensationalism in news and current affairs programmes of the private channels is linked with the challenge of maintaining audiences and finding new ones.

Study results show that while the respondents rate Geo TV and Express TV as genuine news-breaking channels, they also consider them to be most biased ones in tone, language and presentation of their news and current affairs programmes. Most important, the respondents view breaking news on the private channels merely as an attempt to create hype among the audiences to hold their attention. The results further show that the respondents not only rate Dunya News as the most credible channel, but also think that it is the least sensational of the leading Pakistani private news channels, thus the study concludes that a negative relationship exists between audience perception of sensationalism in a channel's programmes and its credibility.

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Appendix I: Questionnaire

NOTE: This questionnaire applies to only Pakistani private news channels. Please answer all the questions by circling your choice.

No.	Statement	Reply
1	Which of these channels do you usually watch for getting news?	a. Geo TV b. Dunya News c. Express TV d. Aaj TV e. ARY News f. Samaa News
2	Which segment(s) of the news and current affairs programmes of these channels do you usually watch?	a. Political b. Crime c. Economic d. Entertainment e. Religious f. Educational
3	How often do these channels sensationalize news events?	a. Very often b. Often c. Occasionally d. Never e. Do not know
4	Which of these channels presents the most sensational news?	a. Geo TV b. Dunya News c. Express TV d. Aaj TV e. ARY News f. Samaa News
5	These channels present news stories in a shocking way to generate interest and excitement?	a. Strongly agree b. Agree c. Undecided d. Strongly disagree e. Disagree f. Don't know
6	The tone and gestures of the presenters of news programmes of these channels are sensational?	a. Strongly agree b. Agree c. Undecided d. Strongly disagree e. Disagree f. Don't know

No.	Statement	Reply
7	These channels intentionally present news stories in a juicy and sensational manner?	a.Strongly agree b.Agree c.Undecided d.Strongly disagree e.Disagree f.Don't know
8	Which of the following is a genuine news-breaking channel?	a.Geo TV b.Dunya News c.Express TV d.Aaj TV e.ARY News f.Samaa News
9	How often do these channels use breaking news as a tool to create hype among the audiences?	a.Very often b.Often c.Occasionally d.Never e.Don't know
10	These channels fake routine news events as breaking news?	a.Strongly agree b.Agree c.Undecided d.Strongly disagree e.Disagree f.Don't know
11	Which of these channels is the most biased in terms of language, tone and presentation of its news and current affairs programmes?	a.Geo TV b.Dunya News c.Express TV d.Aaj TV e.ARY News f.Samaa News
12	Which of these news channels is the most credible?	a.Geo TV b.Dunya News c.Express TV d.Aaj TV e.ARY News f.Samaa News

The Contribution of Migration to Socioeconomic Status: A Comparative Study of Migrant and Non-Migrant Families in Gujrat District

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In Pakistan, the trend of international migration is gradually increasing because of unemployment, inflation, political instability, social insecurity, religious prejudice, etc. When people shift to new regions, they bring with them certain reforms from their local regions. These reforms bring about changes in both the social and individual life of their adopted homelands. The most observable of these changes is in the households. The purpose of this study was to analyze whether migration brings about significant changes in the household and whether families that stay behind are compensated. The study results show that the change in social and economic conditions after migration is significant. The socioeconomic status of migrants improves and is better than that of non-migrants. They are better off than non-migrants in the sense that they have access to luxuries; they have their own residences, property, conveyance etc. There is also a huge difference between the monthly income of migrants and non-migrants.

Keywords: migration,

Migration means movement of an individual from one place to another in search of fulfilment of those desires that seem unfeasible in homeland. Migration is a constant history of humans since the beginning of this world. Their natural curiosity made them travel around the world in search of new ideas and means for survival. They developed towns, cities, languages, customs and traditions; and then emerged different civilizations. In today's world, these civilizations have become developed and underdeveloped countries, with the former having more resources and much better social and economic conditions than the latter.

People normally move to the region or country where they expect to realize their

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dreams. A 'migrant' can be defined as a person who leaves his native land to settle in a country or cultural community that is initially strange to him. Human migration is not a new phenomenon. People leave their native lands when they fail to see their dreams of a happy life coming true, and their expectations to provide a standard life to their upcoming generation in a society are far away from their reach because of poor developments in the nation state. Certain forces compel them to move to other places where they can spend their lives in a much better way.

Several factors compel a person to take the decision to migrate, whether within the country or to some new country. However, more often than not, the decision to migrate to a new country is influenced by push and pull factors. Push factors cause someone to move away, while pull factors attract people to a new area. People leave an area because of push factors (*negative*), while they are drawn to an area due to pull factors (*positive*). Cast, religion, language, education and economic status are some of the other factors that influence an individual's or family's decision to migrate.

The determinants of out migration and its impact, both on sending and receiving areas, have been the subject of endless debate in related literature. In Pakistan's city of Gujrat, indisputable economic progress has been accompanied by environmental concerns such as overcrowding, joblessness and poverty. This region of Punjab is basically an industrial area where fan industries and clay pottery factories are the main sources of employment where less educated or even illiterate workers are employed at low rates.

Most of the inhabitants run their own business and are much better than those employed in the factories. There is very less room for the educated person's employment according to their high ability levels. Also skilled persons are not paid according to their expertise. The day by day increasing inflation rates do not allow people to stand with these pillars at any charge, they find more healthier and safer ways to spend a quality living.

The family is the crucial agent of an individual's motivation to migrate. Family system, structure and complexities force an individual to take step for his family, so that they can actively participate in their native society. A perspective of migration can be an investment one. To provide better living standards to families back in home, they often risk their lives. They also assume the costs of their own maintenance until they find work, and perhaps even those of the family they left behind, plus the costs of depriving their family.

The high rate unemployment (9%), food inflation (10%) and nearly one third of the population below the poverty line, forced the workers to migrate abroad. In the decade of 1980s, majority of economic workers migrated to the Middle East. Migration of Pakistani workers to the Middle East was unique in many ways. Firstly, the primary migrants were young males who sent a bulk of the earnings to their families in Pakistan. Secondly, the migrants were unskilled workers from the low-income households which enabled their families to set up small businesses, acquire real estate and make substantial improvements in their standard of living. Increase in remittance to Pakistan in recent years is in line with the international trends.

Pakistan registered the third highest growth (19.6 percent) in remittances during 2006 and highest growth (19.1 percent) in 2007 among the top fifteen countries. As a result, Pakistan has become world's 12th largest remittances recipient country during 2007 from 17th in 2005. In the year 2008, worker's remittances registered a commendable growth during Jul, Apr FY08, growing by 19.5 percent on top of 22.7 percent growth in the corresponding period of last year.

Importance of the Study

Migration is one of the most important phenomena affecting the economic and social composition of a country. Attention is currently focused on the effects of migration on the families that are left back in the native lands. 'Out migration' can bring about important changes in the social structure of a nation, thus migration selectivity deserves a central focus in studies concerned with the impact of migration, both in the areas of destination and the areas of origin (Lewis, 1982).

The sociological significance of migration, apart from its numerical aspect, lies in the impact and social consequences that migration has on: a) the instability of community life and (b) the insufficiency of social institutions to cope with the changing social needs and untouched characteristics of residential population. Explanations of the consequences of migration, the adjustment brought by the migration that were not possible for the native people and its impact on the family back at home are the central problems of this research. The motivation underlying this research is that migrants can produce diverse, exclusive and common effects and also different institutional adjustments under varying social and economic conditions. In the light of aforesaid discussion, the focus of this study is Gujrat District.

Literature Review

Choi (1983) examined the impact of migration experience on the socioeconomic status of urban and rural migrants using data from a 1978 sample survey of men in three rural towns in the Gyeongsangbugdo province of Korea. 285 return migrants, 270 migrants from other areas and 300 natives were interviewed. The mean age of return migrants from Seoul was 34.6, of return migrants from the provincial capital of Daegu 39.0 and of other migrants 40.7; and of natives 43.5. Levels of education of the fathers of the men in all the four groups were generally low, but higher for those experiencing migration.

Educational level was highest for return migrants from Seoul and lowest for the natives. The majority of the fathers of sample members were farmers. More fathers of migrants than of natives were clerical and sales workers. Nearly one-third of fathers of return migrants from Seoul had white collar jobs, compared with 14.6% and 20.8% of fathers of return migrants from Daegu and other migrants, and 6.9% of fathers of natives. A comparison of education, occupation, personal income and possession of consumer objects among the four groups by analysis of variance techniques, controlling for father's education and occupation and current age of respondents, shows that return migrants' socioeconomic status was much higher than that of natives.

A multiple regression analysis of 13 variables showed that the differences were partly due to the initially high socioeconomic status of urban migrants when they migrated and partly to their migration experiences in the urban area. 41% of the variation in socioeconomic status among return migrants was explained by attaining at least a high school education in the city. Mass media contact in the city explained 12%, occupation and industry in which migrants were engaged in the city explained 4.4% and 3.8% respectively, and bringing back some cash explained 3.4%. Altogether the 13 independent variables accounted for 65.6% of the variation in socioeconomic status of return migrants, and the whole equation was statistically significant at the .01 level.

Abbasi and Irfan (1986) found in their study that about 1.6 million workers migrated

from Pakistan to the Middle East in the 1970s. Most were young, married males, and most left their families behind. This paper investigated the effects of out-migration of a family member on the household members left behind. Female employment rates were lower in remittance-receiving households, as was female unpaid family help in rural areas and low-wage employment in urban areas. More children went to school in remittance-receiving households, although though this does not guarantee a higher eventual educational level.

The families of Middle East migrants in rural areas reported a higher work load than do the families of rural-urban migrants. The families of Middle East migrants had increased spending power; however, a major part of the remittances was used for consumption. Investments were made predominantly in housing. Some clinical evidence suggested that some females suffered from psychological disorders and that delinquency has increased among the children of some migrants. Emigration has both positive and negative effects on the families left behind.

Pekin (1989) examined in his paper the situation and problems of migration on family structure, with emphasis on family reunification. The study was based on conditions and practices in Western Europe and Mediterranean countries relating to temporary labour migration. Most migrant workers had no intention of settling permanently and return to their country within a few years. The International Labour Office estimated in 1974 that at least 1/2 the migrant workers in Western Europe live without their families. Parnwell (1993) concluded that the remittances were used for daily expenses such as food, clothing and health related issues. They constitute a significant part of the household's income.

Wilson (2001) revealed the findings from his study that black southern-born migrants to the north exhibit greater family stability than northern natives do. However, this "migrant advantage" remains to be explained. Using data from the Integrated Public Use Micro data Series, this study investigated the extent to which it can be explained by selective migration. Findings revealed that migrants of all kinds, regardless of their origins or destinations, were more family-stable than were non migrants. Furthermore, selective migration of this sort explained much of the southern migrants' advantage with respect to family stability.

Farooq (2005) designed this study to investigate the impact of migration on the family and individuals at rural and urban areas. The study deals with many of the fundamental aspects of migration including determinants and consequences of migration, migrant's demographic and socio-economic status, interrelationships of migrants and family left behind at origin. The main objective of this study was to explore the relationship about the socio economic status, health care, parent's attitude towards children's education, parent's opinion about the children's marriage and the political participation before and after migration using the t-test.

The data was collected during the year 2002 and 2003 to examine the impact of migration on the individuals and households in the rural and urban areas of Pakistan. The study was carried out in the two research fields i.e. Faisalabad city and its four tehsils. The survey was based on the sample of 300 households. The probit analysis technique was used for the cross sectional data to examine the impact of migration towards the improvement of individuals and families in Pakistan. The results that were obtained from the probit model analysis revealed that the migrants had been significantly able to improve the socio economic status of the households, whether they are settled in rural or urban areas of Pakistan.

Ahmad, et al. (2008) revealed in their study that income inequalities and poverty were the main causes of international migration. The Pakistani workers were found in several

countries of the world. Nearly half a million economic workers are working overseas, mostly in Middle Eastern countries because of oil boom. The outflow of workers varied in the year 1973 through 2005. The fluctuation behavior of international migration in Pakistan was mainly attributed to the economic conditions of home as well as the host countries.

Pakistan is an over-populous country faced with unemployment, miserable poverty and inflation. The unemployment rate in the country is about 9 percent, nearly one third of the population lives below poverty line which is further made worse with 10-12 percent food inflation. In the early 1970s, lots of unskilled workers left the country to Middle Eastern countries. There was hardly any study which documented the determinants of migration in Pakistan.

This study investigated the determinants of international migration in Pakistan. The time series data were analyzed to identify the determinants of migration. The stationary properties of each time series used in the study were tested and each was found to be integrated of order one. Therefore, Co integration and vector error correction models were used to establish the long run and short run relationship among the parameters of the determinants.

The analysis revealed that the migration from Pakistan was found positively related with inflation and unemployment rate in the country and was negatively related with real wage rate. Thus inflation, unemployment and declining wage rate were the push factors for international migration from Pakistan. Moreover, the findings of the research paper showed that the international migration was also influenced by the inflow of the remittances positively. The size and amount of remittances was mainly dependent upon the economic conditions of the host country. Therefore, the inflow of remittances was safely considered as the pull factor of international migration from the country.

Objectives of the Study

The study aims to highlight the procedure of migration and the impact of migration on the rural and urban areas and the families that are left back in the native land by the migrants. The main focus is made on the socio-economic development of the household due to the migration process. The study also intends to bring to light the role of migration for the rural and urban development with the following objectives:

1. To examine the effect of migration on the families at origin.
2. To compare the migration effects on rural and urban areas.
3. To analyze the difference between the migrant's and non migrant's family status.

Adding up to these main objectives, the study has tried to finger out slightly the social, health and economic effects of migration on families in the origin, on family infrastructure and an attempt has also been made to check whether the families are happy without the person who has been living in an odd state only for the wellbeing of the family or not.

Data and Methodology

Population and Sample Size

Gujrat is a prehistoric district of Pakistan situated between the Jhelum and Chenab rivers. According to 1998 Population and Housing Census, the total population of Gujrat District was

2,048,000, including 1,026,000 men and 1,022,000 women. The population density of the district is 642 people per square kilometre. Percentage break-up of the rural and urban population is 72.3% and 27.7%, respectively. According to *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, Punjab 2007-08*, there are a total of 2,369 households in Gujrat District, of which 576 or 24.3% of the total households are receiving remittances from abroad. A sample of 100 respondents was drawn for this study and questionnaire was used to extract the required information from the respondents.

Data and Sampling Procedure

Primary data were collected for the study. The convenient sampling technique was used for the collection of information from the respondents. The study was designed as a case-control study to compare migrant's left back families with those of the non-migrants. The families of migrants were taken as the cases, while those of non-migrants as controls. Half of the total sample was selected to observe the impacts of rural and urban out-migration on the families that are left back here by the heads of the families. The required information was collected only from the families of migrants. Furthermore, all the respondents were mature family members well familiar with the household state of affairs. To get the required information from the respondents, a well designed questionnaire was structured consisting of both qualitative and quantitative questions

Data Analysis, Model and Methodology

The data were analyzed using many statistical methods, including paired t-test, independent sample t-test and probit analysis. The empirical analysis employs the non-linear maximum likelihood probit estimate technique for the migration and its impact equation

$$IM_i = \alpha + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + e_i$$

Where

$IM_i = 1$ if migration's impact is development, otherwise zero.

X_j is a set j^{th} explanatory variables, where $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

Probit Analysis.

Predictor variables for the model come from the household structure that is, education of the migrant, current age of the migrant, duration of migration, per month remittance received by the family, total family members in the household at origin and social family status after the migration are used in this model. All these variables are found helpful in predicting the socio-economic status of the migrant's families.

The Pearson goodness of fit is used to test the null hypothesis that our model adequately fits the data and the Parallelism test is used to check whether the assumption of equal slopes across the factor levels is reasonable. Here the values of both, the Pearson goodness of fit and Parallelism test with the displayed degree of freedom, are greater than the chosen alpha level i.e. 0.05. So we can say that our model is adequately fit for the data and data

does not violate the model assumptions. The results are presented in the table below:

CHI-SQUARE TESTS			
	S	df	Sig.
Pearson Goodness-of-Fit Test	12.469	40	1.000
Parallelism Test	1.321	1	.250

The estimate of the Probit model revealed from data has shown that 72 percent of the migrants have improved their socio-economic status after migration. This migration's impact is specified as the dependent variable having value one and zero otherwise. The estimates of the parameters of variables used in the model are given in the following table:

Parameter		Estimate	Std. Error
Current age of the migrant.		-.346	.525
Education.		.099	.180
Received remittance/month.		.303	.238
Total family members.		.060	.256
Family status after migration.		-.090	.660
Duration of migration.		.245	.232
Intercept	Rural	-4.679	2.570
	Urban	-4.784	2.684

The estimating probit model is specified as below:

$$\text{IMD} = b_0 + b_1 (\text{Age}) + b_2 (\text{Education}) + b_3 (\text{Remittance}) + b_4 (\text{Family Size}) + b_5 (\text{Status}) + b_6 (\text{Duration}).$$

The estimated model for migrants belonging to urban area is;

$$\text{IMD} = -4.784 - .346 (\text{Age}) + .099 (\text{Education}) + .303 (\text{Remittance}) + .060 (\text{Family Size}) - .090 (\text{Status}) + .245 (\text{Duration}).$$

And the estimated model for migrants belonging to urban area is;

$$\text{IMD} = -4.679 - .346 (\text{Age}) + .099 (\text{Education}) + .303 (\text{Remittance}) + .060 (\text{Family Size}) - .090 (\text{Status}) + .245 (\text{Duration}).$$

Paired t-test

Social (wedding ceremonies, funeral expenditures and get to gathers) and economic variables have been taken in table in order to check the impact of migration. The social and economic variables are reflecting the present situation and permit the comparison of before and after migration.

		Mean Before Migration	Mean After Migration	P-Value
Social events	Wedding ceremonies	2.96	4.00	0.000
	Funerals	3.22	4.18	0.000
	Get to gathers	2.52	3.62	0.000
Economic activities	Inflation	2.68	3.84	0.000

The table above is explained by the non-parametric test 'Wilcoxon Sign Rank test' (paired sample t-test) with means in order to understand the present condition of the migrant's families. The calculated p-values for all variables are less than 0.01 and 0.05; the conclusion is that the mean difference between the paired observations is significantly different from zero in statistical terms. The mean of expenditure raised on wedding ceremonies before migration is 2.96 and it was raised to 4.00 after migration, statistically the difference is highly significant with the p-value: 0.000.

The mean of funeral expenditure affordability before migration was 3.22 and after migration this figure raised up to 4.18 with the p-value of 0.000 indicating that after migration the families are more able to bear these expenditures. The p-value for the social event of get to gathers has the significant value of 0.000 with the raised mean of 3.62 from 2.52. The mean for before migration economic factor like inflation is 2.68 and it increased to 3.84 after migration with the p-value of 0.000, presenting that after migration people are able to compete the rising inflation to some extent as compared to before migration.

Independent sample t-test

The socio-economic status of both, the migrant's and non migrant' families, is measured to check whether there is any significant difference among both of these groups or not. In order to carry out this task Mann-Witney U test is used which is a non parametric test along with the means of both groups to understand the difference more precisely.

		Mean of Migrant's Families	Mean of Non Migrant's Families	P-Value
Socio-economic status		6.2400	4.8400	0.000
Present Conditions	Health	10.700	10.540	0.724
	Social	11.800	8.880	0.000
	Economic	3.84	2.48	0.000

The results presented in table above showed that the mean of migrant families' current socio-economic status is 6.2400 where as the non migrant families' current socio-economic status mean is quite low in comparison of migrants and this difference is statistically significant with the p-value of 0.000. According to these results it is statistically proved that migration has contributed to the socio-economic status development of those families whom family members are employed in abroad and the native families can not reach to the level of socioeconomic status of the migrant ones.

It also suggested that the health conditions of both groups are approximately same i.e. the mean for migrant families health is 10.70 where as that of non migrants is 10.54 and the difference is rejected with the p-value of 0.724. The mean value for social and economic condition for migrants is 11.800 and 3.84 and that for the non migrants is 8.880 and 2.48 respectively.

Conclusion

The aim of the study was basically to check out whether the procedure of migration brings significant changes in the household improvement and families that stay behind are compensated by their social and economical establishment. In the light of the results obtained from the study, the final remarks that can be made about the impact of migration are that the change in social and economical conditions; before and after migration and also from the non migrants is significant, the socio-economic status has been improved and is also higher as compared to the non migrants.

They are more facilitated than the non migrants in the sense that they have more access on the luxuries; they have their own residences, property, conveyance etc. There is also a difference between the monthly income of the migrants and non migrants that can be a point of difference between these two groups. The present study has tried to examine the impact of migration on the families at origin using a questionnaire to extract the required information consisting of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Some suggestions and recommendations that are necessary to be presented here for further research in this area are:

It is recommended that different analysis and models should be used for the same type of study if the purpose is comparison between the results. Impacts on specific household characteristics can be made except to measure the socio-economic status and can also be compared with the natives. Migration's effect on higher education of the young ones and their careers can also be found out. Does the migration change the attitudes of families and individuals towards religious and cultural beliefs can be an important one.

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Demise of Objectivity in the Pakistani Press

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This paper aims at determining how objective is the Pakistani press. In this context, it analyzes the attitude of the Pakistani press towards civil society, particularly non-governmental organizations that have experienced mushroom growth in the country since the end of the Cold War in the 1980s. Stopping direct funding to dictatorial regimes in Pakistan, the developed countries started giving a major chunk of funds to these NGOs to carry out development work, capacity building and human rights advocacy. The traditional actors in Pakistan's powerful establishment have usually not taken a favourable view of NGOs' work in these areas. Pakistani newspapers, especially vernacular, working under government patronage and owners' economics interests, have often negatively framed these NGOs. The article examines the newspapers coverage of NGOs in 2005, when General Pervez Musharraf, who used enlightened moderation as a catchy slogan to impress the West, pretended to be backing the NGO sector to defeat extremism in the country.

Keywords: press; mass media; civil society; NGOs; objectivity

The press can play a crucial role in strengthening democracy and giving a voice to civil society, with positive effects on democracy in the country. Liberal theorists from Milton through Locke to Mill have argued that a free and independent press can play a vital role in democratizing a country (Norris, 2004). From the national development perspective, mass media researchers such as Schramm and Lerner have argued in favour of the media's role in national development (Sarvaes, 2008). From the political communication perspective, the media are supposed to provide the public sphere for a free exchange of ideas to promote democracy (McQuail, 2005).

Since the 15th century, according to Folkerts and Lacy (2005), the press has gradually led to the democratization of society. The development of modern democracy is largely due to the role of the press in informing, educating and building the public opinion in favour of the attributes of a democratic culture. The mass circulation newspapers in the mid-1800s became the single source of daily dialogue about political, cultural and social studies (Biagi, 2005).

According to Kellner (1998), this enhanced the power of the press in society, mainly

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since it became a site for battles for the control of society. It can be understood in this context that for the press to function in such a way as to strengthen democracy, it should be provided with freedom; and this freedom is only available in democratic societies. "Press freedom provides the oxygen in a climate of a healthy democracy (Shamsi, 2006, p. 49)."

This role of the press is even more crucial in a struggling democracy like Pakistan. The Pakistan Movement was based on its founder Muhammad Ali Jinnah's political and constitutional efforts, which were fully supported by the Muslim press. In the mid-1940s, English dailies *Dawn* and *Morning News*, and Urdu daily *Nawa-i-Waqt* and other newspapers played a notable role in the Pakistan Movement (Hassan, 2006).

Against this backdrop, it was not unrealistic to expect that the post-independence press in Pakistan would help strengthen democracy. The general expectation was that, instead of adopting an agenda-following role under pressure from the country's authoritarian setups, the press would promote an agenda based on the values of civil society.

According to Shamsi (2006), since the press and democracy are interlinked, having both a free press and a democratic government is possible. However, the fact remains that the press has to wage a struggle to earn its freedom. Historically, at the global level, the winning of press freedom is at least partly attributed to a heroic struggle against the state (Curran & Seaton, 2003). So when the press faces pressures, its role in promoting democracy and providing a platform to all sections of society is compromised.

In Pakistan, this has happened even during the regime of General Pervez Musharraf, who propounded the virtues of enlightened moderation and democracy to augment his importance in the eyes of the West after 9/11. Musharraf did provide limited space to the electronic media, but was equally repressive in his treatment of the same. When the tragic incidents of the rape of Dr. Shazia and Mukhtaran Mai surfaced, he dismissed them as mere rumours.

The general's dislike for the media became even more pronounced when journalists fully backed the lawyers' movement for the restoration of Chief Justice Iftikhar Muhammad Chaudhry. He attacked civil society, especially NGOs, which had ironically backed him when he had assumed power in 1999 after toppling the elected government of Nawaz Sharif. Dependent on government advertisements and often succumbing to pressure, the Pakistan press, too, showed its inherent bias against these NGOs, making things complicated for civil society in general and NGOs in particular.

The paper makes an attempt to analyze the performance of the Pakistani press in relation to civil society in 2005, when General Musharraf had started showing his disdain for the country's civil society. It draws on the agenda setting theory, which proposes that the public agenda – the kind of things people discuss, think and worry about – or public opinion is powerfully shaped and directed by what the news media choose to publicize. This means that if the news media decide to give time and space to an issue, it will become the most important item on the audience's agenda.

Agenda setting research examines the relationship between the priorities of the media and the audience as regards the importance of news topics. In recent years, the most popular subjects in agenda setting research are: (1) how media agenda is set and whether the media follow that agenda; and (2) how the media choose to portray the issues they cover (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). Pakistan press's performance in respect of civil society and NGOs will be evaluated against this backdrop.

Methodology

The research question this paper tries to answer is: "Did Pakistani newspapers negatively portray NGOs in 2005?" Sequential methodology was used. After a simple quantitative content analysis, which yielded data, qualitative analysis of the coverage of NGOs in selected newspapers from January to December 2005 was done, with a view to getting insights into the behaviour of the press. All news stories, articles and editorials on NGOs published in mainstream Pakistani Urdu and English newspapers in 2005 were analyzed. In all, 134 news stories, articles and editorials published were selected and classified as either *supportive* or *non-supportive* of NGOs. The news classified as supportive of NGOs portray them as agents of change, development and democracy; while those as non-supportive portray them as foreign agents, and anti-Pakistan and anti-Islam.

News stories, articles and editorials published in 14 mainstream Urdu and English daily newspapers were analyzed for the study. Four of these – *Daily Times*, *Dawn*, *The Nation* and *The News International* – are English newspapers; while the remaining 10 – *Awaz*, *Din*, *Express*, *Insaf*, *Jang*, *Jinnah*, *Khabrain*, *Nawa-i-Waqt*, *Pakistan* and *Sahafat* – are Urdu newspapers.

Results

In 2005, a total of 134 news stories, articles and editorials stories were published in the selected mainstream Pakistani English and Urdu newspapers; of which, 72 were supportive and 62 were non-supportive of NGOs. Of the 114 news stories on NGOs, 64 were supportive and 50 non-supportive; while of the 17 articles, seven were supportive and 10 non-supportive. Strangely, only three editorials on NGOs were published, one supportive and two non-supportive. The details of the selected news stories, articles and editorials in chronological order have been given in the following:

January 2005

- In this month, four news stories on NGOs were published, of which three were *supportive* and one was *non-supportive*; while no article or editorial on NGOs was published (*Table 1*). The details are as follows:
- 4th: *Daily Times* published a supportive single column news story on back page.
- 7th: *Din* published a supportive double column news story on back page titled "NGOs stage demonstration against the local government ordinance".
- 7th: *The News International* published a non-supportive single column news story on back page titled "NGOs converting Muslims", which reported Jamaatud Daawa chief Hafiz Saeed as saying tall claims by non-Muslim NGOs had no basis because they were using local NGOs as a weapon against Pakistan's sovereignty.
- 15th: *Daily Times* published a supportive double column news story on back page on titled "Religious identity a weapon of mass intolerance", which reported the Commission for Peace and Human Development as saying religious and sectarian identity in official documents was a source of religious intolerance and sectarian violence.

Table 1
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (January 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Daily Times	2	0	2
Din	1	0	1
The News International	0	1	1
Total*	3	1	4

* All news stories

February 2005

- In this month, nine news stories on NGOs were published, of which seven were *supportive* and only two *non-supportive*; while both the articles on NGOs were *non-supportive* (Table 2). No editorial on NGOs was published. The details are as follows:
- 9th: *Dawn* published a supportive double column news story on back page.
- 17th: *Awaz* published a supportive single column news story on back page titled "European Union will give 400,000 Euro funds to Pakistani NGOs".
- 19th: *Dawn* published a non-supportive single column news story on back page.
- 19th: *Jinnah* published a non-supportive three column news story on back page.
- 21st: *Din* published a supportive double column news story on back page.
- 23rd: *Express* published a non-supportive article by Hafiz Abdul Nasir.
- 23rd: *Nawa-i-Waqt* published a supportive single column news story on back page.
- 23rd: *The News International* published a non-supportive article by Amer Malik.
- 26th: *Awaz* published a supportive double column news story on back page titled "Women condemn Dr. Shazia's statement that she is leaving Pakistan", which reported several leading as saying Dr. Shazia's statement was shameful for President General Pervez Musharraf.
- 28th: *Pakistan* published a supportive double column news story on back page titled "Punjab Minister for Religious Affairs and Auqaf Sahibzada Saeed-ul-Hasan says NGO sector can play an important role in the government reform agenda".
- 28th: *The Nation* published a supportive double column news story on back page titled "NGOs role vital in uplift", which reported Punjab Minister for Religious Affairs and Auqaf Sahibzada Saeed-ul-Hasan as saying the NGO sector could play a vital role in the reform agenda.

Table 2
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (February 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Awaz	2	0	2
Dawn	1	1	2
Din	1	0	1
Express	0	1	1
Jinnah	0	1	1
Nawa-i-waqt	1	0	1
Pakistan	1	0	1
The Nation	1	0	1
The News	0	1	1
Total	7	4	11
News Stories	7	2	9
Articles	7	2	2

March 2005

- In this month, 13 news stories on NGOs were published, of which eight were supportive and five non-supportive; while the only article on NGOs was non-supportive (Table 3). No editorial on NGOs was published. The details are as follows:
- 5th: Dawn published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGO woman released after paying ransom”.
- 7th: Pakistan published a non-supportive single column news story on back page.
- 7th: Sahafat published a non-supportive double column news story on back page.
- 7th: The Nation published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “Close liaison between NGOs, government stressed”.
- 7th: The Nation published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “NGOs help sought for social welfare”.
- 8th: Express published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGOs celebrate Women's Day all over Pakistan”, which reported the participants of a women's conference as saying minority women were victimized in Pakistan.
- 9th: Awaz published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGOs celebrate Women's Day all over Pakistan”.
- 9th: Pakistan published a non-supportive article by Allama Siddique Azhar.
- 9th: The News International published a supportive single column news story on back page, which reported Punjab Minister for Population Welfare Nasim Lodhi as saying NGOs should help the government in controlling population growth.
- 14th: Sahafat published a supportive three column news story on back page on “NGOs organize 50-day peace demonstration between Pakistan and India”.
- 16th: Nawa-i-Waqt published a supportive double column news story on back page, which

reported Punjab Minister for Information Technology Aleem Khan as saying Apwa had played an effective role in women's welfare.

- 18th: Pakistan published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported the Punjab minister for jail as saying NGOs should come forward to reform the jail system.
- 19th: Din published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that the Ministry of Social Welfare and Special Education had expressed serious concern over the fact that there was no data on how many NGOs were working in the country neither any registration system for them.
- 30th: Express published a non-supportive single column news story on back page.

Table 2

Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (March 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Awaz	1	0	1
Dawn	0	1	1
Din	0	1	1
Express	1	1	2
Nawa-i-waqt	1	0	1
Pakistan	1	2	3
Shafat	1	1	2
The Nation	2	0	2
The News International	1	0	1
Total	8	6	14
News Stories	8	5	13
Articles	0	1	1

April 2005

- In this month, no news story, article or editorial on NGOs was published.

May 2005

- In this month, six news stories on NGOs were published, of which three were supportive and three non-supportive; while no article or editorial on NGOs was published (Table 4). The details are as follows:
- 5th: Express published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported Pakistan Social Forum member Nasir Iqbal as saying if religious organizations tried to stop their marathon, then they would seriously respond.
- 5th: Express published a supportive single column news story on back page.
- 19th: Daily Times published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled "Effort underway to compile NGO data, Zubaida tells National Assembly", which reported that dormant NGOs would be removed from the government list.

- 23rd: Daily Times published a supportive four column news story titled “Oxfam fights honour killing business in Balochistan”, which reported that Oxfam had launched a campaign to fight the increasingly common practice of honour killings in Balochistan.
- 25th: Din published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “Government decides to legalize NGO accounts and monitor their activities and bank transitions”, which reported that a legal framework was ready for NGOs.
- 25th: Express published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “Security guard killed in NGO office in Garden Town, Lahore”.

Table 4
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (May 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Daily Times	1	1	2
Din	0	1	1
Express	2	1	3
Total*	3	3	6

* All news stories

June 2005

- In this month, 23 news stories on NGOs were published, of which nine were supportive and 14 non-supportive; while of the four articles on NGOs, two were supportive and two non-supportive (Table 5). One editorial on NGOs was published and it was supportive. The details are as follows:
- 8th: Nawa-i-Waqt published a supportive double column news story on back page.
- 11th: Awaz published a supportive single column news story on back page.
- 14th: Din published a non-supportive three column news story on front page, which reported Minister for Social Welfare and Special Education Zubaida Jalal as saying a legal framework should be immediately prepared for dummy and inactive NGOs.
- 14th: Insaf published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported one Dr. Kausar as saying NGOs were detracting the youth by promoting vulgarity and Western values among them.
- 14th: Nawa-i-Waqt published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “Amnesty holds America responsible for encouraging terrorists”.
- 17th: Daily Times published a supportive three column news story on front page titled “NGOs threaten to abandon government”, which reported that NGOs had given a 48-hour deadline to the government for directing State Minister for Interior Dr. Shahzad Wasim to tender an apology for passing derogatory remarks against NGOs in the Senate.
- 17th: Express published a supportive story double news column on back page titled “More than 15 NGOs stage protest”, which reported that NGOs staged a protest against State Minister for Interior Dr. Shahzad Wasim's remarks against NGOs.
- 17th: Insaf published a non-supportive single column news story on back page, which

reported the Multan union administrator as saying women should not be lured by NGO statements.

- 18th: Jinnah published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported Samia Raheel of the Jamaat-e-Islami as saying NGOs were highlighting the Mukhtaran Mai case to make money.
- 18th: Jinnah published a non-supportive single column news story on back page, which reported the federal minister for education as saying said NGOs had to obtain permission to conduct a survey of teachers and students.
- 18th: The News International published a non-supportive three column news story titled “Human Rights Watch faults Dhaka for religious bias.”
- 18th: The News International published a non-supportive single column news story titled “NGO blacklisted for obscene questionnaire”, which reported that the Ministry of Social Welfare and Special Education had blacklisted an NGO for distributing an obscene questionnaire in schools.
- 21st: Daily Times published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “Safma honours Indian Newspapers Society delegation”.
- 22nd: Daily Times published a supportive editorial titled “Obscene questionnaire or image problem again”, which said the Ministry of Social Welfare and Special Education had blacklisted Rozan, an NGO, for allegedly distributing an obscene questionnaire in schools and ordered it to immediately abandon its projects. The editorial questioned the ministry's decision.
- 22nd: Daily Times published a supportive article by Razi Azmi titled “Soft image suicide”, which said the NGOs in Pakistan were operating in a vacuum left by the state in all sectors – education, health, population control and the environment – and if the government had properly done its jobs over the past 50 years, NGOs would have had no need to step in.
- 22nd: Jang published a non-supportive five column news story on front page titled “Prime Minister Shaukat Aziz says NGOs should be brought into a legal framework”.
- 22nd: The News International published a non-supportive article by Shireen Mazari.
- 22nd: The News International published a supportive article by Shakir Husain.
- 23rd: Jang published a supportive double column news story on front page titled “NGOs condemn prime minister's statement that government would bring them into a legal framework”.
- 23rd: Nawa-i-Waqt published a non-supportive article by Sajjad Meer.
- 24th: Dawn published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGO office premises declared commercial”, which reported that the Peshawar High Court had ruled that places rented out to NGOs should be treated as commercial units for the levy of property tax.
- 24th: Jinnah published a non-supportive single column news story titled “Government decides to monitor NGOs' activities and progress in schools”.
- 24th: Nawa-i-Waqt published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “Pro-Mukhtaran Mai women stage demonstration in New York”.

- 25th: Insaf published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “Many fake NGOs working for prisoner’s welfare”, which reported that these NGOs only gave statements, but in reality did nothing for prisoners.
- 28th: Insaf published a non-supportive three column news story on back page.
- 28th: Nawa-i-Waqt published a non-supportive three column news story on back page.
- 29th: Jang published a non-supportive single column news story on back page.
- 30th: Daily Times published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “Anna welcomes SC decision”, which reported that Mukhtaran Mai’s American hosts, a group called Anna, had welcomed the Supreme Court of Pakistan’s judgment reversing a lower court decision that would have set free her alleged rapists.

Table 5
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (June 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Awaz	1	0	1
Daily Times	5	0	5
Dawn	1	0	1
Din	0	1	1
Express	1	0	1
Insaf	0	4	4
Jang	1	2	3
Jinnah	0	3	3
Nawa-i-Waqt	2	3	5
The News International	1	3	4
Total	12	16	28
News Stories	9	14	23
Articles	2	2	4
Editorials	1	0	1

July 2005

- In this month, 13 news stories on NGOs were published, of which nine were supportive and four non-supportive; while of the three articles on NGOs, one was supportive and two were non-supportive (Table 6). One editorial on NGOs was published and it was non-supportive. The details are as follows:

Table 6
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (July 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Daily Times	3	0	3
Dawn	2	0	2
Express	0	1	1
Insaf	0	1	1
Jang	0	1	1
Jinnah	0	1	1
Khabrain	1	0	1
Nawa-i-Waqt	1	0	1
Pakistan	1	2	3
The Nation	0	1	1
The News International	2	0	2
Total	10	7	17
News Stories	9	4	13
Articles	1	2	3
Editorials	0	1	1

- 2nd: Daily Times published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “No dispute between government and NGOs over Mai's case”.
- 6th: Insaf published a non-supportive three column news story on back page titled “Corruption originates in education foundation; loans and funds granted to ghost NGOs”, which reported that the Punjab Education Foundation had granted Rs4 million to an NGO for building a school, but when an inquiry team reached the site there was no school there.
- 7th: Jang published a non-supportive article by Javed Chaudhry titled “Why these women were never seen before?”, which said NGOs were defaming Pakistan in the international community by highlighting Mukhtaran Mai's and Dr. Shazia's cases, and their only objective was to increase their personal bank balances.
- 7th: Pakistan published a non-supportive editorial.
- 8th: The News International published a supportive article by Jim Leo titled “Senior Afghan officials involved in war crimes”.
- 9th: Daily Times published a supportive three column news story on back page titled “Aurat Foundation for women's participation in LG election”.
- 16th: The News International published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “Notice issued to government for placing NGO on Exit Control List”.
- 17th: Express published a non-supportive single column news story on back page.
- 17th: Pakistan published a non-supportive single column news story, which reported that Advocate M. D. Tahir had submitted an application in the Lahore High Court against NGOs for using the Mukhtaran Mai case to seek financial benefits.
- 18th: Daily Times published a supportive single column news story on back page titled

“Human Rights Watch asks Singh to end abuses in Kashmir”.

- 18th: Dawn published a supportive double column news story on front page titled “NGOs urge Pakistan to ratify Rome Statute”, which reported that a coalition of organizations had urged Pakistan to ratify the Rome Statute through which the International Criminal Court was created.
- 19th: Jinnah published a non-supportive article by Allama Abdul Rasheed Ghazi.
- 19th: The Nation published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGOs under probe for misuse of funds”, which reported that the Punjab Assembly’s Public Accounts Committee had observed drain of funds from the Punjab Education Foundation by some NGOs on the pretext of spreading education across the province.
- 23rd: Dawn published a supportive single column news story.
- 23rd: Khabrain published a supportive double column news story on back page.
- 23rd: Pakistan published a supportive double column news story titled “Campaign for women participation in polls”.
- 27th: Nawa-i-Waqt published a supportive double column news story on back page.

August 2005

- In this month, nine news stories on NGOs were published, of which eight were supportive and one was non-supportive; while the only article on NGOs was supportive (Table 7). No editorial on NGOs was published. The details are as follows:
- 6th: Express published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “Meeting arranged by NGOs”, which reported NGOs would arrange meetings between women and local police to create a sense of security among the former.
- 6th: Express published a supportive single column news story on back page, which reported that the United Nations had written a letter to the Pakistan government asking how Mukhtaran Mai’s name was included in the Exit Control List.
- 6th: The News International published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “NGOs meeting”, which reported that NGOs would arrange meetings between women and local police to create a sense of security among the former.
- 8th: Khabrain published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “Bait-ul-Mal funded 40 million rupees to 39 NGOs”, which reported that NGOs owned by the wives of politicians and bureaucrats received millions of rupees in the name of social welfare, but did nothing on the ground.
- 13th: Daily Times published a supportive three column news story on back page titled “Aurat Foundation to help women candidates in election process”, which reported that the NGO would help women candidates in all phases of the upcoming local government elections.
- 20th: Dawn published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGOs demand rights for Northern Areas”, which reported that various NGOs had slated the government’s policy of not allowing political representation to the Northern Areas.
- 20th: Jang published a supportive article in Sunday Magazine, which discussed the role of civil society organizations and NGOs in women’s empowerment.
- 27th: Express published a supportive single column news story on back page, which reported that a human rights organization had demanded of India to release all Pakistani

prisoners.

- 27th: Nawa-i-Waqt published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “Bomb blast in UN office in Chalas and targeted firing on project manager”.
- 29th: Dawn published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “NGO worker threatened”, which reported that a female worker of an NGO who was assisting a rape victim had been harassed and given life threats.

Table 7

Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (August 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Daily Times	1	0	1
Dawn	2	0	2
Express	3	0	3
Jang	1	0	1
Khabrain	0	1	1
Nawa-i-waqt	1	0	1
The News International	1	0	1
Total	9	1	10
News Stories	8	1	9
Articles	1	0	1

September 2005

- In this month, 20 news stories on NGOs were published, of which nine were *supportive* and 11 *non-supportive*; while of the five articles on NGOs, two were *supportive* and three *non-supportive* (Table 8). One editorial on NGOs was published and it was *non-supportive*. The details are as follows:
- 5th: Awaz published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported the adviser to Punjab chief minister on social welfare as saying NGOs should come forward to promote a socially viable atmosphere.
- 5th: Insaf published a non-supportive three column news story on front page titled “Pakistan becomes heaven for NGOs”.
- 5th: Pakistan published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that more than 97,000 registered NGOs were working in Pakistan and their estimated expenditure was Rs20 billion annually.
- 5th: The Nation published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGOs to provide legal support in local government polls”.
- 8th: Daily Times published a non-supportive three column news story titled “Musharraf says feudalism, tribalism engendering bias”, which reported that President Musharraf had lambasted NGOs for demonizing Pakistan.
- 8th: Jang published a non-supportive six column news story titled “Musharraf lambastes NGOs; says they are demonizing Pakistan”.

- 9th: *Awaz* published a non-supportive editorial titled “Crime against women a global issue”, which said President Musharraf had rightly lambasted NGOs for defaming Pakistan.
- 9th: *Din* published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported Asma Jahangir as saying the government had failed to protect civil society's rights.
- 9th: *Din* published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported many pro-government women as saying the government should hold those NGOs accountable that were defaming Pakistan.
- 10th: *Awaz* published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that the government had started monitoring NGO activities.
- 10th: *Jang* published a non-supportive article by Abdul Qadir Hasan titled “Enlightened NGOs”, which said President had finally realized that NGOs were not sincere with the country.
- 14th: *Nawa-i-Waqt* published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported one Amna Ulfat as saying NGOs were defaming Pakistan for money.
- 19th: *Awaz* published a non-supportive single column news story on back page titled “Musharraf orders inquiry against NGOs defaming Pakistan”.
- 21st: *Jinnah* published a supportive double column news story on back page titled “Asma Jahangir says government took 90 per cent NGO funds”, which reported the noted human rights activist as saying the government only gave statements and did nothing for women.
- 21st: *Khabrain* published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled “NGOs' women members start looking for safe exit”.
- 21st: *Daily Times* published a supportive article by Nigar Ahmad titled “Does she ever ask for it?”, which said the yardstick of President Musharraf for acceptable public dissent threw up some very startling conclusions; for example, Andri Sakharov and Lech Walesa, who had fought the violation of human dignity by their establishments, would henceforth be termed traitors.
- 21st: *The News International* published a non-supportive single column news story on back page titled “Some NGOs to face the music”, which reported that a concerted drive to curb activities of certain NGOs was on the cards after President Musharraf's return from New York.
- 22nd: *Jinnah* published a supportive article by Arshad Mahmood titled “Why NGOs are blamed”, which condemned President Musharraf's statement against the role of NGOs in Pakistan.
- 23rd: *Jinnah* published a non-supportive article by Amjad Islam Amjad.
- 23rd: *Awaz* published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that NGOs had staged a demonstration in front of the Parliament House to protest President Pervez Musharraf's statements against NGOs.
- 23rd: *Express* published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that NGOs had staged a demonstration in front of the Parliament House to

protest President Musharraf's statements against NGOs.

- 23rd: *Sahafat* published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that NGOs had staged a demonstration in front of the Parliament House to protest President Musharraf's statements against NGOs.
- 23rd: *Din* published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that NGOs had staged a demonstration in front of the Parliament House.
- 24th: *Nawa-i-Waqt* published a non-supportive single column news story on back page, which reported Maulana Fazlur Rehman as saying Musharraf's statement against NGOs was true.
- 24th: *Khabrain* published a non-supportive article by Munir Baloch titled "NGOs or Stuntman", which said NGOs funded by the Western powers were defaming Pakistan and its army.
- 28th: *Jinnah* published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported the adviser to Punjab chief minister on social welfare as saying NGOs were involved in a number of suspicious activities.

Table 8
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (September 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Awaz	2	3	5
Daily Times	1	1	2
Din	2	1	3
Express	1	0	1
Insaf	0	1	1
Jang	0	2	2
Jinnah	2	2	4
Khabrain	0	2	2
Nawa-i-Waqt	0	2	2
Pakistan	1	0	1
Shafat	1	0	1
The Nation	1	0	1
The News International	0	1	1
Total	11	15	26
News Stories	9	11	20
Articles	2	3	5
Editorials	0	1	1

October 2005

- In this month, 11 news stories on NGOs were published, of which six were supportive and five non-supportive; while the only article on NGOs was supportive (Table 9). No editorial on NGOs was published. The details are as follows:
- 5th: Express published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported Federal Minister for State Mohammad Ali Durrani as saying NGOs should project a positive image of the country.
- 6th: Express published a supportive article by Salman Abid titled "Pakistani NGOs", which said many elements, including President General Pervez Musharraf, were continuously criticizing NGOs and calling them 'anti-Pakistan', though they were working under Pakistani laws and playing an important role in the country's development.
- 15th: Din published a non-supportive single column news story on back page, which reported a retired air commodore as saying NGOs were behind the Gilgit violence.
- 15th: Insaf published a supportive single column news story on back page, which reported that the Joint Action Committee for Human Rights had criticized the federal minister for social welfare for issuing statements against NGOs.
- 15th: Sahafat published a supportive single column news story on back page, which reported that the Joint Action Committee for Human Rights had criticized the federal minister for social welfare for issuing statements against NGOs.
- 20th: Pakistan published a non-supportive double column news story on back page titled "After earthquake disaster, NGOs start approaching foreign embassies for funds".
- 24th: Daily Times published a supportive three column news story on back page titled "Body to coordinate between government and NGOs", which reported that Pakistan Muslim League-Quaid President Chaudhry Shujaat Hussain had announced the formation of a coordination committee to facilitate cooperation between the government and NGOs in earthquake relief efforts.
- 25th: Awaz published a non-supportive single column news story on back page, which reported that many fake NGOs were operating in the earthquake-affected areas.
- 25th: Insaf published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported federal minister Sheikh Rasheed as saying the whole nation, including NGOs, was serving earthquake victims.
- 25th: Sahafat published a non-supportive double column news story on back page, which reported that thousands of children in the earthquake-affected areas were suffering because of lack of coordination between NGOs and the Ministry of Social Welfare and Special Education.
- 27th: Express published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported the federal minister for Azad Kashmir affairs as saying NGOs were still unable to reach the Neelum valley for earthquake relief activities.
- 28th: Express published a supportive double column news story on back page, which reported the federal minister for religious affairs and auqaf as saying NGOs were playing an important role in earthquake relief activities.

Table 9
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (October 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Awaz	0	1	1
Daily Times	1	0	1
Din	0	1	1
Express	3	1	4
Insaf	2	0	1
Pakistan	0	1	1
Shafat	1	1	2
Total	7	5	12
News Stories	6		11
Articles	1	0	1

November 2005

- In this month, four news stories on NGOs were published, of which two were supportive and two non-supportive; while no article or editorial on NGOs was published (Table 10). The details are as follows:
- 8th: Dawn published a supportive single column news story on back page titled “Murder for honour culprits at large”, which reported that an NGO had expressed concern over the fact that culprits involved in the honour-related double murder of a couple were still at large.
- 14th: Express published a double column non-supportive news story on back page, which reported that provincial minister Qudsia Lodhi left an Aurat Foundation seminar when Sherry Rehman gave comments against the army.
- 21st: Dawn published a single column non-supportive news story on back page titled “Working of NGO criticized”, which reported that the Pakistan Village Development Programme, a local NGO, came under severe criticism during its meeting with journalists.
- 30th: Jinnah published a double column non-supportive news story on back page, which reported that the district government had launched an inquiry against an NGO.

Table 10
Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (November 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Dawn	1	1	2
Express	0	1	1
Jinnah	0	1	1
Total*	1	3	4

* All news stories

December 2005

- In this month, two news stories on NGOs were published, of which one was *supportive* and one *non-supportive*; while no article or editorial on NGOs was published (*Table 10*). The details are as follows:
- 28th: *Dawn* published a supportive single column news story titled “Quake-affected women show helplessness”.
- 28th: *Din* published a non-supportive three column news story on back page titled “Federal minister for education gives orders to take immediate action against NGOs involved in corruption”.

Table 11

Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs (December 2005)

Newspapers	Supportive	Non-Supportive	Total
Dawn	1	0	1
Din	0	1	1
Total*	1	1	2

* All news stories

Discussion of Findings

The results show that in 2005, a total of 134 news stories, articles and editorials stories were published in the 14 selected mainstream Pakistani English and Urdu newspapers; of which, 72 (53.7%) were supportive and 62 (46.3%) were non-supportive of NGOs (Table 12). At one level, these results throw a surprise; however, a deeper analysis, changes the picture.

Table 12

Attitude of Pakistan Newspapers Towards NGOs

Newspapers	Supportive(%)	Non-Supportive(%)	Total(%)
Grand Total (News/Reports/Stories)	64(54.01)	50 (43.9)	114
Grand Total (Articles)	7(41.2)	10 (58.8)	17
Grand Total (Editorials)	1(33.3)	2 (66.7)	3
Grand Total	72 (53.7)	62 (46.3)	134 (100.0)
Total Awaz	6 (60.0)	4 (40.0)	10 (100.0)
Total Daily Times	14 (87.5)	2 (12.5)	16 (100.0)
Total Dawn	8 (80.0)	2 (20.0)	10 (100.0)
Total Din	4 (36.4)	7 (63.6)	11 (100.0)
Total Express	11 (64.7)	6 (35.3)	17 (100.0)
Total Insaf	2 (25.0)	6 (75.0)	8 (100.0)
Total Jang	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	7 (100.0)
Total Jinnah	2 (20.0)	8 (80.0)	10 (100.0)
Total Khabrain	1 (25.0)	3 (75.0)	4 (100.0)
Total Nawa-i-Waqt	6 (54.5)	5 (45.5)	11 (100.0)
Total Pakistan	4 (44.4)	5 (55.6)	9 (100.0)
Total Shafat	3 (60.0)	2 (40.0)	5 (100.0)
Total The Nation	4 (80.0)	1 (20.)	5 (100.0)
Total The News International	5 (45.5)	6 (54.5)	11 (100.0)
Grand Total (English Newspapers)	31 (73.8)	11 (26.2)	42 (100.0)
Grand Total (Urdu Newspapers)	41 (44.6)	51 (55.4)	92 (100.0)

Of the 114 news stories on NGOs, 64 (56.1%) were supportive and 50 (43.9%) non-supportive; while of the 17 articles, seven (41.2%) were supportive and 10 (58.8%) non-supportive. Only three editorials on NGOs were published during the study period, of which one (33.3%) was supportive and two (66.7%) were non-supportive. These results should have been surprisingly, considering that NGOs are generally viewed with suspicion both at the public level and in the media, had it not been for the fact that an exceedingly higher percentage of the news stories, articles and editorials supportive of NGOs were published in the four English newspapers: *Daily Times*, *Dawn*, *The Nation* and *The News International*.

Of the 42 news stories, articles and editorials on NGOs published in the four English newspapers, 31 (73.8%) were supportive and only 11 non-supportive of NGOs. In case of three of the four English newspapers, the percentage of supportive news stories, articles and editorials reached as high as 80% or above: *Daily Times* (87.5%), *Dawn* (80.0%) and *The Nation* (80.0%).

On the other hand, of the 92 news stories, articles and editorials on NGOs published in the 10 Urdu newspapers – *Awaz, Din, Express, Insaf, Jang, Jinnah, Khabrain, Nawa-i-Waqt, Pakistan and Sahafat* – only 41 (44.6%) were supportive and 51 (55.4%) non-supportive of NGOs. In case of four of the 10 Urdu newspapers, the percentage of supportive news stories, articles and editorials was as low as below 30%: *Jinnah* (20.0%), *Insaf* (25.0%), *Khabrain* (25.5%) and *Jang* (28.6%). Also, less than one-half of the news stories, articles and editorials published in six of the 10 Urdu newspapers were supportive of NGOs. They include *Din* and *Pakistan* besides the above four.

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Strong Product Vs Strong Brand: Preference of Pakistani Consumers for Branded or Unbranded Tea

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The purpose of this research was to study whether Pakistani consumers prefer a strong product or a strong brand when they buy tea. The research sought to explore the reasons behind the use of branded or unbranded tea, and the preference for branded tea over unbranded tea, among the upper, middle and lower classes of society. A sample of 70 housewives was randomly selected from Karachi, including both middle- and upper-class respondents. The results verified the hypothesis that most Pakistanis prefer branded tea over unbranded tea since they think that it is healthy. Almost 93% of the respondents showed preference for branded tea over unbranded tea, since not only they perceived it to be healthy but also they could afford it.

Keywords: consumer preference; brand image; brand preference; branded vs unbranded

Tea refers to the aromatic beverage prepared by combining cured leaves with hot or boiling water. First used as a beverage in 2737 BC, tea is one of the most popular drinks in the world and the most widely consumed beverage in South Asia. The demand for tea in Pakistan is high. Since the consumer base is high, the competition is also intense. Brands such as Tapal, Lipton, Brooke Bond and Supreme, being the leading tea-makers, not only compete with one another but also face intense competition from companies selling loose tea. Pakistan has a 170 million kg tea market and it ranks third among the world's largest tea importers, after the United Kingdom and Russia. The international key players in this area include Kenya, India, Sri Lanka, China and Malawi.

The basic objective of this research was to know whether people prefer branded or unbranded tea. Why do they prefer it? What are the reasons behind using either branded or unbranded tea? Moreover, the research sought to know whether people actually believe that generic or cheaper products are unworthy, unhealthy or tasteless. Also, it wanted to assess how age, gender and income level of consumers affects their buying decisions?

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Demographics such as income, education, occupation and family background determine a consumer's lifestyle and purchasing pattern. They also determine the exposure to, and thus the purchase of, expensive foreign goods. Quality is conceptualized in terms of 'superiority' or 'excellence' of a product's performance (Zeithmal, 1988). In developing countries such as Pakistan, social classes show a noticeable brand preference. It has been observed that the elite and upper-middle classes prefer expensive brands to maintain a prominent position in the society. The lower classes, on the other hand, consider these brands as a luxury.

The objective of this study was to examine some of the influences such as consumer ethnocentrism; and the role of social influences like advertising, celebrity endorsements, peer groups and family in affecting a consumer's perception and evaluation of these brands. Both primary and secondary sources such as questionnaires, Internet search, newspapers and magazine articles have been used for data collection. Our hypothesis is:

Ho: Consumers buy branded tea because they perceive it to be healthy.

HA: Consumers do not buy unbranded tea because they perceive it to be unhealthy.

Literature Review

Before going into the previous researches on the preference of people for branded or unbranded tea, let us first define a few terms!

Definitions

Consumer.

A 'consumer' is an individual who buys products or services for personal use and not for manufacture or resale. The literal meaning of the word 'consumer' is one that consumes or uses.

Brand.

The term 'brand' refers to a name, term, symbol, sign or design used by a firm to differentiate its offerings from those of its competitors. A brand is an identifiable entity that makes specific promises of value.

Brand preference.

Brand preference occurs when consumers prefer some brand over competing brands. Brand preference might be considered 'the holy grail' of branding since it is the result of consumers knowing a brand, understanding what is unique about it, connecting emotionally with it, making a decision that it is superior to others for some reason or combination of reasons, and choosing it over competing brands.

Unbranded

Unbranded can be defined as a product that has no name, symbol, sign, term or name of the seller to differentiate it from others.

Analysis of Articles

Hagui (2009) provides a simple model of the tradeoff between quantity and quality. In

this context, consumers might find it profitable to choose low-quality (unbranded product), even though some would be willing to pay high prices for good quality (branded product). Choosing between the two also depends on the proportion of high-quality users in the overall population and on their cost advantage in choosing branded products, relative to unbranded ones. The net effect of these two factors is ambiguous because it generally depends on whether consumers have a stronger impact on the higher average quality or on lower quantity.

Ghani in his study investigated the influence of country-of-origin. The author has considered the role of different factors such as price and brand name in the buying behavior of consumer in Pakistan. The results of this study showed that the country of origin of a product has a significant impact on the quality perceptions of a product. It has been observed that consumer's perceptions are related to product quality, that is, they go on the brand's name and so they tend to be product specific as well as brand & country specific. According to Ghani consumer analyze a product by price, brand, country of origin and warranty. Therefore brand name plays an important role. My research on branded vs unbranded product is specifically for tea, thus, it is observed that people consider branded tea because they perceive it is healthy, guaranteed, good quality and branded, although it might be a little expensive.

Keller and Lehmann (2006) explains that for customers, brand is something that can assure a particular quality level, simplify choice, reduce the level of risk and create trust. They have described three different perspectives of brands. First one is customer based, that is, brand from the customer's view point is a part of the attraction to or repulsion from a product from a company, not the product itself but the company. Second one is company based, that is, from the company's view point brand helps in distribution, makes advertising and promotion more effective and facilitates growth to a great extent. Third one is financial based, that is, from a financial market's view point brands are those assets that can be easily bought and sold. The price of that asset is the brand worth that is being brought in the financial market. Similarly, we can observe that tea is preferred branded instead of unbranded because majority of the consumers can afford branded tea and they do go for it, perceiving that unbranded tea is something very ordinary.

Hofmeyr and Parton (2006) have defined the predictions about what consumers will buy. He says that buying behavior of a consumer depends on his/her experience with the brand in particular as well as general. The satisfaction of the consumers can be measured by questioning them. Whether particular or general, people don't find any difficulty in answering them. Summary evaluation of this measurement is then carried out to know how a customer feels about a particular brand. The author has explained the brand characteristics and relationships that effect the purchase decision of consumers. The characteristics include: functional delivery, emotional resonance, personality and tie to deeper needs. Whereas, brand relationships include: category involvement, overall evaluation, importance to person, relative appeal and theory of commitment.

Kanwal in her article explains the factors which lead to the consumer's buying decision. He quotes that there are numerous factors which are responsible for the buying behaviour of the consumers. The consumers are attracted towards buying branded products more than unbranded products because of the current fashion, their price, status consciousness of consumers in this conscious society, the quality of products, their advertising techniques and the place where the consumers are living. Through this I analyzed that people prefer branded tea over the unbranded because they may be status conscious or they may

prefer quality more than the price, plus they perceive that the higher the price, the good is the product.

Dolak (2001) has described the benefits of strong brand in his article. According to him people do not purchase based upon features and benefits, they do not make rational decisions. They attach to a brand the same way they attach to each other: first emotionally and then logically. Similarly, purchase decisions are made the same way: first automatically and then those decisions are rationalized. Branding creates trust and an emotional attachment to the product or company. This attachment then causes consumers to make decisions based upon emotion. Branding helps make purchasing decisions easier. A strong brand can make actual product features virtually insignificant. A strong brand signals that you want to build customer loyalty, not just sell product. As in my case: tea, people prefer to buy branded ones like Lipton, Tetley, Tapal, etc., just because they perceive they are healthy and has no drawbacks.

Douglas (2010) in his article distances industries, not just the over the counter drug market. Around 42% of respondents do not perceive stores' own label over the counter products to be as effective as branded products. One third of people globally do consider stores' own labels to be just as effective. Bob Douglas, Global Head of Synovate Healthcare, attributes to perceptions of quality. According to Bob, "UK consumers may well perceive the brand as a badge which represents quality. The perception of quality is reinforced by both the premium price over generics and the fact that generics sometimes do not have UK packaging or instructions, thereby suggesting 'cheaper' and inferior imported goods." Perhaps it is not surprising that 44% of respondents prefer to use recognized brands. As per this research, it is quoted that people perceive branded products healthy so according to Bob, people in the UAE take healthcare very seriously and they prefer to go for recognized brands which they trust. However, a small number of markets disagree that they would prefer to use recognized brands.

Nissim explains the psychology behind human behavior. According to him, as it affects brand selection it can be both basic and complex at the same time. He has explored this problem by examining noted authors' vision into the territory of brand preference. In order to understand the psychology of brand preference, the author started this journey by observing a basic communication model and the process of receiving messages. Then he studied research that suggested a distinction between false and true brand loyalty. Several sayings concerning how a brand is positioned in the marketplace exposed the tasks with marketing to the human mind. Finally, he surveyed research that submits the core of brands is connected through our five senses.

Wang and Yang (2011) in this study examines the relationships among corporate-brand credibility, product-brand personality, and purchase intention, specifically in China's auto industry. They conducted a large-scale survey. Results showed that corporate-brand credibility and product-brand personality have direct positive effects on purchase intention. According to him corporate-brand credibility acts as a positive go-between in the relationship between product-brand personality and purchase intention. This study offers new hypothetical understandings into the important factors affecting consumers' purchase intentions by testing the diminishing effect of corporate-brand credibility in the relationship between product-brand personality and purchase intention. It further provides useful suggestions to companies on brand credibility and personality issues.

Fajgelbaum, Grossman, and Helpman (2011) in their study have explained the

distribution of income, quality of product and international trade. They have provided a demand-based explanation for the pattern of trade in goods of different quality. In this respect, their approach is important of that used by Linder (1961), who assumed that firms in any country produce goods suited to the main tastes of their local consumers and sell them worldwide to others who share these tastes. Their approach supplements a successful literature that shows various supply-side determinants of trade in vertically differentiated goods. Relatively, as I am concerned about tea preference then that also depends on income of people, the more they earn the more expensive brand they buy.

Research Methodology

The research is set to be on 'tea' and 'customers perception' about branded and unbranded tea. The hypothesis was tested for upper and middle class customers who buy tea from street retail outlets as well as from super markets and from wholesale markets. The survey was conducted on the basis of questionnaire which tested the satisfaction and perception of the customers. The questionnaire consists of 16 closed ended questions. The purpose of survey by questionnaire is to get accurate answers and response of customers. The response of customers to each question is summarized and analyzed in tabular form. However, responses of the customers were also observed and analyzed to frame a realistic picture of their preferences. Thus, an accurate and in-depth observation and analysis was also conducted in order to find customer preferences and perceptions.

Sample Size and Frame

In order to test according to the above research and tested hypothesis, the sample size of 70 customers was taken from various different areas of Karachi. The sampling frame was Karachi housewives and all questionnaires were to be filled by only those respondents who take tea. The respondents belonged to different areas in Karachi, including Clifton, Defence, Garden, Gulshan-e-Johar, Hawksbay, Korangi, Lines Area, Malir, North Nazimabad, Orangi Town, PECHS/SMCHS, Ranchor Line, Tariq Road, SITE and Zamzama.

This attempt was made to measure, compare and analyze the perception of people, customer preferences and perceptions in case of branded and unbranded tea. The questionnaire was given directly to the consumers to be filled in. After that the analysis of the data was carried out using frequency distribution and percentage of respondent's answers.

These calculations were then interpreted. In addition to this the calculations and interpretations were carried out on the basis of different categories being asked for in the questionnaire. These include: consumption, income (asked indirectly), brand and marketing. Questions asked in the survey come under the above mentioned heads.

Results and Analysis

Consumption

This category includes questions such as how often, how much and the type/sort/form of tea. Of the total sample size that is 70, 23% of the respondents are those where 2 members take tea, 20% are those where 3 members take tea, 24% are those where 4 members take tea and 33% are those where more than 4 family members take tea (*Table 1*).

The analysis shows that mostly in areas like North Nazimabad and Gulshan-e-Jauhar, people have big families and so the members who take tea are more. Similarly, it has been observed that in lower-middle class families, kids are also into tea intake and so in the areas like Lines area, Orangi town and Korangi, the members who take tea are more than those as compared to Defence, Clifton, Zamzama, Pechs/Smchs and Tariq road.

Table 1
Measure of Tea Intake for Household

Number of Family Members who take Tea	Percent of Respondents
2	23
3	20
4	24
More than 4	30

The results show that majority of the population in Karachi take tea twice a day; 57% of the respondents take tea 2 times a day, 27% take 3 times a day, 11% take 4 times a day whereas only 5% of the respondents take more than 4 times a day (*Table 2*). It has been observed that workers that are employed full time usually take tea 4 times or more than 4 times a day.

Table 2
Frequency of Tea Intake

Number of Family Members who take Tea	Percent of Respondents
2	57
3	27
4	11
More than 4	5

In Karachi, most of the population consumes black tea with milk. The results of the survey showed that 58% of the respondents consume black tea, 13% of them consume green tea and 29% of the respondents prefer both black and green tea (*Table 3*).

Consumption of green tea is usually in areas such as Defence, Clifton, PECHS/SMCHS and Zamzama. It is because people living in these areas are not that close to traditional tea that is black tea, but are more conscious about their health and weight. As the green tea helps lose weight and burn calories therefore people here consume green tea more.

Table 3
Type of Tea Consumed

Type of Tea	Percent of Respondents
Black	58
Green	13
Both	29

The majority of the people living in Karachi prefer to take normal tea. The results show that only 6% of the respondents consume light tea, 63% like normal and 31% of them like strong tea (*Table 4*). It has been observed that labourers and workers who consume unbranded tea mostly go for strong tea. People who use tea bags like light tea whereas those who use loose branded tea like normal tea.

Table 4
Concentration of Tea Consumed

Concentration of Tea	Percent of Respondents
Light	6
Normal	63
Strong	31

Out of 70 respondents 54% of them consume loose tea, both branded and unbranded, 17% consume tea bags and 29% of them use both loose tea as well as tea bags (*Table 5*). It has been observed that green tea is usually used in the form of tea bags whereas black tea is usually consumed in the form of loose tea.

Table 5
Form of Tea Consumed

Form of Tea	Percent of Respondents
Loose	54
Tea Bags	17
Both	29

The consumption of tea in grams shows that in which area people consume more tea and why. Sometimes it depends on what sort of tea they consume, if they consume strong tea then of course tea consumption will be more than average but usually it is because the family size is big.

Analysis showed that 34% of the respondents consume 100-300g of tea, 29% consume 400-600g, 14% consume 700-900g and 23% of them consume 1000 or more than 1000 grams of tea (*Table 6*).

Table 6
Quantity of Tea Consumed by Household in a Month

Quantity (in grams)	Percent of Respondents
100-300	34
400-600	29
700-900	14
1000 or over	23

Income

The income of the respondents was judged indirectly by asking them about the

maximum amount that they spend on tea every month. The results show that 26% of them spend less than Rs400/kg (*Table 7*). These are usually those living in Orangi town, Lines Area, Korangi and areas where the income of people is less. They usually use unbranded tea, not because they think it is healthy but because they cannot afford to buy the branded one. Not everyone living in these areas uses unbranded tea because area does not mean all are in the same boat. There are upper-middle class people as well as lower-middle class people living in each area. 27% of the respondents spend Rs400-450/kg on tea.

Branded tea is not always expensive, it depends which brand it is. If imported then it is more expensive. 26% of them spend Rs450-500/kg. These include those who buy tea from super markets and not from discount stores. 21% of them spend more than Rs500/kg on tea. These include those who use Tetley and Lipton usually, because these two brands are top ones.

Table 7

Expenditure on Tea

Maximum Expenditure on Tea per Kilogram	Percent of Respondents
Less than Rs 400	26
Rs 400-450	27
Rs 450-500	26
More than Rs 500	21

Brand

This head includes four questions. It is related to branding and brand loyalty. The following questions lie under this category. The survey results show that the majority (84%) of the respondents use branded tea (*Table 8*). It is because they perceive it is healthy and they can afford. There are cheap as well as expensive brands.

Middle-class families who can't afford to buy imported brands go for Tapal and Supreme because these are comparatively cheaper than Lipton and Tetley. 7% of the respondents who use unbranded tea include those people who are poor.

Using unbranded tea does not always mean that they perceive it is healthy, but maybe they cannot afford to buy branded tea and they might like to have unbranded tea. 9% of them use both branded and unbranded tea. The reason observed behind this is that people buy both so that they consume branded tea themselves and use unbranded for the workers working in their house.

Table 8

Branded Versus Unbranded Tea

Type of Tea	Percent of Respondents
Branded	84
Unbranded	7
Both	9

Analysis of the results show that 48% of the respondents use Tapal, 2% of them use Supreme, 5% use Brooke Bond, 43% of them use Lipton and 2% use Tetley (*Table 9*). The majority of Karachi is the middle-class people who may afford branded but not the expensive ones. This is the reason why people go for Tapal more than Lipton. Tetley is expensive as it is imported so people hardly use this brand.

Table 9
Tea Brands

Brands	Percent of Respondents
Tapal	48
Supreme	2
Brooke Bond	5
Lipton	43
Tetly	2

The majority (30%) of the respondents use their preferred brand because of taste and quality (*Table 10*). 15% of the respondents use that brand because they go for quality tea. 27% of them use their particular brand because they like its taste. 3% of them go on price and 25% use their preferred brand because they think it is healthy. Some people say tea has no link with it but there are a lot of people who give priority to health.

Results show that 10% of the people are using their preferred tea less than a year, 24% of them are using since 1-5 years, 15% are using since 5-10 years whereas 51% of the respondents are using since more than 10 years (*Table 11*). It has been observed that people don't usually switch their tea brand because they are used to of its taste and are brand loyal.

Table 10
Preference of Brand

Reason	Percent of Respondents
Quality	15
Taste	27
Price	3
Healthy	25
Taste	30

Table 11
Brand Stickiness

Duration Tea Used	Percent of Respondents
Less than 1 Year	10
1-5 Years	24
5-10 Years	15
More than 10 Years	51

Marketing

This category includes the availability, placement, preference, advertising and packaging of tea. The following questions lie under this category. The percentage of respondents who say that tea is easily available in the market is 93% because most of them use branded tea (*Table 12*). This shows that the 7% who say No to this question are those who use unbranded tea because unbranded tea is only available at the Saddar market, not at the convenience stores.

Table 12

Brand Availability

Easily Available in Market	Percent of Respondents
Yes	93
No	7

It has been observed from the survey that majority prefer Tapal and Lipton. Those who are currently using Tapal say that they will switch to Lipton. The taste of Tetley is much alike Lipton that is why they say Tetley. 40% of the people say they will switch to Tapal, 9% say they will go for Supreme, 5% say they will go for Brooke Bond, 38% of them are interested towards Lipton whereas 8% will go for Tetley (*Table 13*).

Table 13

Brand Switching

Preferred Brand if Choice to Switch	Percent of Respondents
Tapal	40
Supreme	9
Brooke Bond	5
Lipton	38
Tetley	9

The results showed that 54% of the respondents are attracted towards tea buying because they are influenced by the packaging of the tea (*Table 14*). It has been observed that the reason behind it is health. People perceive that branded tea is healthy and so it is well packed they go for it. Sometimes when packaging is not like usual, people doubt that it might be fake brand, so they give priority to well packaging as they are concerned about health. 46% of the respondents are those who are not influenced by the packaging of tea. It is not because health does not matter to them, but they think that nice packaging won't let them switch their choice of tea.

Table 14

Role of Packaging in Brand Choice

Packaging Attracts Towards Tea	Percent of Respondents
Yes	54
No	46

Advertisements do matter to majority of the people. 54% of the respondents are those who are attracted towards a tea brand because of their advertisements (*Table 15*). This does not mean they are not brand loyal, because they might like the advertisements of their current choice of tea and maybe they are more motivated towards sticking to that brand. 46% of them are those who are not attracted by advertisements. They think advertisements do not matter as far as the taste and quality attracts them to buy a particular tea brand.

Table 15

Role of Advertisements in Brand Choice

Advertisements Attract Towards Tea	Percent of Respondents
Yes	54
No	46

Tea Buying Preferences of the Consumers

Preference of the respondents towards buying any tea can be judged by the analysis of the following characteristics of tea. Survey showed that 44% of the respondents rank quality as number one, 37% rank quality as number two, 9% rank it as number three and four whereas 1% rank it as number five (*Table 16*). No one has ranked quantity as number six.

Table 16

Consumers Preference While Buying Tea

Preference	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Rank 4	Rank 5	Rank 6
Quality	44%	37%	09%	9%	1%	0%
Taste	39%	39%	17%	3%	1%	1%
Price	03%	09%	30%	24%	18%	16%
Health	09%	09%	14%	39%	11%	18%
Availability	01%	01%	16%	17%	41%	24%
Brand Name	04%	03%	14%	9%	26%	44%

According to the results of the survey, 39% of the respondents ranked taste as number one and two. 17% ranked it as number three, 3% ranked it as number four whereas only 1% ranked it as number five and six. It has been observed that taste and quantity both has been given priority over the rest of the characteristics. Price has not been given that much importance by the respondents. Only 3% of them ranked price as one, 9% as two, 30% as three, 24% as four, 18% as five whereas 16% as rank six. Majority of the respondents have ranked it as number three. As per the result, majority of the respondents have ranked health as number four. Just 9% have ranked it as one and two, 14% as three, 39% as four, 11% as five and 18% as number six.

This shows that health has been given priority but after quality and taste of tea. Availability is such a factor to which majority people don't give priority in the case of tea because most of the usual tea brands are available at every store. However the unbranded tea is only available at specific places. Only 1% of the respondents have ranked availability as number

one and two, 16% as three, 17% as four, 41% as five whereas 24% have ranked it as number six.

Brand name does not make much difference to people as they are brand loyal and prefer quality and taste of tea more. Only 4% of the respondents have ranked brand name as number one, 3% as two, 14% as three, 9% as four, 26% as five whereas 44% as six. This clearly shows that brand name has been given the least priority because majority has ranked it as number six.

Conclusion

After thoroughly analyzing the findings of our research, we would conclude that our hypothesis, "Consumers buy branded tea because they perceive it's healthy", is strongly valid in case of 70 respondents from Karachi representing upper and middle class of the society, who can afford branded tea.

The results of the survey clearly reveal those customers who are house wives, they handle this department and are attracted by the brands because of their advertisements, promotion and strong positioning. Tapal and Lipton are the two major brands which are preferred by majority of the consumers. As a result, majority of the customers belonging to the upper class and middle class clearly prefer brands over unbranded tea.

Most of the consumers that belong to Gulshan and Nazimabad prefer strong tea whereas people living in Defence, Clifton, Zamzama and Pechs/Smchs who often use tea bags prefer light or normal tea. Such customers also seem to associate the branded tea as a symbol of "high status" in the society which would increase their satisfaction level.

The majority of the respondents are highly taste conscious and prefer quality first, whereas, some of them give priority to health and other factors like price and availability. Most of the customers have a perception that the tea which they use is healthy. The results show that majority of respondents prefer tea on the basis of taste and quality rather than affordability.

As all the findings of our questionnaire are in support of our hypothesis, therefore, our hypothesis is proved to be true, which means that the findings align with the theory/literature provided, thus the theory provided has been tested scientifically and has been proved to be valid and correct in case of upper and middle class of the society who can afford branded tea.

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Are Workers' Remittances Negatively Affecting Pakistan's Export Competitiveness?

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This study investigates the impact of workers' remittances inflows on the real effective exchange rate of Pakistan by using annual time series data from 1982 to 2009. By applying Augmented Dickey Fuller test, the stationarity of the real effective exchange rate and determinants of equilibrium real exchange rate was checked. After having same order of integration, the study applies Johansen's cointegration technique to find the long-run relationship. The empirical results show that 1% increase in workers' remittances appreciated equilibrium real effective exchange rate of Pakistan significantly by 0.69%. Based on empirical findings, the study provides evidence of negative consequences of workers' remittances on exports competitiveness, measured by real effective exchange rate appreciation. The study concludes that along with augmenting the volume of remittances through formal channels, the government should devise policies to check the unproductive use of remittances that results in inflation and deteriorates exports competitiveness of Pakistan.

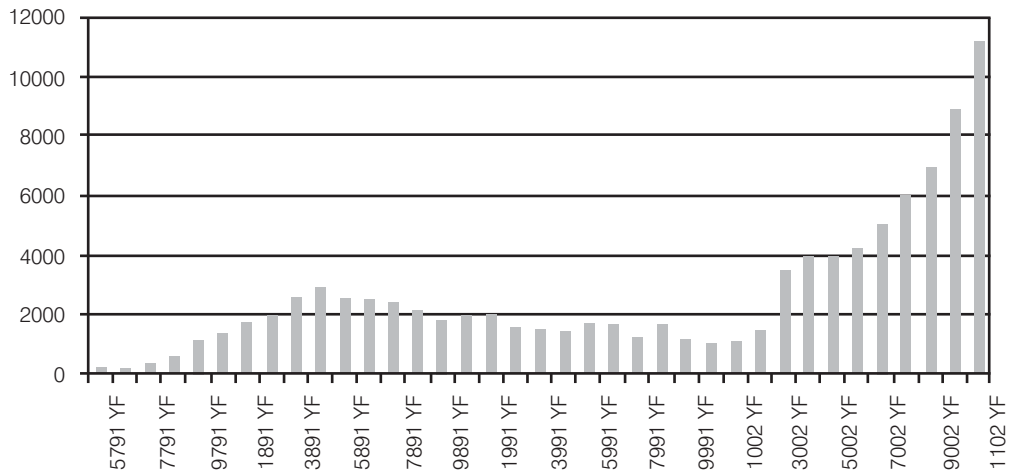
Keywords: workers' remittances; exports competitiveness; Dutch disease; exchange rate

Developing countries received \$351 billion in workers' remittances through formal channels in 2011 and Pakistan was ranked fifth among the world's top remittances-receiving countries after India, China, Mexico and the Philippines (World Bank, 2011). Workers' remittances inflows in Pakistan grew tremendously in recent years from just \$1.02 billion in FY01 to \$4.19 billion in FY03 and crossing \$12 billion in FY11 which is more than 5% of GDP (Figure 1).

Workers' remittances inflows in Pakistan have grown at a very high rate during the last few years and their annual growth remained around 20% even during the financial crisis of 2008. The major source countries of workers' remittances inflows in Pakistan are Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, the United States and the United Kingdom (Figure 2). The major contributing factors of high growth of remittances in Pakistan are higher skill levels of migrating workers, and agriculture output and the relative yield on investments in the host and home countries (Kock & Sun, 2011).

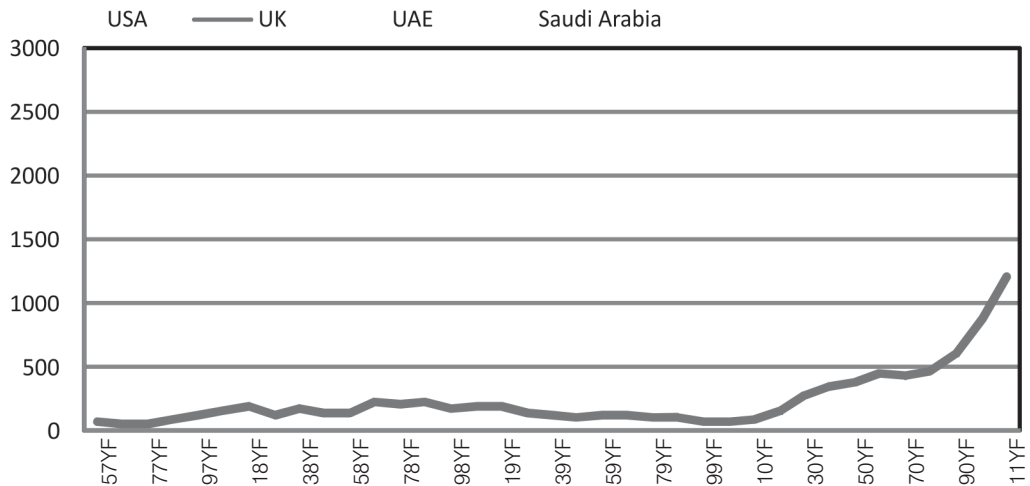
Workers' remittances being unrequited private transfers from migrants to their families left behind have received great attention of both policymakers and academia due to their huge volume at aggregate level, stable nature and macroeconomic effects for receiving economies. Remittances are the second largest source of foreign exchange in Pakistan after exports and less volatile than foreign direct investment and foreign portfolio investment, thus having considerable positive effects including promotion of economic growth, reduction in poverty, creation of employment opportunities, building of foreign exchange reserves, and prevention of the balance of payments crises (Amjad, 1986; Nishat & Bilgrami, 1991; Siddiqi & Kamal, 2002; Iqbal & Abdus, 2005; Ahmed et al., 2010; Mughal & Barassou, 2010). However, along with several positive macroeconomic effects of workers' remittances inflows in Pakistan, these inflows have also created serious problems for macroeconomic stability. Among these problems, the leading one is deterioration in exports competitiveness through appreciation of real exchange rate commonly known as the 'Dutch disease' problem.

Figure 1: Workers' Remittance Inflows in Pakistan Since Fy1975 (Million US\$)



Source: SBP handbook of Statistics 2005 & SBP website

Figure2:Major Sources of Workers' Remittances Inflowin Pakistan(Million US\$)

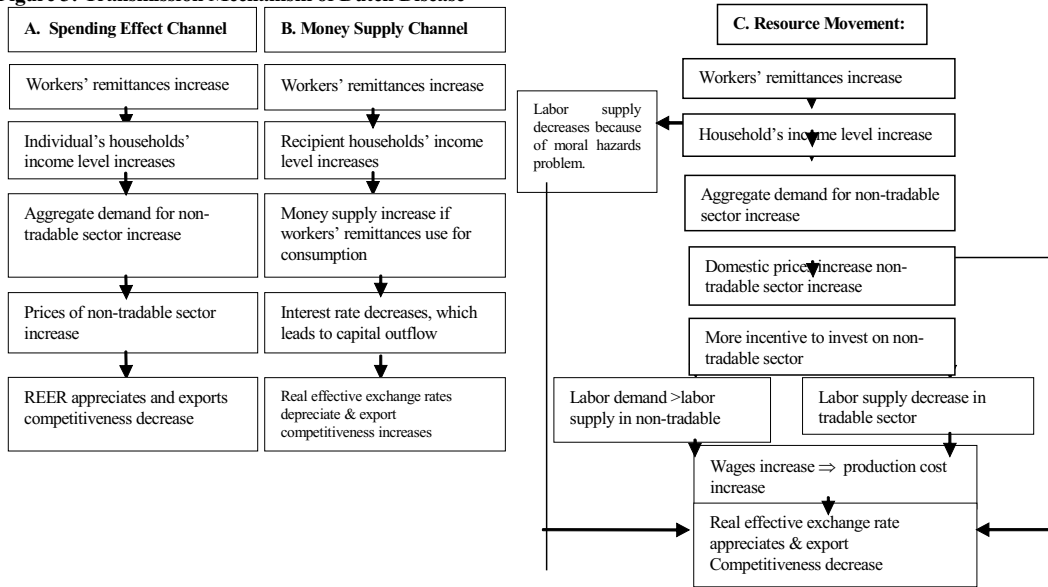


Source: SBP Handbook of Statistics 2005 & SBP website

The term 'Dutch disease' originated from crises in the Netherlands in the 1960s that resulted from discoveries of vast natural gas deposits in the North Sea. Dutch disease refers to negative consequences arising from large increases to a country's income. 'Dutch disease' is primarily associated with a natural resource discovery, but it can result from any large increase in foreign currency inflow, including foreign direct investment, aid, workers' remittances, or a substantial increase in natural resource prices. This condition arises when foreign exchange inflow causes an increase in the value of country's currency. With Dutch disease problem main effect for the country is a decrease in the export competitiveness.

Remittances affect real exchange rate through resource movement effect and spending effect channels (see figure 3). An increase in workers' remittances tends to increase household income and demand for labour in the booming sector, which decreases labour supply in the lagging sector. A decline in the labour supply may cause higher production cost and contraction in the non-booming (lagging) sector and is known as resource movement effect.

The spending effect exists as a consequence of the extra revenue (e.g. foreign inflows) brought in by the resource boom. It increases the demand for labour in the booming sector, shifting labour away from the lagging sector. This leads to higher disposable income which causes expansion in aggregate demand for given prices of tradable goods, culminates in higher relative prices of non-tradable that corresponds to a real exchange rate appreciation.

Figure 3: Transmission Mechanism of Dutch Disease

Literature Review

Edwards(1998) used the Granger Causality test to examine the Latin American's experience with capital inflows on RER over the sample period 1970-1997. The study indicated that the RER association with foreign exchange inflows is affected by the nature of prevailing exchange rate regime. Estimated results provide evidence that any shock to capital inflows leads to RER appreciation, but the magnitude and dynamics of the response may possibly vary across economies.

Larty(2007)concluded that increase in capital inflows causes Dutch Disease problem when monetary policy designed to keep nominal exchange rate fixed. However, Dutch Disease effect does not occur when monetary policy followed a generalized Taylor interest rate rule. By using Salter-Swan-Corden-Dornbusch paradigms, Larty et al. (2008) analyzed the correlation between capital inflows and real exchange rate. With panel data for the period 1990-2003 for 109 developing economies study concluded that an increase in worker's remittances lead to real exchange rate appreciation via spending and resource movement effect. In the light of estimated results authors argued that Dutch Disease effect operate more strongly under fixed exchange rate regime.

Acosta et al. (2009) used unbalanced panel data for 109 developing countries to examine the relationship between worker's remittances, financial development and real exchange rate. Over the sample period 1990-2003, remittances appreciate the real exchanger rate but their magnitude is weaker in countries with well developed financial markets. Therefore financial development can alleviate real exchange rate appreciation.

The appreciation of real exchange rate in Pakistan as a result of inflows in the form of workers' remittances has been addressed in a number of recent studies. Most of the studies

have used methodology developed in Edwards (1994) and Montiel (1997). Hyder and Mehboob (2006) estimated that one percent increase in worker's remittances associated with an appreciation of REER by 0.16%. This study determined that under flexible exchange rate regime exchange rate misalignment and its volatility is much lower as compared to fixed and managed exchange rate regimes. Similarly, Janjua (2007) estimated the equilibrium real effective exchange rate and exchange rate misalignment for Pakistan using annual data from FY78 to FY06 and applying Edwards' methodology. The study found that trade openness, government consumption and capital inflows depreciate the real effective exchange rate index while worker's remittances, terms of trade and total factor productivity leads to appreciation of the REER index.

By employing a non-informative Bayesian analysis, Makhlof and Mughal (2010) investigated the macroeconomic impact of workers' remittances and foreign official development assistance on the Pakistan's RER. For the sample period 1970-2000, it was proved that worker's remittances has inflating impact on the Pakistan non-tradable sector which resulted appreciation of RER. Therefore, for macroeconomic stability in the long run dependence on workers' remittances may not be an appropriate strategy.

Rehman et al. (2010) examined the impact of foreign exchange inflows (FDI and Workers' remittances) on the Pakistan's Equilibrium Real Exchange Rate by using monthly time series data from 1994 -2009. By applying Johansen's cointegration technique, the study estimated that the FDI and workers' remittances inflows in Pakistan have appreciating impact on REER.

The existing literature on the impact of workers' remittances on real exchange rate in Pakistan shows variation in methodologies, data sets, definition of real exchange rate, and estimation results. In case of Pakistan, it was identified that most of the studies have used either data before 9/11 or they have used data including fixed and flexible exchange rate regimes thus affecting their results. The main objective of present study is to detect the effect of workers' remittances on the REER excluding fixed exchange rate regime period i.e. data before 1982. To our knowledge, this is the first attempt to investigate workers' remittances association with REER under consistent exchange rate regime.

Estimation Methodology

The model used to estimate the impact of workers' remittances on REER is based on methodology developed by Edwards (1988, 1989, 1994), Elbadawi (1994), and Montiel (1997) for the estimation of equilibrium real exchange rate. The variables incorporated in the model are: Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER), Trade openness (TOP), Terms of Trade (TOT), Government consumption (GCONS), Workers' remittances (REMIT).

$$LREER = f(LREMIT, LTOP, LTOT, LGCONS) \quad (1)$$

To check stationarity of time series data is very important because ordinary least square (OLS) technique provides best, linear and unbiased (BLUE) estimators of parameters in the model only when variables are stationary. In absence of stationarity, the estimates might be spurious. To check stationarity, the most commonly used tests are Dickey-Fuller test (DF), Augmented Dickey-Fuller test (ADF), and Phillips Peron test (PP). Firstly, Dickey (1976) and Fuller (1979) introduced a model which was based on autoregressive (AR) process to check stationarity.

$$Y_t = \rho Y_{t-1} + \mu_t \quad \text{where } -1 \leq \rho \leq +1 \quad (2)$$

If Y_{t-1} is subtracted from both sides, the equation can be written as

$$\Delta Y_t = \Delta Y_{t-1} + \mu_t \quad \text{where } \Delta = \rho - 1 \quad (3)$$

Now consider the following hypothesis:

$$H_0: \Delta = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad H_1: \Delta$$

Table 1
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

Series in BEER	At Level		At First Difference		Model
	With Intercept	With Intercept and Trend	With Intercept	With Inter and Trend	
LREER	-2.852(0)	-1.303(0)	-3.702(0) ***	-4.435(0)***	
LREMIT	-0.145(0)	-0.575(0)	-4.063(0)***	-4.520(0)***	
LTOT	1.293(0)	-0.776(0)	-4.464(0)***	-5.181(0)***	
LTOP	-2.715(0)	-2.604(0)	-6.078(0)***	-5.832(0)***	
LGCONS	-0.362(0)	-1.369(0)	-5.331(0)***	-5.277(0)***	

*** and ** denote significance of test statistic at 10%, 5%, and 1% level of significance respectively against the null hypothesis of unit root. The critical values are taken from Mackinnon (1991). Figures in the parenthesis represent lags selected on the basis of Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC). White noise of residual in ADF test was also checked.

After having same order of integration, the next step in applying cointegration technique is to select an appropriate lag to be used in Johansen's Trace and Maximum Eigen-value tests. For this purpose, Vector Autoregressive (VAR) is applied and on the basis of Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC) appropriate lag has been selected. Table 2 shows that from maximum lags 3, SIC selects lag 1 as an optimal lag.

Table 1
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

Lag	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	NA	3.11e-08	-3.095581	-2.851806	-3.027968
1	163.3616*	4.45e-11*	-9.693559	-8.230908*	-9.287882
2	24.05826	7.76e-11	-9.412006	-6.730479	-8.668265
3	30.44335	4.60e-11	-10.79460*	-6.894198	-9.712794*

LR: Sequential modified LR test statistic (each test at 5% level)

FPE: Final Prediction Error

AIC: Akaike Information criterion

SC: Schwarz Information criterion

HQ: Hannan-Quinn information criterion

*indicates the lag order selected by the criterion

Table 3 shows results of Johansen cointegration tests. Both Trace-test and Maximum Eigen-value test indicate presence of one cointegrating relationship at 5% level of significance. Therefore, by normalizing the cointegration vector on LREER the long-run relationship is presented in Table 4 in residual form as provided by E.Views.

Table 3
Johansen's Cointegration Test Results

Eigen Values in Descending order: 0.737943, 0.431541, 0.396671, 0.301703, 0.015219							
Trace-Stat				Max-Stat			
Null Hyp.	Alter. Hyp.	LR	5%C.V	Null Hyp	Alter. Hyp.	LR	5% C.V
r<0	r=1	72.38**	69.82	r=0	r=1	34.82**	33.88
r<1	r=2	37.56	47.86	r=1	r=2		27.58
r<2	r=3	22.87	29.79	r=2	r=3	13.14	21.13
r<3	r=4	9.74	15.49	r=3	r=4	9.34	14.26
r<4	r=5	0.39	3.84	r=4	r=5	0.39	3.84

**denotes rejection of the hypothesis at 5% level. The lag length (1-1) of VAR was selected based on SBC criterion. Cointegration tests were conducted, assuming that series have trend but the cointegrating equation has only intercepts.

Table 4
Normalized Cointegration Coefficients

LREER	LREMIT	LTOP	LTOT	LGCONS	C
1	-0.69 (0.0914) -7.61	-1.72 (0.4875) -3.54	-1.21 (0.3411) -3.55	0.55 (0.1495) 3.71	7.3199

*The numbers in parentheses under the estimated coefficients are the asymptotic standard errors.

In equation form, the normalized vector can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{LREER} = -7.3199 + 0.69\text{LREMIT} + 1.73\text{LTOP} + 1.21\text{LTOT} - 0.55\text{LGCONS} \quad (4)$$

Workers' remittance has positive and statistically significant effect over the REER, which implies that 1 percent increase in remittances will lead to 0.69 percent rise in REER. This result shows that remittances deteriorate exports competitiveness by appreciating REER thus providing evidence of 'Dutch Disease' problem caused by workers' remittances. All other variables included in the model are significantly affecting REER in the long run. LTOP and LTOT have appreciating effect, whereas, LGCONS has depreciating effect on LREER.

Among diagnostic tests, Portmanteau Autocorrelation test is implied to check the autocorrelation of residual term of VECM. According to Portmanteau Autocorrelation test null hypothesis of no autocorrelation is accepted till the lag 12 because the probability of lags are greater than 0.05. Autocorrelation LM test with null hypothesis of no serial autocorrelation exist in residual. The results of Autocorrelation LM test show that there exists no serial autocorrelation because null hypotheses of all lags are accepted and all probabilities are greater than 0.05. Jarque Bera Normality test is applied to confirm normality of residual term. Probability of Chi-square confirms normality of estimated residual. White Heteroskedasticity test is used to check the heteroskedasticity of model with null hypothesis "there is no heteroskedasticity" and the null hypothesis is accepted because its probability is greater than 0.05.

While comparing findings of this study with previous literature for Pakistan, Ahmad (2009), Mukhlouf and Mazhar (2010), Rehman et al. (2010) have also found positive impact of

remittances inflows on REER which confirms validity of results of this study. Further, Ahmad (2009), and Mukhlouf and Mazhar (2010) include data period from 1970 to 1981 which was fixed exchanged rate regime and Rehman et al. (2010) covers only specified period of time from 1993-7 to 2009-3. Therefore, present study contributes in existing literature by excluding fixed exchange rate regime data.

Conclusion and Policy Implications

The study concludes that under the managed and flexible exchange rate regime workers' remittances appreciate REER thus providing evidence of Dutch disease problem created by workers' remittances inflows in Pakistan. Cointegration results confirm existence of positive and statistically significant effect of workers' remittances on REER in the long run. According to the findings of the study, 1 percent increase in remittances leads to 0.69 percent rise in REER thus significantly affecting competitiveness of exports of Pakistan. Further, terms of trade appreciate REER as 1 percent increase in terms of trade raises 1.21 percent in REER.

Based on the empirical findings of the study, it is recommended that policy makers should also consider negative effects of foreign inflows like workers' remittances on key macroeconomic goal variable like inflation and growth. Although, workers' remittances are major source of foreign exchange inflows in Pakistan, use of remittances for nontradeable goods affects trade competitiveness of the country. Along with augmenting volume of remittances through formal channels, government should devise policies to control unproductive use of remittances which creates inflation and deteriorates competitiveness of exports of Pakistan.

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Impact of Globalization on Poverty: A Case Study of Pakistan

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Globalization is an umbrella term that describes an ongoing process of establishing various personal, cultural and business relationships with other countries. In this regard, this study tries to measure the impact of globalization on poverty alleviation in Pakistan from 1980 to 2010. Foreign direct investment, trade openness and remittances have been used as independent variables to explain the degree of globalization; while head count ratio has been used as a proxy for the dependent variable of poverty. Three methods of time series econometrics – unit root test, cointegration analysis and causality analysis – have been used to analyze the data. The study findings suggest that globalization has a favourable impact on poverty alleviation in Pakistan: 1 per cent increase in trade reduces poverty by 3.08 per cent; 1 per cent increase in remittances reduces poverty by 7.10 per cent; and 1 per cent increase in FDI reduces poverty by 1.59 per cent. Empirical evidence shows that remittances have a grater impact on poverty alleviation than FDI and trade openness. The study recommends that information and technology systems should be improved to make Pakistan an attractive destination for foreign investors.

Keywords: globalization; poverty; FDI; trade openness; remittances; co-integration

The process of globalization embodies an increasing view of the world as a community. Companies are now striving at opening markets in other countries, instead of providing products and services only domestically. Technology is beginning to expand across nations and information is being shared simultaneously with a multitude of people throughout the world. Therefore, the process of globalization appears to be accelerating and rapidly growing.

Globalization – the growing integration of economies and societies across the world – has been one of the most hotly debated topics in international economics over the last few decades. 'Globalization' is used to describe the changing world order in which various aspects of a nation – such as economic, social, political, cultural and environmental – are viewed as being part of a global community and not restricted in their scope.

Poverty is probably the most serious challenges to the world in this century. A complex

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and multidimensional phenomenon, it is defined differently by different institutions. In general, 'poverty' refers to the one who lacks basic human needs, such as clean and fresh water, nutrition, health care, education, clothing and shelter; while 'extreme poverty' to the one who earns less than \$1 a day and 'poverty' to the one who earns less than \$2 a day.

The incidence of poverty is higher in developing countries than in developed countries, because of high population growth rate, lack of job opportunities and unequal wealth distribution. Pakistan, a developing country, has also been hit hard by poverty. In addition, like the vast majority of other countries, its rural areas have been affected more by poverty than the urban areas.

The world economy has become increasingly globalized over the years and is expected to become even more globalized in the days to come. Without exception, all countries have integrated their economies with economies of other countries to a varying degree. Pakistan has also followed suit by opening trade and liberalizing investment policies. In its case, globalization has played an important role in reducing poverty, mainly through provision of jobs and creation of investment opportunities for the local investors.

A high level of remittances and FDI, coupled with trade openness, ensure that a country has not only increased growth but also reduced poverty. Pakistan, which received remittances worth \$9.4 billion in 2010, is among the world's top remittance-receiving developing countries (World Bank, 2011). Though the flow of remittances to Pakistan has fluctuated over time, it has made a significant contribution to poverty alleviation. Similarly, FDI has been helpful in reducing poverty in Pakistan, particularly in the rural areas.

The primary objective of this study is to measure the impact of globalization on poverty alleviation in Pakistan from 1980 to 2010, in both the short and long run. Based on the research findings, the study aims at enhancing the wellbeing of Pakistan's poor citizens by suggesting to the country's leaders that they take steps for reducing poverty through increased remittances, FDI and trade openness.

Empirical Evidence on Poverty and Globalization

Ahmed and O'Donoghue (2010) evaluated the impact of the global economic crisis on Pakistan's economy by using a 'top-down' approach to combine a static computable general equilibrium (CGE) model with a micro-simulation model. The study results suggest that, between 2007 and 2009, the poverty headcount ratio is likely to have increased by almost 80 per cent, from 22 to 40 percentage points. However, this increase is attributable in part to the fuel and food price crises that preceded the financial crisis. The results also indicate a differential impact, with an increase in wages for farm workers and a decrease in wages for skilled labour.

Syed, Shaikh, Mehmood, Afridi, and Shaikh (2011) measured the impact of globalization on Pakistan's SMEs export business and economy by using CGE model. The study results indicate that globalization and FDI have positively influenced the economy: inflation rate has decreased; living standards have improved, especially in the urban areas; and more employment opportunities have been created.

Alam (2010) investigated the impact of globalization, environmental degradation and poverty on Pakistan's economic growth by using unit root test, vector auto regression and variance decomposition. The study results show that globalization has made a significant

contribution to the economic growth, and that globalization can play a positive role in achieving sustainable human development by protecting the environment through adoption of green technologies.

Kalim and Shahbaz (2009) explored the factors influencing poverty in Pakistan with particular emphasis on the relationship between poverty and remittances. They tested the nexus between the two by using fully-modified ordinary least square *technique* and time series data ranging from 1973 to 2006. The study results suggest a significant positive relationship between macroeconomic shocks and poverty; a positive relationship between poverty and FDI, inflation, taxes and initial trade openness; and a negative relationship between poverty and remittances, per capita gross domestic product (GDP) and urbanization.

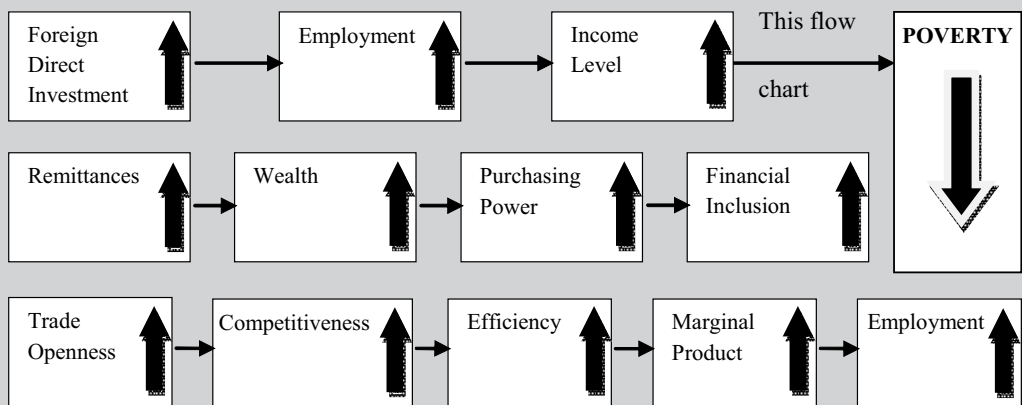
Falki (2009) investigated the impact of FDI on economic growth in Pakistan from 1990 to 2006 by using the production function based on the endogenous growth theory. The Dickey fuller test and OLS were used. She employed independent variables of trade, domestic capital, labour and human capital; and dependant variable of real per capita GDP. The study results showed a positive and statistically significant relationship between real per capita GDP and FDI.

Siddiqui and Kemal (2002) assessed the impact of trade liberalization and a decline in remittances from abroad on poverty in Pakistan using the CGE model. The study results showed that a decline in remittances results in rise in poverty and income inequality.

Theoretical Framework

To investigate the impact of globalization via its indicators, observing its functional channels is necessary (Chart 1). Theoretically speaking, remittances will directly cause a decrease in poverty; while FDI and trade openness lower poverty in most of the developing countries, such as Pakistan, but their impact is indirect – via employment.

Flow Chart 1:
Functional Channel of Poverty and Globalization



that when the level of FDI increases in a country it leads to employment opportunities. The increase in the employment level stimulates the income and leads the country towards poverty alleviation. In second part of this flow chart, increase in the level of the remittances causes increase in the wealth of residents of any country. Now with the higher level of wealth people have more command on the goods and services this indicating that purchasing power of people increases. Remittance transfers can also promote access to financial services for the sender and recipient, thereby increasing financial and social inclusion and also contributing to the high economic growth. This action will create a favourable effect on the country's poverty condition. When a country liberalized its economy with other economies this create bundle of opportunities for country. Under liberalized condition, liberalization increases market competitiveness in the country. This competitiveness increases the efficiency of the country's recourses, like as the efficiency of land and labour increases resulting high value of marginal product. Higher value of marginal product stimulates demand for labour and employment level increases and showing poverty reduction.

Data and Methodology

The main objective of this study is to investigate the impact of globalization on poverty of Pakistan from 1980 to 2010. For data analysis, following model is estimated:

POV=

Where POV =Poverty, TOP = Trade Openness, REM = Remittances, FDI = Foreign Direct Investment

After collection of data on above stated variables from World Development Indicators (WDI) and Federal Bureau of Statistics, different time series econometrics techniques were used for the purpose of empirical analysis. After descriptive analysis of all variables, the first step is to check the stationary of data. If all the variables are stationary or integrated of same order, then we move to cointegration analysis; but if variables are stationary of different orders then we move to autoregressive distributed lag model (ARDL). After analysis of long run association between study variables, in the last step we can easily find stability or short run speed of adjustment among variables of the model by applying vector error correction model (ECM).

Results and Discussions

Recent advancement in the econometrics refers that some of the economic variables are non-stationary in the nature. This influence described such regression spurious and unpredictable to forecast. So, the primary step in this analysis is to check the stationary of the data. The variables are non-stationary that influenced to spurious regression and unpredictable results.

For this purpose; we employed the unit root test at its level, first difference and as well second difference of each variable in our sample using Dickey Fuller / Augmented Dickey Fuller test. The results presented in the Table 1 reveals that all the variables are non-stationary on their level form. However, all variables are found to be at the first differencing level (poverty, remittances, trade openness, FDI) and 5% level for significance is used. Results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Unit Root Estimation

Variables	Level		1 st Difference	
	t-statistics	Prob	t-statistics	Prob
POV	-2.286092	0.1833	-3.188682	0.0318
REM	0.146181	0.2536	-3.832624	0.0012
FDI	5.520507	0.7830	-3.063514	0.0416
TOP	-2.641662	0.0978	-3.769310	0.0093

After making the data stationary our next step is to find out the long run relationship of the dependent and independent variables whether it exists or not. To find out the long run relationship, Johansson Co-integration technique was used. The results of estimation are presented in Table 2. These results show that there are two cointegrating equation in the model and also verify the long run association between the variables. The direction of relationship and their significance is given in below equation.

Table 2
Co-integrating Trace Statistics and Eigen Values for Pakistan

Null	$r=0$	$r<1$	$r<2$	$r<3$
Alternative	$r=1$	$r\geq 2$	$r\geq 3$	$r\geq 4$
Trace statistics	59.40482	33.92319	14.55477	3.366287
Eigen values	0.610840	0.511956	0.339256	0.117218
Critical values	47.85613	29.79707	15.49471	3.841466
Probability	0.0029	0.0158	0.0689	0.0665

Table 2 shows the results of co-integration. Consequently we may conclude that there are five co-integrated relationship among the variables (poverty, remittances, trade and FDI). The null hypothesis of no co-integration ($r=0$) among the variables, the trace statistics is greater than the critical value at the 5% level. Hence the null hypothesis ($r=0$) is rejected in the favour of the alternative hypothesis ($r=1$) that postulated that there is co-integration among variables.

POV = 5.271845 - 3.08 TOP - 7.10 REM - 1.59 FDI

(8.1) (7.9) (1.8)
[3.80771] [9.00] [8.89104]

This equation shows direction of relationship between variables. These result shows that all three variables are negatively and significantly associated with poverty in case of Pakistan. When we analyze the intensity of contribution in poverty alleviation then result shows that remittances are major contributor in poverty alleviation, then trade openness. FDI is alleviating poverty but at least level because FDI in Pakistan is in services sector and also impacting on rich class or we may say that FDI in Pakistan is not pro-poor. All these results are according to theoretical framework of this study.

After evaluating the long run relationship we check the short run relationship. To verify the short run relationship between the variables whether it is exist or not. To verify this relationship error correction mechanism has been used and the findings are shown in Table 3:

Table 3
Estimate of Error Correction Mechanism

	D (POV)	D (TOP)	D (REM)	D (FDI)
CONSTANT	-0.288755 (0.32477) [-0.88911]	-5.81E+08 (2.5E+08) [-2.35009]	-1.18E+08 (2.5E+08) [-0.48249]	0.7234633 (1.624962) [0.44522]
ECM (-1)	-0.289470 (0.05393) [-5.36777]	-1.11E+08 (4.1E+07) [-2.70704]	-22.914099 (4.1E+07) [-0.56312]	0.6475366 (269824.) [0.23999]
R Square	0.892623	0.936097	0.490395	0.461525
S.E	0.929122	7.08E+08	7.01E+08	4.648824
F-Statistics	11.08397	19.53173	1.283070	1.142794

Note: Values in parentheses show standard error while values in [] shows t-values

Table 3 shows the of VEC estimation results. The results indicate that the error correction term for poverty has the correct sign; it has negative sign which indicates that overall model is convergent or speed of adjustment is convergent toward equilibrium. Results of ECM also indicated that the sign of all the terms is negative except FDI.

Conclusion

Pakistan being a developing country faces high poverty rate over the years and globalization can be an effective and fruitful tool if it leads to the reduction in poverty. Pakistan also integrated its economy with the other economies. This research investigated the impact of the globalization via some of its indicators remittances, trade and the foreign direct investment on the poverty in Pakistan.

To evaluate this impact co-integration and the vector error correction mechanism has been used for the Pakistan economy on annual series observations over the period from 1980 to 2010. This study analyzed long run association between the variables and also check short run speed of adjustment. Results indicate that trade, remittances and the FDI leads in the reduction of poverty in long run in Pakistan. Short run speed of adjustment shows that overall model is stable and convergent with the passage of time.

Study suggested that if Pakistan wants to get highest benefit from fruits of economic globalization, it required to be accompanied with implementation of pro-poor growth policies which lay emphasis on investment in human development and provide a structure for social safety nets for the poor. In order to integrate the economy with other economies, country's policy makers should planned a framework in which economic rewards are shared with poor and provision of the employment opportunities and the training programs. Government should

start dialogue with foreign investors to start investment in the areas of social interest, rural development, agriculture etc. Benefits from globalization in economy depend upon domestic macroeconomic policies, market structure, economic condition of economy and political stability.

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Causes and Consequences of Trauma among Street Children in Rawalpindi: An Anthropological Perspective

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The understanding of street children as an important segment of the society is essential since they possess unique characteristics. The presence of children on the street and their practical experiences can make or break their personality, ultimately affecting the whole society. This study aims at identifying the issues of street children in Pir Wadhai, Rawalpindi, with a view to generating the anthropological knowledge that could be used for solving social problems, and making the society healthy and prosperous. It also deals with the family milieu and direct experiences of street children, besides the public perception of street children and its impact on their development.

Keywords: street children; social deviance; culture; vulnerability; family pressure

The importance of children signifies in a social structure that plays a positive role in human and social development. Childhood experiences determine a person's character as an adult, thus highlighting the role of socio-psychological experiences children undergo through interaction with other people and the prevailing environment. Freud, known for his psychoanalysis, saw the traumas of childhood reflected in the neuroses of adults. Though psychology and anthropology deal with different aspects of human behaviour and development, they share a common view about human beings – as an individual and/or a group – under their own given parameters.

Children learn a tradition by growing up in a particular society through a process known as 'enculturation'. Cultural traditions include customs and opinions, developed over generations, about proper and improper behaviour (Kottak, 2009). The culture they live in and the experience they gain is crucial to street children because they encounter different kinds of

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threats, both physical and psychological, that test their strength and ability to cope with the challenges they face in everyday life. As street children grow in a particular environment, they gain a lot of experience about the surroundings and, sooner or later, adapt to cultural practices that are likely to have a strong bearing on their adulthood.

Culture may be *adaptive* or *maladaptive*; and it may have a positive or negative role in making or breaking a society, as well as its rules and regulations, and norms and traditions. High population growth, dependency ratio, degradation of institutional management, feeble internal and external interventions, and mismanagement of available resources are some of the other factors that have a strong bearing on the phenomenon of street children, which entails not only overexploitation but also underutilization of available resources because of lack of awareness and mass illiteracy.

Poverty coupled with backwardness, lack of alternative income sources, fewer employment opportunities, centuries-old agricultural practices, and logistic constraints in terms of productive infrastructure support and external linkage present an integrated set of problems in Pakistan with regard to street children. Interestingly, the vast majority of NGOs do not seem to be interested in or concerned about the problems of street children, as well as their impact on the social order.

Their primary focus is on poverty alleviation, population planning, the environment, health, gender, child labour and education, which are no doubt important issues that need to be addressed on a priority basis since they have a significant impact on the wellbeing of children, but equally or rather more important is the issue of street children!

A constant neglect of this human resource could adversely affect the social and economic fabric of a society. This could result in destruction of values and widespread lawlessness, besides being a direct threat to peace, human security and development. A negative environment enhances the vulnerability of children, and allows them to play in the hands of criminals and later be used by them in their negative activities.

Street children face different kinds of threats that may lead to designation of a positive or negative role, which they have to play in the society, to them. For instance, street children involved in rag-picking learn the tricks of this trade, while others who socialize with those involved in petty crimes become criminals, though there may be exceptions. Street children do become delinquents and antisocial elements, but they become good businessmen and human beings too! The results of this study are expected to be significant for all the stakeholders, including civil society, NGOs, the academia and the policymakers.

Street Children in Pakistan

In Pakistan, street children mostly belong to broken and overcrowded families that have on average six to 10 children. They are psychologically disturbed because of family pressures, abuse, neglect, growing urbanization and industrialization. Street children are mostly illiterate barring a few exceptions of those who have received formal education. The most frequent causes are family disintegration, divorce, single parent, plural marriages, etc.

According to a survey conducted by the Centre for Research and Social Development, about 1.2 million children are living off the streets in Pakistan's large cities, working as beggars, vendors, rag-pickers, car washers or shoeshine boys (Anwar, 2002). Some of them also commit petty crimes or drift into prostitution to make extra money, while there are others who

only steal and prostitute themselves. Many are found in the vicinity of religious shrines, bus stations and railway stations, where they are constantly exposed to several risks and where they become more vulnerable.

Most estimates of the number of street children in Pakistan refer to the main urban centres, suggesting that Karachi and Quetta have more than 15,000 street children each; while Lahore and Peshawar more than 14,000 and 5,000, respectively (Godh, 2003). The reliability and potential for comparison of these estimates is, however, questionable.

No effort has so far been made to assess the nationwide scale of the issue using a unified methodology, perhaps because street children have not been considered worthy enough in Pakistan to warrant such a check. This is despite reports by the Human Rights Commission of Pakistan that kidnapping and rape of children has become one of the most common crimes in the country, with an average of one girl per day (Gannon, 2000).

Instead, the more visible problem of child labour continues to be the focus of interventions and analyses, with the plight of street children coming to the fore only in relation to specific and brutal incidents (Pervaiz et. al., 2004). In Pakistan, around 43 per cent among the total population is under 15 years of age and 48 million adults are below the poverty line earning less than \$2 a day. Street children work 12-15 hours a day to earn their livelihood.

Only in Karachi, the estimated population of street children is 15,000 of which 83 per cent street children sniff glue, 45 per cent are involved in crimes and 49 per cent are at high risk of HIV/AIDS. The United Nations Office on Drug Control and Crime asserts that 72 per cent of all street children have no family contacts and 10 per cent have no knowledge of their families. A large proportion of these children sniff cheap readily available glues to starve off hunger, loneliness and fear (SPARC, 2007).

The Nature of Street Children

Street children could be classified in many ways such as by age, physical health and the time spent on the street. To understand this phenomenon in the light of the definition adopted for this dissertation, street children were found to be unprotected, unsupervised, maximum time spenders on the street, and those for whom street was the source of livelihood. Once on the streets, these children in Pir Wadhai became not only exposed but highly vulnerable to all kinds of threats round the clock, ranging from emotional to physical and verbal to sexual abuses.

Acts of violence against them are considered as justified and pervasive and this has been found in various forms, such as at homes, on the streets, and work place. However, as observed, law enforcing agencies, which were expected to provide them protection against various criminal highhanded types of immoral conducts, were seemed partners in violence against street children. Here indiscriminate violations against children are committed with impunity because of no fear of reprisal from the law and the society (SPARC, 2007).

Street children usually spend their lives in danger, stress on one hand and in search of food, shelter and protection on the other hand. For this purpose they join drop in centres, work places and affiliate themselves with more powerful street/community elders thinking that by pleasing these influential they will be protected from many external dangers. Street children are subjected to physical assault, sexual abuse, and harassment from the public, intimidation by gang members and criminals, and arrest by the police (Richter, 1988). This victimization

frequently repeats what has occurred in the home. Though often victims themselves, street children, according to Swart (1988), are regarded as irresponsible and lawless and a serious financial burden to society.

The whole environment is dangerous for them and they have to face and tackle it in accordance with their own ability, resources and available circumstances. The factors responsible for their existing condition were poverty, frustration, lack of understanding and support from parents, teachers, and the leading being the criminalization of the society as a whole. In order to survive in the hostile environment, they have to do some work on daily wages. They feel independent and comfortable while doing such work and they can choose according to their capacity, nature of work and its requirement. The only difficulty is that sometime they have no work for entire day, whole night or for several days and even weeks. During such hard times, they become more susceptible to get involved in unwanted and socially unacceptable activities.

Some children work in the informal sector (Wright, Kaminsky, & Wittig, 1993): hawking in the markets and darting in and out of the traffic jams, plying their trade at bus and train stations, in front of hotels and shopping malls. On the street, they shine shoes, wash and guard cars, carry luggage, do street vending, hawk flowers and trinkets, collect recyclables, sell newspapers and find a myriad of other ingenious ways to make money, often resorting to begging in between (UNICEF, 1997; Krueger & Richter, 1997; SPARC, 1999).

Whether it was home, work place, street, or a market, none of these places were safe for these unattended street children. The streets, pavements, bus stops, railway stations and market places become their homes and workplaces. These places and their environment remain uncomfortable for street children. Notorious people appear ready to trap the children and bring them under their fold to get maximum benefit by using them in illegal activities. The desires of these people were driven by selfish motives as they subject the children to sexual exploitation. The tragic part was that the children on one hand were victim of exploitation and on the other hand struggled to find a decent livelihood by hunting for jobs, shelter, and food but each time ended up in the hands of antisocial gangs.

Approximately 26 million children are believed to be engaged in hazardous work (UNICEF, 2006). They are denied of their basic needs such as food, shelter, clean water and parental protection. Inadequately protected children were vulnerable to abuse and had tendency to commit petty crimes starting from petty crimes like thefts, therefore, they were conveniently used by the vested interests. It was found that unsupervised children were also vulnerable but in lesser intensity, as they were bold and knew well how to escape from any dangerous situation when faced with any. Aptekar (1994) stated that in the beginning child spends a small amount of time away from home, and progresses to the total adoption of the street lifestyle and culture. It can be safely said that this idea applies to almost all the children belonging to any classification or category. Peer group plays an important and helping role to bring them on the street and once they become habitual of this life it becomes difficult for them to leave it. Some were fortunate to leave the street life, start their own business, generate handsome income, but yet continued to remain in touch with the street.

Lusk (1992) has emphasized the psychological characteristics of four groups of street children: poor, working children who return to their families at night and usually attend school – they are not likely to exhibit delinquent behaviour; independent street workers, whose family ties are in the process of breaking down – their school attendance is erratic and they exhibit

increasing delinquency; children who live and work with their families on the street – poverty is the overwhelming reason for their presence; and children who have broken off all contact with their families – they live full time on the streets and are the 'real' street children.

Street children who belonged to elite and middle class had adopted street life for fun, adventure and enjoyment. Their time span on the street was very short as compared to the children from poor class. The reason was that they could get undue favour from their parents any time for their wrong doings and money was no problem for them if at all they were trapped in a difficult situation.

Environment and socialization played substantial role to make children helpless or to protect them from potential danger. The society was in a dilemma; it wanted to help but could not do so due to various socio-economic limitations. Delinquents were getting powerful and influential while the ordinary children were getting weak and powerless, fearful and hesitant to face life's realities. This is because of de facto or built-in defect in socio-economic setup that creates huge gap between the powerful and powerless. The powerful intentionally create fear among the weak to exercise and maintain their authority. Police and criminals join hands with them and get their due share.

Table 1
The Nature and Extent of Street Childern

Children from Elite Class	Children from Middle Class	Children from Poor Class	Orphan Children	Street Children of Troubled Families
Temporarily on the street for fun, thrill, time killing, hanging out	Temporarily on the street, struggling for education, or employment	Spend 14 to 15 hours on the street, support their families financially	Street permanent abode, fight for survival, no hesitation in doing anything	Keep visiting families, aggressive, can do anything for money
No financial problems, attend schools, graduation and above	Have some financial problem, attend school, 10 th grade to 12 th grade, in some cases graduation or post-graduation	Attend, drop out, again attend again drop out, continue until finally drop out, 5 th grade or \pm	Attend drop in centres for food, shelter and to some extent so called education, can read and write + counting	No schooling, no interest, fed up of people, hatred and irritating behaviour, Never went to school
Not vulnerable to any threat but themselves were threat	Little vulnerable, want to be rich, forced to leave education	Struggling for survival, vulnerability is less	Vulnerable to abuse, probable delinquent	Vulnerable to all threats, mostly delinquent

Prevalent Environment

The environment has different connotation to different people and disciplines. It covers all existing ambience and features of the living and non-living things. It has wide-ranging impact on living things including human beings and their living conditions. Its severity multiplies when we talk about vulnerable segment of the society. For instance, poverty forces to adopt poor living conditions, which ultimately refer to live rest of life under threat.

The environment was playing a decisive role in the lives of children who had left their home for some reason or were forced to spend much of their time in the streets. The term

'environment' refers to our total surroundings including the components of the biophysical world, and the cultural, social, political and economic spheres in context of the people.

The environment includes the things we can see, feel and touch (such as trees, water and soil) and things we cannot see (such as the operation of political and economic system, technology advancement or stagnancy, working of religious and the institutions that operate in society) (Baker et al., 2000). Their experiences within available environment decide their destiny. Hunger forced them to steal; hatred behaviour of people made them mentally sick, unprotected environment compelled them to adopt careless attitude. Self-esteem of these children was badly damaged in the street environment and they were considered misfits in social environment and were called with bad names, termed as thieves, notorious and social evils.

Pirwadhai is known as one of the scandalous places of its kind, of course having very notorious environment, which is enough to encourage infamous characters such as street children especially. The surroundings of Pirwadhai including biophysical or built environment is pathetic where these children are roaming around unprotected in search of food, shelter, and for labour work to meet the basic requirement of their survival.

Every environment consists of two parts that are closely interconnected: the biophysical environment and the built environment. The biophysical environment includes living things such as plants and animals, and non-living things (physical) such as rocks, soil and water. The built environment includes everything that is made or altered by people, such as buildings, roads, schools, pollution and laws of the land (Baker et. al., 2000).

As mentioned earlier, in the study area, the environment was not feasible for uplift of the children and society. Subsequently, it could not make them literate or provide them education, safe drinking water or create a pollution free environment. Trees had become nonexistent because of deficient water and over construction, so there was no point in talking about clean water.

A similar situation was prevalent in case of political and economic system, religious and other institutions that operate in society; these were almost non-functional and in some cases were nonexistent apparently. The roads, as mentioned earlier, were in a very poor condition, pollution from vehicles was alarmingly high, and laws, though they exist were violated by all and sundry in the study area.

Role of Social Environment

Social responses of elite, government and local privileged class towards the deprived and deviants determine the social problem, but did not take into account the structural flaws and unequal opportunities to the less privileged or their access to the resources. The question that arises is whether street children cause a social problem or the social problem produces these children.

Conflict between facilitation and impediment to succeed in fact caused deviant behaviour among them. Street children of Pirwadhai remained away or the environment kept them away from setting an aim (according to the accepted norms of success) for themselves. Weak policies, poor implementation, lack of transparency and above all the connivance of law enforcing agencies with the criminal elements add to discrimination against street children.

Deviant activities of street children, unjust and rude attitude of local community and

abuse-loaded environment were prevalent round the clock and helped in creating a situation where X-rated videos and movies were easily available in hotels, mini cinemas and video game clubs in the study area. Street children had access to such activities at cheap rate which helped in satisfying their inner sexual desires. Sometimes they got a chance to watch the dirty stuff free of cost but they did not realize that they had to pay huge cost for it.

By watching these X-rated videos, street children had a sexual arousal; and being weak they became easy victims of pleasures seeking people. The X-rated pornographic movies aroused lustful feelings in street children because of which they were driven intentionally or unintentionally to physical and sexual exploitation. They were too timid and immature to anticipate the outcome of this dirty activity free of cost.

Children Living with Other Children

Street children felt secure by living together and helpful when the need arises. They lived in group form, shared room rent, shared food if required and also confronted the danger jointly when required. About 37 per cent children lived with only one best friend, 37 per cent lived with two other friends, and 26 per cent lived with four other friends. It did not matter whether they lived in rented house; drop in centres, hotels or *Sarais*. An informer told the researcher that children living together in large numbers were problematic, and they tended to divide into small groups of two to three.

Teasing or bickering in large group sometimes turned into serious fighting and landed one group or person in hospital or in police lock up. The conflict was usually started with verbal abuse or bullying and turned into a physical and violent quarrel and ended up with injuries to both sides. Interestingly, this was not the end of fight but it continued till the aggrieved party had avenged its humiliation. Living together and fighting for the interest of their group was found to be common feature. This was the result of influence of other peers even if they were not involved in the quarrel.

Table 2
Children Living with Other Children

No. of other Children Living with	No. of Children	Percent
1	31	37
2	31	37
4	22	26
Total	84	100

Social Deviance takes Roots in Street Children

Generally speaking, if someone who followed whatever rules/norms of the society and complies with the social expectation is called normal/adaptive/obedient and useful organ of the society and if he failed to comply with set standards of the society, he/she was labelled as maladaptive and deviant and a sick organ of the society. The deciding forces hardly consider that such behaviours are contingent on other people's reactions and behaviours. Because

deviance is behaviour that does not conform to social expectations, it is socially created (Becker, 1963). Deviance is not a property inherent in any particular kind of behaviour; it is a property conferred upon that behaviour by the people who come into direct or indirect contact with it" (Erikson, 1966).

If this argument is accepted then one has to change the behaviour of those people who were a driving force behind such unacceptable behaviours. Additionally some rethinking needs to be done about changing the norms/rules and regulations of the society which appear to deny the basic needs to the individuals. Also it needs to be found why society failed to create an environment conducive to provide equal opportunity to its member to prosper or get involved in healthy and fair competition. The sick structure of the society is plagued by class system and unable to tackle this issue or lessen such behaviours, should be transformed completely if necessary, as it produced wicked and sinful class, such as street children.

Most of us conform to the norms of society most of the time. Similarly, most of us on occasion violate minor social norms, and these violations are usually tolerated or even ignored. An occasional breach of etiquette, participation in a riotous celebration after an important sports victory, or loud chatter in a theatre may bring some minor social disapproval to the violators but no serious punishment. The social deviance, that most interests sociologists concerns, offenses that are seriously disapproved of by many people and therefore evoke serious social consequences for the violators (Stanely & Baca, 2002).

The occasional or irregular violations were irritating but not of much concern to society and its members. Deviance was an integral part of all societies and retained positive and negative attributes. In positive way of thinking, deviant stimulate individuals on how to behave, value the norms of the society and avoid the negative behaviours while perceiving how violators of important social norms were stigmatized. According to Durkheim (1960), deviant behaviour actually has positive consequences for society because it gives the non-deviants a sense of solidarity.

By punishing the deviant, the group expresses its collective indignation and reaffirms its commitment to the rules. One should be careful while talking about the behaviours because in the perspective of cultural relativism if a particular behaviour in one society is considered a norm, the same behaviour pattern in some other society could be considered as a taboo, or a deviation. For example, wearing scarf by girls is a norm, rather value in Iranian and Pakistani societies, which is considered deviancy in European society.

Deviancy is a social creation that is not inherited. Society impinges on this intensely private form of intimacy to shape our ideas about what is erotic, to define what taboo is, and to determine who appropriate sexual partners are. The social context of parents, peers, community, church, school, media, and government thus condition, constrain, and socially define sexual behaviour (Ross & Rayna, 1983). Street children were labelled sick, dishonest, criminal, and wicked, etc. without realizing the factors behind their deviant behaviours and kind of consequences, such as arduous attitude, would have on them and ultimately on society. The awfully depressing response from the society to street children might cause irritation and personal antipathy towards street children, instead of making an effort to steer them back to normal and respectable life.

Psychological Trauma Creates Disorders in Children's Lives

Street children went through enormous traumatic events at home, on the streets and in the drop in centres or schools. These events affected their thought processes, which ultimately were reflected in their behaviours while dealing or interacting with other people who were also part of the society. The continuity of such events finally leads to the type of personality that provides opportunity to the people, with whom they are interacting, to label them according to their wish and develop their own perception, the way they understand such children.

It is a type of damage to the psyche that occurs as a result of a traumatic event. When that trauma results in post traumatic stress disorder, damage can be measured in physical changes inside the brain and to brain chemistry, which affect the person's ability to cope with stress (Wikipedia, 2008). Street children found themselves in a conflict situation when faced with different perceptions prevailing in the society about them.

There is frequently a violation of the person's familiar ideas about the world and of their human rights, putting the person in a state of extreme confusion and insecurity. This is also seen when people or institutions depend on each other for survival and violate or betray the person in some unforeseen way. However, different people will react differently to similar events. One person may perceive an event to be traumatic that another may not, and not all people who experience a traumatic event will become psychologically traumatized.

These traumas had diverse physical and socio-psychological repercussions on child's psyche and their fight and flight responses. These children either had gone through one or more of said responses which created trauma or they were living in such vulnerable condition where they were prone to undergo some traumatic conditions. They accepted themselves as a part of society's evil resulting from traumatic situations like physical, sexual or verbal abuse, deprivation of basic rights, individual or institutional betrayal, and exposure to natural or man-made disasters. They were left no choice but to accept one of those situations for their survival.

These children were also victims of family betrayal where their parents or close relatives put them in betrayal traumas that led them to behaviour full of distrust, helplessness, and deceit. But some of the children took these situations in an unusual way; besides being self-reliant; they became volatile and delinquent. These were the ways they reacted to these traumas which surely affected their psyche. These traumas especially betrayal arises primarily from difficult circumstances created by family. The children feel lonely, helpless and find no way to express their feelings, and ultimately end up with another psychological disorder called depression.

Conclusion

Street children are those who live or spend most of their time in the streets besides earning their livelihood there. They live alone in the streets, without proper supervision or safe shelter. Street children share the streets with millions of adults, many of whom regard them as nuisances, and even dangerous mini-criminals. Street children face hardships and dangers on the streets, lack of food, clean water and adequate health care on the streets.

They are often victims of various physical and moral dangers and as they grow older they often become a danger to others. An attempt was made to understand why instead of being raised and nurtured at homes under protected environment the children tend to prefer

street life that is full of hard realities. Whether they adopted street by choice or they became part of it by some external influences. The fact was that street children phenomenon has existed in all the societies including Pirwadhai though its severity varies.

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The Effects of Gari Solution on Endurance Ability: An Interventional Study Among Schoolchildren In Ilorin Metropolis

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This research study investigated the effect of concentrations of gari solution on endurance ability of schoolchildren in Ilorin metropolis. The design of the study was experimental and involved the manipulation of a particular variable. In order to provide solution to the research problem, four hypotheses were drawn. Forty subjects were randomly selected as sample from four male secondary schools in Ilorin metropolis. The selected children were aged 12-13 and not actively involved in sports. Standardized instruments were used for both the experimental and control groups. The results of the experimental groups showed a significant difference in the effects of concentrations of gari solution on the endurance ability of schoolchildren in Ilorin metropolis. The three groups with treatment improved tremendously in their performance over the post-test results and that of the control group. This showed that the treatment improved the performance of the schoolchildren in endurance activities such as 4km run/walk. Based on the findings, it is recommended among others that coaches, athletes and others involved in endurance activities should cultivate the habit of taking gari solution to enhance performance.

Keywords: gari solution, cassava, endurance ability, schoolchildren, carbohydrates, electrolyte drinks

Proper nutrition forms the foundation for physical performance, since it provides both the fuel for biological work and the chemicals for extracting and using the potential energy contained within this fuel. Nigeria is fast becoming a sports-loving nation since a lot of Nigerians have taken to sports for a variety of reasons, such as unifying factor, political integration, medium of communication, job opportunities and fitness for individuals (Adeniyi, 1990).

Cassava is a basic energy source for human foods and one of its products – *gari* – is a

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well-known West African food especially popular in Nigeria. *Gari* is obtained by first grating fresh peeled cassava roots, allowing the mash to ferment for two-five days and squeezing the fermented mash to reduce its moisture content, before roasting the dewatered mash on a hot flat surface. It is a free-flowing granular meal consumed in a variety of ways (Cook, 2005).

Electrolyte drinks help in prolonging the capacity for physical exercise, which in turn helps spare muscle glycogen and delays or prevents low blood sugar levels, and consequently helps to reduce or delay fatigue (Nancy 1990; Sloan, 2005; Fox, 2009; Talabi, 2001). They also help to keep the body in fluid balance (Nancy, 2006). Electrolyte drinks are vital to an athlete's performance, especially in the humid tropic countries such as Nigeria where high temperatures are coupled with high humidity. This may result in a situation where excessive amount of water and electrolytes are lost in the body because of excessive sweating (Talabi, 2001).

Endurance activities or those expending large amounts of energy for a long time need an electrolyte fluid that contains 60-70% calories and minerals and can provide an advantage during exercise by keeping the body energized and mineralized, so that it is able to concentrate better. This is so because sweat contains not only water but also small amounts of sodium, potassium and other electrolytes that help to keep body in fluid balance (Coggan & Swanson, 2002; Nancy, 2006).

The human body requires a certain number of essential nutrients to function satisfactorily. These include protein, carbohydrate, minerals, vitamins and water. While the carbohydrates, fats and proteins can be supplied by relatively few natural foods, a larger collection of food may be needed to supply minerals and vitamins, since about 20 vitamins and 17 minerals believed to be active in human nutrition (Talabi, 2000). Energy demands of athletes depend on the intensity of muscle work and duration of event. Athletes involved in events of short duration need little amounts of carbohydrate since it is the most efficient source of energy and is readily absorbed, unlike foods that are high in fat and protein.

People who do very little exercise need about 1,500-2,500 calories per day; just sitting down or even sleeping uses up some energy. More active adults need around 2,500-3,000 calories per day to maintain a normal weight. Men usually need more energy than women. The more active one is, the more energy he or she needs. Endurance athletes consume 5,000 or more calories a day. Brewer, Williams and Patton (2008) and (Marieb, 2009) asserted that it is better to get this extra energy by increasing carbohydrate intake than eating more fat or protein, since most athletes get as much as 60-70% of their energy from carbohydrates.

The primary purpose of carbohydrate ingestion during continuous strenuous exercise is to maintain blood glucose concentration and carbohydrate oxidation during the latter stages of prolonged exercise (Coggan & Swanson, 2002). As a result, subjects can exercise longer and sprint faster at the end of exercise. Most studies demonstrating improved performance have given subject 25-60 grams of carbohydrate per hour of exercise though some have also given more (American College of Sport Medicine, 1991; Sawka, Knowlton, & Critz, 2009).

Therefore, Coyle, Hagberg, Hurley, Martin, Ehsani, and Holloszy (2011) recommended that individuals should consume solutions that provide 30-60 grams of carbohydrate per hour in the form of glucose, sucrose or starch. Moreover, solid carbohydrate-feedings in the form of food containing sucrose or starch can probably also meet the carbohydrate needs of exercise (Fielding, Costill, Fink, King, Hargreaves & Kowaleski, 2005). However, most athletes prefer to drink rather than eat carbohydrates during exercise.

Cassava – *Manihot esculenta* Crantz (syn. *Manihot utilissima* Polm), a dicotyledonous

perennial plant belonging to the botanical family Euphorbiaceae, is an important root crop in Nigeria. This starchy root crop grows almost entirely in the hotter lowland tropics. The crop is also known under a variety of names according to the region in which it is cultivated – *cassava* in English-speaking countries of North America, Europe and Africa; *manioc* in French-speaking countries; *tapioca* in English-speaking countries of South East Asia; *mandioca* in Brazil; and *Yuka* in Spanish-speaking countries of South America (Asiedu, 2009).

Gari can be considered to be the most popular form in which cassava is consumed in West Africa. Cassava is processed into *gari* in the following ways. The harvested roots are peeled, washed and then grated. The resulting pulp is put into a cloth bag and subjected to pressure by heaping stones on the bag. After pressing, the bag is left for 2-4 days, during which time the pulp ferments. Most of the juice from the cassava pulp is expressed from the bag, during this period. The fermented pulp is then removed from the bag, sieved and roasted or fried in wide, shallow metal pans, until dry. The processing of cassava into *gari* involves several unit operations: Peeling, washing, grating, pressing, fermenting, sieving, roasting and drying.

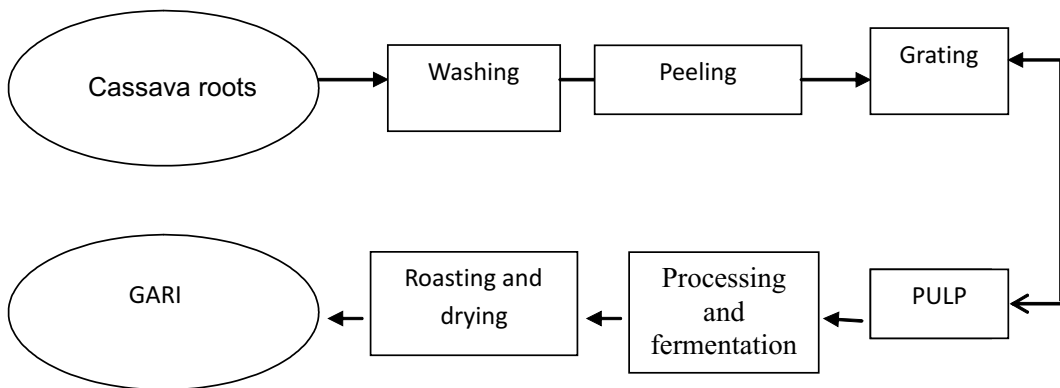


Figure 1: Flow Chart for gari Processing in rural areas of West Africa

Traditional *gari* production is laborious and time-consuming; on average it takes about 90 hours to process 100kg of *gari*. About 65 percent of the total time is spent on peeling a 25 percent on roasting. “Gari” occupies an important place in the diets of the people of West Africa. It is customarily consumed in the form of meal, which is prepared by soaking the “gari” in water to swell the starch, and by making the swollen meal into dough. The dough is then made into a ball with the fingers and is dipped into stew containing ingredients such as palm oil, vegetable, meat or fish. *Gari* may also be eaten without a stew or soup by soaking it in cold water and adding sugar or milk.

Table 1
Nutrient composition of cassava Meal of Feed Ingredients

Ingredient	Dry matter (DM%)	Crude protein %	energy Mek Cal/kg	ether extra (ou)%	Crude fibre %	Lysine %	Methionine %	Calcium %	Phosphorus available %
Cassava Meal	90	2.5	3200	0.50	3.50	0.07	0.03	0.20	0.03

(Source: Nutrient Master, 2011)

Table 2
Composition of Peeled Cassava Tubers

Constituent	Fresh Basis (%)	Dry matter Basis (%)
Water	66.2	-
Starch	27.5	81.5
Sucrose	1.0	3.0
Glucose	0.4	1.1
Fructose	0.3	0.8
Protein	0.4	1.3
Fats	0.2	0.6
Minerals	0.8	2.5
Dietary fibre	1.5	4.3
Remainder	1.7	4.9
Cyanide (HCN) (PPM)	150-300	300-900

Sources: Karim and Fasasi (2009)

It is the opinion of the researchers that a very good electrolyte drink can be made from cassava (gari) solution. This may however need more mineralization to cater for the mineral deficiencies especially that of potassium, sodium and chloride, ions.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to examine the effect of electrolytes solution prepared from cassava on endurance capacity of school age children, with the view of providing information on the effectiveness of "Gari" solution as a means of providing supplementation during athletic event.

Research Questions

1. Will intake of Gari solution have effect on the pre and post performance of the experimental group A in 4km run/walk?
2. Will intake of Gari solution have effect on the pre and post test performance of the experimental group B in 4km run/walk?
3. Will intake of Gari solution have effect on the pre and post test performance of the experimental group C in 4km run/walk?

Research Hypotheses

1. Gari solution will not have any significant effect on the pre and post test endurance performance of the experimental group A in 4km run/walk.
2. Gari solution will not have any significant effect on the pre and post test endurance performance of the experimental group B in 4km run/walk.
3. Gari solution will not have any significant effect on the pre and post test endurance performance of the experimental group C in 4km run/walk.
4. There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test endurance performance of the control group in 4km run/walk.

Methods and Materials

This study adopted a quasi experimental research design (Araoye, 2003). It was equally an experimental study that involves the manipulation of a particular variable which is concentration of *gari* solution in pre and post-test situation. The population selected was male junior secondary school children in Ilorin metropolis within the age range of 12-13years of age. The subjects used in this study were 40 male students who volunteered from four secondary schools in Ilorin metropolis which are Government Secondary School (GSS) Ilorin; Mount Carmel College (MCC) Ilorin; Government Day Secondary School (GDSS) Fate Ilorin and Government Technical College (GTC) Ilorin. The subjects used were randomly selected through balloting from the number of the volunteer students. The subjects selected were those not actively involved in sports, within the age limit of 10-13 years in the Junior Secondary Schools (JSS).

The tools used in this study were standardized instruments, such as; stop watches, starting gun, kitchen scale, standard stadium athletic track, and *gari* solution- this is a specially prepared solution which was given to the children under the experimental groups. There were three different (A, B, C) solutions for experimental groups. *Gari* solutions used were 60grams/1000ML for group A, 70grams/1000ML for group B and 80grams/1000ml for group C. Coyle and Montain (2002) observed that 6% to 8% carbohydrate solution allows easy gastric emptying which is the best for adequate fluid replacement.

The *gari* solution was prepared and served one hour (1hr) before the commencement of the race. This allowed the *gari* to dissolve properly before the race. The *gari* solution was properly stirred together and the particles removed. An interval of 30 minutes was allowed between when the drink was taken and the commencement of the post test race (Coggan and Swanson, 2002).

The researchers and 6 trained research assistants were involved in carrying out the experiment involving 40 male students. The research assistants were used to prepare, guide and render assistance to both the researchers and the subjects. Subjects were randomly divided into four groups (10 per group).

Before the commencement of the race, four different jars of solution were made available. The jars were labelled to reflect the four groups of the already divided students. For the pre-test race only water was put into all the four jars for subjects to take. Only between 600-1250ml of water was allowed for each subject, since the race is expected to finish before 60 minutes. American College of Sports medicine (2005), agreed that the liquid solution to be taken should be within 600-1250ml h⁻¹. Subjects were told about the content of the solution in

post test races.

For the post-test three different concentration of “Gari” solution were made available for the experimental group while the controlled group was made to drink ordinary water. An interval of one week was between the pre and post test race, so as to allow the subjects to recover fully from the stress of the previous pre-test.

A warm up of 10-15 minutes was allowed for each subject before the commencement of either the pre or post test. Activities for the warm up were limited to stretches and short exercises. Subjects were advised not to eat any food before coming for the pre and post test race. This is because if a high carbohydrate diet precedes athletic activity, the type of sports drink ingested may not have effect on the performance improvement.

Coyle and Montain (2002) advised that carbohydrate solution should be between 6% to 8% concentration, because this is the concentration that is best for gastric emptying for most people.

Solution A contained 60grams/1000ml which gave 6% concentration of *gari* solution was given to experimental group A.

Solution B contained 70grams/1000ml which gave 7% concentration of *gari* in solution was for experimental group B.

Solution C contained 80grams/1000ml which gave 8% concentration of *gari* in solution was used for experimental group C. Whereas solution D contained only water for the control group.

Even though the instruments for this study are already standardized and validated, the researchers conducted a pilot test on 8 subjects; this was used to familiarize the researchers and the research assistants on testing procedure. During the post test race, the four groups were balloted into the three specially prepared *gari* solutions (experimental groups) and the water solution (control group). The race was done very early in the morning between 8 and 10 a.m. The four different groups were lined up behind the four different solutions, thirty minutes before the commencement of the race. Only between 600-1250mls of the solutions was allowed for each subject to drink before the commencement of the race.

All the four groups of drink and subjects were distinctly labeled for proper identifications. The entire group started the race at the same time and place. The time returned for each subjects was recorded and placed in the appropriate groups for group analysis of the results. During the one week interval between pre and post-test subjects were advised not to do any activities that are different from their daily routine. The data collected in the study was treated with descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation. Also, inferential statistics of *t*-test was used to compare the pre test and post test scores at 0.05 level of significance.

Results and Discussion

Results

Table 3

Bio-data of respondent in percentage

Characteristics	Frequency/No.	Percentage (%)
School	.	.
GSS, Ilorin	10	25
MCC, Ilorin	10	25
GDSS, Fate, Ilorin	10	25
GTC, Ilorin	10	25
Total	40	100
Class		
JSS I	10	25
JSS II	10	25
JSS III	10	25
Total	40	100
Age (In years)		
10 -11	18	45
12 – 13	22	55
Total	40	100

Table 3 shows that respondents were equally sampled from the four secondary schools as follows; 25% apiece from GSS, Ilorin, MCC, Ilorin, GSS, Fate, Ilorin and GTC, Ilorin. 45% of the respondents are in JSS III, 30% in JSS II and 25% in JSS I. Whereas, 55% are within ages 12 – 13 years and 45% are within age 10 -11 years.

Table 4

The Pretest and Post test Mean and Standard deviation scores on 4Km run/ walks for time.

	EXP A (6%) Concentration	EXP A (7%) Concentration	EXP C (8%) Concentration	Control (0%)
PRE	8.35min	8.20min	8.29min	8.26min
SD	1.0706	1.4539	1.7764	1.7053
POST	7.63min	7.40mins	7.28mins	8.15mins
SD	s1.6357	2.3279	2.1259	1.3836

From the Table 4, it is clear that the group C with 8% "Gari" solution returned the least time of 7.28minutes for the post-test 4km run/walk. This is followed by group B (7% "Gari" concentration) with a time of 7.40minutes and group A (6% "Gari" concentration) with a time of 7.63 minutes. The control group D with 0% "Gari" concentrations returned the highest post-test run score of 8.15minutes. This clearly shows that the different concentrations of "Gari" solution affected the experimental groups A, B, and C differently to some extent.

Table 5
Comparison of intra-group Performance on 4km run/walk

Variables	N	X	SD	df	Calculated t-value	Critical
Pre A	10	8.35	1.0706	4.46*	2.262	
Post A	10	7.63	1.6357 9			
Pre B	10	8.20	1.4539	5.28*	2.262	
Post B	10	7.40	2.3279 9			
Pre C	10	8.29	1.7764	2.262		
Post C 10	7.28	2.1259 9	8.33*			
Pre D	10	8.26	1.7053	2.262		
Post D 10	8.15	1.3836 9	1.77			

* Significant at 0.05 alpha level

The Table 5 above shows the existence of significant difference of 4.46 between Pre and Post for experimental group A; 5.28 between Pre and Post for experimental group B; 8.33 between Pre and Post for experimental group C are however no significant difference between Pre and Post-test score for group D which is the control group. This also helps to confirm that the “Gari” solution in post experimental group A, B and C significantly influenced the performance on the 4km run/walk. While the absence of “Gari” solution in Post D group did not have any significant effect.

Discussions

In hypothesis 1, the mean for the group A (pre is 8.40 minutes while post is 7.63 minutes). The table 4 also indicates the result of the t-test for this group. The calculated t-value of 4.46 is greater than the critical t-value of 2.262; therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. Showing that there is a significant difference between the endurance performance of school children in pre and post tests in experimental group A in a 4km run/walk based on different concentration of Gari solution. This finding is in line with study that carbohydrate injection can enhance performance during prolonged exercise (Coggan and Swanson, 2002, Coyle and Montain,

2011).

Hypothesis 2 is rejected, because, calculated value of 5.28 is greater than the critical t-value of 2.26. The mean score of group B (pre is 8.20 while post is 7.40), It is therefore glaring that there existed a significant difference between the endurance performance of school children in the pre and post tests in experimental group in 4km run/walk based on different concentration. Is in line with the present study is that of Fitzgerald (2002) who also believe that athletic performances is enhanced by consuming beverages of various combinations of carbohydrates (glucose, sucrose, fructose, glucose polymers) electrolytes (sodium potassium, chloride).

On hypothesis 3, based on the result from analysis that calculated t-value of 8.33 is greater than the critical t-value of 2.26, this clearly shows that the hypothesis is rejected. With the mean group C (pre is 8.28 minutes while post is 7.28 minutes), it can therefore be ascertained that there is a significant difference between the endurance performances of pre and post tests in experimental group C in a 4km run/walk on the bases of different concentrations of "Gari solutions.

The outcome of this study is corroborates with Coyle and Montain (2002) in their study using 6%, 7% and 8% glucose concentration also found that 8% concentration gave the best result in his study. This study is also in line with Coggan et al (1989) who concluded that carbohydrate injection improves performance primarily by maintaining the availability and oxidation of this critical fuel when endogenous carbohydrate stores are low.

Hypothesis 4 was accepted, because the calculated value of 1.77 is less than the critical table value of 2.262, at df 9 and 0.05 level of significant. This shows that there is no significant difference in pre and post test endurance performance among the students in Ilorin metropolis in 4km run/walk. This depicts that for any significant improvement to be on the endurance performance of the students, there is need to administer a booster in form of carbohydrate solution to the students.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn

1. Prepared "gari" solution greatly improved the endurance performance of students in the experimental group as compared with those who did not take it.
2. Gari solution brought a positive significant difference in the result of the Pre-test and Post-test scores of the experimental groups.
3. The local electrolyte (gari solution) enhanced the endurance performances of the students at different levels of concentrations.

Recommendations

In view of the findings and conclusions of this research, the following recommendations are made:

1. The local electrolyte (gari solution) should be encouraged by the coaches, sport handlers and used by the athletes instead of the foreign sport drinks.
2. The timing of administration of gari solution should be determined according to individual before drinking for competition.
3. People should catch vision on the production and how to hygienically package the

local electrolyte (gari solution) with adequate preservation, so as to make our athletes and others who engage in endurance activity have easy access to such as a standard drink.

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Assessment of Informal Trade in local development in Africa: Case study of Bondoukou city (Cote d'Ivoire)

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African countries are faced with severe economic crises that involve the recrudescence of joblessness and poverty. Many development programmes have been set up for dealing with these issues without real success. These plans don't take in account informal trade, main provider of jobs and income in African cities growing in an indescribable way. Through the case of Bondoukou city in Cote d'Ivoire, this study evaluates the role played by informal trade in city development. Does this activity influence economic development locally? What are the strength, weakness, threats and opportunities afforded by informal trade for upgrading people life in a locality?

Key words: Informal Trade, women, employment, income, development, Bondoukou

Trade is the transfer of ownership of goods and service from one person or entity to another, and is sometimes loosely called commerce or financial transaction or barter (Wikipedia, 2012). Practiced in Africa, it is not organized in the same manner like in developed countries. Its organization methods are just as informal (ECA, 2010). Informal Trade is informal activity characterized by small scale operation with weak level of organization, informal employment based on part-time employment, individual enterprises, and "there is personal, unlimited liability on the part of the proprietor for all commitments entered into during the production process" (AFRISTAT, 1999).

According to International Labor Organization (ILO), "Informal activity is any activity that is unregistered and/or without formal written account, carried out as a principal or secondary employment, by a person as a boss or in his own individual capacity. This person,

*ECA: Economic Commission for Africa

actively employed, is thus considered the head of an informal unit" (AFRISTAT, 1999).

Such unregistered activities may be defined as illegal, unofficial; underground/ parallel/ black market activities, over-invoicing and under invoicing smuggling and contraband activities (Meagher, 1997). The products sold can be schematically classified into three main categories: Products of agricultural provenance, fisheries and domestic livestock; domestic handicrafts; and Cross-border imports of manufactured products and those imported and re-exported without value added, in parallel circuits. The informal trade is as old as informal economy that is the main source of job creation in Africa, providing between 20 per cent and 75 per cent of total employment in most countries (McLachlan, 2005; ECA, 2010). Street vending is global phenomenon. In cities, towns, and village throughout the world, million of people earn their living wholly or partly by selling a wide range of goods on the streets, sidewalks, and others public spaces (ILO, 2002).

Informal trade appears in the space where unemployment and poverty are currently visible. Thus in Africa, most of countries has experienced wars, political instability and state bankruptcy. Civil war, natural disaster, and economic mismanagement have contributed to the general impoverishment of the continent (Daniel, 2003). And it is estimated about 60 to 70 percent of African families are sustained by the informal sector either directly as operators or indirectly as beneficiaries of the service (ECA, 2010). In Bondoukou, 41.24% of labor force works in commerce field (OECD, 2000). But most of them are working informally.

Can the informal trade meet the needs of local development in Africa, particularly in Bondoukou city? Otherwise could this informal sector provide to the local people sufficient income to raise the consumption and ameliorate the social welfare and local economic development? What role could play informal trade in local development? What are the consequences of this informal economy on local economy, social and environment? Has this disorganized activity any impact on local development? Can the informal trade create richness?

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the importance of informal trade in Africa cities economy development. Specifically it aims to find out the positive facts of informal commerce on people life, and other economic social and environmental consequences.

Materials and Methods

Study areas

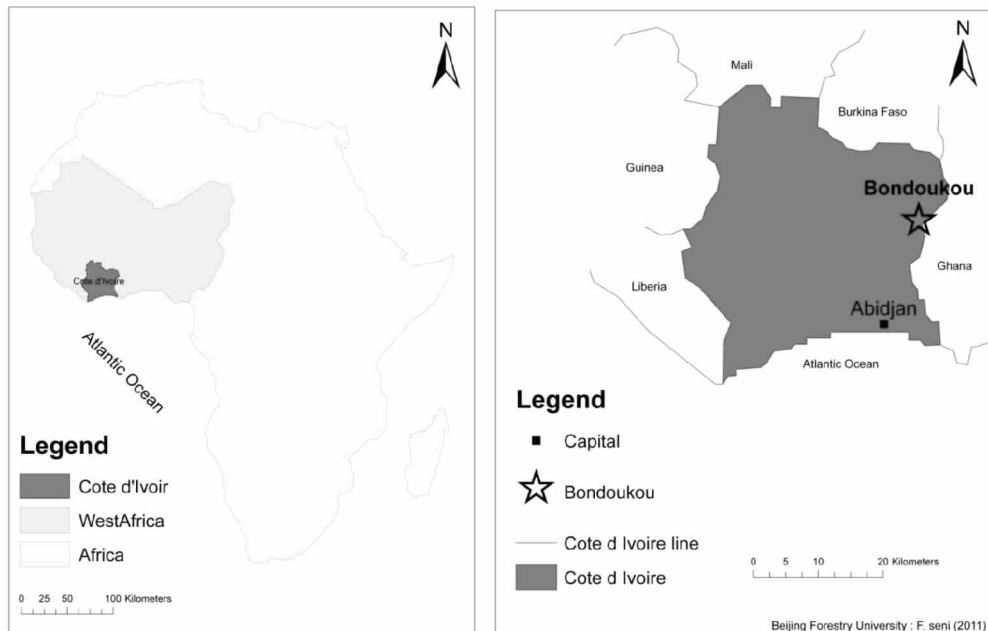
Africa Continent is located between Europe in North, Asia in East, America in West, and in South, Indian Ocean. With 54 countries, it's the world's second largest and second most populous continent, after Asia. About 30.2 million km² and 1.0 billion people (Wikipedia, 2012). Africa is a bright continent with adequate material resources for potential autocratic development but after decades of independence, Africa remains the least developed continent in the world (Daniel, 2005). Its potentialities are enormous especially in minerals, petroleum, forest resources, water resources and gas. The most valuable exports are minerals and petroleum from countries like Nigeria, Angola and Libya. Some other countries are based their exports on agricultural unprocessed products (coffee, cocoa, bananas and timber) like Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana and Gabon. Furthermore, the proportion of African economy in global economy remains weak and the exchange between these countries are still weak. Most of them deal with

European, American and Asian countries. The majority of African people live in absolute poverty and the cities lack infrastructures, sanitation and drainage network. Disorder can be observed everywhere due to mismanagement and state bankruptcy. The lives of most people are characterized by illiteracy, high rate of infant mortality, malnutrition, short life expectancy, inadequate shelter, lack of health care and hygiene, unemployment, hunger and famine (Lyenda, 2005) and the resurgence of HIV disease.

The institutions regulating trade, economy and management fail to define real policies that can boost productions, industrialization and marketing. Without a real formal framework, people therefore have found out a new way to be alive. They developed informal economy thorough informal trade which doesn't need enough means and space. According to Benin National Institute of Statistics Analysis (INSAE, 2002), informal trade constitutes a large share of the informal economy, and the informal sector constitutes 20 per cent to 90 per cent of the national economy (McLachlan, 2005, ARIA VI, 2010). In 2001, Africa accounted for less than 3 per cent of world trade and less than 2 per cent of world GDP (ABD, 2002). The consequences of this weak performance have been experienced in urban area as well as in rural area.

Case Study

The case study was focused on an Ivorian ancient city (Bondoukou) in West Africa. Bondoukou is the main city in the north-East of Cote d'Ivoire, and the capital of the Zanzan County. From Abidjan (economic capital City) to Bondoukou, there are 416 km; the city is at 10 km to Sampa (Ghana). It covers an area of 770 ha with a population estimated to 64,258 inhabitants in 2010 (I.N.S.).



Map1: Maps of Africa and Cote d'Ivoire locating Bondoukou

Bondoukou is divided into 10 neighborhoods which are Donzosso, Kamagaya, Medina, Wamo, Zanzan, Hamdalaye, Djiminisso, TP-Administratif, Camp Militaire, Lyceé. In the past, the city was the crossroads of trade, and strategic for French colonialists who built up a military camp in order to supervise the whole North-east region of the country. Very rich and famous locality, Bondoukou played an important role in the history because of its situation of crossroads-city. It was located at the intersection of several caravan routes where were exchanged cola nuts, gold from Indenié, cotton strips woven by Koulango people, livestock from Mali, salt and fish from Ghana and iron and cowry shells. Nowadays, Trade appears very important economic activity in Ivory Coast, particularly in Bondoukou where it participates in large manner in the Local Gross Product (L.G.P).

Cote d'Ivoire, formerly rich and prosperous country with enormous natural resources such forest, water, minerals and petroleum, met many problems which impeded his development and engendered a serious joblessness after the economic crises in the late 1980. The consequences of this fact were the appearance of the small businesses sector which allows people to face with their first needs. According to a study of International Labor Organization (ILO) carried out by Gaufryau Carlos Maldonado and published in 2001, the informal sector in Cote d'Ivoire would create five times more wealth than the modern financial sector. So, it means the importance of this uncontrolled system in the economy.

In several fields, most of the studies have been focused on the capital cities. We decided to vary the study area by orienting this specific study in Bondoukou. That could help to homogenize the spatial development. The number of employees engaged and the income generated explains the focus on informal trade in this study. Beyond trade, the city has become a tourist hub with its historical sites such as the home of Samory, the residence of the Governor Binger, the first house of the city, and the monkeys of Soko.

Assessment Methods

The evaluation of informal trade in local development was based on interviews with general secretary of the municipality through a questionnaire about infrastructure level, employment rate, income, and consumption. The stalls and boxes met were counted; then the items sold after inventoried were photographed. The work was done by walking through the streets of Bondoukou to list hawkers and gather information about them. The following informations were recorded: age and genders, education background, amount of income, consumption and housing conditions. The secondary data were collected from various published documents and reports as well as general report volume 1 of OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) titled "Local Economy of Bondoukou" and published in January 2002. Though there was structured questionnaire for collecting information, but comprehensive checklists were used as guidelines to discuss issues and solicit information from various categories of people in the offices. Investigation and survey were carried out by

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- I.N.S: Institut National de la Statistique (National Institute of Statistics) : It's a crown corporation designated to manage the national official statistics
 - Caravan routes are routes used by traders between 7th and 19th century sitting on camel traversing sahara desert from African sub-Saharan localities to Maghreb, the Mediterranean and red sea for exchanging gold, jewelry, silk, salt, cloth, etc...
 - Kingdom in Cote d'Ivoire in 18th century located in south of Bondoukou

two teams, the first team, four people, went around the streets to gather information about vendors, their goods, while the second team, also four people, stayed around the central market and its surrounding areas.

The study was focused on hawkers and the traders installed along the streets. Thus, a total of 450 peoples were interviewed during the investigation with the number of traders listed in each street and informal place.

Different types of informal trade

Street and itinerant trade

Street and itinerant traders are people who sell their goods in the street far or nearby central market or fixed common place recognized by the local authorities. In case of Bondoukou, during the investigation, 450 merchants have been registered selling diverse products such as fruit, vegetables, cooking condiments charcoal and fuel, etc. 67 sale points of fuel have been discovered. (See table below)

Activities	Number of street and itinerant traders
Grilling	51
Broiled meat	31
Fruit and vegetables	47
Juice and ice water	49
Braised yam and banana	17
Coffee	07
Bread	30
Egg and peanut	44
Apron	64
Coal and Fuel	67
Cooking condiment	19
attiéké	24
Total	450

Table 1: Items sold in the streets and staff worker. Source: staff survey, June 2007

Fuel is illegally imported from Ghana. And the way it is commercialized is forbidden. However, economical and political crises render government and municipality unable to control the way

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- Samory Toure was a famous conqueror who has toured West Africa from 1880 to 1898 to Islamize people and fight against the European presence.
 - Binger was the first french governor of the colony of Cote d'Ivoire from 1893 to 1898
 - Soko is a small village situated at 7 km to Bondoukou. Legend said that the inhabitants of Soko were turned into monkeys by a fetish in the village to avoid massacres of Samory Toure. But once the danger has passed, the witch doctor had no time to give life to his people and he died. Then, up to now, this people remained monkeys

of importation and commercialization.

64 Aprons are also denoted. They sell cigarettes, candy, candles, matches, biscuit etc. This kind of small business is common in Bondoukou and employs 40.17% of informal traders registered. Most of traders installed illegally in a fixed point are working alone or with a family helper



Image 1: Street fuel seller



Image 2: street braised banana seller

Border Trade

The border trade between Bondoukou and Sampa (Ghana) is very active and carried out by local people. It concerns a wide variety of products essentially made of textile and spare part of bikes and motorcycles from Ghana. The border is the vector of the economic dynamism of the locality. There are 300 people who cross the border everyday taking the direction of Bondoukou with goods (Dabié, 2005). Some families used to go to Sampa to buy frippery very cheap and share the goods between all members of the family and cross the border without paying the customs. This practice is common. The fraudulent trade of petroleum products towards Bondoukou is done by 40 operators. In downstream, they have a large number of small resellers (Dabié, 2005). The trade of gasoline imported illegally from Ghana is very widespread. It has even become the pillar of urban passenger's transportation and freight, allowing young people predominantly, working as vendors, to have a source of income.

Sector	Value-added (millions)		Employments	
	amount	%	Workers	%
Modern	7068	100	2078	100
Commerce	1802	26	273	13
Informal	7145	100	7268	100
commerce	2985	42	3591	49
	4787	33.67	3864	41.24
Total	14214	100	9368	100

Table 2: importance of trade in the economic activities Source: ENSEA-IRD, <Economie locale Bondoukou, 2000>

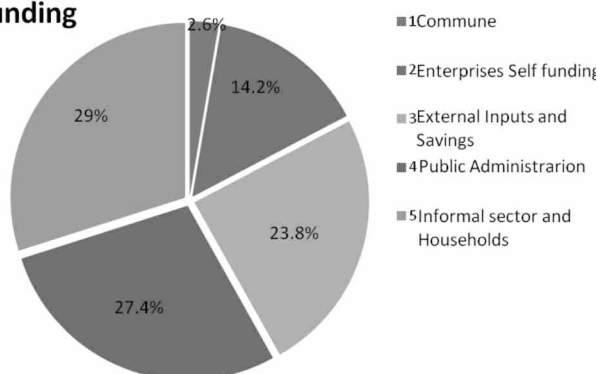
- It's local food made from cassava. Attiéké and rice are the main food in Cote d'Ivoire.

Considering the table above, the remark of the economic activities is essentially commercial; about 41.24% of labor force works in commerce (OECD, 2000), particularly in informal commerce where 3591 were registered representing 49% of work force and 42% of value-added of the municipality (ENSEA-IRD, 2000). A sectoral decomposition of the Gross Local Product (GLP) shows in more detail the sources of wealth creation in the town, highly concentrated around the tertiary activities. The primary and secondary activities contribute little to value added, respectively 13% and 20% (O.E.C.D, 2000). The income-generating activities in the municipalities are in order of importance: Trade (29.3%), production activities (15.6%), service (15.6%) and Administration counting for 13.7% of GLP. GLP, equivalent to the production of wealth within the town, stands at 16 billion franc Cfa (2,442,7481euro) representing 0.2% of Ivorian GDP in 1998. The GLP per capita is estimated at Bondoukou at 306, 930 Franc Cfa (469 euro), compared to GDP of Cote d'Ivoire which stands to 441,000 Franc Cfa (673 euro). As a comparison, it is very small compared to that of municipality of San Pedro (840,000 Franc per head in 1996) where some industries were established.

Municipality Investment in the town

Investments in Bondoukou are not too important in term of infrastructure achieved. There are estimated in 1998 at 3.3 billion FrancCfa (5,038,168 euro). Informal sector has contributed at 29% and the municipality at 2.6% (OECD, 2002). Investment here concerned construction of infrastructures, equipments, affordable housing, greening system (inexistent), drainage and sanitation, markets, warehouses, monitoring and regulation of local development. Below the figure of the repartition of investors in the commune.

**Investment Funding
Actors**



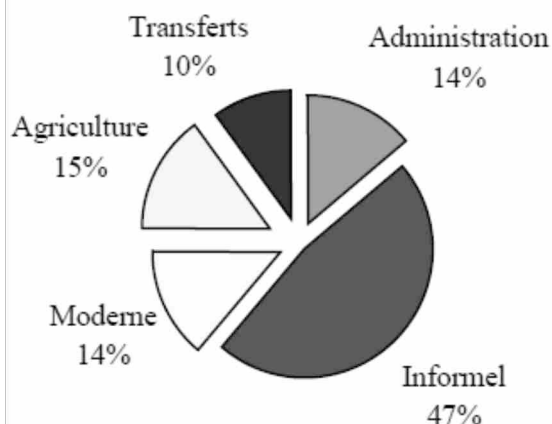
- ENSEA: National School of Statistic and Applied Economics (Abidjan -Cote d'Ivoire)
IRD: Institute of Research and Development (Abidjan-Cote d'Ivoire)

Franc Cfa is the local currency in Cote d'Ivoire and other 7 West African countries. 1 euro=655 Franc Cfa

The proportion of the commune (Municipality) in local investment considered negligible (2.6% of global investment) is explained by the fact that taxes on local production collected by the municipality is insignificant (1.2% of GLP). The informal sector or traders don't pay any taxes and the ways they use urban space disorganize and affect the city landscape. Moreover, Anne and Leonardo (2008) add that street vendors are already an intrinsic part of the scenery of daily life in São Paulo, usually installed at points of high pedestrian traffic, where they work between 12 and 14 hours per day.

Employment and income

Data collected from various sectors of urban economies of Bondoukou show a strong concentration of employment in the informal sector. 77% of job excluding agriculture activities are concentrated in tertiary sector, particularly in small businesses representing 77% of job in the informal sector. Most of employment is self-employed, or apprentice, and family helper (ENSEA-IRD, 2000). Women are especially present in the small businesses where they manage 71% of the outlets in the city. And 52.22% of them are between 7 and 21 years old. For their duration in the trade activity, 43.11% have experienced between 1 and 5 years, and 32.67% between 5 and 10 years. Therefore, Informal trade sector become the receptacle of those who wish to pursue an activity without qualification. This is the reason why these traders are 66.22% illiterates. The majority of these groups are women; 81.56% of total informal traders registered. It is a fact related to developing countries facing with economic crisis. In Abidjan, according to ANOH K's survey in 2004, 70.70% of street traders are women and 40.2% are illiterate and 21.9% have elementary level. Somewhere else, others authors found the predominance of women in the street trading and informal economy in the world. For instance, for Kristina, 2004, within home-based workers and street vendors in developing countries, women constitute 30-90% of all street vendors, 35-80% of all home-based workers. This trade concerns only the non professionals and unskilled who make the first path in economic activities. In Cape town (South Africa) significant was the fact that more than half of traders were female; this form of business activity is increasingly the province of women because of its flexible working hours as well as the opportunity it provides for additional income generation for the poor (Ukukhula, 2004).



Source: ENSEA-IRD, «Economie locale Bondoukou »,2000

The annual income of all households of Bondoukou is estimated at 14.2 billion in 1998 and the annual income per capita would be 274,000 Francs (418 euro) (ENSEA-IRD, 2000). The graph below shows the distribution of revenue mostly coming from informal sector.

According to this figure, informal sector is predominantly the main source of income in Bondoukou. We have also noticed in our study that 49% or 220 of those surveyed are unable to pay for first health care when fall sick. The fact is that informal traders majorly women are head of household and spend their income caring of family. None of them has regular account in any local bank.

City landscape and Environment

Bondoukou urban structure is characterized in many respects by the lack of infrastructure and other socio economical equipments, by the influence of historical relics scattered between Kamagaya, Medina, Djiminisso and Donzosso. The roads network is inadequate and poorly maintained inside and outside the city making it landlock. Among 64.6 km of route in the city, there are only 16.7 km of paved road, which is demonstrating the weakness of public investment (see image below).



Image 3: Landscape of informal traders' neighborhood (Kamagaya)

Some old districts like Kamagaya, Medina, Donzosso, Wamo and other new neighborhoods (Wamo, Zanzan Abeille, Donzosso Extension, Kamagaya Extension) have any or few meters of paved road. In new neighborhood, the connection rate to electricity and drinking water network is low, about 22% of water connection because of the weak level of equipment. 72% of 450 informal traders we registered in our study are living in Medina, Kamagaya and Donzosso where the landscape is precarious without a real sewage line. Piles of junk is visible everywhere. The ongoing capability of the municipality to remove solid waste remains insufficient.

Discussion and Conclusion

Local development is defined by indicators such as living standard, infrastructure and equipment level, level of administrative supervision, and level of urbanization. Having regard to this definition, Bondoukou is faced with development issues. The living standard of population (which are 38.42% of people working in informal trade sector in 2000) and the level of infrastructure equipment are undesirable. Otherwise informal trade serves only traders at

diverse degrees and fails to link economic development and growth to this activity. This trade in Africa, according to ARIAVI (2010), has always been the response of the population; women in particular, to the economic crises arising primarily from the failure of political and financial governance, and to the fratricidal wars that often have ensued. For Caroline Stamm (2008), the street trading at the beginning of 1990s was an integrated part in the cities downtown landscape of Latina Americas countries and the historic center of Mexico City and Lima, marked by a physical and social deterioration, were real permanent markets. Indeed, street trade pose serious problem for sanitation and environment management.

As Bondoukou, In uMngeni Municipality, 2008, (South Africa), the majority of the informal traders are women, and the creation of employment and income opportunities for thousand, and the provision of cheap and symbolically important goods and services to urban marginal, have resulted in informal trade drastically changing the lives of the uMngeni poor and has forced forward redefinition of life, space and culture. Bondoukou informal trading has also enhanced the social life of citizen by providing employment to young people and women facing with social segregation. People can buy cheap goods entered illegally from Ghana. But, the municipality fails to invest in basic infrastructures and service due to their low capacity in term of resource. The main activities are carrying out informally and without real policy guiding trade development. This uncontrolled and unplanned situation has negative impact on the municipality and affects the quality of citizen's life. Demonstrating the informal trading's contribution to the economy, study on Africa's rapidly growing cities, market and street vendors, were found to be major sources of provisioning for poor urban household (Ukukhula, 2004). It is recognized that informal trading forms a vital part of any emerging economy. In sub Saharan Africa, The informal sector accounts for up to 60% of the economy. The survey of informal Trading sector in Cape Town in 2002 revealed that 42% of traders had chosen to engage in informal trading as a result of not having or losing a job. This indicate the significant role that informal trading plays in absorbing the unemployed (Ukukhula, 2004). In Cape Town, it is estimated that the informal sector accounts for 18-20% of the economy. For the city, informal trading is a positive development in the micro business sector as it contributes to the creation of job and has the potential to expand further the city's economic base and to contribute to the creation of a globally competitive world class African City (Ukukhula, 2004). The role of women in informal trade is demonstrated everywhere in Sub-Saharan African countries where three out of four people are unofficially employed, the non-agricultural informal sector created employment opportunities for 91.5 percent of women, compared with 70.7 per cent of the men (ARIA VI, 2010, FAO, 2008). Out of those who work in the informal, 60 per cent are women. In Accra, capital city of Ghana, the poor earn money as street vendors, rickshaw drivers, or construction or factory workers (Marc & Garrett, 2009).

As conclusion, this study has founded out that women in Bondoukou and everywhere are mostly key actors of informal trade. Their informal trading activity is a factor reducing poverty because of employment opportunities it provides and source of income. But, regarding city landscape, informal trade seems to be more profitable for traders, not for the communities living in undesirable environment without basic municipal services such as water, electricity, sewage, drainage system and routes.

Whether the municipality likes to provide a healthy environment to local people, they must start by providing trading areas and facilities, trading development services such as banking service, training service facilitating skills obtainment in order to better manage

businesses. Introduce an informal trading permit that will help municipality to localize and control their activities and will also be an important income source for the municipality regarding the number of traders.

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Tourists Perception of Service Quality in the Hospitality Industry in Cross River State

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Quality of service has become a serious issue for the operators of the hotel industry, mainly because they still find it difficult to understand what tourist needs are at a particular time. Using the Parasurama, Berry and Zeithan (1988) method, this paper critically examines tourist perceptions of service quality in the hotel industry, with specific reference to the contribution of several service quality dimensions. Three hypotheses were tested and the results showed that the tourists were unsatisfied with the quality of services provided by the operators of the hotel industry in Calabar. According to Chu (2001), the success of the hotel industry depends on the quality of services provided by its operators. Therefore, understanding the expectations of tourists is extremely important for the operators of the hotel industry.

Keywords: tourism, hotel industry; service quality

Zeitham (2007) proposes a formal definition of tourist perceptions of service quality as “the degree and direction of discrepancy between tourist service perception and expectations”. Service quality is the tourists' judgment about the overall excellence or superiority of service. The study of tourists' perception of service quality is a critical strategy for success and survival in today's competitive environment (Fynes and Voss, 2001).

In recent times, the hospitality industry has become a major catalyst for the growth of the tourism industry. This industry provide the needed services to tourists and fun-seekers in given locations especially locations with great tourism potential. However, with the service industry booming across the world in the 21st century, Calabar has been transformed from a manufacturing economy to a service-oriented one owing to it vast tourism potential that has necessitated the rapid growth of the hospitality industry in the area (Eja, 2011).

To stand out in the hospitality industry in Calabar, good service quality has become the most important issue for competitiveness. Today, everyone recognizes the pervasion consequences of quality; at the same time, everyone seems to be having difficulty in grasping its many dimensions. This has becomes a key issue in the management of hospitality industry.

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Apart from this, there is some misunderstanding in perceiving the service quality between the hospitality industry and tourists in which research has shown that many service industries develop their own perception of what tourists want, which often differs from what the tourists really want.

This situation has created a gap between tourist and operators of the industry. This study critically examines the perception of tourist in service quality delivery in the hospitality industry with specific reference to the hotel industry where the operators remain relatively helpless in perceiving what it is that the tourist wants or does not want and what he is ready to accept.

Besides, the hotel industry in Calabar has proclaimed themselves as leaders in the service industry but has been lacking in training applied to the actual techniques of service itself. Previous studies have examined the relationship that exists between service quality and tourist values in a global perceptively but none has examined this critical issues with respect to service quality in the hospitality industry in Cross River State and Calabar in particular which is the premise of this work. Therefore, this research seeks to discover what services must be offered by the hospitality industry to raise tourists satisfaction and to encourage repeat tourist for perpetual business.

Service Quality

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) propose a formal definition of tourist perceptions of 'service quality' as "the degree and direction of discrepancy between tourist service perceptions and expectations (p. 48)." Ueltsch et al (2004) define service quality as the tourist's judgment about the overall excellence or superiority of the service. Perceived quality can be defined as the tourist's judgment about an entity's overall excellence or superiority (Zeithaml, 1987), or as the result of comparing a tourist's expectations prior to receiving the service with the tourist's experiences with the service (Liljander & Strandvitz, 1993, p.6).

Growth and Dye (1999) define perceived value as key variables in the tourist's mind influencing the perceived value of service and the quality of the service. DeMoranville and Bienstock (2003) identify service quality as a measure to assess service performance, diagnose service problems, manage service delivery, and a basis for employee and corporate rewards. Parasuraman et al (1988) developed a multi-item scale for assessing customer perceptions of service quality (SERVQUAL).

The underlying theory of service quality defined by Parasuraman et al (1985) is criticized as it is not well supported by theoretical and empirical evidence related to the relevance of the expectations performance gap (Carman 1990, Cronin and Taylor 1992). In this study, the service quality scale contains five components: atmospherics, accommodation, convenience, responsiveness and professionalism as presented in table 5.

According to research done by Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml (1985, 1988), a key to providing superior service is understanding and responding to a customer's expectations. In which, the tourist expects service companies to do what they are supposed to do. They expect fundamentals, not fanciness; performance, not empty promises. In short, customers are paying good money, and they company should provide good service in exchange.

At the point of service creation and delivery, all the resources and knowledge of the provider of the service must come together in exactly the right way to ensure an excellent

service encounter for the tourist. It is at this point that the tourists compare their expectations with actual service delivery system performance and ultimately arrive at their perceptions of service quality. According to Collier (1987), by managing these moments of truth well, we can actually manage the tourist; perception of service quality.

Parasunaman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1990) suggested that tourist's service expectations have two levels: desired and adequate. The desired service level is the service the tourist hopes to receive. It is a blend of what the tourist believes "can be" and "should be". While the adequate service level is that which the tourist's assessment of what the service "will be", that is, the tourist's "predicated service", both of which can change over time and from one service encounter to the next for the same tourist. The tourist's quantity perception depends in the degree to which quality expectations are confirmed or disconfirmed by experience. Based on Gronroos's perceived service quality model (1982), the quality of a service, as perceived by the tourist, is the result of a comparison between the expectations of the tourist and his real-life experiences. If the experiences exceed the expectations, the perceived service quality is positive. If the experiences do not reach the level of expectations, the perceived quality is low.

In detail, conceptually, this confirmation/disconfirmation (gap) concept has an important impact on people's thinking about quality. It implies that quality is not an objective phenomenon that can be engineered beforehand. But with proper preparation prior to the service encounter, good quality may be achieved. We already know that tourist perceive quality in a subjective manner. Depending on the level of quality, as measured in some objective sense, will be perceived as good quality for one person may be less acceptable for another. If expectations are raised too high- owing to an advertising campaign for example – the quality of a given service may be disappointing, if only because the customers had unrealistic expectations.

Methodology

The study was conducted within the confine of Calabar in Cross River State taking into consideration the hospitality industry with specific reference to the hotel industry and guest houses. One hundred hotels were selected of which forty were sampled for this study. Primary and secondary data were used in this research work. Two hundred and fifty copies of questionnaire were administered to tourists in the various hotels in order to assess their perception on service quality in the hotel industry. The sample framework includes all tourists in a few selected two and three star hotels in Calabar, Cross River State.

The sampling population was both the foreigners and the locals. However, the SERVQUAL measurement formulated by Parasurama, Berry, and Zeitham (1988) was adopted to measure the tourist perceptions of service quality which were further subjected to reliability tests. Three hypotheses were tested in this research, including:

Hypothesis 1: The reputation for service quality does not or influence by the hotel industry in Calabar.

In this hypothesis, the reputation variables used were factorized as:

x_1 = Atmosphere

x_2 = Accommodation

x_3 = Convenience

x_4 = Responsiveness

x_5 = Professionalism

Hypothesis 2: The tourist perception of personal service offered does not or influence by service qualities in the hotel.

Service quality (SERVQUAL) was measured using Parasuraman, Zeithmal, and Berry (1988) dimension, which includes: tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy and were presented as:

y = personal service offered

x_1 = tangible

x_2 = reliability

x_3 = responsiveness

x_4 = assurance

x_5 = empathy

Hypothesis 3: which involve using SERVQUAL dimension's perception dimension by the tourist to evaluate the general service quality in the hotel industry, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was adopted.

Findings

Demographic characteristics of tourist

The demographic characteristics of the tourist presented in table 1 shows that majority of the tourists were male (55.0%). It was observed in table 1 that about 74% of the tourists were Nigerians while 29% were non-Nigerians. Information on the level of education attainment by tourists shows that tourists with degree certificate were on the high side with a value of 47.3% compared to Diploma 40%, Masters 18% and tourist with Ph.D certificate were on the least side with a value of 12%. However, table 1 indicate that 57.3% of the tourists were single while 42.6% of the tourist were married.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of tourist in the hotel industry

Gender	Number	Percentage (%)
Male	82	55.0
Female	68	45.3
Total	150	100
Age	Number	Percentage (%)
<25 Years	60	4.0
26-35	52	35.0
36-45	35	23.31
46-55	3	2
Total	150	100
Nationality	Number	Percentage (%)
Nigerians	111	74.0
Non-Nigerians	39	29.0
Total	150	100

Educational Level	Number	Percentage (%)
Diploma	60	40
Degree	71	35.0
Masters	27	18.0
Ph.D	18	12.0
Total	150	100
Status	Number	Percentage (%)
Single	86	57.3
Married	64	42.6
Total	150	100

Source: Field survey, 2011

Tourist Expectations

The tourist expectation in the hotel industry ranged from choice of hotel, hotel rating and feedback as presented in table 2. It was noticed in table 2 that tourist choice of hotel was highly influence by tourist past experiences with a value of 41.3% followed by convenience with a value of 32%. Table 2 indicate that 27.2.% of tourists reasons for choosing a particular hotel was influence by suggestions from friends while on the overall rate 66.7 of the tourists claimed the hotel to be good, 18.7% were on the average and 14.7% claimed that the hotel to be excellent. On the bases of come back in the future, 78.6% of the tourists accept to visit back, 13.3% do not accept while 8% of the tourists undecided whether to come back in the future or not.

Table 2: Tourist expectation in the hotel industry

Choice of Hotel	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Past Experience	62	43.3
Convenience	48	32.0
Suggestions from Friends	28	22.2
Unintentional	12	9.5
Total	150	100
Overall Rating	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Average	28	18.7
Good	100	66.7
Excellent	22	14.7
Total	150	100
Come back in the future	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	118	78.6
No	20	13.3
Undecided	121	8.0
Total	150	100

Source: Field survey, 2011

Analysis of Results

The result on the analysis of tourist perception on the hotel industry, the regression analysis conducted, the following result were obtained: $y = 5.232 + 1.015x_3 + 0.025x_5 + 6.265x_4 + 0.437x_2 + 0.135x_1$. The addition of the five independent variables correlates very well with the service rendered by the staff ($R=0.521$). The R^2 of 0.351 of 0.351 shows that about 35% of the variation in personal service rendered for above independent variables. However, from the equation which shows thus:

- y = Personal service rendered (PS)
- x_1 = Assurance (SQLASS)
- x_2 = Empathy (SQLEMP)
- x_3 = Reliability (SQCREL)
- x_4 = Responsibility (SQCRESP) and
- x_5 = Tangibility (SQLTGR).

This result shows that at 0.05 level of significance to only x_3 (Assurance) was significance with a value of 6.270. The result was further analysed to evaluate the difference in SERVQUAL dimensions perceived to be important by the tourist in assessing overall service quality as presented in table 3. However, it was observed in table 3 that F-value for all dimension, Empathy indicate a high significance of 22.413 F-value at 0.05 level of significance compared to other variables while Reliability and Assurance had the least value of 9.012 and 12.112 respectively.

Table 3: Differences in service quality perceived to be significant by the tourist in assessing overall service quality

Dimensions	Source	D.F.	F-ratio	F Prob
Empathy	Between Group	3	22.413	0.000 ²
	Within Group	131		
	Total	135		
Assurance	Between Group	4	12.112	0.000 ²
	Within Group	131		
	Total	135		
Reliability	Between Group	3	9.012	0.000 ²
	Within Group	131		
	Total	135		
Responsiveness	Between Group	3	13.11	0.000 ²
	Within Group	131		
	Total	135		
Tangibility	Between Group	3	14.212	0.000 ²
	Within Group	131		
	Total	135		

Source: Data analysis, 2011

The mean perception and expectation of tourist on service quality presented in table 4 indicate

that the mean of -0.64 for the service quality measure which shows that on average, tourists perceptions felt short of their expectations. This was evidence in table 4 which the perception's mean values of 6.00 lower in every dimension compared to 6.19 mean values of tourist expectation.

Table 4: Tourist mean perceptions and expectations on service quality

Dimensions	Perceptions (P)	Expectations(E)	Service quality(P-E)
Tangible	64	5.00	-6.56
Reliability	7.10	5.99	-0.75
Responsiveness	5.23	6.00	-0.63
Assurance	5.14	7.01	-0.93
Empathy	6.10	6.97	-0.64
Total	6.00	6.19	-0.64

Source: Data analysis, 2011

However, the summary of predication of tourist value by service quality presented in table 5 shows that the various component of service quality together explain the service quality in the hotel industry. Table 5 shows hotel decor, privacy of guests, attractive rooms and the appearance of staff as an indicator of atmospherics which helps hotel to deliver service of high quality to tourist. Accommodation was positively associated with reputation for quality (= 0.104; $p < 0.05$). convenience was found to be the most important predictor for reputation for quality with a value of = 0.338, $P < 0.001$) compared to other valuables.

Table 5: Prediction of tourist value by service quality

Service quality	Restitution for quality		Value for mony		Prestige	
		t-value		t-value		t-value
Atmospherics	.273	6.55	.307	4.721***	.386	5.091***
Accommodation	.104	1.801	.074	1.013	.254	2.488**
Convenience	.338	18.57***	.706	15.44***	.252	3.816***
Responsiveness	-0.64	-93.5	.00	.002	.037	.617
Professionalism	.148	2.072*	.096	.1340	.081	.911
R Square	.737		500		.408	
Adjusted R Square	.551		103.827***		61.755***	
f-Ratio	141.5***		29.295		485	
N	377		295		485	

Source: Data analysis, 2011

Recommendations

Service quality has become a crucial aspect in the hotel industry which most tourist desire to be enhance in order to create good image to the industry. Perhaps this aspect has not been taken into consideration by the operators of this industry (Saleh, 2000). In Cross River State, the issue of service quality has gain little or no recognition in the hotel industry and as a result, the

industry suffered a series of setbacks in terms of tourist patronage. To this end, the following measures are recommended in order to redeemed the image of the industry.

- The hotel industry as service providers should focus especially on those factors perceived quality that are most important to tourist
- The hotel industry most focus on the level of comfort and convenient offered to tourist, including the flexibility of check-in and check-out times.
- Hotel industry should improve communications and relations between management and staff and there is need to focus their efforts on enhancing the intangible aspects of service delivery, such as, interaction between staff and tourist

Conclusion

Quality service has become a fundamental issue in hotel management in Cross River State; one can draw a conclusion from the results that tourist perceptions in the hotel industry in Cross River State and Calabar in particular fall short of expectation even though some component of the service quality have created little impact to the development of the hotel industry in Calabar. Since tourist will always make decision and taking an action based on their perceptions, there is urgent need for the organization or hotel industry to take an effort in comprehending and understanding tourist's expectation in order to provide good quality services to tourist and other fun-seekers in the area.

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Determinants of Impaired Mobility of Older persons in Punjab, Pakistan

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This paper examines the risk factors of impaired mobility among older persons of Punjab. Existing literature on mobility in late life suggests that age, gender, socioeconomic status (SES), disease and environmental factors affect mobility. Data was collected from the province of Punjab by using Probability Proportional to size sampling. Punjab was divided in three regions: Central, Northern and Southern. A multistage cluster sampling technique was used in each region. The first stage involved selection of districts from the three regions. At the second stage, tehsils were selected from the districts in the three regions of Punjab. At the third stage, a total of 116 urban and rural blocks were selected from the identified tehsils. The last stage, our sampling frame, consisted of households in each of the blocks with at least one member aged 60 and over. The total sample size for eligible household was 4,191. Impaired mobility was measured by taking the level of difficulty in three activities: standing from bed / chair, moving around the house and going outside the house. Data was analyzed using chi-square and binary logistic regression analyses. Region of Punjab, residence, age, gender, independent source of income, living index and self-reported health status were associated with mobility impairment in older persons of Punjab. After examining demographic, economic and health factors, the central region of Punjab, age, gender, independent source of income and self-reported health status were significantly associated with impaired mobility of older persons, whereas residence was not. These findings have important implications for improving the mobility and lives of older adults in Punjab.

Key Words: Impaired mobility, Gender, Living index, Self reported Health Status

Introduction/ Background

Pakistan is undergoing a rapid demographic transition with an increase in the number and percentage of its aging population (UNDESA 2009). Being a developing country, population aging could become a major challenge for Pakistan, especially if necessary steps are not taken to improve the health of older persons. Mobility is an important component of physical health that ensures older adults' independence, well being and quality of life. Among older persons, mobility could be impaired by various factors such as increased aging, chronic health conditions and low SES (Guralnik et al., 1993; Melzer and Parahyba, 2004; Shumway-Cook, 2005). Similarly, gender is also thought of as an important factor of mobility impairment. Compared to men, women have a higher level of mobility impairments, particularly in later life (Ahacic et al, 2000; Melzer and Parahyba, 2004). In developing countries like Pakistan, this gender gap may exist more strongly because of the lifelong deprivation and discrimination that women suffer during their lifetime and this assumption is also supported by some other researches as well (Rantanen and Avela, 1997). Although in developed countries the level of gender inequality is reducing, for example, a study in Sweden found that over almost 25 years, women's physical mobility has improved compared to that of men (Ahacic et al., 2000). However, developing countries are still facing this challenge. In most cases, improved mobility is associated with an improvement in class structure, employment opportunities for women and changes in health behaviors (Ahaci et al 2003).

With the rapid increase in the aging population in both developed and developing countries, there is a growing concern over the concept of active aging and not just aging. International health organizations are emphasizing the maintenance of mobility in late life and consider it as an important component of active aging. Similarly, WHO considers the maintenance of mobility as an important aspect of active aging that can help older persons to lead a more independent and active life (World Health Organization 2007). Loss of mobility may occur, for example, when physical disabilities make it difficult for older persons to walk or move independently. Studies on this issue of aging suggest that older person's activity restrictions resulted in several negative consequences, such as reduced levels of social participation, poorer health status and decreased quality of life (Metz, 2000, Groessl et al 2007, Yeom et al., 2008). Impaired mobility has been identified as a predictor of physical disability (Hirvensalo et al., 2000). Physical disability may lead to further loss of independence and sometimes institutionalization (Rubenstein et al., 2001; von Bonsdorff et al., 2006). As discussed earlier that with rapid aging population, there is a need for greater emphasis on active aging. Therefore, researchers must continuously work to identify various social, pathological and environmental factors that can ensure older persons' physical independence (Yeom et al, 2008).

Health conditions, such as the presence or absence of disease can also influence the mobility of older persons. In addition, heart diseases, stroke, high blood pressure, and diabetes in late life may also increase risk of mobility impairment (Oldridge and Stump, 2004).

Socioeconomic status (SES) has been identified as an important determinant of quality of life and further influences the mobility of older persons. Studies also suggest that individuals with a lower income level coupled with a lower education level are more prone to have functional limitations (Shumway-Cook et al., 2005). A potential explanation for this causal link may be that individuals do not have access to various health services when they are

younger (Smith, 2004). Similarly, researchers have found that financial factors influence mobility status because of the link between income and other health indicators. Therefore, people with lower incomes are at greater risk for mobility disability (Shumway-Cook et al., 2005).

Environmental factors, such as poor housing and inaccessibility to outdoors, impose mobility restrictions and make physical movements difficult (Iwarsson and Wilson, 2006). Similarly, geographical location, such as living in rural areas, also influences physical mobility of older persons (Melzer and Parahyba, 2004; Mollenkopf et al., 2004). Finally, researchers suggest that physical conditions such as traffic safety, air pollution, season of the year, and neighborhood characteristics may also influence mobility levels (King et al., 2006).

In present study, we have tried to identify various socio-demographic, financial and health-related factors that may likely influence the mobility of older persons of Punjab.

Materials and Methods

For the current study we have used a sampling frame developed by the Bureau of Statistics, Government of the Punjab for Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2007-08. For our sampling purpose we have divided the Province of Punjab in three regions: Central, Northern, and Southern. We adopted a multistage cluster sampling technique. At the first stage, we selected districts by using probability proportionate to size (PPS). There were seven districts in north Punjab, 16 in Central Punjab and 12 in South Punjab. During this stage we selected about one-third of the districts from each region, which resulted in two from North Punjab (Rawalpindi and Mandi Baahauddin), five from Central Punjab (Faisalabad, Gujrat, Kasur, Narowal, Toba Tek Singh), and three from Southern Punjab (Khanewal, Lodhran and Vehari).

At the second stage, about one half of the tehsils from each selected district were selected with PPS. In North Punjab there were total nine tehsils in Rawalpindi, and three in Mandi Bahaiddin. We selected four from Rawalpindi and two from Mandi Bahaiddin. In central Punjab, four tehsils were selected from Faisalabad, two from Ksuar, two from Gujrat, one from Narowal and two from Toba Tek Singh. In southern Punjab, two were from Khnewal, two from Lodhran, and two from Vehari.

At the third stage, urban and rural blocks were selected from each of the selected tehsils. From the selected tehsils of North Punjab, a total of 15 rural and nine urban blocks were selected. From the tehsils of Central Punjab, 37 rural and 19 urban blocks were selected. In Southern Punjab, 22 rural and 14 urban blocks were selected out of six thesils.

At the final stage, a sampling frame for eligible household from each rural and urban block was prepared. Eligible households had at least one member aged 60 and older. The total sample size of eligible household was 4,640.

Measures

The outcome variable of this study, impaired mobility, was measured by taking into account three indicators: 1) standing from bed/chair; 2) walking around the house; and 3) going out of the house. Each indicator was measured at three levels (i.e., greater difficulty, some difficulty and no difficulty) Scores ranged from zero to six. Respondents with a score of zero were considered as having no impairment and respondents with score of one to 6 were considered as having some mobility impairment. Socio-demographic variables consisted of region (north,

central and south), residence (urban/rural), age (60-69, 70-79 & 80+) and gender (male/female).

Economic factors included whether respondents had an independent source of income and their computed living index. Living index was a count of eight household items: radio/radio cassette, television, landline telephone, cellular phone, washing machine, refrigerator/freezer, CD/VCD/DVD player, and personal computer. Living index was measured categorically and a median cut-point was used. Respondents having less than or equal to four-items were considered as having low living index and respondents with more than four were considered as having a high index.

In regards to health indicators, a composite variable of self-reported ailments was measured by taking five diseases: heart disease, joint pains, fractures, ailments of the liver, and respiratory disease. An overall health condition was dichotomized as no ailments or one or more.

Results

Descriptive statistics of all variables are given in Table 1. Half the respondents were from the central region of the Punjab. The majority of respondents (65.2%) lived in rural areas, and almost half of the respondents were male. More than half (55.1%) were between the age of 60-69 years. About one third (30.7%) reported being age 70-79. Only 14.2% were age 80 or above.

Table 1 : Summary Statistics of Explanatory Variables

Variables	n	Percentage (%)
Region of Punjab		
Southern	1205	28.8
Northern	814	19.4
Central	2172	51.8
Area		
Urban	1459	34.8
Rural	2732	65.2
Gender		
Male	2123	50.7
Female	2068	49.3
Age		
60-69	2310	55.1
70-79	1287	30.7
80+	594	14.2
Self Reported Health Status		
No Disease	1036	24.7
at least one Disease	3155	75.3
Independent source of income		
Yes	1429	34.1
No	2762	65.9
Living Index		
High	2129	50.8
Low	2062	49.2
Mobility Impairment		
Yes	1292	30.8
No	2899	69.2

The majority (75.3%) had at least one disease. Almost one third (30.8%) had mobility impairments. More than one third (34.1%) of the respondents had an independent source of income.

After examining descriptive statistics for the sample, we developed a multivariable logistic regression model to examine the independent association between impaired mobility and demographic, economic and health indicators.

Table 2 examines the relationship between impaired mobility and various socio-economic and health variables. Compound Frequency Distribution (CFD) indicate that a large percentage of respondents with impaired mobility (60.1%) were in central region of the Punjab compared with the CFD in the northern and southern regions, 37.7% and 41.1%, respectively. Examining the residence of respondents suggests that those living in rural areas (52.6%) were more likely to have impaired mobility. Age is usually associated with impaired mobility. In our current analysis, the odds of having impaired mobility increased as age increased. Similar to others (Melzer and Parahyba, 2004; Shumway-Cook et al., 2005), , gender was also associated with mobility (see figure 1). Results suggest that 57.1% female respondents had impaired mobility compared to 44.0% of males. However, it is important to note that 56% of respondents reported not having any mobility impairments. Financial status has also been considered as a strong predictor of mobility (Shumway-Cook et al., 2005). In our current analysis results, those

Table 2: Chi Square Test of Improved Mobility by various Socio-economic, Financial and Health Factors

Variables	Yes	No	P value
Zone of Punjab			
Northern	37.7	62.3	.000
Central	60.1	39.9	
Southern	41.7	58.3	
Residence			
Urban	46.4	53.6	.000
Rural	52.6	47.4	
Gender			
Male	44.0	56.0	
Female	57.1	42.9	
Age			
60-69	43.1	56.9	.000
70-79	55.7	44.3	
80+	67.8	32.2	
Self Reported Health Status			
No Disease	16.2	83.8	.000
at least one Disease	61.7	38.3	
Independent source of income			
Yes	37.6	62.4	.000
No	57.1	42.9	
Living Index			
High	46.6	53.4	.000
Low	54.4	45.6	

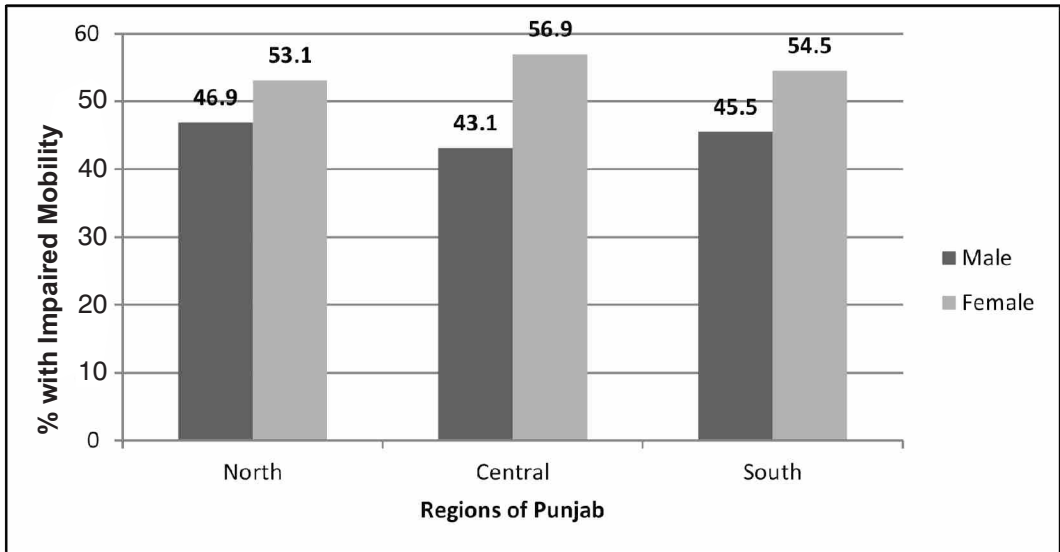


Figure 1. Impaired Mobility by Gender and Regions of Punjab

with an independent source of income (62.4%) reported not having impaired mobility. Similarly, living index was an important indicator of socio-economic status. In fact, more than half of respondents (54.4%) who reported a low level of living index had impaired mobility. With reference to health status, a majority of respondents (61.7%) indicated that they had at least one disease and impaired mobility. Only 38% of respondents who had at least one disease also reported no mobility impairment. On the other hand, 83.3% of respondents with no diseases also had no impaired mobility, while only 16.2% of respondents with no disease had impaired mobility. Chi-square tests also supported that all of the above mentioned predictors were significantly associated with mobility.

To determine the magnitude of the effect with respect to categories of different factors on impaired mobility, odds ratios were computed using binary logistic regression analysis. In Table 3, results indicated that older persons living in the central region of Punjab were 2.26 times more likely to have restricted mobility. Residence was not a significant factor in determining the mobility of older persons. Increase in age was significantly associated with impaired mobility and the data indicated that older persons of age 70-79 were 1.69 times more likely to have impaired mobility and those 80-89 were 2.94 times more likely to have impaired mobility. This finding is consistent with findings from others that suggest that age is a strong predictor of limited mobility (Melzer and Parahyba, 2004; Shumway-Cook, 2005). When gender was analyzed with reference to impaired mobility of older persons, it was found that females were 1.3 times more likely to have impaired mobility compared to their male counterparts. Additional findings from our analysis suggest that those respondents who did not have an independent source of income were 1.47 times more likely to have impaired mobility compared to those who did have an independent source of income. Similarly, living index was examined and suggests that respondents with a low living index were 1.35 times more likely to have impaired mobility. Self-reported health status was also significantly associated with impaired

Table 3: Logistic Regression Analysis of Impaired Mobility by various Socie-economic, Financial and Health Factors

95% C.I				
Variables	OR	Lower	Upper	P
Region				
Northern				
Central	2.260	1.880	2.718	.000
Southern	1.039	.842	1.282	.720
Residence				
Urban				
Rural	1.135	.981	1.313	.089
Gender				
Male				
Female	1.293	1.111	1.506	.001
Age				
60-69				
70-79	1.690	1.447	1.974	.000
80+	2.938	2.363	3.652	.000
Self Reported Health Status				
No Disease				
at least one Disease	7.208	5.976	8.693	.000
Independent source of income				
Yes				
No	1.473	1.253	1.732	.000
Living Index				
High				
Low	1.348	1.165	1.560	.000

mobility and older persons who had at least one disease were 7.21 times more likely to have impaired mobility.

Discussion

These results indicate that the current analysis supports previous findings (Ahacic et al., 2000; Melzer and Parahyba, 2004) on the risk factors associated with mobility in old age. Further, we have found that age, gender and socio-economic status are significantly associated with impaired mobility. With reference to Pakistani society, gender and socio-economic status seem especially relevant and important to emphasize. It has been observed that women in Pakistan are discriminated against throughout their life. This also results in their lower health profile and ultimately affects their health status and physical independence.

We also observed that rural areas lack facilities compared to urban areas. Also it can be argued that in rural areas people have relatively lower levels of financial resources. Lack of facilities with lower level of resources may further aggravate the life situations of people in rural areas. Throughout their life they may have to struggle hard to make ends meet. This struggle

may affect their physical health which ultimately leads to problems in older age. Results from chi-square analyses indicate that people living in rural areas are more prone to mobility impairments.

Pakistan is a developing country and financial resources are of significant importance to the lives of individuals. Similarly, our two indicators on financial status, independent source of income and living index, turned out as expected. Results indicate that lower levels of financial resources are associated with impaired mobility and those with no independent source of income and a lower living index were more likely to have impaired mobility.

Conclusion

Social, economic and health-related factors are important to consider when examining mobility impairment among older adults in Punjab, Pakistan. Efforts aimed at addressing the gender and economic gaps may help to reduce mobility disparities in old age. Further, additional efforts are also needed to improve the mobility of older adults with diseases and poor living indexes. Addressing these issues is vital and especially pertinent as Pakistan will continue to see an increase in its aging population.

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Earnings, Dividend and Share Price Volatility in Nigeria

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This study makes an effort to test the relationship between earnings, dividend and share price volatility with the Nigerian Stock Exchange market as the focal point. The ordinary least squares regression technique was employed for data analysis. In cases where auto correlation was observed, the Cochrane-Orcutt iterative procedure was used to correct the standard error. In the end, the relationship between earnings, dividend and share price volatility was estimated. The results show that an insignificant relationship exists between the dependent variable and the independent variables. To be specific, 'earnings', 'earnings per share', 'dividend payout ratio' and 'dividend yield' do not correlate with share price volatility; however, 'earnings yield' has a significant negative relationship with share price volatility. The study recommends that, instead of dividend, companies should concentrate energies on expansionary policies that will increase their share price. It also suggests that companies should de-emphasize 'creature' accounting designed to produce robust profit figures since earnings do not have a robust relationship with share price behaviour.

Keywords: share price volatility; earnings; earnings per share; dividend payout ratio; dividend yield; earnings yield

Conflicting empirics exist as to what factors influence the behaviour of stock prices. A vast body of research in this area indicates scant evidence of any functional relationship between stock price behaviour and other independent variables. This lack of consensus may have accounted for why issues of share price volatility have become so topical. According to Osaze (1985), literature on stock price behaviour still provides inconclusive evidence in terms of the factors that determine share price volatility in either the more active exchanges of London, New York, Paris and Tokyo or the developing ones of Brasilia, Bogota and Lagos

Stock prices are affected by a plethora of variables that are determined both exogenously and endogenously. The upwards and downwards movement of share prices subsumed in a more general concept of share price volatility can be accounted for by different variables, some of which have been empirically validated. Though not exhaustive, some known factors that may account for share price volatility are 'earnings', 'inflation', 'dividend' and

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'trading volume'.

This study focuses on testing the consistency of existing empirical results on share price behaviour using a more robust theoretical foundation and more advanced statistical techniques. The researchers hope that the results of this study will help in enlarging the existing body of knowledge on the issue. Interestingly, not too long ago, the Nigerian Stock Exchange was agog with a beehive of activities as a result of bank recapitalization. The market has currently become inactive because of the downwards slide of stock prices. This mixed reaction may not be an accident, thus the timing of this research could not have been more appropriate. In order to examine the relationship between earnings, dividend, and share price volatility, the study used the following research questions:

1. Does a relationship exist between share price volatility and corporate earnings?
2. Does trading volume significantly impact share price volatility?
3. Does a relationship exist between share price volatility and dividend yield?

Literature Review

'Volatility' has been defined as a measure of the amount by which a variable, such as share price, has fluctuated (*historical volatility*) or is expected or likely to fluctuate (*expected volatility*) during a specified period of time. Over the years, share price volatility has become very topical as not only an instrument of forecasting and decision-making, but also a basis for valuing options. The likely fluctuation of share prices is an indicator of market anxiety and such periods of anxiety have always marked a turning point for share prices (Siegel, 2007).

Share price fluctuation or volatility is usually not by chance since some invisible hands determine the upwards and downwards movement of share prices. These invisible hands are the forces of *demand* and *supply*. At every point in time, they dictate the prices of shares and other securities. 'Supply' means the number of shares available for trading, while 'demand' the number of shares investors are willing to buy. Therefore, a price exists where the demand equates the supply (*equilibrium position*) at a particular point in time. In addition to the forces of demand and supply, Osaze (2007) adds attractiveness of the shares in terms of the risk and return associated with them.

Theory of Stock Price Behaviour

Financial literature is replete with theories on share price volatility, from the conventional random walk theory and technical analyst theory to the more recent Elliot wave theory, Dow theory, Chaos theory and Swingtum computational theory of fractal dynamic swings. The latter is based entirely on the view that volatility in the stock market, as represented by its benchmark index, is driven by the interaction of triple forces of 'business dynamics', 'mass psychological dynamics' and 'new impact'.

Swingtum, on the basis of the above forces, decomposed the market into four components: 'dynamical swings', 'physical cycles', 'abrupt moments' and 'random walks'. According to him, 'dynamic swings' comprise business cycles, Elliot waves, and share life cycles with fractal nature composed of log-periodic power laws; 'physical cycles' comprise anniversary days, seasonality cycles, and monthly or weekly cycles that are non-dynamic and relatively static from one given time to another; 'abrupt moments' are driven by exogenous news shocks or impacts; and 'random walks' correspond to the remaining randomness not

accounted for by any systematic forces (Pan, 2003).

In Swingtum's view, the dynamic swings and physical cycles identified and modelled from the historical index time series will most likely define a quantum frame of price and time in which the market will move from one price level to another. According to the Swingtum theory of dynamic swings, a fundamental relationship exists between time and stock prices, since the latter respond to definite cyclical movements.

The theory provides a comprehensive dynamic model of predicting stock price behaviour, combining fractal dynamics and physical cycles with quantum time-price correlation. This study hopes to be a pioneering work in integrating the practice of technical analysis with a more dynamic quantitative analysis.

A direct attack on the disordered system of the Chaos theory, the Elliot wave theory was developed in response to the wave-like pattern of stock market movement, which it says is a result of investors' emotions caused by external influences like the psychology of masses. It establishes a fundamental relationship between the cyclical movement of the market and the wave-like ups and downs overbearing the psychology of masses. The wave-like pattern of the Elliot theory bears close resemblance to the Dow theory.

The Elliot theory identifies a peculiar feature of the waveform based on which stock prices are predicted accurately. Borrowing from the Newton's Law of Motion, every action in a financial market must create an equal and opposite reaction, meaning upwards movement must be preceded by downwards movement and vice-versa. Against this backdrop, price actions are divided in *trends* and *sideways movements*, with the former showing the main direction of price movement (*impulsive waves*), while the latter move against the trend (*corrective waves*).

The Chaos theory, propounded by Lorenz, is also important in predicting the movement of share prices. In addition to its usefulness in predicting stock price behaviour, the chaos theory has been used in predicting weather patterns. The study focuses on non-linear dynamics and is concerned with the study of how small occurrences affect the outcome of seemingly unrelated events. It aims at understanding the underlying order of complex systems that may initially appear to be in disarray.

The *chaos theory* was named as such since the systems it describes are not arranged along any known pattern or, in simple words, they are disordered. However, the emphasis of the Chaos theory is on finding the specific order of disordered systems. In relation to stock price behaviour, this theory views that prices of stocks and other securities are relatively fixed; and price changes can be determined by using complex mathematical extrapolation to predict: (1) the volume of changes in share prices and the momentum behind them; and (2) the complex, non-linear personal motives, fears and beliefs of the traders. The chaos theory, by its nature, is extremely complex and controversial.

Propounded by Brown, Harlow, and Tinic (1988), the *uncertain information hypothesis* is another theory of stock price behaviour. An extension of the controversial efficient market theory, it focuses on the investors' rationality in the absence of complete information. In real world situations, such accidental events do happen that cannot be predicted by any investor nor can their impact on share prices be predicted. The uncertain information theory addresses such situations.

According to the proponents of this theory, in uncertain conditions, investors will respond in a manner similar to the expected value criterion of mathematicians. When there is a

bad news important enough to attract national sympathy, such as the death of a national figure with diversified business interests, the share prices of affected companies will initially dip because of the uncertainty of the likely impact of the bad news, but they will start picking up after some time.

For example, when the creative accounting problem of Cadbury came to the fore, the initial market reaction was a fall in its share prices; however, after a while, when the implications became glaring, the price of its shares started moving upwards. When there is good news, the initial market reaction is increase in share prices. This may account for increase in the share prices of companies when they declare their yearly performance. Suffice to say that neither favourable nor unfavourable events are not market specific; rather, they cover the whole economy since the average return from a market portfolio following an unexpected event will have the same asymmetric pattern.

Popularized by Malkiel (1973), the random walk theory is another approach to understand the stock price behaviour. The principal idea behind this theory is that in an efficient market, the prices of goods and services should be a reflection of all available information. According to this theory, the changes in security prices are a reflection of a process called *martingale* – the expected future value of a random variable has no bearing with its historical values; and all security prices are a reflection of the relevant available information to the extent that the expected future changes in price should be statistically independent of the size, volume of activities and earnings of the firm.

The random walk theory was developed out of the belief that share prices cannot take any known pattern; rather, they are randomly determined and can assume only unpredictable patterns. This means that if share prices increase over a time period, they also exhibit the tendency to fall over another period. Debunking the claims of fundamentalist and technical analysts, this theory suggests that stocks should be bought with the intention of holding them for a time long enough to cause the share price to increase, instead of embarking on the risky venture of trying to outsmart the market by timing it. It further says historical movement or direction of a share price cannot be used to predict its future movement.

Empirical Evidence

The issue of earnings and stock price behaviour has attracted robust empirical research over the past five decades with the end not yet in sight. The objective of this section is to review the results of some selected previous studies on the subject.

The argument on share price volatility hinges on the work of Gordon (1959), who posits that the market value of a firm, as displayed by the share price, is a function of its dividend policy. The Gordon's theory is actually an investment model, developed under strict assumptions regarding a company's financing policies. Its basic postulate is that the value of a share is the present value of its expected future dividend.

Walter (1963) reveals that a company's dividend policies account for the variation in share prices and that, in the long run, share prices tend to capture the anticipated future company dividend. This position has been corroborated by many later financial commentators, some of whom believe that changes in equity share prices and capital gains can be accounted for by dividend payment, rather than by earnings potential of a company. For example, Lang and Litzenberger (1989) argue that changes in a company's dividend policy

can have far reaching implications for its share prices.

In line with the Gordon's theory, but with a little deviation, Osaze (1985) – who used five-year data (1976-1980) of 20 companies quoted on the Nigerian Stock Exchange to investigate the relationship between trading volume, earnings and dividend, and share price volatility – discovers that the trend of economic activities has been largely responsible for share price volatility. He also observes that a positive relationship exists between dividend payout and share price volatility, while a negative relationship between earnings per share and share price volatility.

Mohamad and Nasir (1993), who used data of companies quoted on the Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange to investigate the relationship between six predictor variables – dividend yield, firm size, return on equity, debt-to-asset ratio, payout ratio and earnings variability – and share price volatility, observe that dividend yield and variability explain 23% of share price changes.

Allen and Rachim (1996), in a study of the Australian Securities Exchange, discover that a significant positive relationship exists between dividend payout ratio and dividend policy, and share price volatility. Travlos, Trigeorgis, and Vafeas (2001), in a similar study of the Cyprus Stock Exchange between 1985 and 1991, endorse that a significant positive relationship exists between dividend policy and share price volatility. Al-Qenae, Li, and Wearing (2002), who investigated the sensitivity of earnings response coefficients to leading period returns in an emerging market, argue that share prices reflect investors' perception that current earnings provide them with information about future earnings, thus the market reacts quickly to new information and anticipates earnings.

Nishat and Irfan (2004), who conducted a study of 10 firms listed on the Karachi Stock Exchange for years, discover that a significant positive relationship exists between dividend yield and share price volatility, but not between the latter and dividend payout ratio. They also find out that a positive relationship exists between earnings yield and share price volatility. Fan-fah, Mohd, and Nasir (2008) investigated the relationship between firm size and share price volatility during earnings announcements. The results of their study conform to the notion that cumulative abnormal returns can be simply explained by earnings announcements.

The data was analyzed using the multiple regression technique to establish the cause-effect of the relationship between the variables. Against the backdrop of the above theoretical expositions and results, the following propositions or research hypotheses were expressed in null form:

H₁: Earnings have no significant relationship with share price volatility.

H₂: Dividend yield has no significant relationship with share price volatility.

H₃: The price-earnings ratio has an insignificant relationship with share price volatility

Research Methodology

The data for the research were mainly from the Nigerian Stock Exchange fact books and corporate financials of the sample for the relevant years. The validity and reliability of the research data are incontestable due to the reputation of the source. The research is a longitudinal ex-post factor study of the three samples. The research samples were selected using the purposive sampling technique – a non-probability sampling approach. The First Bank of Nigeria (FBN), Union Bank of Nigeria (UBN) and United Bank for Africa (UBA) were

selected on this basis. The choice of these banks was premised on their vibrancy and repository of relevant financial indices.

Model Specification

To test the strength of the relationship, an economic model was formulated, which sort to describe in a simple mathematical formulae the relationship between the dependent variable of interest (share price volatility) and the independent variables of earnings, dividend cover, price-earnings ratio and dividend payout. The dependent variable was approximated as the prices of the selected shares on 31 December of the years under consideration, while the independent variables were computed from the financial accounts of the sample companies for the relevant years. The functional relationship between the variables is specified in the following:

$$SPV = b_0 + b_1X_t + b_2Y_t + b_3N_t + b_4W_t + b_5L_t + U_t$$

Where,

SPV(qt) = share price volatility

b_0 = intercept

b_1 to b_5 = slopes measuring the amount of change in quantity (qt) associated with a unit change in the variables

X_t = earnings volume of bank at time t

Y_t = earnings yield of bank at time t

N_t = earnings per share of the bank at time t

W_t = profit-earnings ratio of bank at time t

L_t = dividend yield of bank at time t

U_t = random disturbance term

The error term was introduced to correct the effect of other factors not included in the model that can affect the dependent variable. The a priori expectation of the independent variables can be thus presented as: $a_0 < 0$; $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5 > 0$

Definition of Variables

Share price volatility

It refers to rapid or dull fluctuations as a result of changes in macroeconomic indices and availability of data as they relate to the market value of the organization.

$$SPV = \sqrt{\frac{HP - LP}{\frac{1}{2}(HP + LP)}}$$

Where,

SPV = share price volatility

HP = high price

LP = low price

Earnings

The profit of a company or earning before interest and tax. The figure is sourced from

the yearly financial statement.

Earnings yield

A measure of corporate performance that indicates potential return on investment, or the reciprocal of price-earnings ratio: $\text{Earnings yield} = \text{Earnings per share} \times 100 / \text{Market price per share}$.

Earnings per share

The proportion of profit accruing to shareholders after deducting tax, preference dividend and monitory interest: $\text{Earnings per share} = \text{Profit after tax less preference dividend} / \text{Number of ordinary shares}$.

Price-earnings ratio

The number of year's earnings investors can purchase with their current investment level. This measure of risk in shares is expressed in absolute value: $\text{Price Earning Ratio} = \text{Market price} / \text{Earning per share}$.

Dividend yield

It relates dividend per share to current market price and is calculated as: $\text{Dividend yield} = \text{Dividend per share} \times 100 / \text{Market price per share}$.

Empirical Results

The study aims at finding out which of the predictor variables affects share price volatility. The specified model was estimated using the ordinary least squares (OLS) regression technique. A combination of Microfit 4.1 and Gretl computer packages was used for data analysis.

The study results show that the coefficient of the multiple determination of the model (R^2) is 0.23769, meaning that the predictor variables accounted for only 24% of the overall variation in share price volatility, thus passing as weak predictors (*Table 1*). The DW statistic of 1.985 is acceptable. It indicates the absence of autocorrelation in the error term. The F-statistic is 0.87305, while the critical value is 2.96. This indicates that in the UBA, the predictor variables are jointly insignificant in explaining share price volatility.

Table 1
Union Bank of Africa Ordinary Least Square Estimation

Regression	Coefficient	Standard Error	t Ratio
Q	0	0.19478	2.5081
X	1422E-9	0.1795E-9	0.79202
Y	-0.0032232	0.0020289	-1.5887
N	0.080211	0.076301	1.0512
W	0.011275	0.0093048	1.2117
L	0.023863	0.017775	1.3425

$R^2 = 0.23769$; DW statistic = 1.985; F-statistic = 0.87305

The R2 of 0.1427 means that the explanatory variables account for only 14% of the systemic variation in the dependent variable of share price volatility (*Table 2*). The DW statistic of 3.164 is too high, signalling the presence of autocorrelation among the variables.

Table 2
First Bank of Nigeria Ordinary Least Square Estimation

Regression	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio	(Probability)
C	88.1670	90.3349	0.97600	(0.355)
LN _X	0.0058621	0.047903	0.12237	(0.905)
LN _Y	-19.2240	19.7190	-0.97490	(0.355)
LN _N	-0.041478	0.24246	-0.17107	(0.868)
LN _W	-19.2056	19.7196	-0.1462	(0.842)
LN _L	0.010864	0.14009	0.077551	(0.940)

R2 = 0.1427; DW statistic = 3.164; F-statistic = 0.29962

To correct the autocorrelation and improve the performance of the model, the Cochrane-Orcutt interactive procedure was used (*Table 3*). The R2 after 28 iterations is 51%, meaning that more than one half of the systemic variations in the dependent variable are accounted for by the explanatory variables, depicting an average fit. The DW statistic of 2.0389 shows a clear absence of autocorrelation since it falls within the acceptable region. The F-statistic of 0.7461, with a critical value of 2.96, clearly indicates that the explanatory variables are jointly insignificant in explaining variations in share price volatility.

Table 3
First Bank of Nigeria Cochrane-Orcutt After 28 Iterations

Regression	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio	(Probability)
C	37.5416	260.7447	0.143981	(0.889)
LN _X	0.077984	0.10621	0.73423	(0.481)
LN _Y	-8.4007	56.7805	-0.14795	(0.886)
LN _N	-0.99184	0.25555	-0.23461	(0.886)
LN _W	-8.5110	56.5411	-0.15053	(0.884)
LN _L	-0.0058672	0.28304	-0.020729	(0.984)

R2 = 0.51089; DW statistic = 2.0389; F-statistic = 0.7461

The Cochrane-Orcutt converged after 13 iterations and displayed an R2 of 0.81974 (*Table 4*). This means that about 82% of the variations in the dependent variable are accounted for by the explanatory variables. The DW statistics of 1.8223 indicates complete absence of autocorrelation. Similarly, the F-statistics of 3.9800 at 5% significance level shows a lack of joint significance in explaining share price volatility.

Table 4
Union Bank of Nigeria Cochrane-Orcutt After 13 Iterations

Regression	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio
C	-25.8975	18.2414	-1.4197
LNx	-0.047150	0.027334	-1.7250
LNy	-5.9303	3.9697	1.4939
LNN	-0.080807	0.079833	-1.0122
LNW	5.8156	3.9910	1.4572
LNL	-0.36937	0.12869	12.8702

$R^2 = 0.81974$; DW statistic = 1.8223; F-statistics = 3.9800

The R^2 of 0.372785 shows that about 37% of the total variations in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables, while the remaining 63% cannot (Table 5). The F-statistic of 42.1000 is high, thus passing the F-significance test at 5% significance level. This shows that there is a significant linear relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. The-DW statistic of 1.455447 shows the absence of autocorrelation, thus the assumptions of ordinary least squares regression are in agreement with the model.

Table 5
Mean of Companies: Regression Result of Samples Using GRETL Computer Package

Regression	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio	P-Value
C	0.631327	0.109522	5.764	4.90e-05
X	3.67172e-010	3.94337e-010	0.9311	0.3676
Y	-0.00268358	0.000905606	-2.963	0.0103
N	-0.000143229	9.84682e-05	-1.455	0.1678
W	0.0141904	0.00818871	1.733	0.1051
L	0.00583359	0.00942408	0.6190	05459

$R^2 = 0.372785$; DW-statistic = 1.455447; F-statistic = 42.1000

The model is estimated as with the t-values reported in parenthesis below the coefficients:

$$Q = 0.63 + 3.67e-010 x - 0.003Y - 0.000IN + 0.014W + 0.006L$$

$$(5.76) \quad (0.93) \quad (-2.96) \quad (-1.46) \quad (1.73) \quad (0.62)$$

The explanatory variable X, W and L are positively related to Q, while Y and N have a negative relationship with Q. In the same vain, only Y having a value of -2.963 passed the t-test at the 5% level of significance when compared with the critical t-test of 2.13. The other variable did not pass their t-value. This shows that Y is the major determinant of the behaviour of Q, while the others are less significant.

Major Findings

The study results show that earnings are not a determinant of share price volatility. Both the individual samples and mean of the samples present consistent result that lead one to accept the null hypothesis, since in all cases the calculated t-values of earnings are grossly below the critical value at 5% significance level (*Table 6*).

Table 6
Regression Result for Earning

Sample	Calculated t-value	Critical Value
United Bank for Africa	0.792	2.13
First Bank of Nigeria	0.734	2.23
Union Bank of Nigeria	-1.725	2.20
Mean	0.931	2.13

The results clearly demonstrate that dividend yield is not a determinant of share price volatility and the reported t-values for all the samples are below the standard critical values, thus the null hypothesis that dividend yield has no significant relationship with share price volatility can be acceptable (*Table 7*).

Table 7
Regression Result for Dividend Yield

Sample	Calculated t-value	Critical Value
United Bank for Africa	1.342	2.13
First Bank of Nigeria	-0.020	2.23
Union Bank of Nigeria	-2.87	2.20
Mean	0.619	2.13

The results show that profit-earnings ratio is not a determinant of share price volatility; the reported t-values are below the critical values of t for the selected samples. The mean of calculated t-value of 1.73 is also less than the critical value of 2.13 (*Table 8*).

The study results further show that earnings yield has a significant negative relationship with share price volatility in the mean of the samples, even though the individual samples present conflicting results. The mean of calculated t-value exceeds the critical value, though it is negatively signed (*Table 9*).

Table 8
Regression Result for Profit-Earning Ratio

Sample	Calculated t-value	Critical Value
United Bank for Africa	1.212	2.13
First Bank of Nigeria	-0.150	2.23
Union Bank of Nigeria	1.457	2.20
Mean	1.73	2.13

Table 9
Regression Result for Earning Yield

Sample	Calculated t-value	Critical Value
United Bank for Africa	-1.589	2.13
First Bank of Nigeria	-0.148	2.23
Union Bank of Nigeria	1.494	2.20
Mean	-2.963	2.13

The results show that earnings per share are not a determinant of share price volatility since the reported earnings per share do not account for a significant variation in share price volatility. The calculated t-values are also less than the critical values (*Table 10*).

Table 10
Regression Result for Earning Per Share

Sample	Calculated t-value	Critical Value
United Bank for Africa	1.051	2.13
First Bank of Nigeria	-0.235	2.23
Union Bank of Nigeria	-1.012	2.20
Mean	-1.455	2.13

Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between earnings and its surrogates and share price volatility. It also tested the impact of dividend yield on share price volatility using banks quoted on the Nigerian Stock Exchange. In all the predictor variables considered, the researchers failed to find a significant relationship with share price volatility. Though earnings yield was negatively related to share price volatility, but not so significantly to be listed as its determinant.

Earnings per share have a conflicting relationship, both negative and positive, with share price volatility, but not strong enough to let the researchers conclude that they have a significant influence on the latter. These findings conform to existing empirics on determinants of share price volatility. Conclusively, it is safe to say that earnings, earnings surrogate and dividend yield are not determinants of share price volatility in the Nigeria Stock Exchange.

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Audit Delay Determinants in Quoted Companies: Empirical Evidence from Nigeria

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This paper focuses on audit delay in Nigerian quoted companies. It aims at identifying the factors responsible for audit delay against the backdrop of time periods fixed for the publication of financial reports under relevant laws. To this end, data sets of 2007 and 2008 of 150 Nigerian quoted companies were used. Ordinary least squares regression and descriptive statistics were employed to analyze the variables in the audit delay model proposed for the paper. The findings show that the mean audit delay in Nigeria is higher than the documented empirical evidence, with subsidiaries and extraordinary items having a significant positive and negative relationship with audit delay, respectively. Based on these findings, the paper suggests that the time periods fixed for the publication of financial reports under relevant laws be reviewed to reflect international best practices.

Key words: audit delay; quoted companies; financial reporting; time lag

Financial reporting means communicating accounting information to diverse end users. The United States Securities and Exchange Commission harps on the utilitarian value of timely presentation of accounting information to users (Accounting Principles Board, 1970). Though it cannot be said that all users rely on accounting information for taking decisions, such information must be, and seen to be, useful and timely.

Givoly and Palmon (1982) argue that timeliness is a determining factor in the usefulness of financial reports. Further argument in literature also shows that timely presentation of accounting information to users can douse the burden of uncertainty associated with decisions that may be taken on the basis of this information (Ashton, Willingham, & Elliott, 1987; Chambers & Penman, 1984). The shorter the time lag between fiscal year-end and the publication of a company's financial report, the greater the benefits to be accrued from it (Abdulla, 1996).

Timeliness has long been recognized by accounting professions and regulatory

bodies as a virtue and positive attribute of financial reporting. Timeliness of financial statements suggests that information has been presented in such a manner that its value-relevance meets the specific decision requirements of users. A timely-published financial report has much more utilitarian value than a delayed one. The American Accounting Association (AAA) was the first to recognize that timely publication of financial reports is a useful and qualitative attribute of accounting (Committee on Concepts and Standards Underlying Corporate Financial Statements, 1955).

Academic researchers and authors have continued to contribute to the copious literature in the area of accounting research. Carslaw and Kaplan (1991), on their part, highlight the usefulness of timeliness of financial reports. Ahmad and Kamarudin (2003) argue that timely availability of accounting information enhances the information content and value-relevance of financial reports.

By now, governments across the world have recognized the need for timely publication of financial reports in their laws. The Malaysian Company Act, 1965, stipulates a period of 180 days within which companies have to make public their audited financial reports. In the United States, a period of 63 days is stipulated for the publication of audited financial reports (Ashton, Willingham, & Elliot, 1987). In Turkey, a period of 70 and 110 days is stipulated for the publication of audited financial reports and consolidated accounts, respectively (Aktas & Kargin, 2011; Turel, 2010).

In Nigeria, Section 27(1) of the Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act (BOFIA), 2003, and Central Bank of Nigeria Act (CBN), 2004, stipulate a period of 120 and 150 days, respectively, within which banks and other financial institutions have to make public their audited financial reports. However, under Section 49(1) of the Fiscal Responsibility Act (FRA), 2007, which focuses on government corporations, agencies, parastatals, commissions and other entities, companies are required to publish their audited financial reports within a period of 180 days after fiscal year-end. Section 41(3a) of the Companies Income Tax Act (CITA), 1990, also stipulates a period of 180 days within which companies have to submit audited financial reports to their boards.

Sharing audited financial reports with the board presupposes that a company is credible and has at least some public acceptance. The laws of different countries specify different penalties for breaches when disclosures are not made within the specified time. For example, CITA imposes a fine of 25,000 Nigerian naira for breach of this provision in the first instance (month); and 10,000 Nigerian naira for each succeeding month for which the breach continues. Other relevant laws also specify penalties, but their deterrence is yet to be proved.

The need to be timely in the publication of financial reports is underscored by the sense of urgency that makes audit firms work overtime to reduce the 'time lag', which is defined as the time period between fiscal year-end and the publication of a company's financial report (Che-Ahmad & Abidin, 2008). Carslaw and Kaplan (1991) point out that the terms 'audit delay' and 'time lag' have often been used interchangeably in related literature.

Empirical evidence links audit delay with several factors or characteristics in developed as well as developing countries (Abdulla, 1996; Ahmad & Kamarudin, 2003; Ashton, Willingham, & Elliot, 1987). It has been argued in literature that audit delay results from a set of attributes that can be traced to the company and the audit firm. However, mixed results have created doubts about the veracity of this claim. Considering this, this paper makes an attempt to evaluate the impact of these factors on audit delay in Nigeria. Other objectives of the

paper include the following:

1. Extending the previous studies on the subject by focusing on the Nigerian environment using data sets of 2007 and 2008.
2. Establishing relationship between audit delay and company and audit firm attributes, though with the inclusion in the audit delay model of two variables: *subsidiaries* and *extraordinary items*.
3. Finding out if Nigerian quoted companies comply with the statutory regulation of either 180 days (as defined by CITA and the FRA) or 150 days and 120 days (as defined by the CBN and BOFIA, respectively).

The third objective is particularly of interest to the Nigerian policymakers in view of the policy implications of stipulating long time periods between fiscal year-end and the publication of a company's financial report.

Problem Statement

Financial reporting constitutes the means of presenting accounting information to users of such information. The condition that financial statements prepared by the management be subjected to external audit can be in clash with the requirement of timely presentation of financial reports to users of accounting information. However, the presentation of accounting information requires that financial statements possess basic attributes of relevance and usefulness.

One of the qualitative attributes of financial reporting is timely presentation of accounting information that meets the specific decision requirements of users. However, conflicts may surface in the process of having credible, relevant, useful and timely- published financial reports. While the conflict is mostly expressed in the case of qualified audit report, unusual events and other factors may also result in audit delays.

Literature Review

Audit delay has been traced to a set of company and audit firm attributes, which in turn are also linked with each other in both developed and developing countries (Carslaw & Kaplan, 1991; Davies & Whittred, 1980; Dyer & McHugh, 1975). Over the past half a century or so, plenty of literature has been produced on audit delay and the factors responsible for it. The AAA was the first to capture this relationship when it regarded timeliness of financial reporting as an essential element and a qualitative factor of adequate disclosure (Committee on Concepts and Standards Underlying Corporate Financial Statements, 1955). Many subsequent researchers have followed in the footsteps of the AAA in acknowledging the significance of timely publication of financial reports (Ashton, Willingham, & Elliott, 1987; Carslaw & Kaplan, 1991).

Empirical evidence linking audit delay with company and audit firm attributes has been well-documented in related literature. Abdulla (1996), for example, finds out that delayed disclosure of accounting information reduces the information content and value-relevance of financial reports. He further argues that the longer the time period between fiscal year-end and the publication of a company's financial report, the higher the chances of information being leaked. Similarly, Hossain and Taylor (1998) maintain that delayed disclosure of financial

reports may encourage unscrupulous acquisition of private pre-disclosure information, which may not be in the interest of the company. Ahmad and Kamarudin (2003), building on this argument, conclude that delayed corporate reports and accounts will have a serious negative impact on the utility to be derived from the information contained in them.

Many studies have also attempted to determine the relationship between audit delay and company and audit firm attributes such as *extraordinary items*. For example, Newton and Ashton (1989) and Carslaw and Kaplan (1991) argue that audit firms of companies with extraordinary items may need additional time to identify how such items constitute extraordinary items, or if such items are exceptional items since the classification between the two is vague. Ahmad and Kamarudin (2003) endorse the viewpoint that *extraordinary* items may very well constitute *exceptional* items, since both of them are different from *ordinary* items. Other company and audit firm attributes have also been examined in literature over the years. Dyer and McHugh (1975), using the attributes of size, year-end and profitability, conclude that the larger and more profitable the company, the lesser the audit delay. Their findings on company size have been endorsed by Gilling (1977), who studied the relationship between audit delay and company size in New Zealand.

Other company and audit firm attributes have also been the subject of study in empirical research. Ashton, Willingham, and Elliott (1987) observe that audit delay is relatively longer for companies that: are unquoted, receive qualified audit report, have a fiscal year-end other than 31 December, have poor internal controls, employ less-complex data processing technologies, have a relatively greater amount of audit work performed after year-end, and are nonfinancial rather than financial. A *nonfinancial* company possesses a great deal of stock at year-end, while a *financial* company does not. Delayed publication of financial reports is linked with nonfinancial companies rather than financial companies and losses (Ashton, Graul, & Newton, 1989; Ashton, Willingham, & Elliott, 1987). Givoly and Palmon (1982), however, believe that industry patterns and traditions account for audit delay, not corporate attributes.

Ng and Tai (1994), using data sets of 1990 and 1991, examined the turnover, degree of diversification, changes in earnings per share and extraordinary items of 10 quoted companies in Hong Kong. Their findings show that turnover and degree of diversification provide significant explanation for audit delay. Also, changes in earnings per share rather than absolute earnings per share account for delay in the publication of financial reports. On the other hand, Abdulla (1996) reports that a company's size, profitability, distributed dividend, industry membership and debt-to-equity ratio explain variations in its audit delay. He identifies a significant negative relationship between audit delay and the profitability, size and distributed dividend of the 26 sampled Bahraini quoted companies.

Conflicts in empirical findings over audit delay attributes have been well-documented in literature. For example, Ashton, Willingham, and Elliott (1987) present different results for data sets of 1987 and 1988; according to their findings, company ownership significantly explains audit delay in 1987, but not in 1988. Carslaw and Kaplan (1991) and Bamber, Bamber, and Schoderbek (1993), using data set of 1987, corroborate these findings. Ashton, Willingham, and Elliott (1987) also argue that high level of manager-ownership will likely elongate audit delay because of less pressure for timely release of information. Since managers with high level of manager-ownership already have easy access to this information, they may not bother themselves with its early release.

Companies leverage on their debt covenant to enhance their capital structure.

However, a large proportion of debt will increase a company's likelihood of failure and may raise additional concerns in the auditor's mind that its financial statements are unreliable. Ashton, Willingham, and Elliott (1987) examined the influence of debt proportion on audit delay. Their findings were later corroborated by Carslaw and Kaplan (1991) and Ahmad and Kamarudin (2003). Moreover, it has been reported in literature that multinational companies in developed countries, with subsidiaries in developing countries, perform their audit much quicker than local companies. Hossain and Taylor (1998) attribute this to: (i) the blue-chip shares and the desire to communicate information quickly to the capital market; and (ii) the ability of the audit firms, mostly international, to carry out the audit exercise in a record time.

Interestingly, the findings of Che-Ahmad and Abidin (2008) are not consistent with those of Hossain and Taylor (1998). They contend that the complexities of companies, as evidenced from subsidiaries and diversified business activities, account for delayed publication of financial reports. This, according to them, happens because of the need for extra and additional scrutiny of diversified activities. However, return on equity is negatively and significantly linked with audit delay. Return on equity, defined in terms of good news, motivates the management to report the good news to the shareholders, thus reducing the time period of audit delay.

Methodology and Data

This paper focuses on the factors that impact audit delay in Nigerian quoted companies, using data sets of 2007 and 2008 drawn from their annual reports and accounts. A sample of 150 companies was eventually drawn and used instead of the total population of 230 companies quoted on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) as of 31 December 2008.

The sample was justified on the grounds that not only were some companies on the NSE inactive as of that date, but also there was a dearth of relevant data and information about them for our analysis. However, ample care was taken to ensure that a fair representation was achieved with the 150 sampled companies.

The process of sample selection began with the choice of judgmental sampling method for the participating industrial sectors of: (i) agriculture/agro-allied; (ii) banking; (iii) conglomerate industrial/domestic products; (iv) food/beverages and tobacco; (v) insurance; (vi) breweries; (vii) chemical and paints; (viii) packaging; (ix) automobile and tyre; (x) textiles; (xi) computer and office equipment; (xii) printing and publishing; (xiii) petroleum (marketing); (xiv) machinery (marketing); and (xv) managed funds.

The choice of judgmental sampling method was informed by the need to have a good take and spread of each of these industrial sectors since they do not have the same number of companies. The method enabled the researchers to first select those sectors with more companies. A sample of 150 quoted companies was drawn from the 15 sectors using simple random sampling method. This was done by cutting equal-sized papers and writing the names of all the companies on them; and then placing them in a basket to be rotated, with a blind folder picking up a paper after each rotation.

Secondary data were used in the analysis for the purpose of extracting relevant variables, both dependent and independent. The Library Section of the NSE served as the source for annual reports and accounts of the sampled companies. The data collected from these reports and accounts enabled the researchers to identify the relationship between the

dependent variable and independent variables. The annual reports and accounts of each of the sampled companies were scrutinized to extract the relevant audit delay data. The audit delay model used in this paper is based on the model proposed by Carslaw and Kaplan (1991), and further extended by Che-Ahmad and Abidin (2008).

Definition of Variables

Audit delay (AUDL).

The time period in days between the due date of a company's financial statement (fiscal year-end) and the date of the audit firm's report.

Debt-to-equity (DBEQ).

A company with high debt-to-equity requires more time for audit than one with low debt-to-equity ratio, mainly because of the high risk of failure associated with the former.

Return on equity (ROEQ).

Auditors tend to be conscious of a company with low profitability because of high business risk; this invariably elongates the audit of such companies. However, where profitability is high, the reverse becomes the case. In this paper, profitability has been proxied by 'return on equity', defined as the proportion of profit after tax attributable to equity holders.

Diversification (DIVE).

Diversified business activities are likely to be positively linked with audit delay, since an audit firm needs additional time for complex activities. Similarly, financial reporting is delayed where the volume of activities matters. Since diversification implies a large volume of activities, it also means delayed financial reporting. However, where the management of a large and diversified company has the incentives to reduce audit delay, a negative relationship may exist between audit delay and diversification. In this paper, companies with diversified business activities have been assigned a dummy variable of 1, while companies with non-diversified business activities a dummy variable of 0.

Directors' interest in shares (DIRS).

Directors' interest in shares is likely to be positively linked with audit delay. Therefore, companies with high level of manager-ownership are likely to have longer audit delay because of the lack of pressure for timely release of information.

Industry classification (INDC).

Financial companies are likely to experience shorter audit delay than their nonfinancial counterparts since they have little or no stock, suggesting a less complex audit process. In addition, financial companies tend to employ highly-centralized and automated accounting systems that may result in audit delay. In this paper, financial companies have been assigned a dummy variable of 1, while nonfinancial companies a dummy variable of 0.

Auditor opinion (AUDO).

Qualified audit report is considered to be bad news for companies because it means audit

delay. Audit firms mostly do not issue qualified reports until they have fully considered the time and effort needed for performing additional audit procedures, implying substantial audit delay. In this paper, companies receiving qualified audit report have been assigned a dummy variable of 1, while companies not receiving qualified audit report a dummy variable of 0.

Audit firm size (AUDF).

Audit firm size is likely to affect the timing of a financial statement's publication. Since bigger audit firms have greater resources to ensure timely completion of an audit assignment, they normally have shorter audit delays. In this paper, the companies enlisting the services of one of the 'Big 4' audit firms have been assigned a dummy variable of 1, while companies not enlisting the services of one of the 'Big 4' audit firms a dummy variable of 0.

Fiscal year-end (YEND).

Companies with 31 December as fiscal year-end are likely to experience more audit delays than those with other dates as fiscal year-end. The situation may be further compounded where an audit firm lacks adequate workforce. However, where an audit firm has the capacity to undertake large assignments, the same could lead to reduced audit delay. Considering this, either a positive or negative relationship exists between fiscal year-end and audit delay. In this paper, companies with 31 December as fiscal year-end have been assigned a dummy variable of 1, while companies that have other dates as fiscal year-end a dummy variable of 0.

Company size (SIZE).

Company size is likely to lead to reduced audit delay due to the availability of resources for conducting a timely audit. In this paper, company size has been proxied by 'total assets', defined as the combination of current, fixed and intangible assets, as well as investments.

Dividend payment (DIPM).

Since dividend payment is seen as good news and is normally reported to the shareholders, it is likely to have a negative relationship with audit delay.

Subsidiaries (SUBS).

A high level of subsidiaries is likely to empower the management of a company to conduct a timely audit. Besides, multinational companies with subsidiaries in developing countries are able to enlist the services of one of the 'Big 4' audit firms, which have adequate resources to conduct a timely audit. To this end, subsidiaries are likely to reduce audit delay. In this paper, companies with subsidiaries have been assigned a dummy variable of 1, while companies without subsidiaries a dummy variable of 0.

Extraordinary items (EXTR).

Extraordinary items are vague because of the similarity of their definition and description with exceptional items. Researchers have traced a positive relationship between extraordinary items and audit delay because an audit firm needs additional time to identify what constitutes a transaction that could be classified as extraordinary item, hence increased audit delay. In this paper, companies with extraordinary items have been assigned dummy a variable of 1, while companies without extraordinary items a dummy variable of 0.

Multiple Regression Model

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the impact of 12 independent variables on the dependent variable of audit delay. The multiple regression model used in this paper has been given in the following:

$$\text{AUDL} = a + \beta_1 \text{DBEQ} + \beta_2 \text{ROEQ} + \beta_3 \text{DIPM} + \beta_4 \text{DIVE} + \beta_5 \text{DIRS} + \beta_6 \text{INDC} + \beta_7 \text{AUDO} + \beta_8 \text{AUDF} + \beta_9 \text{YEND} + \beta_{10} \text{SIZE} + \beta_{11} \text{SUBS} + \beta_{12} \text{EXTR} + U_i$$

Where,

β_1 to β_{12} = independent variables

U_i = stochastic term

Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics for all the dependent and independent variables have been given in the appendixes. According to results, in 2007 the variable of *audit delay* has a mean and standard deviation of 118 and 40 days, respectively (*Table 1*); while in 2008 the same increases to 121 and 53 days, respectively (*Table 2*). The mean audit delay of 121 days for companies in Nigeria is 67, 58, 38, 33 and seven days longer than that of companies in Canada, the United States, Australia, New Zealand and Malaysia, respectively. The finding that the mean audit delay of companies in Nigeria is longer than that of companies in most other countries is in line with previous studies.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for 2007(N=150)

No.	Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	%
1	AUDL	118.00	41.00	
2	DBEQ	0.25	0.09	
3	ROEQ	0.36	0.08	
4	DIVE	0.36	0.480	46 [*]
5	DIRS	0.23	.06	
6	INDC	0.60	0.49	61 [*]
7	AUDO	0.09	0.29	9 [*]
8	AUDF	0.63	0.49	66 [*]
9	YEND	0.56	0.50	57 [*]
10	SIZE	N299,326,414,666	N762,077,828,536	
11	DIPM	48.43	32.08	
12	SUBS	0.53	0.50	39 [*]
13	EXTR	0.33	0.47	53 [*]

^{*} Percentage of companies for which dummy variable 1 was used

N = Nigerian naira

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for 2008(N=150)

No.	Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	%
1	AUDL	121.00	53.000	
2	DBEQ	0.165	0.143	
3	ROEQ	0.363	0.077	
4	DIVE	0.440	0.498	46*
5	DIRS	0.117	0.118	
6	INDC	0.060	0.492	61*
7	AUDO	0.090	0.292	9*
8	AUDF	0.630	0.485	66*
9	YEND	0.500	0.498	57*
10	SIZE	N280,037,418,666	N439,982,908,896	
11	DIPM	45.820	37.422	
12	SUBS	0.980	0.487	39*
13	EXTR	0.450	0.499	47*

* Percentage of companies for which dummy variable 1 was used
N = Nigerian naira

Still, the mean audit delay of 118 days in 2007 is well within the time period stipulated under the related Nigerian laws: CITA, 1990 (180 days); the FRA, 2007 (180 days); the CBN, 2004 (150 days); and BOFIA, 2003 (120 days). Similarly, the mean audit delay of 121 days in the year 2008 is well within the time period stipulated under the related Nigerian laws except BOFIA, 2003, which stipulates a time period of 120 days within which quoted companies have to make public their audited financial reports.

The results indicate that in 2007 the variable of *company size*, proxied by total assets, has a mean and standard deviation of 299,326,414,666 and 762,077,828,536 Nigerian naira, respectively. Such a high standard deviation is risky and may only be necessitated by the high asset base of a few large companies, possibly in the oil and gas or banking sector that runs into billions of naira.

Interestingly, in both 2007 and 2008, 66% of the 150 sampled Nigerian companies enlisted the services of one of the 'Big 4' audit firms, 61% of them were financial companies, 57% of them had 31 December as fiscal year-end, 46% of them had diversified business activities, 39% of them had subsidiaries and 9% of them received qualified audit reports. However, in 2008, 47% of the companies reported having extraordinary items, compared with 53% in 2007.

The descriptive statistics for the subsamples of financial and nonfinancial companies show that in 2007 the dependent variable of *audit delay* has a mean and standard deviation of 115 and 51 days, respectively, for financial companies; and 119 and 34 days, respectively, for nonfinancial companies (Table 3). Similarly, the variable of *company size* has a mean and standard deviation of 694,320,314,285 and 117,863,663,297 Nigerian naira, respectively, for financial companies; and 107,695,710,891 and 291,527,682,850 Nigerian naira, respectively, for nonfinancial companies.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Financial and Nonfinancial Companies (2007)

No.	Variable	<u>Financial Companies (N=49)</u>		<u>Nonfinancial Companies (N=101)</u>	
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	AUDL	115.00	51.00	119.00	34.00
2	DBEQ	0.276	0.099	0.241	0.079
3	ROEQ	0.381	0.082	0.355	0.074
4	DIVE	0.310	0.466	0.390	0.489
5	DIRS	0.194	0.056	0.225	0.055
6	INDC	0.630	0.487	0.580	0.495
7	AUDO	0.660	0.242	0.110	0.313
8	AUDF	0.570	0.540	0.650	0.478
9	YEND	0.530	0.504	0.570	0.497
10	SIZE	N694,320,314,285	N117,863,663,297	N107,695,710,891	N291,527,683,850
11	DIPM	49.330	30.660	47.990	32.885
12	SUBS	0.840	0.373	0.380	0.487
13	EXTR	0.290	0.456	0.360	0.481

In 2008, the dependent variable of *audit delay* has a mean and standard deviation of 122 and 65 days, respectively, for financial companies; and 120 and 47 days, respectively, for nonfinancial companies (Table 4). Similarly, the variable of *company size* has a mean and standard deviation of 578,268,285,714 and 385,673,517,120 Nigerian naira, respectively, for financial companies; and 131,529,028,000 and 390,343,155,329 Nigerian naira, respectively, for nonfinancial companies.

The multivariate ordinary least squares (OLS) regression results for the year 2007 show that, for the subsample of financial companies, of the 12 independent variables only *debt-to-equity* has a significant positive relationship with audit delay, implying that it reduces the time lag between fiscal year-end and the publication of a company's financial report (Table 5).

As concerns the subsample of nonfinancial companies, however, the variables of *debt-to-equity* and *extraordinary items* have a significant positive relationship with audit delay. For both financial and nonfinancial companies, the remaining variables have either a positive or a negative relationship with audit delay, but not a significant one.

Table 4*Descriptive Statistics for Financial and Nonfinancial Companies (2008)*

No.	Variable	<i>Financial Companies (N=49)</i>		<i>Nonfinancial Companies (N=101)</i>	
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	AUDL	122.00	65.00	120.00	47.00
2	DBEQ	0.228	0.151	0.133	0.129
3	ROEQ	0.359	0.087	0.319	0.080
4	DIVE	0.450	0.503	0.430	0.496
5	DIRS	0.127	0.110	0.1140	0.122
6	INDC	0.630	0.487	0.590	0.494
7	AUDO	0.060	0.242	0.110	0.314
8	AUDF	0.570	0.500	0.660	0.476
9	YEND	0.530	0.504	0.570	0.498
10	SIZE	N578,268,285,714	N385,673,517,120	N131,529,028,000	N390,343,155,329
11	DIPM	46.220	34.343	46.560	37.881
12	SUBS	0.390	0.492	0.370	0.486
13	EXTR	0.390	0.492	0.450	0.502

Table 5*Multivariate Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results for Financial and Nonfinancial Companies (2007)*

No.	Variable	<i>Financial Companies (N=49)</i>		<i>Nonfinancial Companies (N=101)</i>	
		Coefficient	t-statistic	Coefficient	t-statistic
1	DBEQ	0.396	2.299*	0.263	2.851*
2	ROEQ	-0.072	-0.470	-0.059	-0.723
3	DIVE	0.568	1.665	0.004	0.017
4	DIRS	-0.148	-1.409	-0.156	1.727
5	INDC	-0.190	-1.824	0.050	0.910
6	AUDO	-0.116	-1.113	0.064	1.105
7	AUDF	0.076	0.422	-0.124	-1.923
8	YEND	0.072	0.540	0.077	1.359
9	SIZE	0.052	0.631	0.008	0.091
10	DIPM	-0.107	-1.291	-0.094	-1.147
11	SUBS	-0.034	-0.306	0.000	0.001
12	EXTR	-0.059	-0.185	-0.594	5.627*
Adjusted R ²		74.3%		72.2%	
DW statistic		2.149		1.930	
F-statistic		12.540		22.627	

* Significant at 5%

The coefficient of determination, expressed by adjusted R^2 , of 74.3% for financial companies and 72.2% for nonfinancial companies in 2007 indicates the percentage of audit delay that can be explained by the independent variables; while the DW statistic of 2.149 for financial companies and 1.930 for nonfinancial companies indicates the absence of autocorrelation. The goodness-of-fit and linearity of the models of the two subsamples, expressed by F-statistic, is confirmed by the value of 12.540 for financial companies and 22.627 for nonfinancial companies.

The multivariate OLS regression results for 2008 indicate that, for financial companies, of the 12 independent variables only *extraordinary items* has a significant positive relationship with audit delay; while for nonfinancial companies, two variables – *return on equity* and *extraordinary items* – have a significant positive relationship with audit delay (Table 6).

Table 6
Multivariate Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results for Financial and Nonfinancial Companies (2008)

No.	Variable	<i>Financial Companies (N=49)</i>		<i>Nonfinancial Companies (N=101)</i>	
		Coefficient	t-statistic	Coefficient	t-statistic
1	DBEQ	0.192	1.376	-0.057	-0.814
2	ROEQ	0.121	0.980	0.233	3.768*
3	DIVE	0.074	0.451	0.269	1.877
4	DIRS	-0.028	-0.302	0.085	1.388
5	INDC	-0.081	-0.833	0.061	1.047
6	AUDO	-0.043	-0.481	0.066	1.120
7	AUDF	-0.020	-0.134	-0.176	-2.626*
8	YEND	0.154	1.403	0.022	0.377
9	SIZE	0.061	0.492	0.002	0.022
10	DIPM	-0.058	-0.616	-0.162	-2.002*
11	SUBS	0.021	0.111	0.060	0.539
12	EXTR	0.464	2.307*	0.384	2.927*
Adjusted R^2		76.3%		70.9%	
DW statistic		2.163		1.787	
F-statistic		13.873		21.134	

* Significant at 5%

As regards financial companies, the remaining variables have either a positive or a negative relationship with audit delay, but not a significant one. For nonfinancial companies, however, the variables of *audit firm size* and *dividend payment* have a significant negative relationship with audit delay, implying that they reduce the time lag between fiscal year-end and the publication of financial report; while the remaining variables have either a positive or a negative relationship with audit delay, but not a significant one.

The adjusted R^2 of 76.3% for financial companies and 70.9% for nonfinancial companies in 2008 indicates the percentage of audit delay that can be explained by the independent variables; while the DW statistic of 2.163 for financial companies and 1.787 for nonfinancial companies indicates the absence of autocorrelation. The goodness-of-fit and

linearity of the models of the two subsamples, expressed by F-statistic, is confirmed by the value of 13.873 for companies and 21.134 for nonfinancial companies.

The multivariate OLS regression results clearly indicate that for financial companies, none of the 12 independent variables has a significant positive relationship with audit delay in both 2007 and 2008; however, for nonfinancial companies, the variable of *extraordinary items* has a significant positive relationship with audit delay in both the years.

The combined multivariate results for the 150 sampled companies for 2007 and 2008 show that, of the 12 independent variables, only *extraordinary items* has a significant positive relationship with audit delay in both the years (*Table 7*). In 2007, six of the 12 variables are significantly related to audit delay. Of these, the variables of *debt-to-equity*, *diversification* and *extraordinary items* have a significant positive, while the variables of *directors' interests in shares*, *dividend payment* and *subsidiaries* have a significant negative relationship with audit delay.

Table 7
Multivariate Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results for Companies (N=150)

No.	Variable	<u>2007</u>		<u>2008</u>	
		Coefficient	t-statistic	Coefficient	t-statistic
1	DBEQ	0.334	4.404*	0.035	0.556
2	ROEQ	-0.052	-0.756	0.246	4.580*
3	DIVE	0.214	2.173*	0.185	1.997
4	DIRS	-0.152	-3.171*	0.017	0.381
5	INDC	-0.011	-0.256	0.044	0.978
6	AUDO	0.035	0.781	0.056	1.232
7	AUDF	-0.080	-1.548	-0.144	-2.759*
8	YEND	0.048	1.004	0.055	1.159
9	SIZE	0.048	0.971	-0.046	-0.805
10	DIPM	-0.105	-2.328*	-0.081	-1.519
11	SUBS	-0.201	-2.858*	0.063	0.078
12	EXTR	0.463	5.375*	-0.392	4.083*
Adjusted R ²		73.6%		72.7%	
DW statistic		2.027		2.000	
F-statistic		35.675		33.888	

* Significant at 5%

Compared with this, in 2008, only three of the 12 variables are significantly related to audit delay. Of these, *return on equity* and *extraordinary items* have a significant positive, while *audit firm size* has a significant negative relationship with audit delay. The results show an adjusted R² of 73.6% in 2007 and 72.6% in 2008, indicating that the level of explanation of audit delay provided by the independent variables marginally decreased in 2008. Also, the absence of autocorrelation is indicated by the DW statistic of 2.027 in 2007 and 2.000 in 2008. The F-statistic of 35.675 in 2007 and 33.888 in 2008 indicates that the models used in both the years are good.

Summary of Findings

This paper sets out to examine audit delay in Nigerian quoted companies with the specific objective of identifying the major factors behind it. Its specific findings have been summarized in the following:

- The mean audit delay of Nigerian quoted companies is 118 and 121 days in 2007 and 2008, respectively.
- The mean audit delay of Nigerian quoted financial and nonfinancial companies is 115 and 119 days, respectively, in 2007; and 122 and 120 days, respectively, in 2008.
- In 2007, the independent variables of *debt-to-equity*, *diversification* and *extraordinary items* have a significant positive relationship with audit delay; while the independent variables of *directors' interests in shares*, *dividend payment* and *subsidiaries* have a significant negative relationship with audit delay.
- In 2007, the independent variables of *auditor opinion*, *fiscal year-end* and *company size* have a positive relationship with audit delay, but not a significant one; while the variables of *return on equity*, *industry classification* and *audit firm size* have a negative relationship with audit delay, but not a significant one.
- In 2008, the independent variables of *return on equity* and *extraordinary items* have a significant positive relationship with audit delay; while the independent variable of *audit firm size* has a significant negative relationship with audit delay.
- In 2008, the independent variables of *debt-to-equity*, *diversification*, *directors' interests in shares*, *industry classification*, *auditor opinion*, *fiscal year-end* and *subsidiaries* have a positive relationship with audit delay, but not a significant one; while the independent variables of *company size* and *dividend payment* have a negative relationship with audit delay, but not a significant one.

Discussion of Findings

The paper's results indicate that the independent variables of *debt-to-equity*, *diversification* and *extraordinary items* have a significant positive relationship with audit delay. On the other hand, independent variables of *directors' interests in shares* and *dividend payment* have a significant negative relationship with audit delay. These findings are also consistent with those of Carslaw and Kaplan (1991), and Bamber, Bamber, and Schoderbek (1993) as regards the relationship between extraordinary items and audit delay; and those of Ashton, Willingham, and Elliott (1987), and Che-Ahmad and Abidin (2008) as regards the relationship between *diversification* and audit delay, and subsidiaries and audit delay.

While the independent variable of *return on equity* has a significant positive relationship with audit delay in the multivariate results of 2008, the same has a negative relationship with audit delay – though not a significant one – in the multivariate results of 2007. This paper identifies a significant negative relationship between subsidiaries and audit delay, directors' interests in shares and audit delay, and dividend payment and audit delay in 2007; and audit firm size and audit delay in 2008. These findings are consistent with those of most previous studies on the subject.

The paper's finding that a significant negative relationship exists between the independent variable of *audit firm size* and audit delay is consistent with that of Gilling (1977), but not Bamber, Bamber, and Schoderbek (1993), and Che-Ahmad and Abidin (2008). Finally,

Nigerian quoted companies' adjusted R^2 of 73.6% in 2007 and 72.7% in 2008 is much higher than 13.9% in Malaysia (Ahmad & Kamarudin, 2003); 30.6% in Pakistan (Hossain & Taylor, 1998); and 17% and 14.3% for 1987 and 1988, respectively, in New Zealand (Carslaw & Kaplan, 1991).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The results of the multivariate analysis indicate that not all independent variables having a significant relationship with audit delay in 2007 are replicated in 2008. While six variables have a significant relationship with audit delay in 2007, the same is true for only three variables in 2008. Also, in the multivariate analysis of 2007, debt-to-equity, diversification and extraordinary items have a significant positive relationship with audit delay; while subsidiaries, directors' interests in shares and dividend payment have a significant negative relationship with audit delay. Strangely, return on equity has an insignificant negative relationship with audit delay in 2007, but a significant positive relationship with audit delay in 2008. Furthermore, audit firm size has an insignificant negative relationship with audit delay in 2007, but a significant one in 2008.

The mean audit delay of 118 days in 2007 and 121 days in 2008 for the sampled 150 Nigerian companies is within the ambit of the de facto laws in the country, considering that CITA, 1990, and the FRA, 2007, stipulate 180 days; the CBN, 2004, 150 days; and BOFIA, 2003, 120 days for the publication of a company's financial report after fiscal year-end. Only the mean audit delay of 121 days in 2008 marginally exceeds the deadline set by BOFIA, 2003. Similarly, the mean audit delay of 115 and 119 days for financial and nonfinancial companies, respectively, in 2007; and 122 and 120 days for financial and nonfinancial companies, respectively, in 2008 is within the ambit of the de facto laws in the country. Only the mean audit delay of 122 days for financial companies in 2008 marginally exceeds the deadline set by BOFIA, 2003.

The audit delay in Nigeria is much longer than in most other countries, as documented by Abdulla (1996); Ahmad and Kamarudin (2003); Carslaw and Kaplan (1991); Hossain and Taylor (1998); and Ng and Tai (1994). Researchers generally tend to agree that the shorter the audit delay, the better the quality of financial reports. Considering this, this paper's findings cannot be termed satisfactory and their generalization must be cautiously considered.

Certain factors ought to be considered in future studies in the area of accounting research, such as the consideration of dynamic panel datasets to analyze the past behaviour of audit delay. Future studies could also consider including more independent variables in the model to enhance its vitality. Given the documented evidence of some other countries, the Nigerian government could play its role in addressing the issue of long audit delay by reviewing the relevant laws to incorporate short but easy-to-attain deadlines for the publication of financial reports, and reflect international best practices. Moreover, factors that tend to delay financial reporting could be examined and a content analysis undertaken.

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PREPARATION CHECKLIST FOR THE *PJSI* MANUSCRIPTS

This checklist is intended to help you in preparing your manuscript for publication in *The Pakistan Journal of Social Issues (PJSI)*.

MANUSCRIPT FORMAT

• TITLE PAGE

- Include the full **title** of the article.
- List author(s)'s **name(s)**.
- Title footnote: A superscript asterisk (*) by corresponding author's **name** refers to the footnote at the bottom of the title page: includes **name, title, department, institution** and **e-mail** of the author.

Abstract

- Make it brief (one paragraph of about 150 words).
- Summarize the most important contributions in your paper.
- Make it accessible, jargon-free and clear to the general reader.
- Consider it a press release about your research.

Keywords

A list of four to five keywords is to be provided directly below the abstract. Keywords should express the precise content of the manuscript.

TEXT

Content

- For normal text, use Times New Roman font (10-point with 1.15 line spacing).
- All text should be left aligned with not space between paragraphs, but do indent a new paragraph by 0.5 inches.
- Use consistent verb tense and terminology, active voice, and parallel construction.
- Avoid passive voice, obscure terminology, wordy phrases and pronouns with ambiguous antecedents.

Subheadings

A maximum of five levels of subheadings can be given:

Subheading Level 1

(Times New Roman, bold, 14-point, centralized, upper lower case)

Subheading Level 2

(Times New Roman, bold, 12-point, left-aligned, upper lower case)

Subheading level 3.

(Times New Roman, bold, 11-point, left-aligned and indented by 0.5 inches, lower case with a period at end)

Subheading level 4.

(Times New Roman, bold italic, 10-point, left-aligned and indented by 0.5 inches, lower

case)

Subheading level 5.

(Times New Roman, normal italic, 10-point, left-aligned and indented by 0.5 inches, lower case)

Text Citations

Cite only those texts that provide evidence for your assertions or that guide readers to important sources on your topic. Include the last name of the author and year of publication. Include page numbers when you quote directly from a work or refer to specific passages.

- If author name is in text, follow last name with year in parentheses: “Duncan (1959).”
- If author name is not in text, enclose last name and year in parentheses: “(Gouldner, 1963).”
- Pagination follows the year of publication after a comma: “(Ramirez & Weiss, 1979, 239–40).”
- Give both last names for joint authors: “(Martin & Bailey, 1988).”
- For works with three to five authors, list all last names in the first citation in the text; thereafter use “et al.”: “(Carr, Smith & Jones, 1962)”; and later, “(Carr et al., 1962).” For more than five authors, use “et al.” throughout.
- Separate a series of references with a semicolon: “(Burgess, 1968; Marwell et al., 1971).”

Appendices

- Appendices appear at the end of your article (label “Appendix 1”, “Appendix 2”, etc.) *after* the references.
- Use appendices only when necessary and make them brief.

Endnotes

- Use endnotes only when necessary and make them brief (less than 100 words). As an alternative, consider incorporating the same information within the text or adding a brief appendix.
- Begin each note with the superscript numeral to which it is keyed in the text *after* the references. Notes can explain or amplify text, or cite materials of limited availability.

TABLES

- Include tables only when they are critical to the reader's understanding.
- Number tables consecutively throughout text.
- Include a brief descriptive title for each table (less than 25 words) and headings for all columns and rows.
- Use the same variable names in your tables as you use in your text.
- Abbreviations and acronyms can be used, but should be spelled out in the table footnote if not done earlier in the text.
- Standard errors, standard deviations, t-statistics, etc., should appear in parentheses under the means or coefficients in the tables and be explained in the table footnote.

- Table footnotes appear at the bottom of the table; use superscript asterisk: (*).
- Use asterisks to indicate significance as follows: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ and *** $p < .001$ levels (avoid listing $p < .10$; only results significant at $p < .05$ level or better should be indicated as significant in tables or text). Indicate if tests are one-tailed or two-tailed.

REFERENCES

- All references cited in the text must be listed in the references, and vice versa.
- Double check spelling and publication details; the *PJSI* is not responsible for the accuracy of references.
- Cross-check author names cited in the text with author names in the references.
- List references in alphabetical order by author last names. First names of all authors are initialized.
- For multiple authors, names of all authors are inverted ("Jones, A. B., Smith, C. D., & Thorne, B.").
- For two or more references by the same author(s), list in order of publication year.
- To list two or more works by the same author(s) from the same year, add letters (a, b, c, etc.) to the year or ("1992a"). List in alphabetical order by title.

Reference Examples

Books:

Bernard, C. (1957). *An Introduction to the study of experimental medicine* (trans. H. C. Greene). New York: Dover.

Mason, K. O. (1974). *Women's labor force participation and fertility*. Research Triangle Park, NC: National Institute of Health.

Periodicals and Journal Articles:

Goodman, L. A. (1947). The analysis of systems of qualitative variables when some of the variables are unobservable. *American Journal of Sociology*, 79, 1179–1259.

Szelényi, S., & Jacqueline, O. (Forthcoming). The declining significance of class: Does gender complicate the story? *Theory and Society*, 6(4), 49–66.

Dissertations:

Charles, M. (1990). *Occupational sex segregation: A log-linear analysis of patterns in 25 industrial countries* (PhD dissertation). Department of Sociology, Stanford University, Stanford.

Collections:

Clausen, J. A. (1972). The life course of individuals. In M. W. Riley, M. Johnson, & A. Foner (Eds.), *Aging and Society* (pp. 118–143). New York: Russell Sage.

Sampson, R. J. (1992). Family management and child development: Insights from social disorganization theory. In J. McCord (Ed.), *Advances in Criminology Theory* (pp. 63–93). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.

Centre for Population, Urban and Environment Studies University of Gujrat

Pakistan's population size, composition and its spatial distribution is destined to exert a powerful influence on the country's environment and socioeconomic development. For instance, changes in population size and age structure influence marketing strategies and consumption patterns of human and natural resources. Carefully gathered demographic data is invaluable for the government in planning public sector services. Policymakers use population data for its impact on demarcation of constituencies, allocation of resources, and on voting trends tied to factors such as age, gender, residence and ethnicity, among others.

Population Sciences is a multidisciplinary area concerned with changes in population size, distribution and structure due to births, deaths and migration. In recent decades, the scope of population sciences has greatly expanded to include such topics as reproductive health and family planning; household and family composition; labour market and labour force composition; economic development; social stratification; environment and urbanisation, etc.

Pakistan is going through a demographic transition and is confronted with a host of issues. The ageing population is increasing due to declining trends in fertility and mortality. The age structure is rapidly changing also because of urbanisation and other forms of migration as a consequence of industrialisation and replacement of traditional means of subsistence with modernisation and diffusion of technological skills and knowledge across the globe.

Moreover, demographic changes can be major forces of economic, cultural and environmental change. Population ageing, for example, will have an enormous impact on social security expenditure and the demand for health care. Understanding the issues leads to recognition of the interactions between population and government policies – an important part of planning for environmentally sustainable development.

As governments deal with a range of population-related issues, while making policies and initiating development program, there is an urgent need for research on the issues raised by demographic experience, and for providing a scientific basis for policy formulation. The aim of the Centre for Population, Urban and Environment Studies (CPUES) is to conduct research in multiple areas of population. The Centre provides a platform for the University's faculty to pursue research and teaching devoted to the understanding of population phenomenon. This Centre also helps formulate workable strategies and suggest recommendations, based on empirical findings, to policy-making institutions to address various issues confronting the Pakistani society.

Objectives

- Conduct empirical research in various disciplines such as Demography, Sociology, Economics, Business Demography, Environment and Industry;
- Develop capacity and skills of young faculty members by engaging them in research activities, and by enhancing their analytical capacities;
- Provide its database to national organisations and government departments to evolve public policy on the basis of findings of empirical studies; and
- Establish UOG's linkages with other national and international organisations.

Call for Papers

The Pakistan Journal of Social Issues (PJSI) is an annual publication of the University of Gujrat aimed at providing an independent interdisciplinary forum for discourse on significant social science research and policy issues. It deals with questions of social justice broadly defined. Articles discuss particular social science or humanities issues, review conceptual problems, present empirical reports and debate policy alternatives. We encourage authors to discuss their research experiences and debate whether these experiences feed into an increased understanding of the research realm. We welcome papers in the field of social sciences and humanities, including sociology, psychology, political science, anthropology, history, philosophy, economics, public health, education, statistics, management, law and linguistics.

Paper Submission and Selection

The *PJSI* is interested in articles on emergent and challenging issues. All submitted papers are acknowledged quickly and reviewed as rapidly as possible. They are initially scrutinized by the Editors who decide whether they meet certain basic standards with respect to, for example, length, presentation, clarity and level of scholarship. Those papers that pass this initial scrutiny are sent out to referees who are carefully selected on the basis of their expertise. Once suitable referees are identified and accept the commission, they are normally asked to reply within a month. We follow single-blind system for peer-review; the reviewers' identities remain anonymous to authors. The review process may take four to five weeks.

Authors may contact the Editors at any time for information on the status of their papers.

Submission of an article implies that the work described has not been published previously (except in the form of an abstract or as part of a published lecture or an academic thesis); it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere; its publication is approved by all authors and tacitly or explicitly by the responsible authorities where the work was carried out; and, if accepted, it will not be published elsewhere in the same form, in English or in any other language, without the written consent of the Editors. The Editors reserve the right to edit or otherwise alter all contributions. Manuscripts should be submitted electronically in MS-Word format to:

Prof. Dr. Mohammad Nizamuddin

Editor-in-Chief

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