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FACTORS AFFECTING ATTITUDE TOWARD WEB ADVERTISING – A SCENARIO OF UNIVERSITY STUDENT IN PAKISTAN

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ABSTRACT

Over the last decade advertising evolved from conventional means to web. As the number of web users is increasing significantly, it provides the vast scope for web advertising. Pakistan has a rapidly growing 7.5% Internet penetration rate compared to India's 4.5 (%). Businessmen think that web advertising is one of the frugal marketing tools since the marginal cost of each online advertisement is very low. This study focuses on the factors which affects the attitudes towards web advertisements.

A descriptive design was used for this study. The data was collected through both primary and secondary source. For secondary data sources, online and offline available articles were consulted; whereas for primary data source, the questionnaire based survey was conducted from the sample population of 300 respondents through convenient sampling method from Islamabad and Rawalpindi. For this purpose questionnaire was adapted from published research.

The results depict that a predominant part of respondents do not like web advertisements because these advertisements create annoyance. The study further shows that respondents do not like web advertised brands and they do not take help through web advertisements for their purchase decision, because web advertisements do not contain enough information regarding the products.

Key Words: *Web advertisement, Marketing, Pakistan, Marginal Cost*

INTRODUCTION

Web advertising is the most fundamental form of advertising. Advertiser's website is usually hyperlinked with the displayed advertisements. Users can just click on the advertisements and transmit to another website having useful information. Businessmen think that web advertising is one of the frugal marketing tools since the marginal cost of each online advertisement is very low.

Entertainment has turned out to boost advertising value in different practical investigations. Ferrazzi, Chen & Li (2003) found out that entertaining game in collaboration with sales messages can encourage dialogs with consumers and project product images. Online advertising that is highly enriched with entertaining contents achieves a more positive appraisal by recipients and leads to a higher target to re visit the homepage than websites without entertainment features (Raney, Arpan, Padhupati & Brill, 2003). Online Advertising can be classified as banner advertisements or target advertisements. According to (Novak & Hoffman, 1997) banner advertisement is defined as a small rectangular graphic image that is connected to a target advertisement, and primarily serves as a lead into the visitor to find out further. A target advertisement can be one Web page or sequence of related Web pages that are contacted by a customer actively clicking on a particular banner advertisement.

While marketers are fascinated in measuring banner advertisement effectiveness by means of counting banner impressions or the total amount of advertisement click throughs, majority of these techniques are specifically designed to study reach and frequency issues, similar to conventional media planning models which are based on incidental web advertising experience. However, exposure to Web ads is not incidental but intentional and desired by the general consumer. In this medium, the extent to which a visitor interacts with the selected advertisement is a much enhanced measure of the value and effectiveness of web advertisement (Novak & Hoffman, 1997). Web ads may be impartial or part of a larger Web site that may also provide additional functions like sustaining customers, distribution, and social service. From an advertising perspective, marketers are particularly concerned in consumer visits at Web ads because they help to put up traffic on their Web sites. Extensive Web ad visits result in extensive Web site visits, and more connection with consumers promote closer buyer-seller relationships (Peppers and Rogers, 1993).

As Internet users get more and more experienced, the web advertisements become not as much of effective (Dahlen et. al., 2003). Web users think that the web advertisements are bothersome and contain a computer virus. Due to the rise of this kind of advertising, lots of software is built to stop them. Anderson (2005) found that about 38% of web users use some set of blocker to stop the irritating advertisements.

Pakistan has a rapidly growing 7.5% Internet penetration rate compared to India's 4.5 (%). None of the top ten sites visited from within Pakistan are local, which suggests an enormous opportunity for creating local content. Online advertising is also in its immaturity stage and with the prevailing market dynamics, is poised for solid growth (Standard, 2008).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Advertising investigation has shown that the effects of advertising actions are influenced by the attitude toward a web advertising message, the advertising corporation or even the applied media (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). But these results are related to “conventional” advertising using mass media or web-based advertising (Ducoffe, 1996).

Before investigating the factors affecting the attitude toward web advertisement, the distinctiveness of web advertising should be discussed as the background. The main uniqueness is the presenting platform. Web advertising can get the quality of printed media but not the same with it (Chang & Thorson, 2004). Some researchers have suggested that web advertisement can draw out more explanation compared with those printed media because the content formation of the Web is similar to the thinking process of the human mind (Eveland & Dunwoody, 2002).

In web advertising characteristics forced exposure is also a characteristic. Users cannot avoid from reaching the web advertisements, at least they need to have the first view of them. Although, forced exposure often disrupts a viewer's usual viewing process (Edwards et al. 2002). Researchers found that the exposure to a stimulus can produce computable effects such as attitude change. It is useful for examining customers' attitude toward the web advertisement (Hovland et. al., 1953).

However, as web users get more and more experienced, the web advertisements become less effective (Dahlen et. al., 2003). Internet users think that the online advertisements are annoying and contain a computer virus. Due to the increment of this kind of advertising, lots of software is built to block them. Anderson (2005) found that about 38% of web surfers use some form of blocker to block the annoying advertisements.

Literature in advertising suggests that advertising in both conventional media and the Internet is either easily disregarded by the audience or is thought to have little worth. Bogart in 1985 argued that the likelihood of careful processing of advertisements are lessened by the high number of advertisements contending for the individual's attention on a regular basis. Limited time and mental resources make it complicated for the audience to dedicate adequate attention to most advertisements. The expansion of the Internet is resulting in substantial growth of web advertising. This is making the rivalry for attention more severe.

The awareness of directional advertisings, given that they are used by keenly engaged users (Briggs & Hollis, 1997) rather than inactively received target audiences (Stewart, 1992), could better the effectiveness of web-based advertising strategies and streamline the contact between users and interactive media. A feature of web advertising is that it can combine the functions of communicating with the viewers and provides a medium for commercial deal by implementing a hyperlink between the two. With some clicks, online ads transforms into the market status of online business dealings. This feature provides value to the users otherwise they would have to put an order by cell phone or by a visit to the store (Stone, 1999). It also indicates a trend of junction between online advertising and online commerce, thus recommending that the designs of web advertising and Internet business may need to be considered collectively.

Attitude is an essential concept in research in marketing and information systems. According to Fishbein in 1967 attitude is defined as a learned tendency of human beings. Based on this, “an individual would respond react to an idea or an object or a number of things/opinions”. According to Kotler in 2000 found that “an attitude is a person' enduring favorable or unfavorable evaluations, emotional feelings, and action inclination toward some idea or object”. Since researchers have been researching the subject for a particularly long

time, there is a wide body of literature which deals with consumers' attitudes toward web advertising toward advertising on the Internet.

The appearance of the Internet as a new way for communication and advertising has motivated a notable amount of study that focuses on the Internet (Eighmey, 1997; Korgaonkar & Wolin, 1999). It has also driven studies on attitudes toward Internet advertising on the Web based environment. Because of the interactive nature of Internet, few surveys report that respondents viewed Internet advertising as more instructive and trustworthy than a demographically similar sample found in common advertising (Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer, 1999).

The content informativeness and form entertainment of advertisements are important interpreter of their value and are critical to the effectiveness of online advertising (Aaker, Batra & Mayer, 1992). Along with entertainment and informativeness, frustration caused by advertisements also influences peoples' attitude toward web advertisements (Ducoffe, 1996). This is consistent with previous research findings that interesting and pleasing advertisements have a positive effect on consumers' attitudes toward a brand (Mitchall & Olsan, 1994). Researchers have reported that attitudes toward web advertising are affected by enjoyment, informativeness, and the advertisements utility for making behavioral (purchasing) decisions (Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer, 1999).

In another study Ducoffe (1996) argued that the distinction between advertising and web editorial is unclear, with 57% of respondents classifying web pages as advertising. This recommend that consumer give remarks about web advertising need to be construed carefully, because they may refer to the Internet pages themselves rather than to the advertisements they carry.

According to Mehta and Sivadas (1995) newsgroup users held negative attitudes toward web advertising, but the business executives researched by other researcher did not find web advertising either irritating or annoying (Ducoffe, 1996). Gordon and Turner (1997) researched online advertising from the perspective of a social contract b/w advertisers and web users. Overall, respondents were passive, accepting web advertising as long as it was visibly recognized, and well targeted.

According to (GVU, 1998) surfers dislike web advertising slightly more than common advertising, (38% vs. 32%). Advertising banners which takes a long time to download were seen by respondents as the main problem in using the internet, with 62% agreeing.

Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer (1999) studied attitudes to web advertising using an alike questionnaire to that used for common advertising by Shavitt et. al. (1998). They compared the findings of a demographically matched section from the two studies. Respondents were classified: 38% liked web advertising, 35% disliked it, and 28% were impartial. Advertising in general was more liked than web advertising, 46% Vs 38%, and less disliked, 24% Vs 35%. However, when looking at particular attitudes, web advertising attitudes were sometimes more effective for example. 48% vs 38% felt they could trust web advertising. Researcher concluded that the nature of web advertising makes it less annoying to consumers than traditional advertising, "fewer respondents felt insulted and misled". However, this may be because web advertising is less pervasive, less invasive, and less persuasive, rather than because consumers prefer it (Shavitt et. al., 1998).

In focus group research Rettie (2001) found respondents were enormously negative about advertising. You just instantly know, that adverts, get relieve of it.

Negative attitudes to web advertising mean that surfers may intentionally escape advertisements. Dreze and Hussherr (1999) found that surfers intentionally avoid looking at banner advertisements during their online

actions, which helps to explain fewer clicks through rates. Using eye tracking, they concluded that Internet users were seriously less likely to look at a web advertising banner than some where else on the page. They also concluded significant differences in eye pattern movements between beginners and experts; such as, experts are quicker and look at some parts of a web page. Dreze & Hussherr (1999) also measured advertising recall, brand recall, and brand understanding effects; they found that these carried more significance than click through rates. This supports a previous finding by Briggs and Hollis (1997), which illustrated that banner advertisements have an effect on consumers' attitudes to brand, free of click through.

Sukpanich & Chen (1999) used the study of reasoned action to build up a scale of attitudes to web advertising. They found three constructs that affect web advertising attitudes: awareness, preference and intention or motive. E.g., an advertisement for a desired brand results in a more favorable attitude.

Stafford and Stafford (1998) concluded that respondents who were using the web for communication were less likely to notice advertising. Rodgers and Thorson (2000) also recommended that different consumer motives affect attitudes to web advertising. Testing this hypothesis, Li and Bukovac (1999) results shows that although information looking respondents paid more consideration to advertisements than surfers, the difference was not clear.

Whether a surfer is in flow is likely to impact on his attitude to web advertising. Flow is “the holistic understanding that people experience when they act with total involvement” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). Some other researchers identify flow as a fundamental feature of consumer attitude on the Internet, “flow is the 'glue' sustaining the consumer in the hypermedia Computer Mediated Environment” (Hoffman & Novak, 1996). Rettie (2001) argued advertising was especially annoying when in the flow, so that while flow may obtain surfers at a web site where they are promoted to advertising, it may negatively affect their reaction to that advertising.

Additional factors that affect web usage, and which might have an influence on the attitudes towards web advertising, are the duration, frequency, and location of use (Rogers & Sheldon, 1999).

It is likely that the effectiveness of web advertising largely depends upon the perceptions towards the medium which carries it. Attitudes to general advertising have diminished and consumer exposure. It is probable that attitudes towards web advertising will also decrease as web users become more used to the medium. The agenda of the researcher was to evaluate attitudes to web advertising, and to conclude how these were affected by the extent of web experience. Dimensions of experience include the duration the respondent has used the Internet, frequency and volume of use (Hoffman & Novak, 1996).

METHODOLOGY

For the purpose of this study the data was collected from different universities and from the general users having Internet experience. The sample size of 300 respondents was taken and questionnaires were provided to them directly. To get the responses, convenient sampling was used because of time constraint.

The questionnaire was designed to ask about the attitudes toward the web advertising and some independent variables like attitudes towards web advertisements, advertisement content and Brand name and one independent variable which was purchase intention. All these variables were answered on five point likert scale having different labels to gauge responses. The questionnaires were distributed to respondents directly and the respondents were requested to read and respond to each and every statement carefully. This ensures the validity of the responses and research. After getting the data from the respondents, the data was processed and analyzed in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences program (SPSS). To analyzing the data frequency distribution test was applied to that data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Table No. 4.1

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Age" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Under 18	19	6.3	6.3	6.3
22-29	240	80.0	80.0	86.3
30-39	25	8.3	8.3	94.7
>39	16	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.1 depicts that out of 300 respondents 6.3% respondents are under 18, 80% are in the age group of 22-29 years, 8.3% are in the age group 30-39 years and 5.3% are in the age group of above 39.

Table No. 4.2

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Gender" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	184	61.3	61.3	61.3
Female	116	38.7	38.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2 shows that out of 300 respondents 61.3% respondents are male and 38.7% are female respondents.

Table No. 4.3

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Internet Usage per Day" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 1 hour	75	25.0	25.0	25.0
1-5 hours	201	67.0	67.0	92.0
>5 hours	24	8.0	8.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.3 describes that 25% respondents are those who use Internet less than an hour per day, 67% respondents lies under 1-5 hours per day and 8% respondents use Internet daily more than 5 hours.

Table No. 4.4

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Web Experience" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 1 year	55	18.3	18.3	18.3
1-5 Years	85	28.3	28.3	46.7
>5 Years	160	53.3	53.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.4 shows that 18.3% respondents have web experience less than one year whereas 28.3% lies between 1-5 years web experience and 53.3% have web experience greater than 5.

Table No. 4.5

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I like web advertisements alot" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	82	27.3	27.3	32.7
Neutral	81	27.0	27.0	59.7
Agree	113	37.7	37.7	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.5 reveals that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 27.3% are disagree ; the table further shows that 27% participants remain neutral where as 37.7% agree with the statement that they like web advertisements a lot and 2.7% are strongly agree.

Table No. 4.6

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Web advertisements are very appealing (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	8	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	40	13.3	13.3	16.0
Neutral	135	45.0	45.0	61.0
Agree	117	39.0	39.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.6 depicts that 2.7% are strongly disagree whereas 13.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 45% participants remain neutral whereas 39% agree with the statement that web advertisements are very appealing.

Table No. 4.7**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I don't think web advertisements are very interesting" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	9	3.0	3.0	3.0
Disagree	97	32.3	32.3	35.3
Neutral	98	32.7	32.7	68.0
Agree	88	29.3	29.3	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.7 shows that 3% are strongly disagree whereas 32.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 32.7% participants remain neutral whereas 29.3% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with that the web advertisements are not very interesting.

Table No. 4.8**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I think web advertisements are very convincing" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	69	23.0	23.0	28.3
Neutral	106	35.3	35.3	63.7
Agree	100	33.3	33.3	97.0
Strongly Agree	9	3.0	3.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.8 demonstrates that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 23% are disagree; the table further shows that 35.3% participants remain neutral whereas 33.3% agree and 3% are strongly agree with the statement that the web advertisements are very convincing.

Table No. 4.9

**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Web advertisement are not effective"
 (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	36	12.0	12.0	12.0
Disagree	158	52.7	52.7	64.7
Neutral	65	21.7	21.7	86.3
Agree	33	11.0	11.0	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.9 demonstrates that 12% are strongly disagree whereas 52.7% are disagree; the table further shows that 21.7% participants remain neutral whereas 11% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with the statement that web advertisements are not effective.

Table No. 4.10

**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I like to look at web advertising"
 (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	79	26.3	26.3	31.7
Neutral	80	26.7	26.7	58.3
Agree	117	39.0	39.0	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.10 demonstrates that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 26.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 26.7% participants remain neutral whereas 39% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with the statement that they like to look at web advertisements.

Table No. 4.11**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Much of web advertising is too way annoying" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	24	8.0	8.0	13.3
Neutral	95	31.7	31.7	45.0
Agree	141	47.0	47.0	92.0
Strongly Agree	24	8.0	8.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.11 exhibits that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 8% are disagree; the table further shows that 31.7% participants remain neutral whereas 47% agree and 8% are strongly agree with the statement that much of web advertising is too way annoying.

Table No. 4.12**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I usually get better value for my money in advertised brands of products than in unadvertised brands" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	35	11.7	11.7	17.0
Neutral	72	24.0	24.0	41.0
Agree	158	52.7	52.7	93.7
Strongly Agree	19	6.3	6.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.12 exhibits that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 11.7% are disagree; the table further shows that 24% participants remain neutral whereas 52.7% agree and 6.3% are strongly agree with the statement that they get better value for their money in advertised brands rather than un advertised brands.

Table No. 4.13**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I mostly like the brand advertised online" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	24	8.0	8.0	13.3
Neutral	140	46.7	46.7	60.0
Agree	112	37.3	37.3	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.13 exhibits that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 8% are disagree; the table further shows that 46.7% participants remain neutral whereas 37.3% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with the statement that they mostly like the brands advertised online.

Table No. 4.14**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I shall probably buy the brand advertised online" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	101	33.7	33.7	39.0
Neutral	103	34.3	34.3	73.3
Agree	80	26.7	26.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.14 exhibits that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 33.7% are disagree; the table further shows that 34.3% participants remain neutral whereas 26.7% agree with the statement that they shall probably buy the brands advertised online.

Table No. 4.15

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I think online advertised brands are good brands" (N=300)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	58	19.3	19.3	19.3
	Neutral	99	33.0	33.0	52.3
	Agree	127	42.3	42.3	94.7
	Strongly Agree	16	5.3	5.3	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.15 depicts that 19.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 33% participants remain neutral whereas 42.3% agree and 5.3% are strongly agree with the statement that they think online advertised brands are good brands.

Table No. 4.16

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I feel favourably towards online advertised brands" (N=300)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Disagree	49	16.3	16.3	16.3
	Neutral	127	42.3	42.3	58.7
	Agree	96	32.0	32.0	90.7
	Strongly Agree	28	9.3	9.3	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.16 demonstrates that 16.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 42.3% participants remain neutral whereas 32% agree and 9.3% are strongly agree with the statement that they feel favorably towards online advertised brands.

Table No. 4.17**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I recommend the advertised brands to others" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	90	30.0	30.0	35.3
Neutral	90	30.0	30.0	65.3
Agree	96	32.0	32.0	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.17 exhibits that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 30% are disagree; the table further shows that 30% participants remain neutral whereas 32% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with the statement that they recommend the advertised brands to others.

Table No. 4.18**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Too many products do not perform as well as the web advertisements claim" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	8	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	65	21.7	21.7	24.3
Neutral	102	34.0	34.0	58.3
Agree	117	39.0	39.0	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.18 exhibits that 2.7% are strongly disagree whereas 21.7% are disagree; the table further shows that 34% participants remain neutral whereas 39% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with the statement that too many products do not perform as well as the web advertisements claim.

Table No. 4.19**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I feel offended sometimes by web advertisements" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	68	22.7	22.7	22.7
Neutral	86	28.7	28.7	51.3
Agree	130	43.3	43.3	94.7
Strongly Agree	16	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.19 exhibits that 22.7% are disagree; the table further shows that 28.7% participants remain neutral whereas 43.3% agree and 5.3% are strongly agree with the statement that they feel offended sometimes by web advertisements.

Table No. 4.20**Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "On average, brands that are advertised on web are better in quality than brands that are not advertised online" (N=300)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	8	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	64	21.3	21.3	24.0
Neutral	96	32.0	32.0	56.0
Agree	124	41.3	41.3	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.20 shows that 2.7% are strongly disagree whereas 21.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 32% participants remain neutral whereas 41.3% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with the statement that on average, brands that are advertised on web are better in quality than brands that are not advertised online.

Table No. 4.21

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Web advertising helps me keep up-to-date about the products and services that i need or would like to have" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	43	14.3	14.3	14.3
Neutral	48	16.0	16.0	30.3
Agree	157	52.3	52.3	82.7
Strongly Agree	52	17.3	17.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.21 exhibits that 14.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 16% participants remain neutral whereas 52.3% agree and 17.3% are strongly agree with the statement that web advertising helps them keep up-to-date about the products and services that they need or would like to have.

Table No. 4.22

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I often have felt misled by web advertisements" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	8	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	67	22.3	22.3	25.0
Neutral	96	32.0	32.0	57.0
Agree	121	40.3	40.3	97.3
Strongly Agree	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.22 shows that 2.7% are strongly disagree whereas 22.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 32% participants remain neutral whereas 40.3% agree and 2.7% are strongly agree with the statement that they have often misled by web advertisements.

Table No. 4.23

frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Most web advertising is informative" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	46	15.3	15.3	20.7
Neutral	106	35.3	35.3	56.0
Agree	116	38.7	38.7	94.7
Strongly Agree	16	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.23 shows that 5.3% are strongly disagree whereas 15.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 35.3% participants remain neutral whereas 38.7% agree and 5.3% are strongly agree with the statement that Most web advertising is informative.

Table No. 4.24

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Products that i have used usually live up to the promises of quality and performance made in their web advertisements" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	8	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	62	20.7	20.7	23.3
Neutral	134	44.7	44.7	68.0
Agree	96	32.0	32.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.24 shows that 2.7% are strongly disagree whereas 20.7% are disagree; the table further shows that 44.7% participants remain neutral whereas 32% agree with the statement that Products that they have used usually live up to the promises of quality and performance made in their web advertisements.

Table No. 4.25

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "I generally feel confident using information seen in a web advertisement to make a purchase intention" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	19	6.3	6.3	6.3
Disagree	84	28.0	28.0	34.3
Neutral	96	32.0	32.0	66.3
Agree	101	33.7	33.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.25 shows that 6.3% are strongly disagree whereas 28% are disagree; the table further shows that 32% participants remain neutral whereas 33.7% agree with the statement that Products that they generally feel confident using information seen in a web ad to make a purchase decision.

Table No. 4.26

Frequency distribution of the respondents w.r.t "Most of time I use web advertising to help make my purchase decision" (N=300)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	43	14.3	14.3	14.3
Disagree	64	21.3	21.3	35.7
Neutral	57	19.0	19.0	54.7
Agree	120	40.0	40.0	94.7
Strongly Agree	16	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.26 shows that 14.3% are strongly disagree whereas 21.3% are disagree; the table further shows that 19% participants remain neutral whereas 40% agree and 5.3% are strongly agree with the statement that Products that Most of time they use web advertising to help make my purchase decisions.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research has examined the factors affecting the attitudes towards web advertisement. Many factors were considered during this research, which are attitudes towards the web advertisements, brand name, advertisement contents and purchase decision. All these variables have an influence on the effectiveness of web advertisements. The influence of some variables is more as compared to others. From table 4.5 to 4.26 the questionnaire is divided into four parts.

The first part from table 4.5 to table 4.11 contains attitudes towards the web advertisement; this part shows the attitude of the respondents towards the web advertisements. The current research concluded that majority of respondents have a negative inclination towards web advertisement. Research shows that respondents think that web advertisements are effective and very interesting; a predominant majority of respondents also feel that web advertisements are at times not convincing and even annoying.

The second part of the questionnaire contains brand name. According to table 4.12 to table 4.17, it is concluded that a major part of the participants generally prefer brands that are advertised as they feel advertised brands give better value for their money, on the contrary; respondents do not appreciate web advertised brands and they feel that web advertised brands are inferior in quality to brands advertised by conventional means.

The third part of the questionnaire contains advertisement contents. According to table 4.18 to table 4.24, web advertised products generally perform as advertisements claim but it is a widespread belief that web advertisement lack adequate information. Still the web advertisement is thought of a good source that helps potential buyers to keep up-to-date with the products and services they need or would like to have.

The forth part from table 4.25 to table 4.26 contains purchase decision; this part reveals that when it comes to making purchase decisions majority of the respondents do not rely on the information provided to them in web advertisements, therefore the role of web advertisements in provoking buying behavior is minimal.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Attitudes towards web advertising can be made more positive by making web ads more convincing and less annoying for their target audience. People think that web ads are interesting and effective but at times not convincing and even annoying so web advertisers should focus on adding features that make their ads more convincing and less annoying.

Although consumers feel that conventionally advertised brands give better value for their money, Web ads are not considered to be a good means for promoting brand names because it is perceived that web-advertised brands are inferior in quality to conventionally advertised brands.

Web ads lack relevant content and adequate information and are thus, used as a source to keep up-to-date with desired products and services rather than for decision-making purposes. Web advertisers should try to provide adequate and relevant content so that consumers consider web ads when making purchase decisions.

People are not confident in using information provided in a web ad when making a purchase decision and hence do not rely on web ads when making purchase decisions. Web advertisers should try to make people rely on web ads to make purchase decisions.

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STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCING PRIVATE SECTOR PARTICIPATION IN THE MANAGEMENT AND FUNDING OF CROSS RIVER UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY FOR IMPROVED PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

The paper examined strategies necessary for involvement of private sector in the management and funding of Cross River State University towards better academic performance. The paper observed that government alone cannot shoulder the responsibility of providing fund and management of the state university because of incessant increase in enrolment, culminating problems of inadequacy of school facilities, sacrificing of quality for quantity, shortage of qualified human resources among others. There is need for involvement of private sector in the provision and management of University education in the State to compliment government efforts. To attain the objective of this study, survey design approach was adopted using proportional stratified sampling technique to select 100 private organization in the state. Analysis was done through mean rating and independent t-test. The result indicated that private sector contribution to University education in the state is low due to poor government attitudes and their feeling that is non – profit investment.

Introduction

Education is a public good that calls for greater support of all and sundry. Its importance leads to increase in demand for it. As a matter of fact, the financial burden and other resources required for the growth of education cannot be borne by government alone. Hence expenditure in education is viewed as both private and social investment that have to be shared by individuals, students, their families, employees, government, other groups and organization.

In Cross River State, the state government manages and funds the state university through its state ministry of education allocation. The ministry does this through the state education commission in exercising of their administrative function (Ubong, 2002;3) The fund provided to the university by the government is used to pay teachers salaries, allowances, procedure instructional materials, equipments and other physical facilities. Management and funding of the state university involved provision of money and facilities for the achievement of the university goals and objectives (Morris 1990). In line with this, Ogbonnaya (1997) observed that funds are one of the important factor resources for realization of educational objectives. Parents deny themselves a lot of things to keep their children in the university to study but they and their children have never reap the benefit of their effort due to poor management and funding that has resulted in frequent strikes and closure of the institution for several months within one academic year. The problem of funding has been the most persistent and thorny issues militating against the university authority's ability to maintain existing service in the institution. Since the state government funds it difficult in recent times to provide the resources, materials. Lecturer salaries and allowances, it is obvious that if funds are inadequate the broad aim of the institution cannot be realized. This, perhaps, is one of the reasons why the state government encourages the participation of private sector in managing the school system in Nigeria.

Private sector, are organizations that are owned and managed by individual and group of individuals. According to Patrick (1993) private sector is the part of the country's economy that is owned, operated and managed by private individuals.

In Cross River State, private sector includes business organization, industries, NGOs, firms owned and managed by individuals or groups. They also include banks, insurance companies, engineering companies, agro and chemical industries. In funding education, they give donations, provision of infrastructural and other physical facilities. They also employ the services of typist, clerks and sales agents.

Statement of the problem

Inadequate funding of Cross River University of Technology has been an issue of great concern both to the state government, parent's, private individuals and organizations. The state government alone has been making frantic efforts to increase funding of the institution. For instance in 2006 academic year, government grants/allocation to the state University was N110m and ETF was N20,22m. in 2007 school year N165m was allocated, ETF was N38,500m. inspite of this, the funding situation seems not to have improved. Government gives grants and provide infrastructural equipments and physical facilities to the institution. While these efforts are commendable, the problem of inadequate funding is persisting. For example in the 2009 school year total government grants was reduced to N150m and ETF was N7,05.50m only. Many staff of the university complained of poor management inadequate subvention to the school and lack of physical facilities needed for research teaching and learning. The contribution of the private sector in the funding is very low.

Their participation is low. Since the stakeholders have continued to decry this state of affairs, the study is therefore a response to this challenge by striving to identify strategies for increase private sector participation in the funding of the state university.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the persistent lack of interest of private sector in funding of Cross River University and identify the strategies for increased private sector contributions in the funding and management of the state university education system. Especially the study sought to find out:

1. To identify the extent of private sector participation in funding education.
2. To identify the problems militating against their interest in education management.
3. To identify possible solutions to the problems.

Research questions

1. What specific projects in the University should the private sector assist in providing fund.
2. What are the constraints to private sector participation in funding state university education
3. What policies should be initiated by the government and stakeholders to encourage private sector contribution to the management of the university system.

Hypothesis

The mean scores of management staff and subordinates will not differ significantly ($p>0/05$) as regards the constraints to private sector participation in the management and funding of university system.

The mean scores of management staff and subordinates will not differ significantly ($p.0.05$) as regards the policies to be initiated by the government to increase private sector participation in financing the university education.

Methodology

Survey design was adopted in this study. The population was made up of all the management staff and subordinates of all the private registered companies in the state. Proportional stratified sampling technique was used in selecting a sample of 100 companies in the state.

Proportionate stratified random sampling technique was used because these companies are more located in the urban than the rural areas. In selection of management staff and subordinates only the top management staff were sampled and used from each company. The instrument used was a researcher developed questionnaire containing items and oral interview was conducted. The questionnaire was titled "private sector participation in funding University Education" (PSPIFUE). It was made up of two sections; section A sought demographic information about the name of company, respondent and location of the Company. Section B Comprised 16 items arranged in three clusters. A four point likert-scale of strongly agree (4 point), agree (3 point), disagree (2 point), strongly disagree (1 point) was used. The questionnaire was subjected to face content validation by two experts from the faculty of education University of Cross River State. It was pilot tested using 20 companies to establish its reliability using cronbach alpha. The alpha obtained yielded a coefficient of internal stability of 0.65 oral interview was also conducted with six management staff from the sampled companies.

Method of data Collection and Analysis using the Direct Delivery Technique (DDT), the researcher administer two hundred (200) questionnaires to the respondents. This Technique reduces the chance of either misplacing or loosing copies of the questionnaires. Then, four research questions were posed and used. The researcher used standard deviation to answer the three – research questions, while t-test statistics was employed in testing the hypothesis formulated for the study. Items of the research questions with mean score of 2.50 and above were regarded as positive and acceptable while any with a mean score below 2.50 were regarded as negative and thus rejected.

Findings

Table 1

Mean rating and standard deviation of management staff and subordinates of privately registered companies on University project to be funded by private sector in the University.

S/NO	ITEMS	MANAGEMENT STAFF N=100			SUBORDINATES N=100		
		X	SD	D	X	SD	D
	Projects to be funded						
1.	Building classroom and Admin blocks	3.20	1.29	High	3.17	1.20	High
2.	Donation of Tech and Medical Equipment	2.10	0.83	Low	2.16	0.84	Low
3.	Donation of books, office and sports	3.13	1.18	High	3.16	1.28	High
4.	Provision of funding for school Services	3.00	1.18	High	3.08	1.21	High
5.	Award of Scholarship	3.35	1.32	High	3.28	1.29	High
6	Renovate school building	3.28	1.29	High	3.25	1.29	High

For table 1 above, out of six items on specific projects to be funded by private sector, items 1,3,4,5 and 6 were rated by both categories of respondents. It is therefore the opinion of the respondents that out of six items on specific projects to be funded by private sector, items 1,3,4,5 and 6 were rated by both categories of respondents. It is therefore the opinion of the respondents that private sector should build classrooms and administrative block, provide office and sort equipments, award scholarship and renovate school buildings. However, both categories of respondents responded negatively to item 2 thus shows that the private sector company doesn't have to import technological and science equipments for the state university education.

Table 2

Mean rating standard deviation of management staff and subordinates on the constraint to private sector participation on the funding of the university.

S/NO	ITEMS	MANAGEMENT STAFF N=100			SUBORDINATES N=100		
		X	SD	D	X	SD	D
	Projects to be funded						
7.	Obnoxious policies of the state government.	3.60	0.56	High	3.35	0.55	High
8.	Lack of interest on the part of private sector	3.46	0.54	High	3.44	0.54	High
9.	No special provision to private sector	3.04	0.48	High	2.98	0.47	Moderate
10.	The fact that sector company pay Education Tax	3.32	0.52	High	3.36	0.52	High

From Table 2 above, it can be seen that both category of respondents, responded positively to 11 of the items, except 9 which was rated high by management staff and moderate by the subordinates IT has a mean score of 2.98 and standard deviation of 0.47.

Therefore the constraint to private sector participation include obnoxious policies of the state government, lack of interest on the private sector, no special provision given to the private sector for contributing to funding of the University, mobility of private sector to generate funds and the fact that private sector use to pay education tax.

Table 3

Mean rating and standard deviation of the management staff and subordinates on the policies to be initiated by the state government to increase private sector participation in the management /funding of the state university.

S/NO	ITEMS	MANAGEMENT STAFF N=100			SUBORDINATES N=100		
		X	SD	D	X	SD	D
	Projects to be funded						
12.	Payment of stipulate amount to Uni	3.64	0.57	High	3.35	0.55	High
13.	Ensuring that private company incorp	3.44	0.54	High	3.44	0.54	High
14.	Tax force should be used on defaults	2.99	0.51	High	2.98	0.47	Moderate
15.	Evidence of registration should be presented	3.81	0.60	High	3.36	0.52	High
16.	Government should motivate companies to contribute to education system.	3.00	0.47	High	2.99	0.47	High

From Table 3 above, items 12,13,15 were rated high by both respondents, item 14 was rated moderate by both respondents and item 16 was rated by their subordinates. This shows that to increase private sector participation in funding the state university, the government should initiate the following policies, private sector should pay stipulated amount into education fund, ensuring that private sector incorporate educational development in their programmes of activities, tax force should be used on defaulting companies, and government should motivate companies and place companies that are unable to contribute to funding schools under surveillance.

Ho 1: Table 4

Summary of t-test analysis of the difference between the mean scores of management staff and subordinates on the constraints to private sector participation in funding the state university.

Groups	N	X	SD	DF	Level sign	t-Cal value	t-crit value	decision
Management staff	100	31.29	4.90	198	0.05	0.85	1.96	Ho 1
Subordinates	100	31.19	4.87					Accepted

On Table 4, it can be seen that the null hypothesis was accepted because the calculated t-value of 1.96 at 198 degree of freedom and 0.05 level of significance. There is therefore no significant difference between the mean rating of management staff and their subordinates on the constraints to private sector participation in the finding of state university.

Ho 2: Table 5

Summary of t-test analysis of the differences between the mean scores of the management staff and subordinates on the policies to be initiated by the government to increase private sector participation in funding state university.

Groups	N	X	SD	DF	Level sign	t-Cal value	t-crit value	decision
Management staff	100	25.60	4.04	198	0.05	0.85	1.96	Ho 2
Subordinates	100	25.29	3.95					Accepted

On Table 5, the result of the t-test revealed that there is no significant difference between the opinions of the two categories of respondents on the policies to be initiated to increase funding to the university. This is so because the calculate t-value 0.85 is less than the critical table value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significant and 198 degrees of freedom.

Discussions

The result of research question one (table one) indicated that private sector should build classroom lectures and administrative blocks. Provide fund for school service, donate books and stationeries. This is in line with Ezeocha (1990) who stated that some private sector like the NGOs, Heinemas and Longmans donated books to education institution in the state. The result that private sector recognized the educational enterprise as a costly social service, which should involve the contribution of not only the government but also of individuals and private organizations.

Smith (1995) observed that the problem, prospect and implications of the rebirth of private organizations establishing schools indicate that private sector should fund projects in schools. The interview conducted with management staff also reveals that private sector suppose to contribute to education sector. The findings that obnoxious policies of the government on private sector prevent them from funding university education, as such amount to lack of interest, motivation and the fact that these companies pay education tax amount to lack of interest, motivation and the fact that these companies pay education tax prevent them from assisting in funding education. According to Udo (1995), most private companies are satisfied with 20% of their net profits as education tax they pay and that the government should not demand anything more from and should not force them either the government should device means of encouraging these companies so as to increase their funding the findings that the state government do not make any special provision to increase funding of university education constitute to great extent one of the interest in funding and management of the state university.

Another finding of this study is that policies should be put in place by the state government to motivate them, thus can be explained with the fact that both respondents see human and material development of any nation as being predicated on education. On this note, Okafor (1997) observed that private policies and regulations on education. The findings Task Force should be used on defaulting companies was acknowledge by Combs (1985) who noted that since education is not one means business, communities and private individuals should contribute to alleviate educational problems. Mubua (2002) also supported the fact that government should give incentives to private individuals and companies who contribute to the growth of university education. For instance in Cross River, the state government should encourage those banks and organizations that donated science and ICT blocks to the University for Improved Academic Performance.

The result of the interview conducted, indicated the strategies for companies to increase their participation in funding university education which include, initiating policies which demand that companies, firms and individuals should incorporate educational development in their programme of activities, pay education tax and register their company before operation. Current research findings on privatization of education management, young (2000) concluded that private assistance in running education enhances the overall development of the host community, not only intellectually, structurally, but also morally, socially and economically.

Implication of research findings

The findings the policies should be initiated by the state government to engender participation of private sector in management and funding of university education Is of practical benefit to the state government, because it has provide it has provided them with relevant with information about initiating policies. The results of the study also create awareness in the minds of administrators in the state ministries of education and university authority about the various ways private companies could be made to contribute meaningfully to the management of the state university education. The state government therefore should explore ways and means of enlisting the assistance and cooperation of private companies in funding state university education.

The findings that private organizations should innovate structures in education, make donations and provision of materials to the university proves to a great extent that besides the provision to the university by the state government, private companies fund university education in various ways. These findings suggest that besides fees and government subventions, the university management can work and attract additional funds for the institution from private companies. The implication is that the funds available to university administrators for managing their institution are not sufficient and so there is need to attract additional funds.

The findings that the obnoxious policies of the state government and negative attitudes of the officials of the state education commission in not encourage private companies to contribute to university education constitute to a great extent one of the factors militating against effective support of the university system by the private companies and firms. This suggests that effective funding of the university by private sector is married by strict and difficult rules and regulations. The government should therefore, relax some of the policies to enable private sector assist in the management and funding of the state university education.

Conclusion

From the study, researcher established that private companies participation in management and funding Cross River State University of Technology is low. It was discovered or observed that there were major hindrances to this poor state of affair. This include: the attitude of the government towards private sector and lack of interest on the part of private companies because of the fact that education is non-profit investment.

Since the state government alone cannot manage and fund education single handed and private sector effort to fund education is very low and the objectives of university education in the state have not been attained, government should initiate favourable policies to increase and encourage private sector participation in the management of the university and also cooperate with private sector to motivate them.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made.

1. Cross River State government through state education commission should relax some of their obnoxious policies to enable private sector contribute meaningfully to university education management.
2. University administrators should inform private organization on how the funds they have contributed are being utilized.
3. Private sector should be encouraged to pay education tax.

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REGIONAL INTEGRATION AND DETERMINE THE VULNERABILITY OF CLIMATE CHANGES IN AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SECURITY IN SOUTH-ASIA

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ABSTRACT

Continuous carbon emission and green house gas (GHG) creates vulnerable crisis of climate changes in South-Asia at present and ultimate consequence in near future on food security, forestry, human health, biodiversity and ecosystem. Rising temperature, solar radiation and precipitation have been a mammoth influential factor of deterioration of production of food items in the SAARC region not just that it also accelerate the poverty level and also create endanger of small farmers along with expansion of migration problems. Sea level rises craft salinity intrusion, having poor research infrastructure this region unable to develop eco-friendly organic product. Regional Adaptation and regional mitigation can expand horizon where proper regional collaboration and commitment and continuous research and information sharing reduce the sufferings of the people. Local government as well as the South-Asian body should focus on agro-base seed bank for the food security that might be the good options for ensure lightening and prosperous SARRC region.

Key words: carbon emission, GHG, climate changes, solar radiation, precipitation, SAARC, adaptation, mitigation, migration, organic product, local government

1. Introduction

Climate change is an issue that instigates the consequential issues for the deterioration of the status of living in the South-Asian region. South-Asia is the highly sensitive region of climate changes due to the increasing temperature that causes sea level rise and affects low lying coastal areas and deltas of the world. Already climate changes makes vulnerable crisis especially land corrosion, salinity intrusion and thrashing in biodiversity and for that reason food production has been deteriorating in this reason. In imminent future sea level rise will cause river bank erosion, salinity intrusion, flood, damage to infrastructures, crop failure, fisheries destruction, loss of biodiversity and so on. Adaptation and mitigation are two options that decelerate the vulnerable condition of the 200 million of people in this region. Agriculture is an inseparable part for the escalating of GDP of the South-Asian region and that contributes green house gas (GHG) also. For mitigation of GHG this region now concentrates on organic agriculture (OA) that is eco-friendly and also reduces carbon emission. For ex-termination of climate changes this region make a better collaboration for improve productivity of the crops, regional cooperation for knowledge generation and sharing on climate change, national and regional research for agro base product , water security and strengthen disaster management and promote Public private partnership (PPP) to resolve crisis that can ensure food security in the future.

2. Objective: The objective of this paper is illustrated here;

1. To determine the impact of climate changes in agriculture and food security in South-Asia.
2. To analyze the causes of climate changes and its effect on agriculture.
3. To understand climate changes and its impact on regional integration and bilateral relation among South-Asian countries.

3. Research Methodology: The study has been conducted mainly on the basis of literature survey and secondary information. Various seminar papers and summary of discussion in those seminars, taskforce reports of research organization, journals and some periodicals on climate change have been surveyed for the purpose of the study. Some environmental analyst and expertise person has also been interviewed for the purpose of accumulating facts and information.

4. Literature Review:

Regional integration is a process in which states enter into a regional agreement in order to enhance regional cooperation through regional institutions and rules. The objectives of the agreement could range from economic to political, although it has generally become a [political economy](#) initiative where commercial purposes are the means to achieve broader socio-political and security objectives (Hill, 2003). South Asia covers 3 percent of the world's land surface, contains 22 percent of the world's population, and shares 1 percent of the world's trade.

South Asia is home to almost 1.5 billion people with diverse geography. The region has been bestowed with rich biodiversity, mountains, glaciers, coasts, deserts and productive plans. However, South Asia is also vulnerable to all types of climate change impacts. It is projected that climate change will bring severe changes in livelihood patterns and lives of people in South Asia. The region will have to face a range of problems and vulnerabilities. Even Maldives, coastal parts of Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Pakistan and India would be at the risk of extinction. Specific areas of concern for South Asia would be agriculture and food security, water resources, coastal sinking, loss of biodiversity and its impacts on regional security. However,

the panel will specifically look into agriculture and food security, and water. Numerous factors shape and drive the agricultural sector. Market fluctuations, changes in domestic and international agricultural policies (such as the form and extent of subsidies, incentives, tariffs, credit facilities, and insurance), management practices, terms of trade, the type and availability of technology and extension, land-use regulations and biophysical characteristics (availability of water resources, soil quality, carrying capacity, and pests and diseases) are among the set of primary influences. Climate change is expected to result in long-term water and other resource shortages, worsening soil conditions, drought and desertification, disease and pest outbreaks on crops and livestock, sea-level rise, and so on. Vulnerable areas are expected to experience losses in agricultural productivity, primarily due to reductions in crop yields (Rosenzweig and others 2002). Climate change on the agricultural sector has prompted concern over the magnitude of future global food production (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 1996; Bindi and Olesen 2000). Early global estimates predict (without consideration of CO₂ fertilization effects or adaptation) a 20–30 percent reduction in grain production (Darwin and others 1995). Declines in aggregate production are anticipated in most of Africa and South and East Asia (for example, Western India, Bangladesh, and Thailand), with increments in countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, Taiwan, and parts of India and China. Murdiyarso (2000) highlights that rice production in Asia may decline by 3.8 percent of production levels of 2000 (estimated at 430 metric tons) under likely future climate regimes. Seshu and Cady (1984) estimate a decrease in rice yield in India at the rate of 0.71 ton per hectare given an increase in minimum temperature from 18o C to 19o C. The authors also associate a decrease of 0.41 ton per hectare with a temperature increase from 22o C to 23o C. Similarly, Sinha and Swaminathan (1991) find that a 2o C increase in mean air temperature could decrease rice yield by about 0.75 ton per hectare in the high-yield areas and by about 0.06 ton per hectare in the low-yield coastal regions. Further, a 0.5o C increase in winter temperature would reduce wheat crop duration by seven days and reduce yield by 0.45 ton per hectare. Rao and Sinha (1994) estimate that wheat yields could decrease by 28–68 percent. Similarly, Aggarawal and Sinha (1993) show that in North India, a 1o C rise in mean temperature would have no significant effect on wheat yields, while a 2oC increase would reduce yields in most places. The main conclusion to emerge from those, besides early estimates of impacts, is that countries in the tropical zones (essentially South Asia) are the most vulnerable. More recently, Murdiyarso (2000) estimates the potential impact of climate change and variability on rice production in Asia, taking into account CO₂ effects, to be a decrease of 7.4 percent of rice potential per degree increase in temperature. Mirza and others (2003) examine the impact of climate change on river discharges in Bangladesh, including possible changes in the magnitude, extent, and depth of floods of the Ganges, Brahmaputra, and Meghna (GBM) rivers. Agricultural production will decrease manifold due to increased extent and incident of pest and disease attack, soil erosion, droughts, floods and loss in productivity. “It is predicted that there would be 2.5 to 10 per cent decrease in the yield of crops in 2020s and 5 to 30 per cent decrease in 2050s from the levels of 1990s in Asia” (IPCC 2007). According to the World Bank (2008), “Loss in productivity and production will impact food security in the region, which is already the most food insecure region with a population of 229 million people.”

Bangladesh lost about 0.5 million tonnes of rice annually as a result of floods that accounts for nearly 30% of the country's average annual food grain imports (Paul and Rashid 1993). In Bhutan, for instance upland crop production, practised close to the margins of viable production, can be highly sensitive to variations in climate. A temperature increase of 2 °C would shift the cultivating zone further into higher elevation. This means that crops that are sensitive to low temperatures can be introduced into higher elevations with this temperature rise. In the hot climate of Pakistan, cereal crops are already at the margin of stress. An increase of 2.5oC in average temperature would translate into much higher ambient temperatures in the wheat planting and growing stages. Higher temperatures are likely to result in decline in yields, mainly due to the

shortening of the crop life cycle especially the grain filling period. More recently, the National Communication (MoE 2003) highlighted that crops like wheat, cotton, mango, and sugarcane would be more sensitive to increase in temperatures compared to rice. Extreme events of rise in temperature and changes in rainfall patterns will have adverse impacts on agricultural production in Sri Lanka. The changed rainfall scenario suggests an increase in amplitude of rainfall extremes causing adverse environmental impacts. Climate scenarios produced by the CSIRO indicate that temperature changes are significant for Sri Lanka by the year 2070. So it is to be noted that regional commitment and collaboration can reduce the uppermost vulnerability in this region.

5. Climate Change:

Today, global warming is a major and controversial issue all over the world. It affects many aspects of life; agriculture, plant and animal biodiversity, environment and socio-economic well being. Global warming occurs because of heat-entrapment in the atmosphere by greenhouse gases (GHG). Global warming causes climate change. Since agricultural crops are greatly affected by climate patterns; the agro-ecological sustainability of crops will be affected. A study by the Indian Agricultural Research Institute (IARI) found that a temperature increase by about 20C will reduce grain yields in some regions. The three major greenhouse gases are carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O).

The greenhouse effect occurs when the concentration of greenhouse gases ranges from about 190-280 parts per million (ppm). The problem only arises if there is imbalance between greenhouse gas production and gas sequestration. CO₂ gas makes the biggest contribution to global warming, being about 56%, while CH₄ contributes 18% and N₂O about 6%. Data from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change revealed that the concentration of CO₂ gas increased from 280 ppm to 379 ppm/year, and is still increasing at the rate of 1.9 ppm/year. If this continues without any prevention efforts, the Earth's surface temperature is expected to rise between 1.8 up to 2.90C in 2100.

The increasing temperature up to 30C will destroy biodiversity which affects both food production and water conservation. It may also lead to increased pest and disease infestations. South Asia is acknowledged as a tropical agriculture region and is thus very vulnerable to the impacts. Paddy is the main crop in this region and its cultivation is dependent on irrigated and rain-fed systems, making it highly susceptible to climate patterns. Any deterioration of paddy production through the impact of climate change will result in serious problems in South East Asian countries in the longer term.

Box: Kyoto protocol and its framework for reducing carbon emission

The Kyoto protocol is an international agreement linked to the United Nations framework Convention on Climate Change. The major feature of the Kyoto protocol is that it sets binding targets for 37 industrialized countries and the European community for reducing greenhouse gas (GHG) emission. 30% of total carbon emissions are controlled but rest of 70% causes the vulnerable situation. USA, China, India and other economic develop countries should taken necessary steps to diminish carbon emission. The adaptation fund is established to finance adaptation projects and programmes in developing countries for assistance. At the end of 2012 a new international framework needs to have been negotiated and ratified that can deliver the stringent emission reduction the IPCC has clearly indicated are needed.

5.1 South Asia and its economy: The growth rate of this region (SAR) has improved dramatically since the 1980's. The economic cycle of this is control by the agriculture. Most of the people especially poor people in rural area largely depend on agriculture. In recent years this sector deteriorating due to the climate changes that increases poverty, unemployment especially coastal area and also hunger problem.

Table 1: GDP and percentage (%) of Agriculture in South-Asia from 1971 to 2010

Country	GDP Growth				Agriculture			
	1971-1980	1981-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010	1971-1980	1981-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010
Bangladesh	1.9	4.6	4.8	5	0.5	2.7	2.9	2.3
Bhutan		7.8	6.1	6		4.9	3.2	2.8
India	3.4	5.5	6	6.5	2.1	3.7	3	2.5
Nepal	2.5	4.3	4.4	4.1	0.8	3.8	2.5	2.1
Pakistan	4.9	6.6	3.7	3.1	2.6	4.9	4.4	3.5
SriLanka	4.3	4.3	5.3	5.7	2.6	2.7	1.9	1.6

Source: World Bank, 2010

Poverty is an inseparable hindrance for accomplishing a substantial development in South-Asia. South-Asia has lots of potentiality, but it has been deteriorating due to the diseases like poverty. Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) adjusted \$1.25 a day measure of poverty the World Bank (WB) estimates South Asia's headcount poverty rate at 40.4 per cent for 2010. This is the second highest rate after Sub-Saharan Africa (50.9 per cent).

Table: 2 Poverty level of the world

Region	% in \$1.25 a day poverty	Population (millions).	Pop. in \$1 a day poverty (millions)
East Asia and Pacific	16.8	1,884	316
Latin America and the Caribbean	8.2	550	45
South Asia	40.4	1,476	596
Sub-Saharan Africa	50.9	763	388
Total Developing countries	28.8	4673	1,345
Europe and Central Asia	0.04	473	17
Middle East and North Africa	0.04	305	11
Total		5,451	1,372

Source: See World Bank PovcalNet "Replicate the World Bank's Regional Aggregation" at <http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/povDuplic.html> (accessed May 7, 2010).

Rising cost of energy, water shortage and continuous natural disaster makes a vulnerable position in the ground of food security in South-Asia. Unfortunately there is absence of cross-boundary water sharing agreement which is one of the inescapable crises for originates this kind of food security.

Agriculture production

Climate change will make precipitation level increase to 3.6% in 2020 which cause raising temperature and humidity in South Asia. For tropical areas, increased temperature above a critical temperature greater than 300C by itself could lead to grain yield decreases and will decline up to 10% of paddy production.

Economic Agriculture as critical sector in South Asian countries contributes industrialization and economic growth. Climate change impacts will decline agriculture productivity, rising food prices and cause negative GDP (Gross Domestic Product) in agrarian countries.

Social Agriculture sector absorb most of labor (almost 50-75%). Unsustainability in agriculture sector will cause poverty, unemployment and hunger problems.

Food security About 90% of world's rice production is in Asian countries, productivity losses and high population growth in the world (population growth 1.25-1.50) will risk food security and hunger problems.

5.2 Climate change effect on crop production:

The major food crops in South-Asian are wheat and rice. Regarding wheat the two major South Asian wheat producing countries (India, Pakistan) achieved substantial gains in wheat productivity between 1970 and 2000 but have faced stagnation since then. Productivity improvements and yield per hectare compare positively with North America but yield remains way behind European Union (EU) countries and East Asia. South Asian countries show significant gains in rice production since 1970, especially in Bangladesh and Sri Lanka, but the productivity gap with most of the world (except Sub-Saharan Africa) is large.

Table 3: Production of Rice and Wheat in South-Asia

Country name	2009		2010	
	Rice (1000 MT)	Wheat(1000 MT)	Rice (1000 MT)	Wheat(1000 MT)
Pakistan	6800	24000	4700	23900
India	89090	80680	95300	80800
Sri Lanka	2650	-	2400	-
Afghanistan	335	4250	275	3700
Bangladesh	31000	850	32900	1200
Nepal	2900	1400	2900	1400
Bhutan	-	20	-	20

Source: World Bank, 2010

The average per hectare yield in the better performing countries of Sri Lanka and Bangladesh around 3.7 MT/Ha is still 80 percent lower than the yield in North Africa 7.0 MT/Ha, 60 percent lower than North America and 30 percent lower than in East Asia (5.5 MT/Ha). The gaps are even larger for India and Pakistan. The major constraints of poor productivity is lack of technology, unavailability of inputs like energy, fertilizer and water , poor incentives and the most significant issues is that climate changes. In the year of 2011 the population is around 700 billion and in the year of 2050 the total population may be double but the production of different crops like rice, wheat, Maize, Millet, Sorghum not increase at all. Average temperature rise (2°C- 3.5°C) and sea level rise create the insufferable crisis in this South-Asian region. The given table illustrated that without having any effect of climate change in the year of 2050 rice, wheat and maize production are around 168.9,191.3 and 18.7mmt but if consider of climate change the condition is perplexing .

Table 4: Climate-change effects on crop production, no CO2 fertilization

Agriculture Product	South Asia	East Asia and the Pacific	World
Rice			
2000 (mmt)	119.8	221.7	390.7
2050 No CC (mmt)	168.9	217	455.2
2050 No CC (% change)	41	-2.1	16.5
CSIRO (% change)	-14.3	-8.1	-11.9
NCAR (% change)	-14.5	-11.3	-13.5
Wheat			
2000 (mmt)	96.7	102.1	583.1
2050 No CC (mmt)	191.3	104.3	917.4
2050 No CC (% change)	97.8	2.2	57.3
CSIRO (% change)	-43.7	1.8	-23.2
NCAR (% change)	-48.8	1.8	-27.4
Maize			
2000 (mmt)	16.2	141.9	619.2
2050 No CC (mmt)	18.7	264.7	1061.3
2050 No CC (% change)	15.4	86.5	71.4
CSIRO(1) (% change)	-18.5	-12.7	0.2
NCAR (2) (% change)	-8.9	8.9	-0.4

Source: International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)

5.3 Price escalation:

World prices are a useful single indicator of the effects of climate change on agriculture. With no climate change, world prices for the most important agricultural crops—rice, wheat, maize, and soybeans

Note: 1. The National Center for Atmospheric Research, US (NCAR) model

2. The Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization, Australia (CSIRO) model

will increase between 2000 and 2050, driven by population and income growth and biofuels demand. Even with no climate change, the price of rice would rise by 62 percent, maize by 63 percent, soybeans by 72 percent, and wheat by 39 percent. Climate change results in additional price increases— a total of 32 to 37 percent for rice, 52 to 55 percent for maize, 94 to 111 percent for wheat, and 11 to 14 percent for soybeans. If CO₂ fertilization is effective in farmers' fields, these 2050 prices are 10 percent smaller. So that in near future food crisis creates catastrophe condition to the poor people in this region and due to the effects of climate changes the price of the necessary products is unattainable.

Table 5: World food prices (US\$/metric ton) in 2050 and present changes for selected crops and livestock products.

Agriculture Product	2000	No Climate Change	2050		NCAR CF effect (% change from CF)	CSRO CF effect (% change from CF)
			NCAR no CF	CSRO no CF		
Rice (US\$/mt)	190	307	421	406	-17.0	-15.1
% change from 2000		61.6	121.2	113.4		
% change from 2050						
no climate change			36.8	32		
Wheat (US\$/mt)	113	158	334	307	-11.4	-12.5
% change from 2000		39.3	194.4	170.6		
% change from 2050						
no climate change			111.3	94.2		
Maize (US\$/mt)	95	155	235	240	-11.2	-12.6
% change from 2000		63.3	148	153.3		
% change from 2050						
no climate change			51.9	55.1		
Soybean(US\$/mt)	206	354	394	404	-60.6	-62.2
% change from 2000		72.1	91.6	96.4		
% change from 2050						
no climate change			11.4	14.2		

Source: International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)

5.4 Impact of climate changes: The impact of climate change making an adverse effect on the entire world but there will be distressing situation in South Asia. The rapid melting of glaciers is initially expected to contribute to excessive water flow and flooding in this region. Eventually, the full loss of glaciers, if it happens, would have a severe affect on the availability of fresh water to the three mighty rivers of Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra. These rivers are the life line for an estimated 500 million people in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh who are dependent on water from these rivers. Much of this population is very poor. The coastal population in South Asia is already facing a serious flooding problem from rising sea level due to climate change. The sea level could rise to 40 cm higher than the present level by the end of the 21st century and submerge a huge area of the South Asian coastal belt (Ahmed, 2010). Over 70 million people living in this area will face multifarious peril situation. The threat is particularly serious for the Maldives and Bangladesh. Human health is also at risk from growing incidence of diseases linked to rising temperature and rainfall. Effects may range from diarrheal diseases to increase malnutrition and also cause different untold disease because of lack of calories.

Table 6: Daily Per Capital Calorie Availability With And Without Climate Change

Region	2000	2050				
		No Climate change kcal/day	NCAR no CF Kcal/day	CSIRO no CF Kcal/day	NCAR CF effect (% change relative to NCAR no CF in 2050)	CSIRO CF effect (% change relative to NCAR no CF in 2050)
South Asia	2424	2660	2226	2255	4.3	4.3
East Asia and the pacific	2879	3277	2789	2814	4.3	4.3
Europe and Central Asia	3017	3382	2852	2885	2.7	2.9
Developing countries	2696	2886	2410	2432	5.7	5.7
Developed countries	3450	3645	3190	3215	2.3	2.5

Source: International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)

6. Climate change and its effect on agriculture in South Asia:

India: The major food grain producing regions of Haryana, Punjab and western Uttar Pradesh experience the most negative effects, along with the coastal districts of Tamil Nadu. Wheat yields in central India may drop by 2% in a pessimistic climate change scenario. Districts in western Rajasthan, southern Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Northern Karnataka, northern Andhra Pradesh, and southern Bihar are highly vulnerable to climate change in the context of economic globalization. Temperature rise of 1.5 degree centigrade and 2 mm increase in precipitation could result in a decline in rice yield by 3 to 15 %. Sorghum yield would be affected and yields are predicted to vary from +18 to -22 % depending on a rise of 2 to 4 degree centigrade in temperature and increase by 20 to 40 % of precipitation. The loss in net revenue at the farm level is estimated to range between 9% and 25% for a temperature rise of 2°C- 3.5°C.

Pakistan: Over the past month the country's southern region has received the highest monsoon rains ever recorded. In 2010 at least 20 million people were directly affected and nearly one million homes were destroyed in the flood. Deforestation has been another cause of this vulnerable situation. Wheat yields are predicted to decline by 6-9 % in sub-humid, semiarid, and arid areas with 1°C increase in temperature while even a 0.3°C decadal rise could have a severe impact on important cash crops like cotton, mango, and sugarcane.

Bangladesh: Bangladesh is the most vulnerable country due to climate changes. According to the coastal zone policy (CZPo, 2005) of the Government of Bangladesh, 19 districts out of 64 are in the coastal zone covering a total of 147 upazillas of the country. Out of these 19 districts, only 12 districts meet the sea or lower estuary directly. The coastal zone covers 47,201 square kilometer land area, which is 32 percent of total landmass of the country. Water area covers 370.4 km (200 nautical miles) from the coastline (UNCLOS, 1982; Article 57), estuaries and the internal river water. According to National Adaptation Programs of Action (NAPA, 2002) dialogue, per capita CO₂ emission in Bangladesh is 0.2 ton per year. But that figure for developing countries, world average, industrial world and United State of America (USA) is 1.6, 4.0, 6.0 and 20.0 ton respectively. Bangladesh is highly vulnerable to sea level rise, as it is a densely populated coastal country of smooth relief comprising broad and narrow ridges and depressions (Brammer et al., 1993). World Bank (2000) showed 10 cm, 25cm and 1 m rise in sea level by 2020, 2050 and 2100; affecting 2%, 4% and 17.5% of total land mass respectively (Frihy, 2003) reported 1.0 cm per year sea level rise in Bangladesh.

Table 7: Sea level rise (SLR) in Bangladesh and its possible impacts

Year	2020	2050	2100
Sea level rise	10cm	25cm	1m
Land below SLR	2 % of land (2,500 km ²)	4 % of land (6,300 km ²)	17.5 % of land (25,000 km ²). Patuakhali, Khulna and Barisal regions will be most affected
Flooding	20% increase in inundation	Increase flooding in Meghna and Ganges floodplain. Monsoonal floods increase yield loss.	Both inundation area and flood intensity will increase tremendously.
Agriculture	Inundate 0.2 Mmt. of production; < 1 % of current total.	0.3 m SLR inundate 0.5 Mmt. of production; 2% of current total.	Devastating flood may cause crop failure for any year.
Ecosystem	Inundates 15% of the Sundarbans	Inundates 40% of the Sundarbans.	The Sundarbans would be lost.
Salinity	Increase	Increase	Increase

Source: (World Bank, 2000)

Sea level rise will increase flood frequency and flooding duration, affecting Aman production. Due to sea level rise, salinity of water and soil will increase, and this will damage Aman cultivable land. Because of the shortage of fresh water, Boro rice production will be decreased. IRRI and wheat production will also be affected by salinity increase. The vulnerable areas in Bangladesh are Bagerhat, Barguna, Bhola, Chittagong, Cox's Bazar, Feni, Khulna, Lakshmipur, Noakhali, Patuakhali, Satkhira, Bhola, Barisal and so many areas will be the victim.

Box: Impacts of sea level rise on the basic needs of the people of Bangladesh

Food: Rise in sea level would flood agricultural lowlands and deltas in parts of Bangladesh (Miller, 2004; Bennett et al., 1991) that will decrease food production, causing shortage of food. Only salinity intrusion due to sea level rise will reduce 0.2 million metric ton of rice production

Poverty: Sea level rise will increase poverty. Increased poverty will decrease cloths buying capacity of the people of Bangladesh

Housing: In Bangladesh, 29,846 sq. km. area of land will be lost and 14.8 million people will be landless by sea level rise (IPCC, 2001a), losing their house.

Health: Sea level rise by extending coastal area and by increasing salinity in the area will increase the risk of cholera.

Education: Sea level rise will cause destruction of infrastructure including educational institutes.

Sri Lanka: Half a degree temperature rise is predicted to reduce rice output by 6 %, and increased dryness will adversely affect yields of key products like tea, rubber, and coconut. Most cropping activities for e.g., coarse grain, legumes, vegetables, and potato are likely to be affected adversely due to the impacts of climate change. Around 55 % of the coast has eroding at rate of around point 3 meters a year. On an average 70% of natural disaster in Sri Lanka are weather and climate related.

Nepal: Nepal's climate is influenced by the Himalayan mountain range and the South Asian monsoon. Temperature varies with altitude and season, Temperature and precipitations have been the major climate variability and observed changes over time. According to a study conducted by OECD (2003) projects a scenario that mean annual temperature to increase by an average of 1.2 degree celsius by 2030, 1.7 degree celcius by 2050 and 3 degree celcius by 2100 compare to pre 2000 baseline. The modest projection in winter precipitation is almost no change in western Nepal and up to 5-10% increase in eastern Nepal. However, in summer months the study depicts an increase in precipitation across the country in the range of 15-20%. Different cities like Kathmandu, Ramechhap, Udayapur, Lamjung, Mugu, Bhaktapur, Dolakha, Saptari, Jajarkot are in very vulnerable position due to climate changes

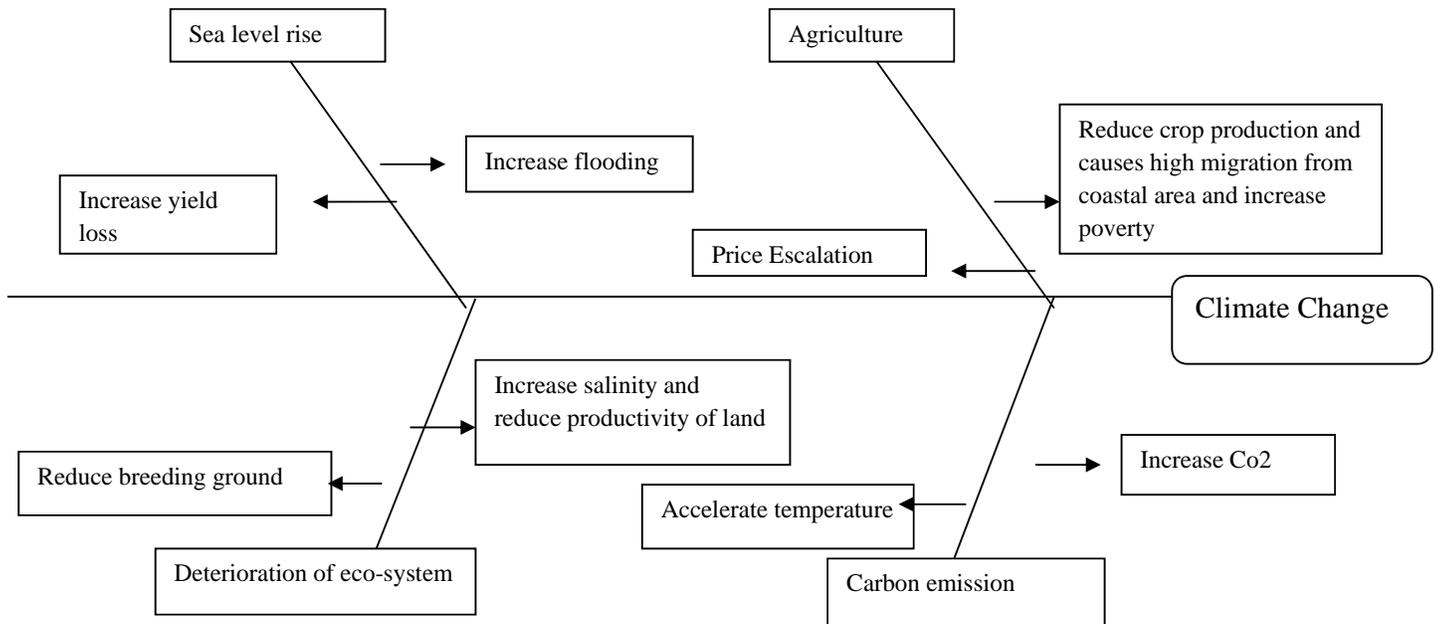
Table 8: Vulnerability of Climate Change in Agriculture in South-Asia

Country	Vulnerability of Climate Change in Agriculture
Bangladesh	The estimated impacts on rice yield shall vary between -6% to +14% depending on different climate change scenarios. Agricultural areas in tropical Asia and Bangladesh in particular, are vulnerable to many environmental extremes such as floods, cyclones, and storm surges.
Bhutan	A temperature increase of 2 °C would shift the cultivating zone further into higher elevation.
India	Temperature rise of 1.5 degree centigrade and 2 mm increase in precipitation could result in a decline in rice yields by 3 to 15 %. Sorghum yields would be affected and yields are predicted to vary from +18 to -22 % depending on a rise of 2 to 4 degree centigrade in temperatures and increase by 20 to 40 % of precipitation.
Maldives	Over 80% of the land area in the Maldives is less than 1 m above mean sea level. Being so low-lying, the islands of the Maldives are very vulnerable to inundation and beach erosion. Presently, 50% of all inhabited islands and 45% of tourist resorts face varying degrees of beach erosion.
Nepal	Soil loss is a major cause of decline in agriculture production in Nepal and the negative effects of climate change may further aggravate this situation. The impact of rise in temperatures on wheat and maize are expected to be negative.
Pakistan	In the hot climate of Pakistan, cereal crops are already at the margin of stress. An increase of 2.5oC in average temperature would translate into much higher ambient temperatures in the wheat planting and growing stages.
Sri Lanka	An increase in the frequency of droughts and extreme rainfall events could result in a decline in tea yield, which would be the greatest in regions below 600 meters.

Source: Human Development Report, 2007-2008. Fighting climate change: Human solidarity in a divided world

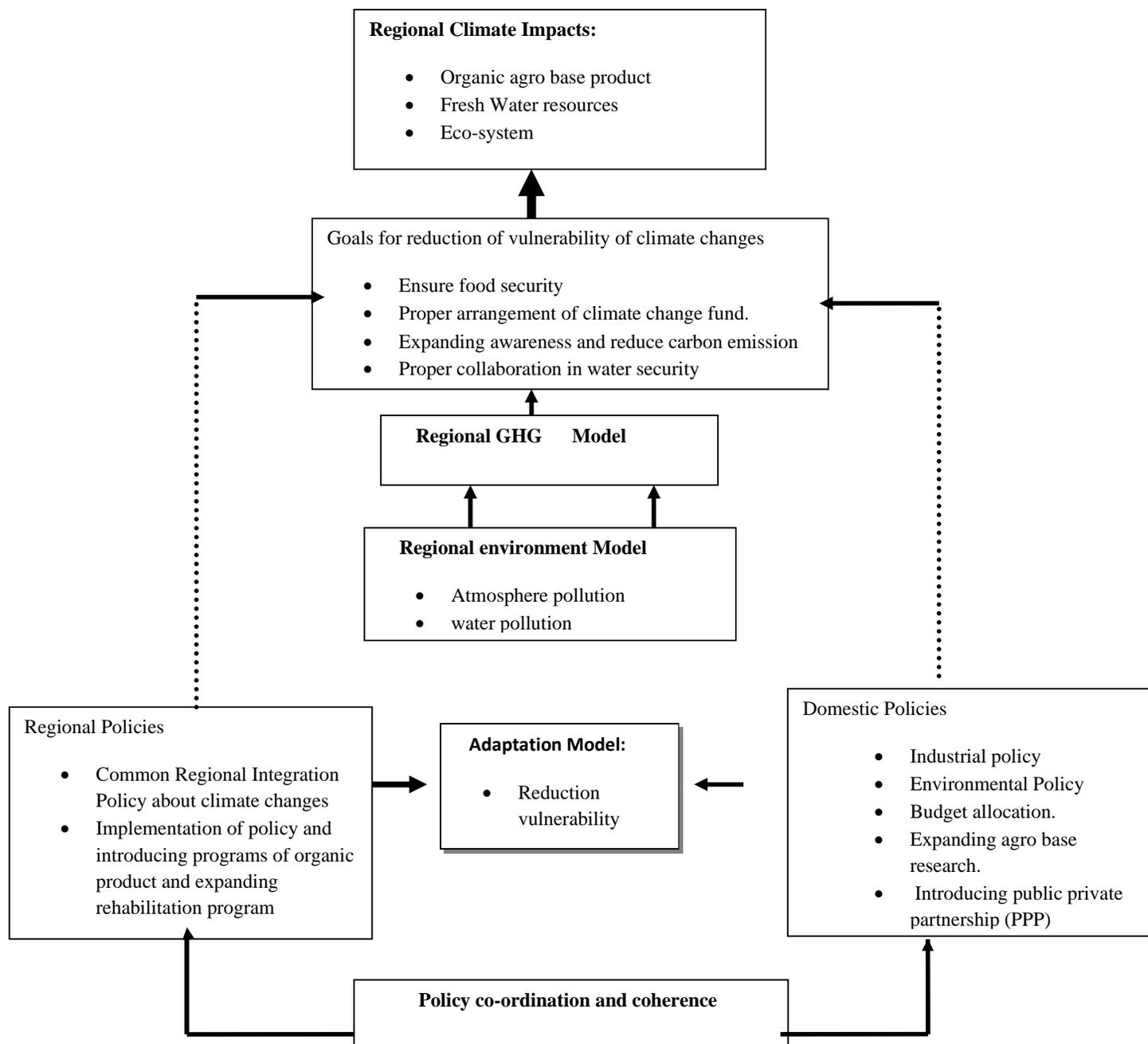
7.Cause and Effect analysis due to Climate Changes:

Climate changes reduce agriculture production, increase Salinity, enhance temperature, sea level rise and causes extreme flood, deteriorating health and expand poverty in near future. The following graph interprets the scenario of this South-Asian region in upcoming future.



8. Regional framework for mitigation of the negative effect of climate change in South-Asia: The goal of this South-Asian region is to diminishing the vulnerability of climate changes and it is possible with collective endeavor and admissible co-operation. There should be substantial and consistent relationship of local policies and also regional policies to eradicate this vulnerable crisis. The government has to play a vital role in establishing and ensuring the link between local and cross border framework. Domestic policies includes industrial policy, environmental Policy, budget allocation, expanding agro base research, private investment that make assists to resolve the local crisis of climate changes and for ensure better region, SAARC need to play a vital role of Common Regional Integration Policy about climate changes, implementation the policy with extensive work on the subject matter of climate changes and introducing programs of organic product and expanding rehabilitation program. Figure:1 interpret the framework where the South-Asia can mitigate the catastrophe problem like climate change.

Figure: 1 Framework for regional integration for facing the vulnerability of climate changes



Source: Author's

9. Findings:

1. The South Asian region is facing atrocious condition at present and also will creating turmoil situation in near future because of climate change. Sea level rise, Saline water intrusion, drainage congestion, extreme events, changes in coastal morphology identified as key vulnerabilities in the coastal areas and that is the common phenomena in South-Asia. In Bangladesh 10 cm, 25cm and 1 m rise in sea level by 2020, 2050 and 2100; affecting 2%, 4% and 17.5% of total land and that reduce the production especially rice. In India Temperature rise of 1.5 degree centigrade and 2 mm increase in precipitation could result in a decline in rice yields by 3 to 15 %. In Pakistan wheat yields are predicted to decline by 6-9 % in sub-humid, semiarid, and arid areas with 1°C increase in temperature while even a 0.3°C decadal rise have a severe impact on important cash crops like cotton, mango, and sugarcane. Over 80% of the land area in the Maldives is less than 1 m above mean sea level and face fierce situation in upcoming future. Soil loss is a major cause of decline in agriculture production in Nepal and the negative effects of climate change. In Bhutan, temperature increase of 2 °C would shift the cultivating zone further into higher elevation.
2. CO₂ gas makes the biggest contribution to global warming, being about 56%, while CH₄ contributes 18% and N₂O about 6%. Due to the increasing temperature melting glaciers on the Himalayan-Hindu Kush mountain range. The rapid melting of glaciers is initially expected to contribute to excessive water flow and flooding in this region (Pakistan, Nepal) and if the full loss of glaciers then there will be a great threats of availability of fresh water from the river like Indus, Ganges and Brahmaptra. Climate changes cause to increase the poverty level and also price escalation of necessary products. South Asia is still a small player in global carbon emission but rapid economic growth in India there is growing demand of carbon emitter. Agricultural activities also contribute 13.5 % of GHG such as N₂O and CH₄, different chemical pesticides, herbicides and fertilizers also causes climate changes.
3. The impacts of climate change on food security, access to water, human health, ecosystems, urban areas, and frequency of disasters will have severe implications for the achievement of sustainable development in this region. Climate base work and agro base research are not substantially established. Sea level rise by extending coastal area and by increasing salinity in the area will increase the risk of cholera. It will accelerate flood intensity facilitating transmission of diarrheal disease. High migrations increase poverty and also disrupt education especially in coastal area. Poor Development of drought resistant varieties and salt tolerant varieties, lack of Promoting on-farm water management practices and promotion of water conserving technologies, poor crop diversification, Absence of Integrated Watershed Management Programme, unstructured Coastal Zone Management Plan, deficiency of Forestry Management Programme.

10. Recommendations:

1. The region should concentrate on increase investments in agricultural productivity. Climate change places new and more challenging demands on agricultural productivity. Crop and livestock productivity-enhancing research, including biotechnology, will be essential to help overcome stresses due to climate change. Enhanced food security and climate-change adaptation should go hand in hand in this vulnerable region. South Asian association for regional co-operation (SAARC) and national governments should work to ensure that technical, financial, and capacity-building support reaches local communities. They should also encourage community participation in national adaptation planning processes. Community-based adaptation strategies can help rural communities strengthen their capacity to cope with disasters, improve their land-management skills, and diversify their livelihoods. Increase funding for adaptation

programs by at least an additional \$7 billion per year. South-Asian region should focus on seed bank which can ensure food security in this region.

2. South-Asian region should concentrate on reduce the emission of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases through more sustainable use of energy , improve forestry management and better urbanization. This region should take the policy like, using tax, pricing and regulatory policies to discourage the use of technologies and activities that generates green houses. Every country in this region should concentrate on eco-friendly products like organic product which can enhance production as well as ensure better food security.
3. Regional cooperation for knowledge generation and sharing on climate change, water security and strengthen disaster management and promote private investment. Public private partnership (PPP) should undertake to resolve crisis. Reinvigorate regional and national research and extension programs that might help to development of drought resistant varieties and salt tolerant varieties, Promoting on-farm water management practices and promotion of water conserving technologies, crop diversification, Integrated Watershed Management Programme, Coastal Zone Management Plan. The most important issue for this nation is to regional cooperation and also implementing the adaptation policies as early as possible.

11. Conclusion: Climate change creates catastrophe situation in South-Asia and this collapse condition can extinguish regional collaboration and communication. The objective under this regional integration might be concentrate on food security and ensure new eco-friendly technology which flourishes the production of crops and making sustainable progress in this region.

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LEARNING STYLES AS A PREDICTOR OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AMONG SAMPLE OF JORDANIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This study examines if learning styles (deep, surface, strategic) predict emotional intelligence (emotional knowledge, emotion regulation, empathy, social commitment). Participants of the study comprised of (534) students (males and females) selected randomly from different faculties of Hashemite University. Regression and correlation analyses were used to data. Results indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and learning styles. Results also indicate that learning styles significantly explain emotional intelligence and learning styles predict all sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Key words: *Emotional intelligence, Learning styles, Undergraduate student.*

Introduction.

The first use of the word emotional intelligence appeared in a doctoral dissertation written by Wayne Leon Payne in 1985. The term emotional intelligence, was used five years later by John Mayer and Peter Salovey. In 1990, Mayer and Salovey were trying to develop a way of scientifically measuring the differences in people's ability in the

area of emotions. They found that people, who have emotional intelligence skills, understand and express their own emotions, can recognize emotions in others, regulate affect, and use moods and emotions to motivate adaptive behaviors. (Salovey & Mayer,1990).

Goleman emotional intelligence model thus consisted of five basic emotional and social competencies: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Self-awareness involves knowing what we are feeling at the moment and using those preferences to guide our decision making. Self-awareness involves having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence. Self-regulation is how we handle our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand. Self-regulation consists of being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals and recovering well from emotional distress (Goleman, 1998).

According to Bar-On (1997), emotional intelligence is an array of personal, emotional, and social competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures, and directly affect one's overall psychological well-being. In other words, one's knowledge, skills, and overall intelligence must be augmented by the ability to understand, perceive, and regulate emotions. Mayer and Caruso (1999) suggests that emotional intelligence is not set at birth but can be developed through education and training.

Emotions influence a host of cognitive processes, such as attention, perception, memory, decision making, and social judgments (Planalp & Fitness, 1999). Elder (1997) notes that emotions play a significant role in students. Ability to learn content, thus emotions can facilitate learning. How a student uses emotions may also affect his/her ability to learn.

For example, if a student has just lost a loved one, then it would probably be hard for the student to focus on learning due to the emotion of sorrow.

Emotions provide people with valuable information about themselves and how they relate to others. Emotions are meaningful to education, they drive attention, which drives learning and memory (Sylwester, 1994). Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985) state that negative feelings can form negative attitudes towards learning. Clarify if it's emotions in a general sense or negative emotions can distort perceptions, lead to false interpretations of events, and can undermine the will to persist. Positive feelings and emotions can greatly enhance the learning process; they can keep the learner on the task and can provide a stimulus for new learning. Emotional intelligence is much more complex and integrative than acknowledging affective components within a learning environment (Jaeger, 2001). Emotions trigger cognitive activities and direct actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Researchers (Barris et al., 1985; Geiger & Pinto, 1991; Mentkowski & Strait, 1983; Pinto et al., 1994) noted than an individual's experiences and environmental factors may lead to changes in learning style preferences. These experiences and environmental factors may be directly or indirectly related to an individual's emotions and feelings, thereby creating a critical role for emotions in learning (Jaeger, 2001).

Learning styles and emotional intelligences have been studied frequently as separate research topics (Suliman, 2010; Badri et al, 2012 Gia daneka,2008; Schutte et al,2010; Alavinia & Ebrahimpour, 2012; Benson, 2005; BeShears, 2004; Boyd, 2004; Briody, 2005; Knoll, 2006; Leavitt, 2004; Miles, 2004; Paul-Oudouard, 2006; Phillips, 2005; Rivera & Beatriz, 2004; Scott, 2004; Smith, 2006, Spector, 2005;Wells, 2004; Yahr, 2005; Yancey-Bragg, 2006; Webb,2005, Fong & Yeo,2007). Findings indicated that emotional

intelligence influenced the learning styles. Each of these styles is influenced by different dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Statement of the problem

The teaching and learning processes are influenced by different cognitive variables, important amongst them include students learning styles and emotional intelligence. Where he found all of Honigsfeld and Dunn (2006) Understanding one's learning styles can help the learner improve achievement in class, but understanding how learning styles and emotional intelligence correlate together can open new doors to an adult's learning skills. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning styles among the students of the Hashemite University.

Objective and Research Questions:

The objective of this study, among other, is to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning styles among in Jordanian university students.

The specific study questions that guided this study were:

RQ1: Is there any significant relationship between Jordanian university students emotional intelligence and their learning styles?.

RQ2: Is there any significant relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence (emotional knowledge, emotion regulation, empathy, social commitment) and learning styles (deep, surface, strategic)?.

Importance of the study

In addition, this study is very important for many reasons:

1. This will help teachers and learners better understand these findings and use these findings to enhance classroom learning.
2. This examination of these two concepts can lead to a better understanding of the impact of learning styles and emotional intelligence in learners.
3. It can also help adult learners enhance their classroom skills.
4. It opens the door for researcher to conduct related studies in the field of emotional intelligence and its relationship to other variables in different university.

Definition of terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms were defined:

Learning styles: preferences that students have for thinking, relating to others, and for various classroom environments and experiences. (Grasha, 1990, p.106).

Emotional intelligence: is a set of abilities that accounts for how people's Emotional reports vary in their accuracy and how the more accurate understanding of emotion leads to better problem solving in an individual's emotional life. (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000, p. 396).

Methodology

Participants:

The population of this study consisted of (20250) undergraduate students, who were enrolled in the various faculties at Hashemite University (HU) for the academic year 2011/2012, across all levels of study. A sample population of 534 undergraduate, between the ages of 18-22 years old, were selected based on random sampling technique.

Instruments

Data was collected via 2 main instruments, namely emotional intelligence questionnaire, and learning styles questionnaire. A detailed description of the instruments is provided below:

Emotional intelligence questionnaire

The instrument used in this study was developed by the Al-Alwan (2011) after on extensive review related emotional intelligence mersuerment (Mayer and Salovey, 1990; Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 1997, Narimani and Basharpour, 2009). The instrument consisted of (41) items that relate to emotional intelligence four dimensions: emotional knowledge (9) items, emotion regulation (10) items, empathy (13) items, social commitment (9) items. Participants rated each item on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from totally disagree (1) to totally agree (5).

A cronbach alpha of (0.76) was reported for the emotional intelligence. In terms of the emotional intelligence dimensions, a reliability estimate of (0.79) was reported for the emotional knowledge, and a (0.82) was reported for the emotion regulation, and a (0.70) was reported for the empathy, and a (0.74) was reported for the social commitment.

Also, the reliability coefficient was calculated using test-retest and was found be (0.83, 0.85, 0.80, 0.86) for emotional knowledge, emotion regulation, empathy and social commitment.

Learning styles questionnaire

The 52-item Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students was used to measure the three approaches to learning adopted by students (Entwistle & McCune, 2004). Participants indicate their relative agreement with statements by using a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*disagree*) to 5 (*agree*). The Deep approach scale contains four-item subscales (seeking meaning, relating ideas, use of evidence, and interest in ideas). The Surface approach scale includes four-item subscales (lack of purpose, unrelated memorising, syllabus boundness, and fear of failure). Total scale scores for both the Deep and Surface learning approaches could theoretically range between 16 and 80. The Strategic approach scale consists of five, four-item subscales (organised study, time management, alertness to assessment demands, and monitoring effectiveness). Total scale scores could theoretically range from 20 to 100. Entwistle and McCune reported acceptable reliabilities for the Deep ($\alpha = .84$), Strategic ($\alpha = .80$), and Surface ($\alpha = .87$) scales.

Procedures:

The instruments were administered to the participants in their regular classrooms by the researcher. The researcher explained to the participants the purpose and the importance of their participation in this study. In addition, the researcher assured the participants of the confidentiality of their response and that their response would be used only for research purposes.

Then, the question booklets were distributed and instructions were given to the participants on how to answer them. The participants' responses were scored by the researcher and were entered into the computer for statistical analysis. The data were analyzed using the SPSS package

Results and Discussion:

To facilitate understanding the results of this study, questions of this study are divided into two question.

Results related to study question (1): Is there any significant relationship between Jordanian university students emotional intelligence and their learning styles?.

To answer this question, the correlation coefficients between measure emotional intelligence and measure learning styles are presented in table 1.

Table 1: correlation between measure emotional intelligence and measure learning styles (n= 534).

Measure	Emotional intelligence
Learning styles	0.42*

*p <0.05.

Table 1 shows, that there significant correlation at level of (p=0.05) between the emotional intelligence and learning styles.

Thus we can say that emotional intelligence has a positive influence with three learning styles among Hashemite university students.

Results related to study question (2): Is there any significant relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence (emotional knowledge, emotion regulation, empathy, social commitment) and learning styles (deep, surface, strategic)?.

To answer this question, the correlation coefficients between measure emotional intelligence and measure learning styles are presented in table 2.

Table 2: correlation between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and learning styles (n= 534).

Variable	Diemen's	Emotional knowledge	Emotion regulation	Empathy	Social commitment	Total
Learning styles	Deep	0.28*	0.34*	0.40*	0.22*	0.31*
	Surface	0.02	0.04	0.20*	0.17*	0.11*
	Strategic	0.25*	0.29*	0.21*	0.22*	0.24*

p<0.01

Table 2 shows that the deep learning styles are positively related to the emotional knowledge, emotion regulation, empathy and social commitment ($p < 0.01$). The surface learning styles are positively related to the empathy and social commitment ($p < 0.01$). The strategic learning styles are positively related to the emotional knowledge, emotion regulation, empathy and social commitment. This result mean the emotional intelligence is influenced by learning styles university students. The size of this correlation indicates that generally high levels of emotional intelligence are related to high levels of students learning styles, and if one of the variables increases, the other will increase, as well. This finding is consistent with previous research by Alavinia and Ebrahimpour (2012); Giadenakad's, 2008; Fong and Yeo(2007) which found a positive meaningful relationship between emotional intelligence and learning styles. Schutte et al (2010) found that the experiential and rational processing significantly predicted higher levels of emotional intelligence.

Multiple Regression Analysis:

Table 3 shows the results of the multiple regression analysis using learning styles as predicted by emotional intelligence.

Table 3: Results of regression analysis predicting learning styles on emotional knowledge.

Learning styles	R	R ²	F	β	t
Deep	0.319	0.102	6.582	0.233	2.962
Surface				-0.050	-0.674
strategic				0.154	1.926

Results given in table 3 show that the deep, surface and strategic learning styles is a significant predictor of emotional knowledge ($R^2 = 0.10$, $F = 6.582$, $p < 0.05$). This results was supported by the close moderate correlation between the third variables ($r = 0.319$). An approximated 10% of the variance of the students emotional knowledge emotional intelligence was accounted by learning styles.

Table 4 Results of regression analysis predicting learning styles on emotion regulation.

Learning styles	R	R ²	F	β	t
Deep	0.345	0.119	7.842	0.241	3.089
Surface				-0.006	-0.080
strategic				0.171	2.159

Results given in table 4 show that the deep, surface and strategic learning styles is a significant predictor of emotion regulation ($R^2 = 0.119$, $F = 7.842$, $p < 0.05$). This results was supported by the close moderate correlation between the third variables ($r = 0.345$). An approximated 11% of the variance of the students emotion regulation emotional intelligence was accounted by learning styles.

Table 5 Results of regression analysis predicting learning styles on empathy.

Learning styles	R	R ²	F	β	t
Deep	0.404	0.164	11.345	0.360	4.744
Surface				0.143	2.005
Strategic				-0.009	-0.123

Results given in table 5 show that the deep, surface and strategic learning styles is a significant predictor of empathy emotional intelligence ($R^2= 0.164$, $F= 11.345$, $p<0.05$). This results was supported by the close moderate correlation between the third variables ($r=0.404$). approximated 16% of the variance of the students empathy emotional intelligence was accounted by learning styles.

Table 6 Results of regression analysis predicting learning styles on Social commitment.

Learning styles	R	R ²	F	β	t
Deep	0.267	0.071	4.435	0.167	2.087
Surface				-0.097	1.249
Strategic				0.102	1.252

Results given in table 6 show that the deep, surface and strategic learning styles is a significant predictor of Social commitment ($R^2= 0.071$, $F= 4.435$, $p<0.05$). This results was supported by the close moderate correlation between the third variables ($r=0.267$). An approximated 0.07% of the variance of the student's Social commitment emotional intelligence was accounted by learning styles.

By the end, the researcher recommends conducting other studies on other variables in different universities. Also, the researchers recommend lectures in universities to encourage students to adapt learning styles, and teaching emotional intelligence through courses.

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GOOD GOVERNANCE: ANTIDOTE FOR PEACE AND SECURITY IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

Nigeria returned to democracy since May, 1999 following long years of authoritarian rule by the military that had been in power for almost thirty years, and while considerable progress has been made in the area of personal freedoms and liberties, flashpoints of ethnic, communal religious and resource conflicts persist across most of the country. This is exacerbated by the seeming failure of government to address key issues affecting economic performances such as poverty alleviation, access to education, employment, resource distribution, infrastructure development and political power contests. This has indeed robbed the country of desired peace and security, which are necessary ingredients for sustainable development. The central argument of the study is to weave a thread linking the Nigerian state's ability to ensure human security and a convivial atmosphere, the focus of which is the protection of the people and response to their needs especially as these concern threats to life and property. This is cast within the context of global peace and security where consideration is not just for protection, but also empowerment of people and societies as a means of engendering development. This paper thus concludes that good governance defined as the manner power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for an all inclusive development process with a capacity for efficient problem-solving and conflict resolution is a recipe for ensuring societal peace and security.

Key words: *Good governance, democracy, peace, security, sustainable development.*

1. Introduction

Since the Nigerian state returned to democratic governance in 1999 during the era of what Samuel Huntington (1991) called the “third wave of democratization”, the nature of governance in the country has been the subject of intense debate by scholars of all divides. Admittedly, the rising concern about the governance project in Nigeria cannot be explained outside the country’s historical experience, a history that has laid the “solid” foundation for the current wave of ethno-religious and politico-economic crisis in the land. This state of affairs importantly raises some serious concerns about the question of good governance in Nigeria where the politics of deprivation and mismanagement of resources appears to be taking over the principles of accountability, transparency and responsibility. This has thrown up security challenges in the poverty-ridden society. The questions now are: what is the explanation for bad governance in Nigeria? How can these governance deficits be corrected?

An attempt to answer these questions is what this paper has set out to achieve. The thesis of this paper is that good governance is the key instrument that oils a sustained peaceful, secured and over all development of society. In other words, the survival of the society is dependent on how its leadership and people are committed to the ideals of good governance where the atmosphere of peace, equal rights, justice, and rule of law and freedom of choice prevails.

2. Some Conceptual Issues

It is pertinent at this juncture to explore the relevant concepts which underpin this study in what follows below. This is with a view to clearly demonstrating their referents in the study.

2.1 Good Governance

Generally, governance, according to the World Bank Report (1989) is the exercise of political power in the management of a nation’s affairs. This definition thus implies that governance encompasses the state’s institutional and structural arrangements, decision-making processes and implementation capacity, and the relationship between the governing apparatus and the governed- that is the people in terms of their standard of living.

In his analysis, Odock (2006:3-5), sees good governance as “a system of government based on good leadership, respect for the rule of law and due process, the accountability of the political leadership to the electorate as well as transparency in the operations of government.” Transparency, Odock opined that it has to do with the leadership carrying out government business in an open, easy to understand and explicit manner, such that the rules made by government, the policies implemented by the government and the results of government activities are easy to verify by the ordinary citizens. Accountability as a component of good governance refers to the fact that those who occupy positions of leadership in the government must give account or subject themselves to the will and desire of the society and people they lead. Unfortunately, this is lacking in the public domain in Nigeria.

Governance typically emphasizes leadership which suggests the way political leaders meaning the apparatus of the state, use or misuse power, to promote social and economic development or to engage in those agendas that largely undermine the realization of the good things of life for the people. Good governance is in tandem with democratic governance which is largely characterized by high valued principles such as rule of law, accountability, participation, transparency, human and civil rights. These governance qualities have the capacity to provide the development process of a country.

Speaking in Nairobi, Kenya, in August 2006, U.S. Senator Barack Obama pointed out that for all the progress that has been made, the African continent generally has not yet created a government that is transparent and accountable, one that serves its people and is free from corruption which undermines the governance process. Indeed Obama noted that:

Governance in Africa is crisis ridden and it is a crisis that is robbing honest people of the opportunities they fought for. Corruption erodes the state from the inside out, sickening the justice system until there is no justice to be found, poisoning the police forces until their presence becomes a source of insecurity rather than a source of security. In the end, if the people cannot trust their government to do the job for which it exists, to protect them and to promote their common welfare, all else is lost.

Governance or its absence has not been able to provide the people of Nigeria and Africa generally public goods of health care, education, clean water, electric power, physical security, a salutary environment, and decent transport infrastructure.

Onifade (2011) has posed a critical question as to whether it's possible to have good governance without good leadership. Our understanding of reality points to the fact that the former is logically derived from the latter because where there is effective and efficient leadership, there is bound to be good governance. Achebe (1983) had argued convincingly in his seminal book, *'The Trouble with Nigeria'*, that the failure of leadership to rise to its responsibility, to the challenges of personal exemplary life clearly shows why the nation has the problem of true leadership. It is exemplary leadership that can uplift the people, better the lives of the citizenry and see that the people as much as possible enjoy the public resources without ado as is the case in most advanced democracies such as the United States, Canada, Switzerland and some upcoming developing nations such as Singapore, Malaysia, Taiwan and Korea. , theoretical explanations have been advanced by such scholars Migdal (1988), Zartman (1995) about the fact that in the absence of good governance, a nation may experience state collapse or failure. This has been the lot of most African countries including Nigeria where lead governance has held sway. A state ideally is meant to be an organization, composed of several agencies led and coordinated by the state leadership (executive authority) which has capacity and authority to make and implement the finding rules for all the people and applying force if necessary to have its way. Zartman (1995) specifically notes that the status of a state is reviewed as failed or collapsed when it exhibits inability to fulfill the functions of a state such as the sovereign authority, decision-making institution and security guarantor for its population. This can lead to structure, authority (legitimate power), law and political order falling apart.

2.2 *The Concept of Peace*

Another variable that need some explanations is peace. Peace is often seen as the absence of war, and by logical extension, war is the absence of peace. This perspective of peace is faulty because it really does not tell us anything about the meaning of peace. Ibeanu (2005) has however attempted to explain peace in sociological terms as a condition of social harmony in which there are no social antagonisms. In other words, peace is a condition in which there is no social conflict and individuals and groups are able to meet their needs, aspirations and expectations. Peace in this sense can be explained from the perspective of structural functionalism.

Structural functionalism is a tradition of social analysis that sees society as a mosaic of functions and structures that perform them. For example, in order to survive, a society needs to educate its children, produce goods, govern its affairs and provide security for its members. These are functions and they necessitate a number of structures such as schools, industries, parliaments, courts, armed forces, etc to perform their roles. Understandably, when these structures perform their roles or functions properly, there is order in society and in fact, society inherently moves in the direction of order and stability. Consequently, from a structural-functionalist perspective, peace is achieved where existing social structures perform their functions adequately, supported by the requisite culture, norms and values.

In broadening the definition of peace, Galtung (1990) had earlier outlined two dimensions of peace. The first is negative peace, that is the absence of direct violence, war and fear of the individual, nation, region and indeed at the international levels; the second dimension is positive peace that is the absence of unjust structures, unequal relationships, justice and inner peace of the individual. In sum, we can conceive peace to be the absence of fear, conflict, anxiety, exclusion, deprivation or suffering and violence. It is primarily concerned with creating and maintaining a just order in society. Galtung has stated *inter alia* that:

Peace and indeed peace theory is intimately connected not only with conflict theory, but equally with development theory. Therefore a peace research must be one that looks into the conditions past, present and future for the realization of peace which is intricately connected with conflict research and indeed development research (1991:131).

Violent conflicts, whether social, political or environmental have seriously contributed to the crisis situation in terms of loss of human and material capital. Nigeria in the last decade especially has experienced the breach of peace from the six geopolitical zones:

- a. North-Eastern States of Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba and Yobe.
- b. In the North-West States of Kaduna, Katsina, Kano, Kebbi, Sokoto, Jigawa and Zamfara have been hard hit with conflicts.
- c. The North-Central States of Benue, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Niger and Plateau including the FCT which is not a state however have experienced the breach of peace.
- d. The South-Western States of Lagos, Ekiti, Oyo, Osun, Ondo and Ogun too have at one time or the other during this period witnessed conflicts.
- e. In the South-South States of Akwa-Ibom, Cross River, Edo, Delta, Rivers and Bayelsa, the experience has not been any different.
- f. The South-Eastern States of Anambra, Imo, Ebonyi, and Abia have equally had their own share of violent conflicts.

All these violent conflicts have contributed to the state of underdevelopment in Nigeria. There has been loss of lives, livelihoods, destruction of infrastructure and natural resources, employment opportunities which coincides directly with a weakened social safety net and a decline in the capacity of the state to provide services such as health, education and indeed security for the people. In a sentence, the peace and security and indeed wellbeing of the people of Nigeria has been seriously compromised.

2.3 *Security: Towards an understanding*

The third variable in our discourse is security. Security is viewed as the condition of feeling safe from harm or danger, the defense, protection and preservation of values, and the absence of threats to acquire values (Terriff, 1991). Put simple, security is about survival and the conditions of human existence. We must quickly clear the misconception and myopic ideology of defining or understanding the concept of security to be solely military or conventional matter.

Security is broadly viewed as freedom from danger or threats to an individual or a nation. It is the ability to protect and defect oneself, be it an individual or a nation its cherished values and legitimate interests and the enhancement of wellbeing (Imobighe, 1990; Mijah, 2007). Scholar like McNamara (1968) and Mijah (2007) see Security as tantamount to development. Security is not just about the presence of a military force, although this is encompassed. There can be no development without security. The non-conventional conception of security lays emphasis on human security. It also according to Fayeye (2011) implies the maturation of the structures and processes that can engender and guarantee political space and sufficient conditions for the realization of among other things, personal, group or national aspirations.

Kofi Annan (1998) had earlier emphasized on the human perspective of security when he posited that security means much more than the absence of conflict but also that lasting peace, an inherent ingredient of security will encompass areas such as education, health, democracy, human rights the protection against environmental degradation and the proliferation of deadly weapons. Indeed there can hardly be security amidst starvation, peace building without poverty alleviation and no true freedom built on the foundation of injustice.

The inclusion of the concept of development in the above definitions is particularly important. In point of fact, development essentially focuses on the transformation of the individual with the aim of eliminating poverty, unemployment and inequality. The prevalence of these elements constitutes monumental threats to the security of any nation. It is in this sense that the Kampala Document on Security clearly states that:

The concept of security goes beyond military consideration. It embraces economic, political and social dimensions of individual, family, community, local and national life. The security of a nation must be constructed in terms of the security of the individual citizen to live in peace with access to basic necessities of life while fully participating in the affairs of his/her society in freedom and enjoying all fundamental human rights (1992:9).

Elaborating further, Aligwara (2009) submit that security of the individual citizens is the most important thing. He argued that security is for the citizens and not citizens for security. Thus, for the citizens to live in peace the basic necessities of life such as food, good health, job opportunities, justice, freedom and all other ingredients of life must be provided.

3 The Interface between Good Governance, Peace and Security

Governance and security are separate concepts, yet they have a relationship. To be precise, it is governance that provokes and defines the nature of security. In effect, when there is governance failure the security framework deteriorates as has been the case in Nigeria. To ensure effective security system, there must necessarily be some link between the elements of good governance by the leadership. These elements include rule of law, accountability and transparency in the management of resources, political stability, provision of basic needs and services as well as absence of corruption.

The role of the leadership is particularly important in the governance project. The primacy of leadership in the governance project (Chikendu, 1987) rests on the ability of the leadership to see beyond the perceptual vista of the people, appreciate their needs, and inspire and motivate them to cherish and desire these needs as goals that should be achieved. Indeed, ensuring good governance for achieving peace, security and sustainable development rests with the leadership. This is dependent on the ability and capacity of leadership to allocate scarce resources, determine policy choices and outcomes that affect the direction and nature of development in the society.

It is an incontestable fact that there is a strong correlation between the nature of governance and the state of security in any society. But the case in Nigeria appears to be problematic. From 1999 to date, the country has experienced considerable erosion of domestic security arising from inherent deficit in governance. This is evidenced by the increasing proliferation of private security firms (Mijah, 2006 and 2009) to curb the problem of insecurity in the country. In point of fact, the nature of governance in Nigeria has not instituted sufficient policies and programmes to alter the structures of imbalance and insecurity entrenched by colonialism and prolonged authoritarian military rule (Ibrahim, 2002:197). These structures are exclusionary and ill suited especially in a democratic system of governance.

It has already been argued (Balewa, 1994 and Hembe, 2003) that colonialism imposed on Nigeria a structural imbalance in the configuration of Nigerian federalism. This situation created a feeling of fear of domination and mutual suspicions among the various ethnic nationalities. These factors, that is, the fear of domination and suspicions manifests in the political, economic and social dynamics of the country.

Consequently, the multi-ethnic nature of Nigeria and the failure of the governing apparatus to evolve a true nation and a corresponding national identity (Ibrahim, 2002:179-184), ethnic religious and other primordial elements have assumed points of relevance in Nigeria. Mijah (2009) argued further that the eventual transformation of identities along primordial lines and the entrenchment of negative identity politics have made ethnic and religious identities the basis of inclusion or exclusion in the distribution of resources. Thus, dominant ethnic groups systematically exclude minority ethnic groups from national and even regional or state processes and opportunities for individual and collective development. Thus, as a protection of communal and group resources, ethnic nationalities have defined citizenship along the lines of indignity. This has created the problem of indigenship and settlers. Consequently, indigenes derive more benefits, opportunities and resources than the settlers. In other words, this indigenship/Settlership phenomenon has become the standard for inclusion or exclusion in the distribution of available resources and opportunities (IPCR, 2003; Sanda, 2003; Mustapha, 2004). It must be pointed out clearly that the entrenchment of this negative identity politics in Nigeria is part of the wider causality of insecurity in the country. In point of fact, the structural imbalance in the ethnic, religious and regional composition of Nigeria and the manipulation of such identities logically explains the various ethno-religious and even communal conflicts in the country such as Zangon-Kataf in Kaduna, Ife-Modakeke, Jukun/Tiv, Jos Crisis, Boko Haram insurgency, Kano, Borno, among others.

The crisis of state and economy in Nigeria also reveals the potent threats to security in the country. The inherent economic crisis has had varying impacts on socio-economic and political spheres of Nigeria (Jega, 2003; Mijah, 2006). Essentially, the adverse impact of economic crisis; for instance, the impact of trade liberalization which has led to the closure of several industries in the country as a result of cheaper imports (Abdu, 2003), has led to the increasing privatization of the state and the alienation of the people from it. Understandably, it is this vacuum arising from the roll-back of the state, particularly out of the domain of social provisioning that is increasingly being filled by ethnic militias, religious fanatic (Boko Haram) and disgruntled state elites who feel marginalized or excluded from participating in the public or decision making arena. In fact, neither people nor investments or government can feel secured in such a conjuncture.

The desperation for political power and by extension for unrestrained access to economic resources has also deepened the insecurity situation in the country. The primacy of political power as a springboard to economic resources and higher level of social status has led to the militarization of society in Nigeria. This signifies violence in the struggles of social forces as against peaceful political competition and conduct. Ake has clearly explained the nature of politics that generates conflicts in African societies such as Nigeria thus:

The militarization of society is the outcome of the over valuing of political power in Africa and intense struggle to obtain and keep it. This transformed politics into warfare. In this competition every form of force is mobilized and deployed; the winners have the prospect of near absolute power and the losers not only forgo power but face a real prospect of losing and even life (1989:57-58).

The above merely amplify the character of a post-colonial state such as Nigeria. The premium on power is exceptionally high and the system lacks the institutional arrangement to moderate political competition and to mediate between classes thereby creating a fertile ground for insecurity in society.

The current democratic governance in Nigeria has continued to witness repeated abuses of state power that has manifested in different forms and guises. No doubt, the political elites still see politics or state power as an avenue for primitive accumulation of wealth. This conclusion which has been reached by scholars like Anifowose (1982), Ake (1985), Joseph (1987), Ikpe (2000), etc is still the order of the day today. According to Tell Magazine October 17, 2005, many public office holders in Nigeria especially state governors, ministers (past and present), members of the National Assembly, etc, are stupendously wealthy. These public officers according to the Magazine have huge investments both at home and abroad which cannot be explained. This basically explains why corruption has remained endemic in the country. When public officers who are supposed to be the vanguard in the fight against corruption now elevates the ignoble practice to statecraft, democracy, good governance, peace and security cannot but be at risk. Corruption no doubt undermines and or hampers the governance process and indeed development.

4 How to Evolve Good Governance in Nigeria

From all the foregoing anomalies, it is apparent that there is deficit in the governance process. But this can be corrected through an active and virile civil society. Larry Diamond (1996:5-17) provides us some intellectual insights on the relevance of civil society in the following context:

1. An organized civil society serves as a watch dog to check the excesses of government, to expose and curtail or put a stop to human rights violation, abuse of the rule of law and infringements of constitutional provision.
2. Civil society organization can supplement the role of political parties in stimulating political participation, increasing the political efficiency and skill of democratic citizens, and promoting an appreciation of the obligation as well as the rights of democratic citizenship.
3. Civil society is considered as crucial arena for the development of other democratic attributes such as tolerance, moderation, a willingness to compromise, and respect for opposing viewpoints, which are better experienced in organizational participation in civil society.
4. It serves to enhance the bargaining power of interest groups and provide inclusive mechanisms for them
5. It helps in recruiting and training new political leaders, not only in technical and administrative skills but also in normative standards of public accountability and transparency.

The above intellectual exploits of Larry Diamond provides the civil society a variety of ways to chart the course of good governance for peace, security and sustainable development. It is obvious the governing apparatus in Nigeria lacks the legal and bureaucratic means to check corruption and abuse of power but the civil society with its free, robust and inquisitive institutions has the capacity for pressing for institutional reforms which can fill that gap.

Of course, revamping the economy is a critical factor in the evolution of good governance in Nigeria. A virile economic system will no doubt deal with the problem of poverty. It is impossible to address the problem of insecurity and promote peace and sustainable development with the degree of poverty in the country. Jeffrey Sachs (2007) had argued that poverty leads to desperation among the people and the unhealthy struggle for available resources. This creates a fertile ground for insecurity.

The evolution of good governance also requires proper socialization of the citizenry. Through this process, our children will acquire relevant attitudinal dispositions and behavioural patterns. In point of fact, proper socialization of the children by agents such as the family, school etc. will shape their behaviour and inculcate in them the values of discipline, hard work, and such other values that are promotive of good governance and democracy.

5 Concluding Remarks

We have argued that good governance is a critical element for peace, security, and sustainable development. We have also established that the historical experience of Nigeria has affected the nature of governance that has failed to effectively address the development needs and aspirations of the citizens. This has further created problems of insecurity in the country. Clearly, there is deficit in good governance. And these deficits can be corrected through a virile and active civil society, revamping of the economy and proper socialization in the society.

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DO REMITTANCES CONTRIBUTE TO IMPROVEMENTS IN LIFE STANDARD AT THE HOST AREA (WITH REFERENCE TO CHITRAL, KPK, PAKISTAN?)

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ABSTRACT

The present study entitled "Do remittances contribute to improvements in life standard at the host area (with reference to Chitral, KPK, Pakistan)": A Sociological analysis was conducted in District Peshawar and District Chitral. A sample size of 500 (250 migrants in District Peshawar and 250 respondents of their dependent family members back in District Chitral) was selected out of total 5000 through simple random sampling procedure. Interview schedule was used as a tool for data collection in the study area. Percentage and frequencies were used to know about the phenomenal aspects of the study. Moreover, T-test was used to measure the comparison before and after migration in the study area. The results disclosed that a highly significant ($P=0.000$) relationship was found between amount spent on health after migration. Similarly, amount spent on housing conditions after migration was highly significant ($P=0.000$). Moreover, amount spent on education of children after migration further disclosed highly significant relationship ($P=0.000$). Likewise, a significant relationship ($P=0.000$) was found on house hold goods after migration. Furthermore, amount spent after migration on daily use items showed a highly significant increase ($P=0.000$).

It is concluded from the findings that migrant's remittances were used as a tool for poverty alleviation in the study area. The results showed that migrants remittances improved the economic status of the households as well as social status i.e., improvement in health, household goods, and daily use items, housing conditions and investment in children education.

It was concluded that migrant's remittances contributed a lot in bringing the lot of local people. Improvement in life standard with visible changes in enjoying basic facilities like education, health care and recreational surfaced up due to concomitted flow of remittances from place of migration (Peshawar) to place of destination (Chitral). Stabilization of proper channel from utilization of remittances on long term, lies in through local leaders and community participation were fundamental as policy recommendations.

KEY POINTS: *Migration, Push factors. Pull Factors, Impact of Migration.*

Introduction

Migration is a global phenomenon with its well-known social and economic implications (Manner 2003). The social, economic and other structural characteristics of a country are greatly influenced by migration (Khan 2010; White & Woods 1980). Migration occurs under the influence of a number of factors (Kosinski & Prothero 1975; Bhagat & Mohanty 2009), and the local particular development milieu determines the factors, responsible for migration (Mabogunje 1970; Zelinsky 1971). Internal migration is classified into four types on the basis of settlement status of native and destination places. These four types are; rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural (Bose, 1974).

In developing countries there is a big difference in socio-economic development between rural and urban areas, which has led to increased rural to urban migration, because this imbalance in socio-economic development is the major factor responsible for migration as shown by the history (Sorensen et al., 2002). There are three factors responsible for increased population of urban areas: 1) natural growth of population, 2) rural to urban migration, 3) reclassification of rural areas as urban in the due course of time.

Rural to urban migration has accounted for two-fifth of the total urban growth in developing countries. The process can be considered as “over-urbanization” as long as (1) rural-urban migration results in misallocation of labor between rural and urban areas causing urban under-employment, unemployment and poverty, (2) The social cost for providing for a country growing population is increased by rural –urban migration (Gugler, 1988).

By drawing a marked difference between push and pull factors as deteriorating living conditions pertaining to agriculture with sub-standard marketing facilities, deteriorating infrastructure with no supporting institutions which could ensure the smooth provision of credit to small scale farmers, while on the other hand, the urban dwellers are fully acquainted with better job access, education and health care. This has, in turn, multiplied the problems for the urban settlement in the shape of over-population based on stress on local economic conditions with substandard public services coupled with fragile infrastructure to meet this growing burden. This process also embodies the very notion of urbanization with rapid population growth thus making a prevalent condition difficult to live in. Efficient governance at local level to be only the key to capture this problem. This governance must contain the paradigm shift with reference to authority towards municipalities along with policies and plans more action oriented based on quick response for poor urban people. This planning can certainly address the issues revolving around slums up gradation, improvement in water supply and management, Sanitation allied with efficient infrastructure (Hopkins, 2000).

Migration is a global phenomenon, signifies individual to nation movement with social, economic and political dimensions on consistent basis from one place to another involving rapid transformation. As a natural process always in process of seeking comfortable while acquiring on modernization and development (Hopkins, 2002).

This paper is based on as focusing the effects of migration from Chitral to Peshawar on the relative life standard of the migrants. The paper proceeded with analyzing the difference on the socio-economic profile of the respondents in light of this intra state migration.

Materials and Methods

The universe of the study KPK, Peshawar with population comprising those Chitralese migrated from Chitral to Peshawar. A sample size of 500 respondents were randomly selected including businessmen and skilled persons as representative of each household and their dependent family members back in District Chitral through proportional allocation as 50: 450 for businessmen and workers strength respectively.

Showing the distribution of respondents and their characteristics

Nature of respondents	Area	Number
Businessmen	Peshawar	25
Businessmen families	Chitral	25
Skilled workers	Peshawar	225
Skilled workers families	Chitral	225
Total		500

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Table-I: Frequency and Percentage Distribution according to the amount spent on Health before and after migration.

Amount spent on health before and after migration	Before migration		After migration	
Spiritual treatment	0----- 2000	211(84.4%)	500-10000	102(40.8%)
Home-made treatment	2001----- 4000	17(6.8%)	10001-20000	60(24%)
Hakim	4001---- 6000	17(6.8%)	20001-30000	72(28.8%)
Qualified doctors	6001—8000	5(2.0)	30001-40000	11(4.4%)
Private-doctor	0	0	40001-50000	5(2.0%)
Amount spent on housing conditions				
Mud-houses	1-50000	136(54.4%)	1-100000	134(53.6%)
Semi-concrete houses	50001-100000	111(44.4%)	100001-200000	100(40.0%)

Concrete houses	100001-150000	3(1.2%)	200001-300000	16(6.4%)
Educational Level of children				
Primary	1---15000	213(85.2%)	1—13750	24(9.6%)
Metric	15001----30000	36(14.4%)	13751—27500	83(33.2%)
Intermediate	30001—45000	1(0.4%)	27501—41250	120(48.0%)
Higher education	0	0	41251—55000	23(9.2%)
Amount spent on households goods				
Washing machine	1----5000	249(99.6%)	1----25000	66(26.4%)
Refrigerator	5001----10000	1(0.4%)	25001---50000	12(4.8%)
Furniture	0	0	50001---75000	172(68.8%)
Amount spent on daily use items				
Grocery	1---15000	139(55.6%)	1---15000	35(14.0%)
Clothes/shoes	15001---30000	107(42.8%)	15001---30000	62(24.8%)
Food	30001—45000	4(1.6%)	30001—45000	142(56.8%)
Vehicle expenses	0	0	45001-60000	11(4.4%)
Total		250(100)		250(100)

The above table depicted that out of total (84.4%) of the respondents spent an amount of PRs.(0 to 2000) on spiritual treatment for health , followed by (6.8%) of the respondents spent up to PRs. (2001—4000) on home made treatment, (6.8%) of the respondents spent up to PRs.(4001—6000) on Hakeem and (2%) of the respondents spent up to PRs. (6001—8000) on Qualified doctors for health before migration. In rural areas the access to social and health facilities was either difficult or due to the historical development of biases that created Islands Privilege” in urban areas (Harrison, 1982; Lipton, 1976). Similarly, in rural Africa, economic deprivation has profound effects on health and other livelihood outcomes (Zulu, Dodoo, & Ezeh, 2002).

However, there was visible change appeared to spent amount on health after migration. Majority of the respondents i.e.(40.8%) claimed that they increased to spent amount on health PRs.(500—10000) on Spiritual treatment, followed by (24%) of the respondents up to PRs.(10001-20000) on home made treatment, (28.8%) of the respondents up to PRs.(20001-30000) on Hakim ,(4.4%) of the respondents claimed up to PRs.(30001-40000) on qualified doctors and (2%) of the respondents disclosed up to PRs.(40001-50000) on private doctors after migration in the targeted areas.

These results pointed out that remittances played an important role to invest more on health after migration of the respondents. These findings were supporting the out-come that migration increases the awareness about health in addition to the direct effect on wealth, which had led to lower rates of infant deaths and higher birth weights in Mexico (Hildebrandt & McKenzie, 2005).

Furthermore, majority of the respondents i.e.(54.4%) claimed that they spent between PRs. (1 to 5000) on Mud house before migration, followed by (44.4%) of the respondents between Rs.(50001—10000) on semi-concrete houses and (1.2%) of the respondents between Rs. (100001—150000) on concrete houses. Majority of the households were living in stone made houses in hilly areas and were not able to invest more in their houses due to extreme poverty.

Likewise, The distribution of households on the basis of amount spent on housing conditions after migration showed that majority (53.6%) of the respondents claimed between Rs. (1—100000) on mud houses, followed by (40%) of the respondents disclosed between Rs (100001—200000) on semi-concrete houses and (6.4%) of the respondents between Rs. (200001—300000) on concrete houses. It was concluded from the data that after migration the people earned money and invested a lot on their houses. Rachel Murphy (2002) found that during the interview of the respondents the question of priority was the amount spent on house building.

Results further highlight that the highest number i.e.(85.2%) of the respondents spent an amount between up to Rs. (1—15001) on primary children education before migration, followed by (14.4%) of the respondents up to PRs. (15001—30000) on metric, while (0.4%) of the respondents had spent up to PRs. (30001—45000)on intermediate per year. Majority of the households invested less money on children education due to poverty. In this regard, Afsar (1995) claimed that as compared to non migrants the migrants often benefited more because of their innovative, risk taking and desperate nature. The benefits included higher or regular income, gain in wealth, greater access to public services and education.

The investment on children education increased after migration of one of the household member. In this regard (48%) of the respondents spent an amount of Rs. 27501 to Rs. 41250 on intermediate education after migration, followed by (33.2%) up to (13751—27500) on metric and the remaining (9.6%) of the respondents claimed between up to Rs.(1—13750) on primary education. Similarly, Mansuri 2006) says that in rural Pakistan temporary migration is an important factor for higher school enrollment of girls.

Furthermore, majority of the respondents i.e.(99.6%) spent an amount between up to Rs.(1—5000) on washing machine before migration while (0.4%) had spent an amount between up to (5001—10000) on refrigerator before migration. In this perspective (Oda, 2007) explained his findings that households of migrants had better economic position than those of non migrants due to foreign remittances.

In addition, the table disclosed that (68.8%) of the respondents had spent an amount from PRs .5001 to PRs. 7500 on furniture after migration followed by (26.4%) of the respondents as between of Rs.(1---2500) on washing machine while (4.8%) of the respondents claimed as between Rs. (2501—5000) on refrigerator

after migration . Most of the sample households had durables such as refrigerators, air conditioners, televisions, etc. in significant number after migration.

It is further explored that majority of the respondents i.e.(55.6%) spent amount between PRs.(1----15000) on grocery before migration, followed by(42.8%) of the respondents who spent between PRs.(15001—30000) on clothes/shoes and (1.6%) of the respondents who spent between (30001—45000) on food before migration. The findings of Arrehag *et al.*, (2005) were similar who found that most of the respondents claimed that they used remittances primarily on ‘clothing and food’, compared to when they were questioned what the remittances had allowed them to buy, showing that people did not always use the transfer in the way in which they claim they intend to. As against, calculation on the purchase of daily use items after migration indicated that (56.8%) of the respondents spent an amount PRs.(30001 to PRs. 45000) on food after migration, followed by (24.8%) of the respondents who claimed amount spent between (15001—30000) on clothes/shoes and (14%) PRs.1 to PRs,15000 on grocery. It is concluded from the data that there is a big difference in the purchase of daily use items before and after migration of the household’s members in the targeted areas.

Table 2 Showing T-test statistics.

Statement	Before		After		Mean difference	T-value	Significant value(2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Error	Mean	Standard Error			
Amount Spent on Health	1232.76	103.785	15239.48	664.276	-14006.720	-22.020	0.000
Amount Spent on Housing Conditions	53844.00	1465.627	126800.00	6595.700	-72956.000	-11.310	0.000
Amount Spent on Education of children	10978.80	399.069	30010.00	1395.485	-19031.200	-14.024	0.000
Amount Spent on Household Goods	60.00	44.649	7604.00	310.954	-7544.00	-24.564	0.000
Amount Spent on Daily Use Items	15858.00	526.543	33313.60	1672.071	-17455.600	-11.396	0.000

H_0 = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect health.

H_1 = Amount spent per year after migration affect health.

Table 2 provides information that amount spent after migration on health services was highly significant as indicated ($P=0.000$). It is apparent that the null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between amounts spent after migration on health services is confirmed. Moreover, It further indicates towards conformity of the mean value (-14006.720) that migration has positively contributed towards improvements in health services. Similar conclusion were also disclosed by (UNDP, 2009) that Visiting and returning migrants may bring back health-improved practices such as drinking safe water and better sanitation etc.

H_0 =Amount spent per year after migration do not affect housing conditions

H_1 = Amount spent per year after migration affect housing conditions.

It is pertinent to mention that amount spent after migration on housing conditions was highly significant relationship ($P=0.000$). Thus the null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between the amount spent after migration on housing conditions is confirmed.

Amount spent after migration affect housing conditions in the targeted areas as indicated by the mean value (-72956.000). It is clearly depicted from this relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in house hold conditions. Mexican migrants were more likely to make investments in housing than other activities which increases household production as disclosed by (Durand et al., 1996).

H_0 =Amount spent per year after migration don't affect children education.

H_1 =Amount spent per year after migration affects children education.

The study further explored that amount spent after migration on educational level of children showed a highly significant relationship ($P=0.000$). It is apparent that null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between amount spent after migration on education of children is confirmed by the mean (-19031.200). It is clear from this relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in educational level of the children as concluded by World Bank, (2007). Remittances from family members are often used for investment in education and healthcare, which improves the human capital base of the household for future generations.

H_0 = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect house hold goods.

H_1 =Amount spent per year after migration affects house hold goods.

On conformity to the above results, a highly significant ($P=0.000$) relationship was explored on household goods spending after migration. Thus leading to the acceptance of more spending as with rejection of null hypothesis respectively. Moreover, it was further endorsed by the mean value (-7544.00). These findings indicate towards the positive relationship between household improvements in goods. Supporting findings as disclosed by (Gage et al, 1997), where a linear relationship was detected between parents, number of children and household conditions.

H_0 = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect livestock.

H_1 =Amount spent per year after migration affects livestock.

According to study amount spent after migration on livestock showed a highly significant relationship ($P=0.000$). It is clear from the significant value that null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between amounts spent after migration on livestock is confirmed, which was further endorsed by the mean value (-49484.000). So a positive relationship of money and number of livestock was the eminent out come of this relationship. Which were in line to Funkhouser (1992) finds that, in Nicaragua, remittances increase self-employment in men, but reduce labor supply in women.

H_0 = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect indoor- recreational facilities.

H_1 = Amount spent per year after migration affects indoor-recreational facilities.

The above mentioned working hypothesis was approved as indicated by the significant relationship ($P=0.000$) with the rejection of null hypothesis. It means that spending on indoor recreational activities was significantly increased after migration. This was also confirmed by mean value (-11593.200) which led to the confirmation of a positive and high co-relation between the fore mentioned variables.

Conclusion and Suggestions

There has been considerable increase in inflows of migrant remittances from Peshawar to District Chitral which led to the improvement in household conditions as a return due to increase both in income and consumption respectively. Remittances were found as major contributors in eradicating poverty and bringing improved life standard with enjoying basic amenities of life in the place of migration (Chitral) and even in migration (Peshawar). Thus improvements include the health aspect, education and recreational facilities. The provision and availabilities of such facilities were proved highly determinant in the status enhancement of the respondents in the study area. Keeping into considerations the effects of migration, proper use of remittances, under the umbrella of local leadership for making it more durable in terms of structural and functional perspectives of the area were suggested as policy recommendations.

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