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EXTERNAL DEBT AND INCOME INEQUALITY IN PAKISTAN

Naeem Akram¹

Abstract:

NGO's and anti-globalization movements have propagated the view that instead of helping the poor, debt has increased the miseries of the poor. The study tries to examine the effects of external debt on income inequality in Pakistan for the period 1975-2008. An empirical model to incorporate the effects of debt on income inequality has been developed. The said model has been estimated by using Autoregressive Distributed Lags (ARDL) technique. The results show that public external debt and debt servicing have a positive and significant relationship with the GINI coefficient indicating that an increase in debt will result in widening income inequality and external debt has adverse distributional impacts on the poor.

Keywords: External Debt, Openness, Income Inequality, ARDL

JEL Classification: H63, I32, F41, C32

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1. Introduction

At the beginning of 21st century, the developing world has been facing two major inter-related problems i.e. heavy indebtedness and raising inequality between the rich and the poor. Together they have important implications for the economic development. Due to pressure from NGOs and anti-globalization movement; IMF, World Bank and other IFIs have somewhat belatedly linked debt relief with poverty reduction programs.

The standard theoretical models have been found silent regarding the transmission mechanisms between high external debt and income inequality. Similarly, very limited empirical studies are available analyzing the impact of indebtedness on income distribution. Both theoretical and empirical literature covers the issue of external debt in the context of its consequences for economic growth, but it does not always explicitly link to distributional impacts of growth. However, it has been assumed that economic growth paves the way to poverty alleviation. Debt-poverty issue is closely linked with the sustainability problem of external debt. In general, debt sustainability conditions state a position in which a country has the capability to service its debt compulsions. In creditor's view, debt sustainability is satisfied when the country meets its debt-service obligations after implementation of different debt rescheduling measures. The NGOs' definition regarding debt sustainability is more concerned with human development needs, requiring incorporation of poverty issue in HIPC initiatives (Befekadu, 2001).

According to traditional neoclassical models, at the initial stages of economic development, countries have limited capital stocks and investment opportunities; therefore, capital mobility increases the economic growth (Chowdhury, 2001). As long as these borrowed resources are being used for investment, countries may not face macroeconomic instability. Burnside (2000) has shown that under certain conditions external borrowing contributes positively to economic growth. Similarly, domestic savings and investment are also positively affected by external debt. It implies that foreign savings balanced the domestic savings (Eaton, 1993).

However, external debt also has adverse implications for investment and economic growth. A broad rationalization of these effects is referred to as “debt overhang” theory. It states that if there is a probability that a country’s future debt will be higher than its repayment ability then anticipated costs of debt-servicing will reduce the investment (Krugman, 1988; Karagol, 2002). Similarly, in order to service the external debt if foreign capital is used then little resource will remain to finance the growth and investment, this channel is known as “crowding out” effect.

It can be summarized that effects of high external indebtedness on poverty reduction and income inequality seem not to be well explored empirically. Therefore, there is a dire need for a comprehensive study, exploring the links between external debt and income inequality. This is the focus of the present study and it will repair this gap in the present literature.

The paper is organized in the following way: section one provides a brief introduction of the study, section two summarizes the literature review on the issue, section three discusses empirical model along with data sources and main variables. Sections four summarizes estimation results and the last section summarizes the study by giving certain policy implications.

2. Literature Review

Over the last three decades, numerous studies are conducted on external debt-economic growth nexuses. According to Kruger (1987) external debt has played a positive and important role in the economic development of the economies. Whereas most of the studies including that of Sachs (1990), Levy and Chowdhury (1993), Cunningham (1993), Fosu (1996, 1999, 2007), Cohen (1996), Chowdhury (2001), Lin and Sosin (2001), Kumar and Woo (2010), Akram (2011) and Elmeskov and Sutherland (2012) finds that external debt has negatively affected the economic growth. The studies based on the overlapping generation models suggest that gains and losses of the external debt are unequally distributed and most of the benefits of growth are reaped by the future generations while the costs are borne by the present generation (Dellas and

Galor, 1992). In recent times the concept of “Debt Laffer Curve” has got popularity among the economists and in various studies optimal level of external debt has been estimated.

However, relationship between debt accumulation and income inequality or poverty is examined in only a few studies. Nevertheless, to some extent this relationship is implicitly present in the analyses of debt and economic growth. Prechel (1985) finds that government faces severe pressure to curtail debt burden when it crosses a certain limit, due to low revenue they have no other choice except to curtail public expenditures. However, to initiate social programs (at low level of debt) the government can utilise taxes obtained from industry and debt accumulation can be avoided. The conclusion is that the exports enhance income inequality but a higher debt does not. Moreover, the covariant analysis shows that in developing countries inequality is affected more by exports in comparison with the developed countries.²

Hoogvelt (1990) is of the view that during 1970s most of the outstanding debt of the developing countries was originally contracted at low and fixed interest rates. This debt was rescheduled in early 1980s—the era of floating interest rates. IMF’s conditionality rules and World Bank’s structural adjustment programs have allowed economic interventions in the debtor countries, the cost of which has tended to exceed the direct administration cost of the former colonial governments. The officially stated aims of these policies have been to stimulate economic growth, stabilize domestic economies and to enhance a country’s ability to accumulate foreign exchange reserves required for foreign debt servicing. However, even by IMF/WB’s own

² It is worth mentioning here that this result is not in line with the neo-classical trade theory (Heckscher-Ohlin version), which says that exports tend to reduce inequality by transferring resources from the capital-intensive import substitution industries to labour intensive export industries. This increases both the relative and absolute share of wages in total income—by the Stolper-Samuelson (1941) Theorem. This was also confirmed by many other studies including those by Kruger (1978) and Naqvi(1996).

macroeconomic standards (growth, stability and foreign exchange earnings) these policies are an unmitigated failure.

Loko et al (2003) has found that poverty is not only affected by external debt's negative impacts on economic growth and public investment but debt repayments tends to crowd out the social spending. A high debt servicing curtails the government budgetary allocations on social safety nets, education, health, water and sanitation because for the government, it is relatively easy to cut the spending on these sectors in comparison with other expenditures. It may be noted that growth and poverty are affected not only by debt policies but also by the variety of macroeconomic policies designed to restore fiscal balance.

Syed and Tahir (1999) find that one percent increase in the household income would reduce the poverty by 0.29 percent in urban and 0.27 percent in rural areas. It further reveals that while keeping the distribution of income constant, if income increased to one percent then it will reduce poverty in equal terms both in urban and rural areas.

Eastwood and Lipton (2001) have shown that economic growth on average does not always redistribute income equitably. Growth has been relatively anti-poor in those countries, which start with high inequality and where agricultural growth is anti-poor. An interesting case study is that of Vietnam, where growth has reduced poverty somewhat but not the degree of inequality (Fritzen , 2002).

Gradstein and Milanovic (2004) find that democracy results in reducing the income inequality, however the length of democracy in a country matters a lot in this regard. Contrary to that Dreher and Gaston (2008) finds that democratization has increased the inequality in OECD countries. According to Chatterjee and Turnovsky (2012) government expenditure has reduced the income inequality in the short run but in the long run income inequality increases.

Dollar and Kraay (2003) finds that the rule of law, openness, moderate size of government, low inflation and sound financial development have a significant impact on income inequality. Growth

in trade, improvement in law and order reduces income inequality, while higher inflation, higher government consumption and financial development will increase the income inequality. The conclusion is that economic growth benefits poor in the same way as anyone else in the society. However, the strength of poverty-reducing effects depends on income distribution (Bigsten and Shimeles, 2004). Contrary to Dollar (2003) assertions, Ravallion (2004) concludes that countries having high inequality and income will also have a relatively high elasticity for the poverty, indicating that for poverty alleviation, redistribution policies are more effective.

3. Data and Methodology:

The present study uses the time series data of Pakistan spanning over 1975-2008. The data sources and some background of the variables used in the present study are tabulated below.

Table 1: Data Sources

| Sr. | Variables | Data Source | Comments |
|-----|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1 | GINI Coefficient | WIID ³ + WDI ⁴ | To measure income inequality, share of bottom 20% to 40%, GINI Coefficient, Watt Index have been used in different studies. In the present study GINI coefficient will be used in percentage form. It ranges from 0 equal distributions to 100: unequal distribution. It is worth noting here that reliability and availability of data for the income inequality has been a major constraint. There are certain missing values, which were filled by using interpolation technique available in E-views 7.0. |
| 2. | Per Capita GDP (Yt) | WDI | In the literature numerous indicators for economic growth have been used e.g. GDP growth rate, Per capita GDP, Real GNP, Real GDP etc. We have selected the per capita GDP. |
| 3. | External debt (ED_Y) | GDF ⁵ | Existing studies on the external debt suggest different indicators to measure the debt. In this regard debt/GDP, debt/exports, external debt/foreign reserves, external debt/revenue and external debt servicing/exports ratios are most widely used. |
| 4 | Debt Servicing (DS_X) | GDF | The present study uses the external debt as percentage of GDP and debt servicing as percentage of exports. |
| 5. | Openness (Op) | WDI | Selection of the best measure of openness is rather controversial. In this regard, real exports, tariffs and quotas, balance of trade, real imports and (exports + imports) as percentage of GDP are widely used. The present study will use the (exports+ Imports)/GDP in percentage. |
| 6. | Inflation (Inf) | WDI | GDP deflator and consumer price index (CPI) are mostly used to |

³ World Income Inequality Database

⁴ World Development Indicators

⁵ Global Development Finance

4-Estimation Methodology

With the intention to avoid spurious regression in the time series, first of all it has been checked that whether the series is non-stationary or stationary⁶; for that purpose the unit root tests has been used. The present study has applied ADF unit root test, the results suggest that some variables in the model are I(0) and other are I(1) variables⁷. In such circumstances the most appropriate method is the Autoregressive distributed lags model (ARDL) cointegration method suggested by Pesaran et al (2001). In this regard the basic conditional VECM equation of the empirical model can be written as:

$$\Delta gini_t = \alpha + \gamma_1 gini_{t-1} + \gamma_2 op_{t-1} + \gamma_3 inf_{t-1} + \gamma_4 y_{t-1} + \gamma_5 ed_{t-1} + \gamma_6 ds_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \omega_i \Delta gini_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \tau_i \Delta op_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \sigma_i \Delta inf_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \pi_i \Delta y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \beta_i \Delta ed_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \phi_i \Delta ds_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \text{ -----1}$$

Where α and ε_t denotes intercept and error term respectively and $\beta, \phi, \tau, \omega, \pi, \sigma$, represent the short run dynamic coefficients and $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_6$ are the long run coefficients. Similarly $gini, inf, y, op, ed_y$ and ds_x represent GINI coefficient, inflation, per capita GDP, openness, external debt as percentage of GDP, debt servicing as percentage of exports.

From equation 1 the short run and the long run relationships can be estimated. Although the order of integration does not matter much in ARDL approach, however, if any variable is I(2) then on that variable ARDL technique cannot be applied.

5-Estimation results

The null hypothesis of no co-integration has been applied on equation 1. i.e.

$$H_0: \gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = \gamma_3 = \gamma_4 = \gamma_5 = \gamma_6 = 0$$

$$H_1: \gamma_1 \neq \gamma_2 \neq \gamma_3 \neq \gamma_4 \neq \gamma_5 \neq \gamma_6 \neq 0$$

Keeping in view the limited number of observation, maximum lag length of 2 will be used for the model and the specification of unrestricted intercept and no trend (Case III of Pesaran et. al. (2001)) has been used. The results of Bound F-test are tabulated below.

⁶ Newbold (1974)

⁷ For the results of unit root tests see Appendix

Table 2: Bound F-test results

| F-Statistic Value | Lag length | Significance level | Bound Critical Values ⁸ | |
|-------------------|------------|--------------------|------------------------------------|------|
| | | | I(0) | I(1) |
| 3.96 | 2 | 1% | 3.15 | 4.43 |
| | | 5% | 2.45 | 3.61 |
| | | 10% | 2.12 | 3.23 |

The estimation results suggest that calculated value of F-statistic has exceeded the upper bound limit at 5% level of significance, hence there exists a co-integrating relationship. Now in the next step of ARDL procedure the long run coefficients will be estimated. SBC criteria have been used to select optimal lag length. The long-run results are summarized in table 3:

Table 3: Long Run Estimation Results (1,0,1,0,1,0)

| Variables | Coefficient | Standard Error | t-Statistic |
|--|-----------------|----------------|-------------|
| Constant | 4.019* | 1.546 | 2.600 |
| OP (Openness) | 0.292* | 0.116 | 2.517 |
| YT (Per Capita GDP) | -0.237* | 0.076 | -3.112 |
| INF (Inflation) | 0.052* | 0.019 | 2.814 |
| ED_Y (External debt as % of GDP) | 0.210* | 0.091 | 2.302 |
| DS_X (Debt Servicing as % of exports) | 0.057* | 0.014 | 4.056 |
| R-Squared | 0.619 | | |
| Adjusted R ² | 0.582 | | |
| Serial correlation LM test | 0.387 -0.730 | | |
| F-Statistics | 3.758 | | |
| P value of F-Statistics | 0.004 | | |

* and ** denote significance at 5% and 10 % level respectively

⁸ Pesaran et. al. (2001)

6-Long run Relationships

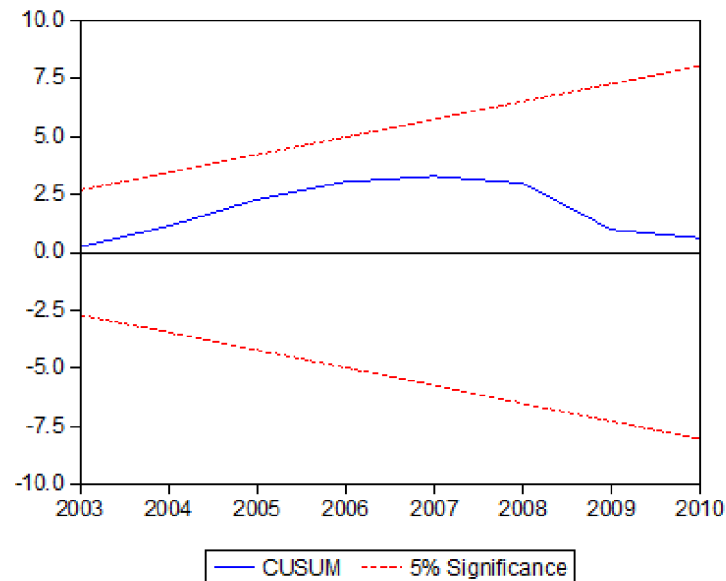
Both debt servicing as percentage of exports and external debt as a percentage of GDP have a positive and significant relationship with GINI revealing that public external debt has negative consequences for the income distribution. The reason seems to be that over the years Pakistan tended to finance fiscal deficit by resorting to external debt. What makes it worse is that instead of financing development expenditure, external debt has been mainly used to finance current expenditure (defense, interest payment etc.) and it has increased the miseries of the poor. Openness also has a significant and positive relationship with GINI coefficient, it supports the viewpoint of anti-globalization movement. The results also indicate that per capita GDP has a negative and significant impact on GINI Coefficient. This finding support the Dollar (2003), Page (2006)—namely, that per capita GDP reduces income inequality and is helpful for the poor. However, it is worthwhile to point out that the benefits of economic growth depend on the degree of pre-existing inequality, types of growth etc. There are both direct and indirect effects of per capita GDP growth on income inequality: increase in per capita GDP gets some of the poor out of poverty that can lead to a reduction in income inequality directly. Similarly, a higher growth rate of the GDP stimulates revenue generation, which should tend to raise the volume of public investments directed to bring the poor into the economic mainstream. Both of these effects tend to decrease income inequality. Inflation tends to have a positive and significant relationship with GINI coefficient. It can be inferred that inflation has increased the income inequality and comparatively the poor segments of the society have adversely been affected by inflation. Satisfactory goodness of fit of the model is confirmed by the high value of R square and the significant F-statistic. Furthermore, the results of the serial correlation LM test suggest the non-existence of the serial correlation. The results of the short run error correction model are reported in table 4.

Table 4 Error correction results of ARDL model

| Variables | Coefficient | Standard Error | t-Statistic |
|--------------------------------|-------------|----------------|-------------|
| Constant | -1.036 | 1.010 | -1.026 |
| D(OP) | 0.149* | 0.067 | 2.226 |
| D(YT) | 0.369 | 0.319 | 1.156 |
| D(YT(-1)) | -0.026 | 0.017 | -1.486 |
| D(INF) | 0.033* | 0.010 | 3.224 |
| D(ED_Y) | 0.323 | 0.315 | 1.026 |
| D(ED_Y(-1)) | 0.103 | 0.100 | 1.023 |
| D(DS_X) | -0.013 | 0.021 | -0.589 |
| ECT(-1) | -0.746* | 0.291 | -2.559 |
| R-Squared | 0.5447 | | |
| Adjusted R2 | 0.5684 | | |
| F-Statistics | 4.5448 | | |
| P value of F Statistics | 0.0054 | | |

* and ** denote significance at 5% and 10 % level respectively

The significant error correction term further confirms the existence of a stable long-run relationship among variables (Bannerjee et al., 1998). The coefficient of error correction term also represents the speed of adjustment. Hence it can be inferred that after one year approximately 75% of adjustment towards the long-run equilibrium is completed. Hence it can be concluded that change in income inequality is the outcome of the effects of macroeconomic policies that spread over the years. In other words, if due to a sudden change in one period pattern of income inequality changes, then in the next period it reverts to its previous position. The short run results suggest that in the short run only few macroeconomic variables have a significant impact on GINI coefficient suggesting that changes in income inequality are mainly traceable to long-run macro-economic policies. The short run results shows that only openness and inflation have positive and significant relationship with GINI coefficient indicating a very strong distributional impacts because not only in the long run but also in the short run openness and inflation leads to increasing the income inequality. The cumulative sum (CUSUM) graph shows that the coefficient of the short run lies within the critical limits, indicating the stability in coefficients over the sample period.

Figure 1 CUSUM test results

7-Conclusions and Policy Implications

The study analyses the consequences of external debt for income inequality. It has been found that the size of external debt has a significant and positive relationship with income inequality. It suggests that the policy of using loans for reducing the poverty/income inequality has yielded negative effects. It can be concluded that instead of relying on loans Pakistan should mobilize the tax revenue and increase exports. In this regard it is suggested that there is a need to create tax payers friendly environment and tax structure may be made understandable. The loopholes in tax legislation must be removed to bring the various untouchable sectors into the tax net. There is around 7% disparity in taxes between the large scale and the small scale industries by removing this disparity approximately 50 to 60 billion of revenue can be generated.

Instead of the “push strategy” the government should work on the “Pull strategy” and give some incentives to the tax payers to broaden the tax net e.g. quotas in government housing schemes, admissions in universities, medical colleges etc. This strategy will increase the tax compliance which will lead to the documentation of the economy. The tax rate should be reduced, it will help in reducing tax evasions because tax evasion in itself has a cost. The present study also shows that openness leads towards increasing the income inequality. It can be suggested that trade and openness should be supplemented with pro-poor policies. For example, preference may be given to those sectors of the economy that uses the methods of labour intensive technologies. So that unemployment may not increase, foreign investors must be directed that they spend a considerable portion of their profits on the development projects of the poor etc. There can be various other options but it is beyond the ambit of this study. It is also recommended that policy makers should keep the level of inflation under control. Because the rising level of inflation increases income inequality, an active anti-inflation policy has much merit as a tool of development policy. For a comprehensive analysis of the impact of public external debt on poverty and income inequality, a micro-level study will be extremely useful. In such study, the various foreign aid/loan funded development projects may be analyzed in the context of their impacts on the local community and the poverty reduction efforts. It is worthwhile to point out that differentiation of the effects of a foreign loan funded project and a local currency project is very difficult. However, in this context as reference point it is stated that in most of the developing countries, due to low capacity mega projects are started with the help of donor agencies. Therefore, analysis of the impacts of mega projects on poverty reduction will serve the purpose.

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ANNEXURE

Table A: Results of unit root test

| Name of Variable | Level | | | 1st Difference | | |
|------------------|-----------|---------------------|----------|----------------|---------------------|------|
| | Intercept | Trend and Intercept | None | Intercept | Trend and Intercept | None |
| Yt | -1.3221 | -3.1981 | -3.2679 | -4.0706* | --- | --- |
| OP | -2.3577 | 0.2840 | -5.8214* | --- | --- | --- |
| INF | -3.3407* | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| ED_Y | -1.0196 | -1.1822 | -1.2278 | -4.6189* | --- | --- |
| DS_X | -2.1465 | -2.9803 | -0.7977 | -8.0832* | --- | --- |
| CINI | -4.5808* | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |

Null Hypothesis: Existence of unit root; *, ** denotes the rejection of Null at 5% and 10% level respectively.

IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES ON WORKING WOMEN IN PAKISTAN'S AGRICULTURAL SECTOR

Urfi Khalid¹

Abstract:

The application of modern technology and policy support to agriculture has helped boost yields and shorten cropping cycles around the world. But the benefits have come at a price. A new literature has emerged which argues that the progressive incorporation of modern technology and practices in agriculture lead to marginalization of women, diminishment of their role in key decision making processes within their community, and ecology which sustains all agriculture. This study reviews the literature of Ecofeminists who perceive that modern agricultural development policies have resulted in depriving women of their control over their means of production and has reduced their personal and economic autonomy causing a “feminisation of poverty.” These policies have created new dependencies on unsustainable practices like agro-chemicals and have also damaged natural diversity. Ecofeminists inter-link the issues of damage to natural diversity and displacement of women from their control of the microcosm of their life.

Keywords: Policies, Agriculture, Ecofeminism, Working Women.

JEL Classification: Z000

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Introduction:

Pakistan historically has been an agricultural economy. Agriculture therefore is a strategic activity in Pakistan. It employs half of the labour force and contributes one quarter of the GDP (EIU, 1997). Women are an equal player and play a predominant role in agriculture in Pakistan. According to the Labor Survey of Pakistan (2006/07), 70% of female labor force is engaged in agriculture and its allied fields. However female participation remains underreported. If data collection is realistic women's participation seems phenomenal. In subsistence agriculture women form the back bone of agricultural production by taking an active part in all related activities in sowing, transplanting, weeding and harvesting, as well as in post-harvest operations such as threshing, winnowing, drying, grinding, husking and storage (including making mud bins for storage). A part from these activities women's contribution is substantive in seed preparation and collection and application of farmyard manure, (Freedman and Wai, 1988 cited by Iftikhar in 2009). In poorer households in rain fed agriculture when often crop production is below subsistence level, males take up work in nonfarm sectors in towns and women carry the whole burden of agriculture at home. As subsistence farmer rural women play a vital role in the production of food crop meeting the food requirements of the country and are in control of food security.

Invisible activities for rural women include carrying eatables from home for men working in the fields, kitchen gardening in cotton growing areas, cleaning and drying farm produce for storage. These are done in addition to the house work chores which range between cooking, cleaning, looking after the children, collecting fuel for domestic use, fetching drinking water from a far off source and sometimes construction of the house as well. Her working day definitely adds up to 12/15 hours (ESCAP, 1997). This indepth involvement is viewed by ecofeminists as empirical knowledge of the

whole system and as a source of strength and a tool of control for her life. Apart from growing food crops, she is also engaged in cotton crop production in Pakistan. In growing of labour intensive crops like rice and cotton women's participation is significant (cited by FAO, Mumtaz, 1993) where women spend 39.34% and 50.42% of their time in rice and cotton growing areas respectively (United Nations, 1986). Cotton picking is exclusively a female dominated activity. In Sind rice and cotton together engage one third of female labour and are increasingly contributing to the foreign exchange earnings (S. M. Alam, 2006). This participation is the highest in cotton production in the Punjab. The global demand of cotton has led to higher levels of feminization in agriculture (GOP, 1995). While modernising methods of farming have definitely displaced her position of control over productive resources, they have not benefitted her in reducing her workload. The arguments of ecofemonists seem to largely conform to conditions of women in non industrial developing countries.

Literature Review:

Ecofeminism is an approach which draws a correlation between women's participation in traditional agricultural practices and sustainability of environment. To understand the effect of agricultural development policies on the life of rural women, the study reviews Ecofeminist's critique. The term Ecofeminism was first used in 1974 by Francoise d'Eaubonne when she 'called for a feminist revolution to ensure ecological survival', (cited by Howell, N. R. 1997). Ecofeminism is an academic and an activist movement. The theory propounds that the domination of women and the domination of nature is triggered by the western model of development and is inter linked in the society (Plant Judith, 1989. Howell, Karren J. Warren, 1990). Ecofeminists identify a strong connection between degradation of nature and oppression of women (Mary Mellor, 1997) and argue that human endeavour to dominate nature and exploit women stem from the same roots (, Lois Ann Lorentzen, 2002 cited by I. Shob).

Application of high technology in agriculture has lead to the destruction of ecology and has also strengthened social inequalities at the expense of women specially so in the third world. The feminist critics focus on exploitative and health threatening methods of production due to technological modernization and global capitalism, which has resulted in a lack of access to resources for women resulting in "Feminisation of poverty". Moreover, women in subsistence economies while using seeds from the same crop reinforce the natural reproductive system, using animal waste for replenishing the soil fertility, and crop byproducts as animal feed and thus internally recycle the resource. They bring water to the fields and home through the traditional methods without any wastage of the resource. These processes maintain the integrity of ecological cycle. Through such complex labour processes over centuries of hands- on experience, women have acquired the empirical knowledge of organic relations or of ecology (Shiva, 1989). Which makes them the daily managers of the living environment and gives them the ability to innovate sustainable methods in agriculture (I. Sobha, 2007). But this traditional expertise of women is being eroded and erased due to new technologies like the indiscriminate use of agri-chemical, and linear and segment development policies of the western model of the green revolution. Such policies break the flow of the cycle of ecology, and result in the degradation of nature (Shiva, 1989).Culturally poverty is perceived as the deprivation of women of their control over their means of production and thus erosion of their personal and economic autonomy (Mellor, 1997). Ecologists critique assigns equal importance to all the elements of nature. Feminists also assert equality of men and women. Ecofeminists consider the impacts of globalisation in creating concepts like the patriarchal capitalism and neo-colonisation. Which have created hierarchies of domination in the world as men dominating women and the North dominating resources in the South. (Mies, M. , Shiva, V. 1993). The hierarchy theory is constructed around the common belief that reality exists as dualism i.e. man/woman, mind/body, reason/ emotion, human/nature, active/passive, and so forth. In this belief the

former is supposedly the superior force and therefore a hierarchy exists in reality (Howell, 1990). According to this structure women and nature are placed on the same side and are exploited by human efforts (Shiva, V.1989). Activists of Ecofeminism pursue to build a society in a relationship of mutuality rather than of domination (Howell, Karren J. Warren, Howell 1990). They perceive developed world as completely dependent on the labour of the underdeveloped world for their everyday needs (Plant, J. 1989). This labour is predominantly female labour but is being dominated by male policies which are dislocating her superiority. Ecofeminist's perspective cannot be singularly defined but it certainly displays a common goal for restoring the quality of natural environment and social equality.

This study is to find out prevalence of Ecofeminist's concerns in Pakistan Agriculture. The study ascertains whether modernisation of agriculture has impacted women negatively, has displaced them from their position occupied in subsistence economies and in the process has definitely resulted in degradation of environment in Pakistan.

Methodology:

The present study is phenomenological and descriptive in nature. To pursue the research question this paper reviews the literature of Ecofeminists who perceive that modern agricultural policies have displaced women from their position of control. This position of control they have acquired through practicing the traditional farming methods for centuries. Women while practicing these methods remain in close contact with nature in traditional economies and are custodians of nature. These policies have also resulted in the degradation of ecology. Ecofeminists link the displacement of women and degradation of environment with the patriarchal capitalist policies of development in agriculture.

The review of the secondary data of agriculture in Pakistan describes the model of subsistence economies and enumerates in-depth participation by women in agriculture in Pakistan. The research question, whether development and global policies in agriculture have displaced women from their position of control and have resulted in degradation of nature, addresses a multidimensional issue and therefore covers a wide spectrum of women's life. The study further reviews published International and national reports and research data generated by field surveys carried out in the Pakistani provinces of the Panjab, Sind and Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa, through interviews and targeted questionnaires, on socio-economic conditions. A survey of a sample of 400 respondents chosen randomly from Bahawalpur district in Punjab examines socio-economic conditions of rural women after the introduction of modern agricultural policies in 1960s and 1980s. The data was collected through a pre tested interview schedule. It was interpreted using statistical package for social sciences. (version 17)

A study done in canal irrigated wheat and sugar cane growing districts of Faisalabad, Pakistan collected data from 384 farm families. Husband and wife teams from the same families were interviewed. This data was analysed using statistical package for social sciences. Frequency tables and descriptive statistics were subjected to the analysis of variance using SAS (Sample sub Set). This data closely links women welfare with variables of economic development as hybrid seeds, agri chemicals, food insecurity, lack of access to land and finally feminization of poverty. The findings of the data is studied with a view to determine whether definite gaps exist in male and female education, off farm earnings, work load and type of work for rural women. The data also registers resistance from conventional agricultural scientists towards acknowledging women's expertise, in knowledge and skills, in ensuring food security, in creation of wealth from agricultural sector and a lack of access to the productive resources for women in Pakistan. The research question is tested on the basis of the data studied, determining whether it has resulted in eroding the power women had in traditional way of life (as agricultural worker) as

well as in the dilapidation of nature. The implications of the study will work towards restoring women's control over their production resources and on conservation of nature.

Discussion:

Initially in agriculture modern policies were adopted as "Productive Package" in 1960. In Jhon Pender's discussion paper regarding the need for application of the Green Revolution policies he argues that soil is favourable in alluvial fertile Indus Plain (Wood, Sebastian and Scherr 2000 cited by John Pender) the rural population density in these areas is greater than 200 persons / kilometer (World Bank 2012) . Farm size is also small no more than a few hectares (Dixon, Gulliver and Gibbon 2001 cited by Pender, J) and labour/ land ratio is very high (Boserup 1965; Ruthenberg 1980 cited 2008). The constant increase in population and pressure on land triggered the research sponsored by, international funding agencies in agricultural development with a view to increasing food production. It was estimated that 56% of the world population lived with a food supply of 2200 calories per day which is the subsistence level of food (FAO, 1960). The efforts to achieve the target of increased food resulted in modernization of farming methods in the under developed non industrial countries (Reichmann, 2003 cited by Briney 2010). The Productive Package, promoted modernising three methods of farming. Namely the modern seeds, chemical fertilizers and chemical insecticides and pesticides.

The modern method of developing hybrid seeds resulted in breeding a new dwarf variety of wheat developed in Mexico (Berlaug 1970 cited by Briney 2010). This variety consists of similar, stalks of short height, of more even growth and is easier to harvest. It was first introduced in Pakistan wheat plant (Borlaug, N. 1970) which resulted in multiplying the yield / acre (Bhutto and Bazmi 2007). Increase in production of the crop was also achieved by breeds which would require shorter growing period so that double cropping may be

possible. In 1963 the new dwarf variety of wheat was planted on 55% wheat acreage in Pakistan (Berlaug 1970). This resulted in doubling the wheat production in the period between 1965 to 1970. However in subsistence economies improving seeds has historically been experimented with traditional seeds. Women in subsistence farming in Pakistan have the empirical knowledge of improving seeds and seed preparation. They use the same crop for seed and follow nature's reproduction cycle (Shiva 1989) versus the new seeds which have to be bought. They also act as custodians of seed (Freedman and Wai, 1988 cited by Iftikhar in 2009). A variety of other approaches historically have been adopted for plant production practices for example better suited species of the crop which have the adaptability to the site conditions. These seeds are more suitable to local environment and therefore are sustainable. In a study of Bahawalpur districts Iftikhar (2007) identifies intensive training needs for younger women between the ages of 30-40 yrs in crop production in pre and post harvesting processes. In this study he points to the correlation between younger age and positive need for more training. Younger generation females are the ones who have been working with modern technologies. The data on crop production in Faisalabad of 1960-1980 (Jamali, 2009) reaffirms that the expertise of women are significantly lower than their husbands because of the new technologies and have definitely been displaced from the position as traditional experts. Takhleeq Foundation Working in Sind has arrived at positive results through further training of seed storage and seed preservation and restoring women in sustainable development (project 2007/2008). Even today small percentage of women because of their traditional wisdom are consulted for the variety of crop, plant distance/population, timely sowing, source of seed, ensuring quality seed collection from own crop, applying seed rate as per cotton variety (Khan A, 2007).

Most of the hybrid seeds are not self fertile and need more nutrients from the soil and may not be as appealing in taste and in appearance as the traditional grains. Soil fertility depletion is occurring in most countries including Pakistan, (van Lynden and Oldeman 1997).

To fulfill the requirement of more energy chemical fertilizers are to be applied for the new hybrid seeds. Pakistani soils are initially deficient in organic matter. The use of organic fertilizer increased by five times in S. Asia between 1970 and 2000 (Pender, J 2008). A study of Bahawalpur districts (Luqman, Ashraf, . Hassan and Sami Ullah 2011) collected data on how women perceive their position, recorded that women feel the need of training in application of modern chemical fertilizer. Another study findings report that maximum efficiency is achieved with the earlier applications and it declines with later use (Tilman, Cassman, Matson, Naylor & Polasky 2002). The unbalanced use of nitrogenous fertilizer can also cause deficiency of other nutrients. Since chemical fertilizer are prepared from non renewable resources they have a down side of degrading the environment. Soil depletion is significant in Pakistan. (Luqman, Ashraf, 2011) These fertilizers pollute the water resources as well as they emit gases in the atmosphere (Tilman, Cassman, Matson, Naylor, & Polasky,2002) and have also entered the food chain (Sobha, I 2007). Ecofeminists argue that “Women transfer fertility they transfer animal waste as fertilizer for crops and crop byproducts to animals as fodder” (Shiva, V. 1989). Soil is taken as a living and fragile organism. It needs to be cared and protected for. By using farmyard manure women take care of fertility management. Diversification of traditional farming methods is to be encouraged. Soil management to protect and enhance soil quality can be achieved through the methods of “cover crops, compost and/or manures, reducing tillage, avoiding traffic on wet soils, and maintaining soil cover with plants and/or mulches and crop rotation in an annual cropping system” (SD, FAO, 2009). Less tillage, improves water infiltration, reduces soil erosion, improves surface carbon content, reduces weeding, pests and diseases (Hobbs, P. R. 2006) This does not only provide biological stability, but can also act against pathogens, insects and weeds and can minimize the use of chemical insecticide and pesticide These facts conform to the argument (Shiva 1989) that women while engaged in subsistence farming are in close contact with nature. In the traditional societies like India, Pakistan the link between women and nature is not symbolic but active in,

production on the farm, in providing nurture and care to the plants, soil management and infact to nature. A study of 6 districts of Sind concluded that farmers were familiar with the methods for maintenance and integrated soil fertility (Kumbhar, Sheikh, Soomro, and Khooharo, 2012). By proper application of livestock and human waste for replenishing soil fertility, women recycle the resource. These processes maintain the integrity of ecological cycle. Through such complex labour processes over centuries of hands- on experience, women have acquired empirical knowledge of organic relations (Shiva, 89). For Ecofeminists woman's closeness to nature is the basis of her strength and not the basis for subordination.

Some of these new crops are less resistant to disease and therefore pest control by chemical technologies is required as an integral component of modern policies. The new seeds are to be sprayed with deadly insecticides and pesticides. These agricultural chemicals are hazardous to the health of the worker who is predominantly the female. Cotton picking by women is 8/9 hour daily. 74% of these women are moderately pesticide poisoned and the remaining are at a dangerous level of poisoning (Siegman 2006). Women working in the cotton fields of Bahawalpur district while talking about their experience reiterated problems like skin rashes dizziness, headaches (Iftikhar, N. Ali, T. Ahmad, M. Mann, A. A. Haq, Q. 2009). They would also use the same dirty hands while cooking, sometimes would also use the empty containers of pesticides for kitchen utensils (Khan, R. 2011) Vulnerability to conditions like nerve gas syndrome, Parkinsons, Deformities at the birth and Skin rashes are widely prevalent because of indiscriminate use of these chemicals (Schadeva and Dutta 2002). Ecofeminists perceive modern chemical pesticides as adaptation of war technologies such as nerve gas, whereas Shiva, V. (1989) points to women's uniquely non-violent skill in pest control by nurturing resistance from within the plants rather than attacking pest species from outside. Added to this, has been the degradation of ecological cycle and pollution through their indiscriminate use (I.Soba 2007).

These policies initiated a process of new dynamics. “It seems reasonable to hypothesize that economic integration and advances in agriculture and information technologies present opportunities as well as threats for rural women’s livelihoods and work” (FAO, 2007) Green Revolution that was “predominant in the early 1960s contributed unprecedented increases in food production. More than half of the food is grown by women. Wheat and rice yields increased several fold” (GOP, 2005, cited by Bhutto and Bazmi 2007). In growing of crops like rice women’s participation is significant (Mumtaz, 1993 cited by FAO) where women spend 39.34% in rice cultivation. This increased food production entered the world market catering to the needs of developed countries. There emerged a shift from nature economy to market economy (Sobha2007). The exports of food lead to increase in food prices and inspite of more food grown by them, food security declined for women. Data in Pakistan registers poor health and malnutrition for women due to high food prices and lack of required level of proteins”. In the old days, food was abundant and nutritious and people were healthy” (Khan, A.2009.). Green Revolution has changed this in Pakistan, women express grave concern over the low quality of food and its proneness to cause illnesses” (Lobb 2001). Consequently Pakistan is one of the few countries in the world where sex ratio is biased in favor of men and there are 108 men to every 100 women (GOP, 2005 cited by Bhutto and Bazmi 2007). These figures are interpreted as high female mortality rate. Ecofeminists argue that “conventional agriculturists and development experts fail to see the connection of women,s knowledge, work and skills with ensuring food security and creation of wealth. “ (Khan, A.D. 2009).

The decade of 1970s witnessed a surge towards industrially motivated agricultural policies focusing modern techniques to be applied to cotton crop. This lead to increased productivity of crops used as raw materials for the industry in Pakistan. This also led to replacement of land from food crops to growing of hybrid cash crops (I. Sobha, 2007), intensifying the food insecurity for the marginalised (women). Secondary data collected by Participatory Research and

Gender Analysis for Technology Development and Institutional Innovation (PRGA, 1997 cited by Fliert, and Braun, 2002) focuses on the fact that food security, alleviation of poverty and protection of natural environment are issues that are interlinked (Fliert, E. and Braun, A 2002). This fact reinforces the argument of “feminization of poverty” propounded by Ecofeminists who argue that introduction of cash-cropping, and export policies of food crop have stripped women of their control of sustenance and has jeopardized their food security (Shiva, V 1989). “Investment in household peasant production is the best guarantee of eradicating poverty and hunger”, (Holt-Giménez, 2008).

Modern policies are also widely criticized because the Green Revolution has displayed negative collaterals like creating monopolies. Production of hybrid seed, GM seeds producing seedless crops, chemical fertilizer, and chemicals as pesticides has monopolized the seed and pesticide production with large industrial houses (Monsanto, DuPont, Syngenta, Bayer) have eroded the rights of small peasants to reproduce and conserve biodiversity. The farmer has no control over supply and price of the product (International Development and Relief Fund 2007/2008). As a result these products are available at a very high price. High prices of these inputs have burdened the small farmer. This accompanied with rise in food prices have reduced the purchasing power and have eroded the rights of access to land for small peasants (Rosset, Collins and Moore 2000). Corporate farms are expanding into rural areas. Subsistence farmer is displaced by selling his small holding in the way of consolidating land holdings by large land owners. The displaced small farmer families are forced into urban poverty stream (FAO, 2007). Women being unskilled workers tend to get lesser wages outside their natural domain and get marginalized into urban poverty. Often displacing small farm owner families women become agricultural labourers instead of owners of family holdings” (FAO, 2007). Rural women with limited skills and low education are likely to face greater risk of economic vulnerability even here. Women usually receive lower wages than men, thus employers of these large farms see women

agricultural workers, (Khan, A, 2007) as unskilled workers who will accept low wages and increased workloads without complaining. This has established women's exploitation as agricultural workers also. These policies have not only displaced women's productivity and control in agriculture (I. Sobha. 2007 cited by Khan, A. 2007) but have also marginalized her into ultimate poverty both in rural and urban spheres. Ecofeminist's critique views, "Subsistence economies which satisfy basic needs through self provisioning are not poor in the sense of being deprived" (Shiva, 89). She further argues that the Women's expertise when rejected by modern development has enhanced rural poverty and breakdown of ecology and damaged biodiversity. Since ecology flow is cyclic the modern linear and segment development policies break the flow of ecology and result in degradation of nature. Ecofeminists consider the impacts of globalisation in creating concepts like the patriarchal capitalism and neo-colonisation which is damaging natural diversity, and has caused feminisation of poverty (Sydee, J. and Beder, S. 2001). It is here that Ecofeminists interlink social justice with ecological disaster as a consequence to breach in woman / nature nexus.

Implications:

This study definitely identifies an area which will restore women's control and resume conservation of nature. Agro Ecological farms are highly productive and are able to guarantee food security throughout the planet, contrary to industrialized agricultural production and global free trade (Holt-Gimenez, 2008). This research can further be reinforced by doing a ground survey of three districts growing, Wheat, Rice and Cotton. This will determine how rural women themselves perceive their changing status while changes brought by new policies and technologies shake their world. Self perception of rural women in a changing rural order, in the light of the insights of Ecofeminists, will help to develop right policy tools to promote an equitable and sustainable growth in rural output and incomes.

Limitations:

The study tends to get generalized at places, because the theory perceives women control in a wide spectrum of life and not in specific areas.

Conclusion:

The study authenticates Ecofeminists hypothesis that in Pakistan, modern agricultural policies have not improved the workload, food security, female poverty, and her access to ownership of productive resources. Instead improved seeds and agri-chemicals have acted as tools of patriarchal structure and have reduced the application of women's empirical knowledge natural processes.

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QUALITY INITIATIVES: DEVELOPED VS. DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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Abstract:

This paper determines the nature of quality initiatives undertaken by organisations in different economic contexts. Structured questionnaire was used to collect data from two developed countries (the United States and the United Kingdom) and one developing country (Pakistan). The findings reveal that quality initiatives continue to remain an important means of performance improvement. The nature of quality initiatives, motivation for their implementation and their success rate varies among countries. The paper provides insights on how and why the nature of quality initiatives vary across organisations.

Keywords: Quality Management (QM), Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA). European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)

JEL Classification: Z000

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1. Introduction

An important path to greater organisational competitiveness was identified by the quality movements of the later twentieth century and this faith in the efficacy of the quality route has endured in various forms into the twenty first century (Maguad, 2006; Williams *et al.*, 2006). While in the late 1980s and early 1990s, several quality initiatives carried a faddish element with it, it is now widely believed that the underlying practices in quality management (QM) are fundamental and essential for the effective management and competitive survival of organisations (Nair, 2006). According to Burcher *et al.* (2010) “Quality is not dead”, i.e. it is not a passing fad, a problem swept “under the carpet” or simply taken for granted, but is still a significant challenge for both manufacturing and service organizations working in an increasingly competitive environment.

While the literature is replete with the benefits of QM; literature on failures associated with QM implementation is also abundant. QM has undergone a shift from a ‘classical QM’ to the ‘modern QM’ in order to better cater to the emerging needs of stakeholders (Williams *et al.*, 2006). Classical QM focused on reducing variations mainly through inspection. The examples of classical quality tools and techniques included Ishikawa diagram, scatter diagram, Pareto analysis, check sheets, and histograms. Modern QM is about preventive approach to reducing variations, continual improvement along both social and technical side of the organisation, and effective response to crisis as when they occur (Grabowski and Roberts, 1999).

Given a variety of existing quality initiatives, the selection of quality initiatives by the organisations is determined by their unique contextual conditions. This is because institutional pressures play an important role in the adoption of quality initiatives (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Jiang and Bansal, 2003). It is, therefore, important to understand the nature of quality initiatives taken by organisations in different contexts. Such an understanding is also required to i) better understand how organisations respond to the call for performance improvement, in terms of quality initiatives, and ii) develop a classification of quality initiatives.

This research is carried out using a diverse sample from two developed countries and one developing country. This research paper elaborates the types of initiatives taken by organisations to improve performance, and their success rates. Second, it explores what motivates organisations to implement quality initiatives. The rest of the paper is structured as follows: the next section provides an overview of literature on QM with a particular focus on the role of QM in performance improvement, the challenges put to classical QM by the latest advances, and the evolution of QM over a period of time. This is followed by the research methodology, data analysis and discussion / conclusion section.

2. Literature review:

QM is intended to provide improvement in organisational processes, products, and systems (Anderson *et al.*, 1994), and it looks for innovative ways to create improvements. Various quality improvement practices are designed for specific purposes. For instance, statistical process control is used to better control the processes, ISO 9000 standards are implemented to regulate organisational system through standardisation, Quality Management (QM) supports organisational improvement through social and technical aspects of the enterprise (Manz and Stewart, 1997), and Six Sigma facilitates process improvement through a deeper understanding of causes of process variation.

A number of authors have investigated the mechanism by which QM practices bring about performance improvements. Choi and Eboch (1998), for instance, found that QM practices directly influence customer satisfaction rather than the mediating role of plant performance. Zu (2009) found that core QM practices influence the quality performance and mediate the role of infrastructural QM practices on quality performance. In general, there is a widespread consensus among researchers that QM practices are effective for performance improvement, see, for example, Anderson *et al.* (1994); Flynn *et al.* (1995); Rungtusanatham *et al.* (1998); Sila and Ebrahimpour (2002, 2005); Sousa (2003); and Sousa and Voss (2002).

It is argued that the challenges faced today in QM are very different from those that were present at the time of its inception. Formerly, quality initiatives focused on analysing the occurrence of defects/errors and eliminating their causes as well as associated variation through improved processes and designs. Later, changing market conditions to a more dynamic environment, together with technological innovations, reduced product life cycle, shifted paradigms in the management of human resources, and changed human life style required a new way to approach the problem – hence quality improvement initiatives were updated to address these new challenges (Williams *et al.*, 2006).

The incongruity of QM with the modern industrial context has been noted by a number of authors. Benner and Tushman (2003), for example, found that process management practices have a potential for dampening innovation, although they may facilitate exploitation (i.e., refinement, routinization, and implementation of existing knowledge (March, 1991, 1999)). They further noted that such practices are fundamentally inconsistent with an innovation oriented context, which is an essential component of modern competitive strategies. Similarly, QM does not provide any guidelines about how to manage the knowledge assets of an organisation. The knowledge a firm possesses is a significant source of competitive advantage because it varies between organisations and these differences affect relative performance (Kogut and Zander, 1992). In fact, the only sustainable advantage a firm has comes from what it collectively knows, how efficiently it uses, what it knows, and how readily it acquires and uses new knowledge (Davenport and Prusak, 1998). For a further discussion of the challenges faced within QM, see Williams *et al.* (2006). The crux of this debate is that QM now faces new challenges, which are different from those that were encountered at the time of its origin. This highlights the need for investigation of what characterises modern QM practices and what initiatives organisations currently implement in response to dynamic market conditions; and what challenges are associated with such initiatives.

A typology of quality improvement initiatives

The quality initiatives at a particular time reflected the dominant organisational problems at that time. The constantly increasing complexity of business processes requires a commensurate change in quality initiatives. The quality initiatives, therefore, evolved over time through a number of distinct stages (Brown and Van der Wiele, 1996; Dale, 2003) which are described in the following sections.

Inspection: Inspection is the most primitive form of QM. It focuses mainly on the detection of non-conformances in finished products by taking an end of the pipeline approach in which non-conformances are identified and then scrapped or reworked. Inspection still remains an important means of identifying non-conformances and may be required by customers or regulators before a product is shipped to the customer. However, inspection per se does not always add value to a process and does not prevent defects from recurring because it simply removes defects from finished products; hence, an inspection process alone would continue generating the same quality level unless quality improvement initiatives are directed at changing the input and/or the processes involved in creating the finished product (Dale, 2003).

Quality Control:

The inadequacies of inspection-based processes have subsequently resulted in the development of quality control techniques. A quality control system builds upon inspection processes and makes use of product and process specifications and inspection points throughout the process. The distinguishing feature of quality control over inspection is the use of a feedback system. The feedback about the performance of a process is provided to relevant individuals to further improve the process. Thus, a quality control based system reactively improves the process based on feedback loop (Brown and Van der Wiele, 1996).

Quality Assurance: Both inspection and quality control are reactive in nature and are triggered only when a problem is identified. This reactive approach to dealing with non-conformances is not sufficient to improve performance. For example, there is always some waste associated with inspection and quality control techniques (i.e., waste of finished product, time, and materials), and non-conformances and

rework contribute to low employee morale. Quality assurance provides a preventive approach to problem solving due to its focus on the process rather than the product. Quality assurance encourages a systematic approach to improvement to provide confidence that a product will meet the necessary quality requirements. A system to ensure the presence of quality assurance within an organisation is called a QM system (Williams *et al.*, 2006).

ISO 9000 Standards:

The International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) has developed a number of standards to make the implementation of quality assurance more systematic. ISO 9000 is a series of standards on quality management that provide a model for quality assurance. Although the implementation of ISO 9000 makes quality assurance more systematic, it does not ensure the functionality of a QM system within an organisation (Gotzamani, 2005).

Total Quality Management: TQM involves the application of QM principles to all levels and all aspects of an organisation in order to improve performance (Dale, 2003). A number of models exist to facilitate the implementation of TQM (see, for example, Dale (2003) and Oakland (2003)). TQM models also exist at national and international levels, for example, Baldrige Criteria for Performance Excellence (BCPE) in U.S. and European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) self-assessment criteria in Europe.

Other Quality Initiatives:

Some quality improvement initiatives have a more specific focus on business processes compared to ISO 9000 standards and various TQM awards. Such quality improvement initiatives may be applied on an ad-hoc or project basis. Examples of such improvement initiatives include statistical quality control (SQC), Six Sigma, and Lean Sigma.

Given the dynamic and practice-oriented nature of QM and other quality initiatives, it is imperative to explore what type of quality initiatives are currently in use in different economic contexts. Are there patterns in the selection of quality initiatives in various economic contexts? If such patterns exist, could they be explained?

3. Methodology

This research addresses the following questions:

- I. What drives quality initiatives?
- II. What forms do quality initiatives take?
- III. What are the challenges presented by quality initiatives?
- IV. How successful are quality initiatives?

This research uses a quantitative survey approach to determine the answers to these questions, since confidence in the findings is greatly enhanced when they are based on a large sample size. A structured questionnaire (attached as Annex-1) was used to collect data from different economic contexts – two developed countries (the U.S. and the UK) and one developing country (Pakistan). The U.S. and the UK represent countries that have led the traditional as well as the advanced quality movements. Pakistan, on the other hand, provided a number of strong reasons to be included in our sample. First, the industrial sector of Pakistan provided us a large population of organisations operating in dynamic environment. Second, data from regulators and industry associations showed that various types of quality improvement initiatives were widely implemented throughout all sectors of the economy. The chambers of commerce, regulating bodies, industry associations, and various certification and accreditation bodies are also extensively involved in facilitating the implementation of various quality initiatives. The rise in outsourcing to Pakistan by world renowned organisations, such as Wal-Mart and JC Penney (Fatima and Ahmed, 2006), Nike (Needle, 1989), and Levis, among many others, may be due to a quality revolution in Pakistan's major industries. Finally, since English is the official language in Pakistan, a survey using the same questionnaire as that used in the U.S. and the UK was also conducted in Pakistan.

In each country, the samples were drawn from the membership of national quality associations, and in the case of the UK and Pakistan, 1,000 questionnaires were distributed via postal mail. In the U.S. 400 web-based surveys were emailed to prospective survey participants. The percentage of useable responses obtained from the survey was similar for the UK (18%) and Pakistan (20%), but was much higher for the U.S. (53%), which led to comparable sample sizes for the three countries. The samples were also comparable in terms of the proportion

of small and medium size (SME) organisations and the split between manufacturing and service organisations (Table I).

Table I- Sample characteristics

| Country | UK | U.S. | Pakistan |
|---------------------------------------|------|------|----------|
| Sample size | 175 | 211 | 203 |
| % of SMEs (under 250 employees) | 60 % | 59% | 67% |
| Manufacturing | 55 % | 54% | 63% |
| Service | 45 % | 46% | 37% |

Representatives from each organisation were initially asked whether their organisation had undertaken a new quality initiative during the last five years. This time span was selected to reflect recent thinking on quality practices within organisations that could be reliably recalled by respondents (Table II).

Table II - Proportion of organisations undertaking a new quality initiative

| Country | UK | U.S. | Pakistan |
|------------------------------|-----|------|----------|
| % of new quality initiatives | 87% | 75% | 91% |

4. Findings

By using two-sided independent samples t-test for proportions it was found that significantly more organisations in the UK ($p < 0.002$) and Pakistan ($p < 0.000$) had been involved in new quality initiatives during the last five years compared with organisations in the U.S. This finding could reflect the earlier adoption of quality initiatives in the U.S. in addition to the slower emergence of innovations in such programmes in recent years.

The reasons given by the organisations who had not undertaken any new quality initiative in last five years largely included that they believed their present system was satisfactory.

What Drives Quality Initiatives?

The reasons cited for implementing new quality initiatives were similar in the three countries, as shown in Table III. That is, the

drivers of change originated mainly from within the organisations rather than being Customer driven. However, in the case of Pakistani organisations, the impetus for changing quality practices was more top-down than in the two more economically developed countries. In fact, independent sample t-tests showed that a significant difference, regarding drivers of quality initiatives, exists between Pakistan and both the UK ($p<0.0001$) and the U.S. ($p<0.0002$) (Table III).

Table III - Sources of change

| | UK | U.S. | Pakistan |
|------------------------|-----|------|----------|
| Head office Policy | 47% | 46% | 67% |
| In-company individuals | 46% | 33% | 26% |
| Customers | 8% | 16% | 7% |

What Forms do Quality Initiatives Take?

Types of initiatives undertaken by organisations in these three countries show that they vary widely between traditional and more recent approaches to quality improvement. Further, the choice of which quality approach to implement is more similar between the two developed countries, the UK and the U.S., compared to Pakistan which tended to implement more traditional approaches such as Statistical Quality Control (SQC). In addition, it is interesting to note that organisations in the U.S. lead in the use of Six Sigma/Lean Sigma, which is a significant difference compared to its use in Pakistan ($p<0.002$). The largest significant difference between practices in these three countries involves the use of SQC (i.e., British companies ($p<0.0000$) and the U.S. companies ($p<0.003$) compared to those in Pakistan (results based on two-tailed independent sample t-tests for proportions) are shown in Table IV.

Table IV - New initiatives undertaken by the British, the U.S. and Pakistani samples*

| Type of Initiative | UK initiatives n=211 | U.S. initiatives n=193 | Pakistan initiatives n=314 |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Zero Defects | 4% | 7% | 8% |
| Statistical Quality Control (SQC) | 8% | 11% | 22% |
| Total Quality Management (TQM) | 5% | 12% | 21% |
| Business Process Re-engineering | 9% | 15% | 6% |
| EFQM Business Excellence Model | 9% | 1% | 3% |
| ISO 9000 | 23% | 17% | 18% |
| Six Sigma/Lean Sigma | 16% | 23% | 12% |
| Other** | 25% | 14% | 11% |

*This table includes the new quality improvement initiatives undertaken in the previous five years, whereby some companies undertook more than one initiative.

**This covers a range of alternatives, mainly industry/company specific improvement systems.

What are the Challenges Presented by Quality Initiatives?

The challenges encountered by organisations during implementation of various quality initiatives were noted by respondents in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Notwithstanding the differences in the approaches to quality improvement, when it came to explaining where difficulties in implementation arise, the vast majority of responses related to motivational factors, in particular, the commitment of the workforce to the new quality initiatives and the associated resistance to change. Another important intrinsic motivational factor related to top management support and understanding. Extrinsic resource issues such as time and budget were also mentioned, but were not universally described as the major barriers to change. This overwhelming emphasis on motivational issues is an interesting perception of the problems involved in the management change within quality improvement initiatives, given that for the UK and the U.S. companies, only just under a half had a dedicated budget to support their initiatives. In the case of the organisations in Pakistan, 72% of companies recognised the need for this type of funding, a result which by carrying out independent sample t-tests for proportions was found to be significantly different in comparison to the UK ($p < 0.000$) and the U.S. ($p < 0.0006$). This may be a consequence of the greater head office influence in initiating change amongst organisations in Pakistan.

Another factor in implementing change relates to the extent to which companies carry out cost-benefit analyses prior to implementation and post implementation evaluations. For organisations in Pakistan, even though the head office was more likely to have been the initiator of the change, just over half of these companies still required the reassurance of a prior cost-benefit analysis before they committed to implementing a new quality initiative. Also, these companies were apparently more anxious afterwards, to see whether their faith in this type of change was financially justified, reflecting a more formalised or arguably more responsible approach to quality change. In UK and U.S. organisations, about half of the companies conducted a prior cost-benefit analysis – 46% in UK and 51% in U.S. However relatively larger number of companies conducted post implementation evaluation – 76% in UK and 68% in U.S. organisations. This is shown in Table V.

Table V - Incidence of prior cost benefit analysis and post implementation evaluation

| | UK Organisations | U.S. Organisations | Pakistan Organisations |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| Cost-benefit analysis | 46% | 51% | 57% |
| Post implementation evaluation | 76% | 68% | 87% |

How successful are Quality Initiatives?

Respondents were asked to judge the success of the recent quality initiatives their organisation had undertaken on a scale of 1-10, where 10 = 'completely successful' and 1 = 'completely unsuccessful'. The findings in Table VI show that U.S. and UK companies experienced greater satisfaction from their implemented quality initiatives than their Pakistani counterparts – 7.8, 7.2, and 6.5 in U.S, U.K and Pakistan respectively. On the surface, it may appear that organisations in Pakistan were less satisfied with the outcome of their initiatives; yet, their average rating may simply reflect their more objective evaluation, since they were most likely to have carried out both a prior cost-benefit analysis and a post implementation evaluation.

Table VI - Evaluation of the success of the quality change initiatives

| | UK Organisations | U.S. Organisations | Pakistan Organisations |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| Average success score (scale 1-10) | 7.2 | 7.8 | 6.5 |

5. Discussion and Conclusions

This research examined the differences in the drive towards quality improvement between two economically developed and one developing country and their reactions to these experiences. Notwithstanding these differences in economic development, the samples are comparable in terms of their demographics, sample size, proportion of SMEs, and the split between manufacturing and service organisations.

The most encouraging point to be made from this research is that the vast majority of the organisations studied had undertaken at least some quality improvement initiatives during the last 5 years. This is

an important indicator of the continued relevance of quality initiatives today.

The results of this study suggest that the drivers of quality change are primarily from within the organisations, rather than external forces. There are, however, differences in that in the organisations in Pakistan, the head office plays a dominant role in initiating change than in the other two countries (i.e., drivers of change in Pakistan are more top-down rather than bottom up). One possible reason for head office control may be that most of the respondents in Pakistan were multinational companies having origin somewhere else. So they implemented quality improvement initiatives in response to directions from their head offices. The possible cultural explanation for a top-down approach to the implementation of quality initiatives is provided in the later parts of this section.

Another difference between the countries relates to the types of change initiative they undertook. The organisations in Pakistan were more traditional in their choice of approach while the U.S. organisations led the field with Six Sigma/Lean Sigma. While Six Sigma/Lean Sigma initiatives are now global in nature, the fact that Six Sigma originated in the U.S. may explain its increased awareness and subsequent increased institutional diffusion within organisations in the U.S. compared to companies in other countries. In a similar respect, companies in the UK had a higher rate of adoption of European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) than the organisations in U.S. and Pakistan. Whilst non-European organisations can use EFQM self-assessment as a guideline to improve their processes, there is no strong motivation for them to do so, as they might prefer other TQM/business excellence models prevalent in their own countries or business contexts, such as the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) in the U.S. The selection of a particular quality initiative can be explained in terms of institutional theory (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). Organisations are depending on stakeholders for their survival. In order to ensure continued flow of needed resources – such as orders from customers, and license to operate from regulators, community and other powerful stakeholders – organisations conform to the wishes of external constituencies and would implement what is deemed relevant in that context. The U.S. organisations therefore are more likely to implement only MBNQA

model and UK organisations are more likely to implement EFQM model. The environment, within which an organisation operates, shapes its structures and processes and, thus, there is a need for matching organisational structures and processes to the environment in order to maximise performance (Donaldson, 2001; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967). This concept is also known as 'fit' in strategic management literature (Hayes and Upton, 1998; Porter, 1996). Organisations should employ quality initiatives considering their environment and their internal structures, process, and competencies. Thus, notwithstanding the proven effectiveness of many of the quality initiatives, managers would implement only those initiatives which they deemed relevant in their specific organisational contexts (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Jiang and Bansal, 2003).

The problems encountered during implementation of quality initiatives were universal in that they were seen to be related primarily to intrinsic factors like workforce motivation and top management support and understanding. Top management commitment and workforce motivation, therefore, remain important determinant of quality improvement initiatives' success. While the resistance to change in an organisational setting is a widely reported phenomenon (Dent, 1999; Kotter, 1996; O'Toole, 1995), findings suggest that managers have yet to learn to design the processes and develop the appropriate context to promote greater buy-in of new quality initiatives. The problem of resistance could also be overcome, at least to some extent, through employee involvement, training and development (Holdsworth, 2003). Extrinsic factors identified as impeding change in the three samples were unavailability of time and lack of resources.

Notwithstanding the above differences in the approaches to quality initiatives, the perceptions of success of quality initiatives are positive in all three samples, although the UK and the U.S. samples, which generally adopted more recently developed change philosophies, judged these to be somewhat more successful than the more traditional route adhered to by many of the organisations in Pakistan.

The findings of this research could also be explained in terms of uncertainty avoidance (UA) and power distance (PD) inherent in any culture (Hofstede, 1980). UA is found to be an important determinant

of QM success or failure (Kull and Wacker, 2010). It is about coping with inevitable uncertainties of life. In a high UA culture, there is a tendency to develop strong bureaucracies in order to reduce uncertainty and to promote law - like rules. These bureaucracies may hamper quality initiatives to achieve their objectives. This is because while quality initiatives may require an organisation to find novel solutions to existing problems using 'outside-the-box thinking' for problem solving, bureaucratic structures may discourage such initiatives as they are deviant from normal practices. The resulting conflict may hinder the functioning of quality initiatives and, thus, could affect their success. Along this dimension, the UK and the U.S. have a significantly low score i.e., 35 and 46 respectively, while Pakistan has a significantly higher score (73). The high uncertainty score of Pakistan might explain the comparatively low success rate of quality initiatives.

Similarly top-down implementation of quality initiatives in Pakistan could be explained in terms of 'power distance index' which reflects the human inequality in the areas of prestige, influence, wealth, and status in each culture (Pagell *et al.*, 2005). The acceptance of power inequality is inherent to any culture (Hofstede, 1980; House *et al.*, 2004). High power distance cultures tend to use coercive and referent power, whereas low power distance societies tend to use legitimate power through reward based systems (Pagell *et al.*, 2005). Whilst the use of coercion is a norm in a high power distance culture, it tends to stratify the sources of power and also the concentration of power. The employees at the bottom of the organisational hierarchy would have less say and participation in such organisational decisions making which are more likely to be top-down. This is further corroborated by the high score of Pakistan along power distance dimension, i.e., 55 as compared to the UK (35) and the U.S. (40) (Hofstede, 1980). Thus, a top-down implementation approach is more likely to arise in a high power distance culture. The cultural interpretation is instrumental for effective understanding of quality initiatives and is in line with the findings of Pagell *et al.* (2005) who argued that culture has a pivotal role to play in operations management research. Similarly, Lagrosen (2003) and Kull and Wacker (2010) have noted that cultural aspects are important determinants of quality management success.

Overall, the results of this study illustrate some of the ways in which there are common experiences in initiating quality change in organisations in three different countries, as well as the significance of contextual factors that influence the paths taken by different organisations and their outcomes. The findings of this research have implications for managers in international business and in multinational companies planning to outsource and/or extend their business to other countries. As cultural factors could play an instrumental role in the success or failure of quality initiatives, this need to be incorporated into management strategies for change.

Like all other researchers this research is also not free from limitations. The organizations selected in Pakistan were both local and multinational organizations. Future research should replicate this study on Pakistani organizations only to have a clear picture from Pakistani organizations. Future research should also focus on the nature of quality initiatives in other developing countries so that generalization can be made. Future research could also investigate cultural explanations in the success of quality initiatives.

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ANNEX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

Notes for completion: Please encircle / tick the number opposite the answer which most accurately describes the experiences of your organisation when implementing quality initiatives.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND DETAILS

A1 Have you introduced a new Quality initiative in the last 5 years?

- Yes 1
- No 2
- Not yet but actively considering an alternative 3

If you have answered “**Yes**” please complete the following background details and then go to **Section C**.

If you have answered “**No**” or “**Not yet**”, please complete the following background details and then complete **Section B**

A2 Your Company is

- Manufacturing organization 1
- Service organization 2

A3 What is the approximate number of employees?

On the site at which you

work.....

In your organisation as a

whole.....

A4 What is your

jobtitle.....

SECTION B: FOR THOSE WHO HAVE NOT OR NOT YET INTRODUCED A NEW QUALITY INITIATIVE

B1 As you have not or not yet introduced a new quality initiative in the last 5 years, please specify your current approach

.....

B2 What are your reasons for continuing this approach?

.....

B3 During this time have you considered a different approach?

- Yes 1
- No 2
- Currently considering an alternative 3

- B4** If “yes” what was this approach?

- B5** If you rejected this approach what were your main reasons for rejecting it?

- B6** If you are currently considering an alternative what is this approach?
- B7** What are the main attractions of this approach?

- B8** On a scale of 1-10, how would you judge the success of your current quality approach?
 (1= completely unsatisfactory 10= completely successful)
 1 2 3 4 5
 6 7 8 9 10
- B9** What do you consider to be the 3 main difficulties for an organisation when implementing quality initiatives?
 1.....
 2.....
 3.....
- Thank you for your participation. Would you like a summary of the results of this survey, please complete below:
- YES
 - NO

SECTION C: FOR THOSE WHO HAVE INTRODUCED A NEW QUALITY INITIATIVE
IMPETUS FOR YOUR NEW QUALITY INITIATIVE

- C1** What was the new quality initiative?
- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Zero defect campaign | 1 |
| Quality Control (SPC) | 2 |
| Total Quality Management (TQM) | 3 |
| Business Process Re-engineering | 4 |
| EFQM Business Excellence model | 5 |
| ISO 9000 | 6 |
| Six Sigma | 7 |

Other (please specify)..... 8

C2 What/who was the source of the new initiative?

Head Office Policy 1

In-company Individual 2

Customer(s) 3

C3 If it was an individual, what position did they hold?

.....

C4 Was a particular event the source of impetus?

Yes 1

No 2

If "yes" what was this event?

.....

.....

SECTIOND: FUNDING

D1 Was there a dedicated budget for the initiative?

Yes 1 No 2

D2 Was a cost benefit analysis undertaken before implementation? Yes 1 No 2

SECTIONE: IMPLEMENTATION

E1 Was an implementation team formed?

Yes 1 No 2

E2 Please specify the sections involved

.....

.....

E3 How long did it take from approval to full implementation?

.....(months)

E4 The % of the workforce involved in training for the initiative?

.....%

SECTIONF: POSTIMPLEMENTATIONEVALUATION

F1 Was there a post implementation evaluation?

Yes 1 No 2

F2 If "yes" what criteria were used?

Cost savings 1

Quality defects 2

Service level improvement 3
 Other (please specify)

F3 On a scale of 1-10, how would you judge the success of the quality initiative?
 (1= completely unsatisfactory 10= completely successful)

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

F4 Do you have any company wide measures of the level of quality?

| | | | |
|-----|---|----|---|
| Yes | 1 | No | 2 |
|-----|---|----|---|

F5 If yes what measures do you use?

.....

F6 What do you consider to be the 3 main difficulties for an organisation when implementing quality initiatives?

1.....

2.....

3.....

Thank you for your participation. Would you like a summary of the results of this survey, please complete below:

- YES

- NO

ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION, ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG DOCTORS

Saba Iftikhar¹ & Aisha Zubair²

Abstract:

The aim of conducting the present study was to identify the relationship between organizational socialization, organizational identification, and turnover intentions among doctors and to investigate the differences along gender, job experience and job designation. A sample ($N = 294$) was taken from different hospitals in the public sector including equal numbers of male and female doctors. The age range of the sample was from 25 to 60 years. Organizational Socialization Inventory (Taormina, 1994), Organizational Identification Questionnaire (Cheney, 1983), and Turnover Intentions Scale (Lee, 2008) were used to measure organizational socialization, organizational identification and turnover intentions' respectively. Our results show that organizational socialization and organizational identification were positively associated with each other, however, they had a negative relationship with turnover intentions. Additionally, significant gender differences were found in relation to organizational socialization, organizational identification and turnover intentions. Significant mean differences were also found among the doctors across varying levels of job designations and job tenure. Future implications of the study were also discussed.

Keywords: Organizational Socialization, Organizational Identification, Turnover Intentions, Doctors.

JEL Classification: Z130

1- National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, Pakistan.

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Introduction:

Socialization is the process which is not confined to early childhood but takes place throughout one's life (Luthans, 1992). Brim and Wheeler (as cited in Cochran, 2001) viewed this as an ongoing process which is not limited as a task only to childhood but it also extends throughout adulthood. People learn to cope with social norms with the help of this process (Aquilera, Dencker, & Yalabik, 2006). Throughout their life span, individuals are required to adjust to social role demands (Cochran, 2001). The way socialization process for people in society takes place, organizational socialization follows the same process in with training is considered as an important element to socialize the employees. A great stress has been laid by the psychologists and sociologists on the significance of socializing the new entries so that they may become integral part of the work group by contributing efficiently towards those communities which they are expected to join (Taormina, 1997).

The other construct of the present study is organizational identification which is regarded as the sense of oneness with the organization, which makes the individual, perceives the organization's standpoint and goals as consistent with his own (Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2005). It occurs when one integrates beliefs about one's organization into one's identity (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007). Social Identity Theory has been the most important theory upto now, in the research of organizational identification. Its basic postulate is that it is based on the social identification in which an individual enters an organization and becomes a part of this work group. Employees develop a sense of self categories of membership with the organization by the assistance of cognitive processes of categorization.

Individuals feel similar with others in the organization whereas dissimilar with folks of other organizations (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher & Wetherell, 1987; Turner, 1985). Subjective self-

perceptions of the employees are depersonalized as they start identifying with their organization and thus see themselves as similar to their social group (Turner, 1985).

Turnover intentions being the third construct of the study is regarded as the reflection of the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain time period (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2002) and is an immediate precursor to actual turnover. It is also perceived as the individual movement across the membership boundary of an organization (Price, 2001). A broad range of literature examining the relationship of turnover intent and actual turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Mobley, 1977) exists. Actual intention and turnover intention have been measured separately; however, actual turnover is expected to increase as the intention increases. The results of the different studies provide support for the high significance of turnover intention in investigating the individual's turnover behavior. Turnover intention captures the individual's perception and evaluation of job alternatives (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979).

As several authors pointed out, turnover is one of the most researched phenomena in organizational behavior (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Price, 2001). Turnover intention has been reported to be highly correlated with actual turnover. Voluntary turnovers create significant cost, both in terms of direct cost, such as replacement, or in terms of indirect cost, such as the pressure on remaining staff or the loss of social capital (Staw, 1980).

Organizations face vital outcomes of the socialization experiences of newcomers to the organization in terms of efficiency and performance, attitudes, organizational commitment, and turnover (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998). Organizational history, language, values and goals socialization is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and organizational identification (Ge, Su, & Zhou, 2010).

Findings made by Jones (1986) depict that organizational socialization have a negative impact on turnover intentions. Baker (as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997) also found that socialization especially institutionalized organizational socialization has negative relation with turnover intentions. Information acquisition of new employees has relation to their knowledge of different organizational context as well as to lower turnover intentions and stress and higher adjustment, commitment and satisfaction (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). The incidence of information seeking had a positive relation with job performance, job satisfaction, social integration, role clarity and task mastery and was negatively related to turnover intentions (Morrison, 1993a, b). Smith (1989) concludes that if the newcomers are socialized effectively, the organizations and the individuals may get at least three benefits: employees' job satisfaction level rises, employees' organizational commitment increases and overall turnover rate decreases. Similarly some studies (Feldman, 1981) have found that effective socialization significantly reduces the job turnover rates in organizations.

Turnover intention only for the worker group was found to have negative relationship with organizational identification (Cole & Bruch, 2006). Van Dick et al. (2004) found that organizational identification had a significant impact on turnover intentions through its effect on job satisfaction. They confirmed their model in four samples comprising different occupational groups. The ways in which organizations manage initial interactions with the job and other organizational members that then, may influence retention (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Jones, 1986). Researchers have shown that cooperation with other employees, increased citizenship behavior, probability of high intentions to leave and high levels of in role and extra role performance are the result of high organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Cheney, 1983; Dutton, Dukerish, & Harquail, 1994; Rousseau, 1998; Van Dick, 2004).

An employee who highly identifies with the organization is less likely to leave. Van Knippenberg, Haslam and Platow (2007) have argued that organizational identification motivates individuals to follow the organizational interests, while turnover is perceived as working against the organizational interests. Further, it has been asserted that individuals who have strong identification with organization also perceive the actual work situation in a positive way; hence, resulting in higher job satisfaction. An identifying individual may perceive a negative situation less threatening because he might feel those conditions necessary for the achievement of organizational goals (Van Dick et al., 2004). Hameed, Arain, Peretti, and Roques (2011) found that organizational identification has negative relationship with turnover intention. Three control variables (age, tenure, and organization) showed significant correlation with turnover intention. The findings were in congruence with those derived in previous studies (Van Knippenberg & Schie, 2000).

Of all professions, medical groups may have the most difficult time socializing newcomers (Yin, 2003). Although the technical training of medical student is intense and comprehensive, physicians in general do not receive training in group dynamics or learn how to become an effective member of a medical group. Bender, Vogel, and Blomberg (1999) found that it could take up to five years for a physician to reach the highest level of group function at the Mayo Clinic. They posited that it is common sense that whatever must be done to integrate new physicians as quickly as possible into a health care organization should be done.

Besides trying to make medical groups function more effectively, it is equally important to reduce attrition among physicians in medical groups. Hence, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) established that newcomer acquisition of information improves job satisfaction and commitment to the organization and decreases intention to leave an organization. Pitts (2001) investigated the effects

of formal organizational socialization on a six-year cohort of new physicians entering a medical group. The results showed that the participants of the program had increased job satisfaction, developed strong social networks, developed strong social and organizational identity which are all indicators of decreased intention to leave an organization. Similarly, it has been observed that female medical practitioners expressed more organizational identity and are less likely to relinquish their jobs (Wanous, Reichers, & Malik, 1984). These results confirm the value of an organization investing time and resources in the organizational socialization of newcomers into a complex healthcare system.

There is a critical lack of skills and knowledge among many new graduates in medical field regarding interpersonal relations in organization as per information collected from practicing doctors. The present study is designed to explore current preferences among medical professionals in relation to their organizational socialization, organizational identification and intentions to quit. Organizations can increase the success of socializing individuals by developing the relationship-building capabilities of coworkers and administrators. Formation of relationship with newcomers of existent workers is the primary step of socialization and results in higher levels of output and gratification from the novice (Korte, 2007).

The present study will illustrate whether there is a relationship of organizational socialization and organizational identification with turnover intentions. The study will also help in determining the effects of organizational socialization and organizational identification on the employees' retention. It is proposed in the present study that high organizational socialization as well as organizational identification will lead to less turnover intentions.

On the basis of literature review, the major objective of the present study was to determine the relationship between organizational socialization, organizational identification and turnover intentions. Additionally, it was also intended to investigate the difference of

gender, job tenure, and job designations in relation to organizational socialization, organizational identification, and turnover intentions.

Hypotheses:

In accordance with the above mentioned objectives the following hypotheses have been formulated.

1. There will be a positive association between organizational socialization and organizational identification.
2. Turnover intentions will be negatively related with organizational socialization and organizational identification.
3. Female doctors will be inclined to reflect more organizational socialization, organizational identification, and less turnover intentions as compared to male doctors.
4. Doctors with extended job experience will show more organizational socialization, organizational identification, and less turnover intentions.
5. Doctors higher in the hierarchy will show more organizational socialization, organizational identification and less turnover intentions.

Method:**Sample:**

A purposive sample ($N = 294$) was taken with equal number of male ($n = 147$) and female ($n = 147$) doctors from different hospitals of public sector. These hospitals were Combined Military Hospital, Rawalpindi ($n = 38$), Military Hospital, Rawalpindi ($n = 86$), Pakistan Institute of Medical Sciences, Islamabad ($n = 33$), Capital Developmental Authority Hospital, Islamabad ($n = 33$), Holy Family, Rawalpindi ($n = 28$), Poly Clinic, Islamabad ($n = 42$), and Army Medical College Rawalpindi ($n = 34$). Age range of the respondents was

between 25-60 years ($M = 32$, $SD = 1.6$). Job designation of the respondents included: house officers ($n = 61$), residents ($n = 142$), senior registrars ($n = 55$), and associate professors ($n = 36$). Job tenure of the respondents within the same organization varied from 1- 40 years ($M = 12.6$, $SD = .57$). Therefore, job tenure was further grouped into four categories, that is, 1-10 years ($n = 121$), 10.1-20 years ($n = 81$), 20.1-30 years ($n = 48$), 30.1- 40 years ($n = 50$).

Measures:

The following measures were used to assess the variables of the study.

Organizational Socialization Inventory. Organizational Socialization Inventory (OSI; Taormina, 1994) was employed to assess organizational socialization among doctors. OSI consisted of 20 items to be rated on 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *undecided*, 4 = *agree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Possible score range on OSI was 20-120, with high scores indicating more organizational socialization. The four domains of organizational socialization with total number of items were: Training (5 items); Understanding (5 items); Coworker Support (5 items); and Future Prospects (5 items) having alpha reliabilities of .76, .79, .81, and .76, respectively. Overall reliability of the scale was .89 (Taormina, 2004). In the present study alpha coefficients obtained for OSI (.89), and its subscales of Training (.76); Understanding (.81); Coworker Support (.79); and Future Prospects (.82) were found adequate and satisfactory.

Organizational Identification Questionnaire. Organizational identification was assessed with Organizational Identification Questionnaire (OIQ; Cheney, 1983) which measures an employee's reported organizational identification (commitment). It consisted of 25 items and a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 = *very strongly agree*, 2 = *strongly agree*, 3 = *agree*, 4 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 5 = *disagree*, 6 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *very strongly disagree*. Items were categorized into four subscales: Affective

identification (3 items), Cognitive identification (2 items), Behavioral identification (3 items), and others in Evaluative identification.

Items 18, 19, and 22 were later reverse scored. Possible score range on Organizational Identification Questionnaire was 25-175 with higher scores indicating higher organizational identification. Alpha coefficient indicated the instrument to be internally consistent ($\alpha = .95$) (Miller, Allen, Casey, & Johnson, 2000). Alpha coefficients for OIQ and the subscales that is Affective Identification, Cognitive Identification, Evaluative Identification, and Behavioral Identification were found to be .91, .83, .74, .79, and .81; respectively for the present sample.

Turnover Intentions Scale. The respondent's intention to leave the organization was measured using the Turnover Intentions Scale (TIS; Lee, 2008). The scale comprised of 6 items and responded on 5-point Likert scale with highest score being 30 and lowest being 6 with high scores showing higher turnover intentions. The additive scale produced of these six items had a high alpha reliability coefficient of .92 (as cited in Lee, 2008); whereas, alpha coefficient of TIS in the present study came out to be .94.

Procedure:

To approach the sample and gather the data, formal permission of the administrative heads of the respective hospitals was taken. The purpose and objective of the study was briefed to the doctors and individual informed consent was obtained from them. Later the questionnaires were handed over to the participants and instructions were narrated verbally as well as written explanations were provided to read the statements carefully and mark the level of agreement that corresponds to their opinion and they were also ensured that all the information would be kept confidential and personal identity would not be revealed. By doing so, ease and comfort of the respondent was evolved in order to obtain unbiased and true responses. The data was collected from 294 doctors. Respondents were generously thanked for the provision of valuable data.

Results:

Mean scores of all the three scales, that is, Organizational Socialization Inventory, Organizational Identification Questionnaire and Turnover Intentions Scale were computed. Pearson correlations were tabulated to determine the direction and degree of relationship among the variables. The *t* analysis was conducted to determine the differences across gender. One way ANOVA was applied to establish the differences on the basis of job tenure and job designation. Pearson correlations showed that OS was positively associated with OI ($r = .73, p < .01$) whereas turnover intentions was negatively related with both OS ($r = -.72, p < .01$) and OI ($r = -.74, p < .01$).

Regression Analysis:

Linear regression analysis for organizational socialization and organizational identification was run as a predictor of turnover intentions among doctors.

Table 1: Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Turnover Intentions (N= 294)

| | Variable | <i>B</i> | <i>SE B</i> | β | R^2 | ΔR^2 | <i>F</i> |
|--------|-------------------------------|----------|-------------|---------|-------|--------------|----------|
| Step 1 | Organizational Socialization | -.38 | .02 | -.38 | .55 | .55 | 321.62** |
| Step 2 | Organizational Identification | -.20 | .02 | -.74 | .63 | .62 | 244.7** |

Note: β = Standardized coefficient.

** $p < .01$

Table 1 shows results of regression analysis. Organizational socialization and organizational identification were the predictor variables while turnover intentions was the criterion variable. It was found that organizational socialization explained 55% variance in turnover intentions and organizational identification explained 63% variance in turnover intentions. It was inferred that organizational socialization and organizational identification both were significant predictors of turnover intentions.

Gender Differences: To compare male ($n = 147$) and female ($n = 147$) doctors, on Organizational Socialization Inventory, Organizational

Identification Questionnaire, and Turnover Intentions Scale, independent sample *t*-test was computed (see Table 2).

Table 2: Gender Differences in relation to Study Variables

| (N=294) | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|-------|------------------|-------|--------|-----|--------|------|-----------|
| Variables | Men (n=147) | | Women (n=147) | | t(292) | p | CI 95% | | Cohen's d |
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | UL | LL | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| OSI | 78.8 | 10.26 | 81.97 | 10.61 | 4.26 | .02 | -7.7 | -5.5 | .38 |
| OIQ | 77.04 | 18.24 | 80.61 | 15.34 | 4.63 | .02 | 7.4 | -2.9 | .31 |
| TIS | 13.67 | 6.25 | 11.78 | 4.8 | 5.27 | .01 | 3.1 | .603 | .33 |

Note: OSI= Organizational Socialization Inventory; OIQ= Organizational Identification Questionnaire; TIS= Turnover Intentions Scale

Table 2 indicates significant gender differences in relation to organizational socialization, organizational identification, and turnover intentions. It was found that female doctors exhibited more organizational socialization and organizational identification and less turnover intentions as compared to their male counterparts.

Differences in Job Experience

Analysis of variance was done to determine the differences along varying job experiences in the same organization (see Table 3).

Table 3: Differences in Job Experience (N=294)

| Variables | Job Experience (Years) | | | | | | | | F | p |
|-----------|------------------------|------|----------|-------|----------|------|----------|------|------|-----|
| | 1-10 | | 10.1- 20 | | 20.1- 30 | | 30.1- 40 | | | |
| | years | | years | | years | | years | | | |
| | (n = 121) | | (n = 81) | | (n = 48) | | (n = 50) | | | |
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | | |
| OSI | 78.8 | 10.5 | 80.3 | 10.54 | 85.5 | 7.7 | 87.0 | 9.33 | 9.75 | .00 |
| OIQ | 49.0 | 2.36 | 70.0 | 16.56 | 70.5 | 11.7 | 81.3 | 16.9 | 10.4 | .00 |
| TIS | 13.6 | 5.7 | 10.8 | 6.3 | 9.1 | 3.1 | 7.0 | 1.0 | 10.6 | .00 |

Note: OSI= Organizational Socialization Inventory; OIQ= Organizational Identification Questionnaire;

TIS= Turnover Intentions Scale

Between Groups *df* =3 Within Groups *df* =290

Analysis of variance presented in table 3 showed significant differences on study variables across varying levels of job experience. Doctors with extended experience (i.e., 30.1 - 40 years) indicated highest levels of organizational socialization, organizational

identification, and lesser turnover intentions. While doctors with the experience of 1-10 years showed the lowest organizational socialization, organizational identification, and higher turnover intentions as compared to other groups.

Differences among Job Designations:

One way ANOVA was applied (see Table 4) to determine differences along job designations.

Table 4: Differences in Job Designations on Study Variables (N=294)

| Variables | Job Designation | | | | | | | | F | p |
|-----------|----------------------------|-------|------------------------|-------|-------------------------------|-------|----------------------------------|-------|------|-----|
| | House officers (n = 61) | | Residents (n = 142) | | Senior Registrars (n = 55) | | Associate Professors (n = 36) | | | |
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | | |
| OSI | 73.80 | 11.43 | 80.64 | 9.88 | 84.98 | 8.49 | 83.52 | 9.09 | 14.1 | .00 |
| OIQ | 70.74 | 15.01 | 73.44 | 14.03 | 87.68 | 16.61 | 79.52 | 16.58 | 12.3 | .00 |
| TIS | 16.81 | 5.78 | 12.72 | 5.47 | 9.76 | 4.34 | 10.36 | 3.36 | 21.5 | .00 |

Note: OSI= Organizational Socialization Inventory; OIQ= Organizational Identification Questionnaire; TIS= Turnover Intentions Scale

Between Groups *df* =3 Within Groups *df* =290

Table 4 showed significant differences along varying job designations. It was found that senior registrars showed highest organizational socialization, organizational identification, and lower turnover intentions whereas, house officers exhibited the least organizational socialization, organizational identification, and higher turnover intentions.

Discussion:

A significant positive association was found between organizational socialization and organizational identification while both were negatively associated with turnover intentions. These results are in line with earlier evidence which also indicates that organizational history, language, values and goals socialization is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and organizational identification (Ge, Su, & Zhou, 2010). Further, organizational identification fully mediates the relationship between language, values and goals socialization and organizational citizenship behavior, and partially mediates the relationship between history socialization and organizational citizenship behavior (Ge, Su, & Zhou, 2010).

Results showed that organizational socialization and organizational identification are significant predictors of turnover intentions which is also evident from other researches that depicted that turnover have inverse relation with socialization strategies and is effected in three ways firstly, socialization strategies influence met expectations, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Cable & Judge, 1996); secondly they influence the value congruence and the perceptions of person-organization fit (e.g., Cable & Parsons, 2001) and finally, adjustment to new jobs and environments of newcomers is influenced by these strategies (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2003). Findings made by Jones (1986) depict that organizational socialization have a negative impact on turnover intentions. Saks and Ashforth (1997) also found that socialization especially institutionalized organizational socialization has been negatively related to turnover intentions.

Further, first additional finding revealed that female doctors exhibited significantly more organizational socialization, organizational identification and less turnover intentions than male doctors. Earlier studies have also found that male employees have higher turnover intentions (Smith & Calasanti, 2005). Therefore, more turnover intentions show less identification and less organizational socialization as evident from the results of the present study. From previous researches it is also inferred that men are more affected by self esteem than by organizational identification whereas, females showed high score on organizational identification (Qureshi, Shahjehan, Zeb, & Saifullah, 2011).

Second additional finding showed that doctors with extended tenure in the same organization exhibited more organizational socialization, and organizational identification and express less turnover intentions. Similarly previous researchers have shown that organizational turnover is highest among newly hired individuals (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Poor socialization is one of the reasons of turnover intentions of these newly hired individuals (Fisher, 1986). Unrealistic expectations of newcomers entering any organization causes disconfirmation of their expectations that are unrealistic in nature and result in their dissatisfaction with the work and hence increases the chances of turnover (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992). Turnover is mainly rigorous among fresh candidates (Murnance,

Singer, & Willett 1988; Wanous 1980) whose confidences and promises drop abruptly during initial stages of the job (Griffeth & Hom, 1991; Wanous, 1980). Insufficient organizational socialization practices result in untimely resignations of employees (Feldman 1988; Fisher 1986). However, if the organization designs socialization strategies and they prove to be successful, the result is successful adjustment of employees in the form of role clarity, social integration, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and low intentions to leave (Bauer & Green, 1998; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

As the length of the organizational identity varies, same does the magnetism of the organizational identity (Dutton et al., 1994). An attractive organizational identity strengthens organizational identification, and therefore acts as a mediator between the job tenure and identification (Dutton et al., 1994). Researchers have investigated the direct relationship of length of tenure and organizational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Hall, Schneider, & Harold, 1970; Hall and Schneider; 1972).

The third additional finding of the present study also showed significant differences in organizational socialization, organizational identification and turnover intentions among house officers, residents, senior registrars and associate professors. House officers showed the lowest organizational socialization, organizational identification and high turnover intentions whereas senior registrars showed highest organizational socialization, organizational identification and low turnover intentions. Prior studies, for example, Pratt (1998) explored the immediate social contextual factors in terms of Self Categorization Theory and further elaborated that the way individuals categorize themselves as members of a social group was positively influenced by these social contextual factors. Following the theory of Self Categorization, employees are predicted to have a sense of membership with a group when the other groups are made important by the social context (Van Dick et al., 2005). On the part of organizations, it has been suggested by the Self Categorization Theory that there are chances that individuals may perceive their hierarchical levels as important social categories. These perceptions are strengthened due to the visible margins created by the organizations. As the individual determine the salience of their group membership, they assess themselves either they fit with their social category or not. This is done by making interaction partners and comparison targets and therefore relates and

compares their action patterns with them (Banaji & Prentice, 1994). A social category is construed when the members within a hierarchical level perceive themselves similar with each other and dissimilar with out-group members.

Group membership based on hierarchy may affect the relationship of identification, organizational identification strength, commitment with turnover intentions (Corley, 2004). Interest in seeking and searching for other employment for officers and middle-management was decreased by the commitment of employees because of affective attachment to their organization (Cole & Bruch, 2006). The social exchanges of officers with their organization and middle management with their organization can be reciprocated. When the officers and middle management become increasingly committed to their organization, they decide to give back and hence their turnover intentions are tapered (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). However, commitment of lower hierarchical level staff members does not influence their desire to remain committed or leave the organization. It was the belief of psychologically being knitted to their organization that influenced their turnover intentions. Moreover, more identification lead the workers to ascribe the typical characteristics of their organization and lessens their intentions to leave (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Conclusions:

Findings of the present study indicated that organizational socialization and organizational identification were negatively related to turnover intentions. Likewise organizational socialization and organizational identification were significant predictors of turnover intentions. In addition, significant gender differences revealed that women exhibit more organizational socialization and organizational identification and less turnover intentions. Further, it has been found that organizational socialization, organizational identification and turnover intentions significantly varied across varying job designations and job experiences.

Limitations and Suggestions:

Despite the utmost efforts of the researcher, the present study; like any other empirical research project entails certain limitations because of which the generalizations and validity of the findings are limited with respect to such issues as sampling, measurement, and alternative explanations, which need to be taken into consideration while launching any further researches in the same field.

The data was collected through non-probability sampling using the purposive convenient sampling technique. Consequently the extent to which the sample is representative of the population is questionable. The present findings are only meant for hospitals. Thus generalization of these findings across other occupations or business needs a good deal of contemplation. Further the sample was not nationally representative of all the hospitals of Pakistan as it was drawn from Rawalpindi and Islamabad only. Though the utilization of the instruments of the present study had been justified in lieu with the satisfactory indices of reliability and internal consistency, yet the cultural relevance and adaptability of the same is subject to empirical scrutiny.

Implications:

Success in one's career comes out not only from performing well but also being comfortable with the organization's values. It is essential to examine the concern of organizational socialization and organizational identification with turnover intentions. The greater the degree of socialization, the more likely to be high level of identification, which in turn leads to lesser turnover intentions.

It is anticipated that by the virtue of the present study, the hospital management would have an empirical criteria for manipulating strategies to retain their doctors by giving proper attention to socializing their employees and hence inculcating in them higher levels of organizational identification. That would go for establishing a healthy

organizational environment. Organizations are essential components playing a role of social glue that bonds people together and make them feel part of their organizational experiences. If employees have strong understanding, good training, coworker support and knowledge of future prospects they can perform efficiently and reach higher level of organizational identification.

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JOINT EFFECT OF PERCEPTION OF POLITICS AND UPWARD INFLUENCE TACTICS ON JOB COMMITMENT

Frasat Kamran¹ & Sarwat Sultan²

Abstract:

This study investigated the main and joint effects of employees' perception of politics and upward influence tactics on job commitment. A total of 327 employees working in manufacturing organizations aged 25-49 years old participated in this research. They completed the measures of perception of politics (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997), upward influence tactics (Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990), and job commitment (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Employees were classified into two groups based on their scores on perception of politics scale; employees (n=222) as having perception of politics and employees (n=105) having no perception of politics. The results indicated that employees who perceived politics in the organization reported low levels of job commitment than employees perceiving their organizations free from politics. The findings suggested significant positive relationship of job commitment with upward influence tactics of exchange and persuasion. The results further showed the significant main and joint effects of organizational politics and upward influence tactics on job commitment.

Keywords: Job commitment, Perception of politics, Organizational environment, Upward influence tactics.

JEL Classification: Z000

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Introduction:

Literature has long contended that employees' perception of politics is an epidemic process in organization and this is because that it demands more concentration and empirical investigation (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1992). Generally speaking politics at work place is a fabric of organizational life (Medison, Allen, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980; Gandz & Murray, 1980). Ferris and Kacmar (1992) have argued that empirical evidences, employee experiences, and even intuitions for many years have affirmed a universal impression that all kind of activities in organizations are usually political based. Mintzderg (1983) and Pfeffer (1992) described organizational politics as a world-wide phenomenon that suggests the use of power relations and influence tactics among employees and executives in organization. Because of this political nature of behaviors, the construct of Organizational Politics has become more popular among researchers of management literature.

In accordance with Aristotle's view (Annas, 1996), variety of concerns, goals, and objectives generate political environment in organization. The ways through which employees absorb politics provide a better understanding of politics in organization. In line with Aristotle's point of view (Annas, 1996), it is described that in an organization, all employees enter with their own objectives, interests, and derives. Thus the employees try to achieve not only organizational tasks, but also their own desires and demands that are urged by self-wish (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewew, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007).

Perceived organizational politics is important in a sense that it comes from the realism of the eyes of employees and therefore are more displayed from employees' opinions and behavioral intentions (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Compared to actual politics, perceived organizational politics is proposed to have more significant effect on the job attitudes and performance of employees (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Perceptions of organizational politics is always composed of employee's perceptions of other employees' political activities rather than one's own actions like discrimination, favoritism, crushing of competing groups, and the handling of the use of organizational policies (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991).

Patricia (1995) explored the influence of power and politics on organizational commitment. They discovered that politics has a substantial impact on the organizational commitment of subordinates and executives in organizations. Drory (1993) investigated the politics as an expected factor of distress at the work place. They found the organizational politics as a causative source of several negative outcomes in organization and one of the more distressing for organization is low job commitment from employees.

Understanding organizational politics has postulated the report that politicking at workplace is an exciting turbulent issue that brings a host of negative consequences for both employees and organizations. An extensive body of literature review has explored employee turnover plans, careless attitude and behavior, and habitual absence from work as results of organization politics. Eventually, these outcomes then turn into lower job commitment (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002; Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999).

It is remarkable that all employees in any organization engage in political activities and demonstrate political behavior. It is not unusual to define that in the field of organizational politics, an employee is an actor. Managers and their subordinates both remain busy in the give-and-take of organizational politics. To the central of political effects, the most debatable behaviors are the upward influence tactics used by employees that they manipulate just to enhance progress in their career and to boost their career demands and objectives (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988). This is obvious to claim that lower-level position employees are more likely to exhibit political behavior as compared to employees in higher-level positions.

Influence tactics can be used in three directions. First, upward influence, through which an agent exerts the influence for upward influence, includes the tactic categories of Reason or rational persuasion, friendliness or ingratiation, assertiveness, bargaining or exchange higher authority and coalition. Second, downward influence, an agent is superior to influence his target or subordinate in downward influence. Third, lateral influence, in which the agent who exert the influence and target that is to be influenced are peers. Blocking and sanctions are commonly practiced tactics to both downward and lateral influences (Schriesheim, & Hinkin, 1990).

Several tactics have been empirically evidenced in the organizations such as forming coalitions and networks; become friend with important people, impression management; being loyal, attentive, honest, neatly groomed, sociable, and so forth, information management; managing the information that is shared with others, promote the opposition; promoting a rival within another department of organization that would make one's own work situation easier, pursue line responsibility; trying to work according to the mission of the organization, ingratiation, adopting strategy to attract others behaviors (Vecchio & Appelbaum, 1995).

Organizational commitment is a crucial fabricate for any organization to gain desired goals and to achieve success. Employee commitment to his/her job is considered as the fundamental component in accomplishing performance (Chieffo, 1991). Meyers, Allen, & Smith (1993) explained commitment as a drive that keep bound an employee to a certain set of behaviors relevant to a specific task. Vigoda (2000) mentioned that when employee perceive politics in organization they come to believe that they will not progress and perform with their present coworkers. In this way their level of commitment to remain in the organization becomes very low. Therefore, a need to investigate the factors of increasing the job commitment is always been felt by researchers. And the most important strategy to control the job commitments is to control the perception of politics. Under the higher perception of organizational politics employees engage in using the influence tactics. If the phenomenon of using tactics are carefully looked out, then employees' commitment must be enhanced which is a key element to their career and organization. This will also decrease turnover intentions'.

Despite various empirical findings, former studies are even less advocating and have been indecisive in terms of understanding the predictors of low job commitment. Though an extensive literature is available indicating the independent negative impact of organizational politics and influence tactics, but no one research has been conducted to examine the joint effect of both variables. Therefore the current study was planned to see the main and interactive effects of organizational politics and influence tactics. This study has included only upward influence tactics. It was assumed that employees with perception of politics will be found less committed with their jobs than the employees with absence of perception of politics. It was

proposed that under this perception of politics they will also be found as users of different upward influence tactics that would also be correlated with job commitments. It was further anticipated that perception of politics and upward influence tactics will have joint effect on the employees' job commitment.

Method:

Participants:

The sample consisted of 327 male employees working in manufacturing organizations in Multan. Their age range was between 25-49 years with mean age of 33.47(9.72). Of this sample 222 employees were found with perception of organizational politics and 105 employees were identified as not having any perception of organizational politics. All the employees were working under low, middle, and top levels of management.

Instruments:

The following instruments were used in the present study to collect information from the participants after assessing the relevance of all the questionnaires.

Perception of Politics Scale (POPS):

The scale (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997) measures the degree to which an employee view his/her work environment as politically charged. It has nine items with 5-point rating scale where responses are recorded ranging from 1 as strongly disagree to 5 as strongly agree. Item No. 2 and 3 will be reversed score before adding up all scores on nine items. The higher score shows the higher perception of politics in organization. The reliability coefficient for this scale was found .77.

Upward Influence Scale (UIS):

This scale is designed (Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990) to understand several ways of influencing people up the organizational hierarchy as well as to estimate preferred upward influence tactics. The scale has 19 items which are rated on 1 to 5 options showing least to greater preference. It measures six upward influence tactics; *Assertiveness* (8, 15, 16), *Exchange* (2, 5, 13), *Coalition Formation* (1, 11, 18), *Upward Appeal* (4, 12, 17), *Ingratiation* (3, 6, 9), and *Persuasion* (7, 10, 14). The scores are obtained by adding the responses on each tactic. The tactic with high score indicates the

most preferred tactic used by the employee. The internal consistency for reliability of this scale was .71.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ):

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974) is a 15-items questionnaire in which the items are scored with a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (neutral), 4 (agree), to 5 (strongly agree). To score the scale, firstly reverse scoring is done for the following six items (1, 6, 11, 12, 13, & 14). After reverse-scoring the items, the responses on all 15 items are added. The higher score indicates the higher level of organizational commitment. The reliability coefficient for this scale was .74.

Procedure:

Using convenience sampling technique, one registered manufacturing organization Pepsi Cola was selected to collect the data from employees. From this organization total 327 employees were approached after obtaining the consent from their higher authorities. Prior to the administration of all questionnaires to be used in the present study were first carefully examined in terms of the comprehensibility of clear expression of items. It was checked whether the items are understandable to the participants because the questionnaires were in English language. Items in all questionnaires were found to be relevant except some of the items from POPS (items 1 & 7). The terms used in these items were rephrased with the help of four prominent educationists. They were requested to rephrase the items in a way that it could be easily understood by the participants. A booklet consisting of three scales along with a demographic variable sheet was administered to the participants. They were briefed about the purpose of research and were instructed on how to fill the questionnaires. All the participants were also assured about the confidentiality of their responses. Separate instructions were also given on the top of each scale and the researcher checked whether these instructions were clear to the subjects or not. On the basis of the employees' scores on Perception of Organizational Politics Scale, the employees were grouped as employees with perception of politics and those without perception of politics. Further descriptive and

inferential analyses were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Version 17).

Results:

The results were analyzed using different statistical approaches in order to see the joint effects of perception organizational politics and upward influence tactics on job commitment. To measure the differences in the job commitment of employees perceiving and not perceiving organizational politics, independent sample t-tests was computed (Table 1). Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and correlation were computed to count the ratio of employees' job commitment using upward influence tactics while perceiving organizational politics (Table 2). Two-way ANOVA was performed to see the main and joint effect of perception of politics and upward influence tactics (Table 3). To see the differences in six groups of employees for their scores of using upward influence tactics One Way Analyses of Variance were worked out on JSS (Table 4) and to see what mean differences are contributing to any significant effects found in ANOVA (Table 4) for six groups of respondents regarding their use of upward tactics, Tukey-Test; a Post Hoc Test were computed (Table 5).

Table 1: Differences in the Job Satisfaction of Employees Perceiving (n=222) and Not-perceiving Organizational Politics (n=105)

| Scale | Employees Perceiving Organizational Politics (n=222) | | Employees Not Perceiving Organizational Politics (n=105) | | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> |
|----------------|--|-----------|--|-----------|----------|----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | | |
| Job Commitment | 44.82 | 08.11 | 62.15 | 10.72 | -1.99 | 0.04* |

df = 325, ** *p* = 0.01

Table 1 shows the difference in the job commitment of employees who perceive politics and those who don't perceive politics in their organizations. Results suggest that employees perceiving politics report low levels of job commitment as compared to employees perceiving their organizations free from politics.

Table 2: Descriptive & Correlation Analysis for the Scores of Employees with Perception of Organizational Politics using Upward Influence Tactics on Job Commitment (n = 222)

| Upward Influence Tactics | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Job Commitment |
|--------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------------|
| Assertiveness | 22 | 32.35 | 8.05 | 2.43 |
| Exchange | 99 | 44.45 | 9.12 | 5.39* |
| Coalition Formation | 35 | 31.34 | 7.42 | 2.22 |
| Upward Appeal | 65 | 32.9 | 10.71 | 2.18 |
| Ingratiation | 73 | 41.45 | 9.47 | 3.51* |
| Persuasion | 138 | 46.77 | 10.01 | 5.87* |

Table 1 shows the mean and SD for the scores of employees who perceive politics in organization and use upward influence tactics on job commitment. Result suggests that though the employees using these tactics account low levels of job commitment, however correlation analysis shows the employees who use persuasion and exchange tactics experience slightly high job commitment as compared to the employees using other tactics.

Table 3: Two-way ANOVA of Employees' 2(Perception of Politics; perceiving & not perceiving) × 6(Influence tactics) for the Scores of Job Commitment

| Source Main Effect | F | p | Partial Eta Squared | Observed Power |
|--|-------|-------|------------------------|-------------------|
| Perception of Politics | 12.02 | .000* | .683 | .631 |
| Influence Tactics | 7.64 | .006* | .517 | .494 |
| Interaction Perception of politics*Influence tactics | 11.65 | .000* | .628 | .597 |

* $p < 0.001$

The results in Table 3 indicate the main and interaction effects of perception of politics and upward influence tactics. Examining the eta, observed and F-values, it is demonstrated that politics and tactics are significant predictors of job satisfaction when are entered independently in the model of analyses. Interaction effect of these two independent variables is also significant.

Table 4: One Way Analysis of Variance for the Scores of Employees with perception of politics Using Upward Influence Tactics on OCQ

| Scale | Sources of Variance | SS | df | MS | F | p |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|----------|-----|--------|-------|-------|
| OCQ | Between Groups | 583.17 | 5 | 116.63 | 2.987 | 0.03* |
| | Within Groups | 46568.93 | 456 | 118.19 | | |
| | Total | 47152.09 | 461 | | | |
| * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, | | | | | | |

The data in Table 4 depict significant differences in the levels of job commitment of employees who use six different upward influence tactics. To see what mean differences are contributing to any significant effects found in ANOVA (Table 4) for six groups of respondents regarding their use of upward tactics, Tukey-Test; a Post Hoc Test was computed (Table 5).

Table 5 Multiple comparisons for Six Groups of Employees Using upward influence tactics on OCQ

| Tactic (i) | Tactics (j) | Mean Difference (i-j) | Standard Error | p |
|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|----------------|--------|
| Assertiveness | Exchange | -12.10(*) | 2.62166 | .02* |
| | Coalition Formation | 1.01 | 2.11212 | .995 |
| | Upward Appeal | 0.55 | 2.92497 | .912 |
| | Ingratiation | -9.1 | 2.08354 | .123 |
| | Persuasion | -14.42(*) | 2.87345 | .04* |
| Exchange | Coalition Formation | 13.11(*) | 2.67539 | .01* |
| | Upward Appeal | 11.55(*) | 2.98107 | .04* |
| | Ingratiation | 3.00 | 2.10901 | 1.34 |
| | Persuasion | -2.32 | 2.45201 | 0.92 |
| Coalition Formation | Upward Appeal | -1.56 | 2.65743 | 1.23 |
| | Ingratiation | -10.11(*) | 2.44135 | .002* |
| | Persuasion | -15.43(**) | 2.67200 | .001** |
| Upward Appeal | Ingratiation | -8.55(*) | 2.09131 | .003* |
| | Persuasion | -13.87(**) | 2.24543 | .003** |
| Ingratiation | Persuasion | -5.32 | 2.76452 | 1.09 |

* $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.01$ **

The table reveals the multiple comparisons for means differences of six groups of employees on organizational commitment. Results indicate that the significant differences are to be found on the measure of organizational commitment among six tactics of upward influence. It means that employees using exchange and ingratiation tactics experience more organizational commitment as compared to employees using other tactics.

Discussion:

The assumption stated in this study is found correct, since the difference in job satisfaction between the employees perceiving organizational politics and the employees perceiving no politics in their organization was in line as it was hypothesized. The assumption was established on the basis of review of literature that employees perceiving politics in an organization will be less committed with their jobs than those who will not perceive politics in organization. This hypothesis has been supported by several previous researches in literature. One of the primitive study by Vigoda, (2000) reported that each employee at least must be affected by politics and power in an organization and therefore over all functioning of an entire organization is affected by the political environment.

Examining the theory of equity and concept of social exchange and social reciprocity (King & Hinson, 1994), the employees' commitment to their organization and the aspiration to achieve tasks and the display of positive attitudes and behaviors contingent upon equal distribution of sources in organization. Relationship with peers and supervisors is also a significant factor for the commitment to the management and the organization. Because of this, several scholars have affirmed that the association between organizational politics and organizational outcomes particularly commitment is a crucial one that demands careful and thorough research and enquiry (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar et al. 1999; Ferris et al. 2007) and one that has the possibility to increase our apprehension of diverse dimensions of working in organization.

Another hypothesis stated in the present study has also been found correct, that employees while perceiving politics at their work place will use different upward influence tactics and thus will report

different levels of job commitment. Results in Table 2 indicated that employees with perception of politics used different upward influence tactics and thus accounted low levels of job commitment. However correlation analysis has depicted that employees who use persuasion and exchange tactics experience slightly high job commitment as compared to the employees using other tactics. It means the employees in the political environment using tactics of assertiveness, coalition formation, upward appeal and ingratiation are found to be less committed with their jobs and organizations.

These findings are also affirmed when the data was subjected to compute the main interaction effect of organizational politics and upward influence tactics on level of job commitment of subordinates working in organization. The findings clearly evidenced that employees' perception of politics and their use of different upward influence tactics are independent to determine the employees' job commitment. The joint effect of both variables organizational politics and upward influence tactics is also significant to demonstrate that employees under the circumstances of politics combined with the engagement in using upward influence tactics reported low job commitment. These findings are consistent with the findings of Vigoda-Gadot's study (2006) that postulated perception of politics in relation to a number of performance-based variables. They found a potential and direct relationship between organizational politics, influence tactics, and job attitudes such as job satisfaction and job commitment.

Commitment is the firmest and hardest aspect of influence, whereby employees are distinguish by the influencer's request and are highly motivated to job commitment. Meyer & Allen (1997) described that an employee is called committed when he remains in an organization, present at work regularly, serve a complete day and even more, defend organizational tasks, and prefers the organizational benefits. An employee who is committed to his job extremely contributes to the organization because of his commitment to the work and organizational goals.

Several studies are consistent with the present research findings. Whitener and Walz (1993) explored that turnover intentions and low commitment are the thoughts of the employees' perception

of politics in organization and the use of power. Leaving the organization and the intention to quit are the results of organizational environment, culture, and climate. Bragg (2002) pointed out that non-committed behavior is significantly explained by the politics incorporated in the organization. In short, investigators have proposed that leaving or staying in an organization is strongly predicted by perception of politics (Harris, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2007).

Limitations & Suggestions

Since the current research is important in relation to its findings of examining the job commitment, but this study also accepted some limitations. Hence the participants of the study are the whole population of one manufacturing organization but the selection of this organization is based on convenient sampling technique which is a technique of non probability sampling approach. Therefore the findings of the present research cannot be generalized to the other population of organizations of this kind. So the study lacks the external validity. As only one variable of influence tactics combined with perception of politics has been studied in this research to see the impact on job commitment, some other variables can also be associated with the investigation of job commitment such as experience, duration of job period, gender, and age, in respect of perception of politics. So the present research may be confounded with these variables and may also lack the internal validity. On the basis of these limitations it is suggested to approach the more organizations for the representative sampling of participants, and this study should be extended to other variables which could be associated with the variables under study.

Conclusion:

The conclusion to this study presents that today an employee's non-commitment and intentions for leaving the organization is a potential cost for organizational outcomes and development. The existence of employees' perception of politics negatively affects their commitment behaviors and cut down their morale. Employees' use of influence tactics has great impact on commitment, turnover intentions, and organizational climate and productivity. Perception of politics in conjunction with upward influence tactics can also disrupt organizational commitment and productivity.

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THE IMPACT OF ADOLESCENT ATTACHMENT WITH PARENTS AND PEERS ON SELF-ESTEEM

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Abstract:

The aim of this investigation was to analyze the impact of adolescents' attachment with parents and peers on self-esteem. A sample of 150 students (75 males and 75 females) was selected from different colleges of Karachi, Pakistan. Questionnaire survey method was used. According to the results, parental attachment is not a significant predictor of self-esteem. However, peer attachment significantly predicts self-esteem. Moreover there is a gender difference in attachment with parents and peers. Our findings suggest that attachment with parents and peer predicts self-esteem.

Keywords: Parental, Peer, Attachment, Self-esteem, Gender difference.

JEL Classification: Z000

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Introduction:

In early years of childhood children develop relationships with parent, and with increasing age their peers are significantly important. Researchers and social scientists have studied the effect of peer and parental attachment on children's psychological functioning. Attachment can be defined as significant and adaptive because it entails a development of natural selection that defers survival advantage (Bowlby, 1977/1988). A researcher suggests that attachment theory can provide a theoretical framework to learn important bonds, which include peer and parent relationships (Nickerson and Nagle, 2005). On the other hand it is important to note that parental attachment is unique in nature which cannot be substituted or replaced by any other close relationship for instance peers or siblings (East and Rook, 1992). The term parental attachment denotes the emotional bonds between primary caretakers and their children (Ainsworth, 1989). A research suggests that attachment to mothers is more during childhood and adolescence (Freeman and Brown, 2001) than father. Attachment to father may embrace differential significance in a variety of situations. A study conducted by Rice, Cunningham, and Young (1997) concluded that attachment with father was more considerably associated to social capability in different social circumstances.

Researchers have found that those who have been deemed "securely attached" individuals consider themselves to be more competent and efficacious (Cooper, Shaver, & Collins, 1998), and show higher levels of self-esteem (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991). They also tend to show superior adjustment and stronger social skills (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Studies show that insecure individuals may be more likely to endorse abnormal levels of self-esteem; That is, while some may exhibit a very low level of self-esteem, others exhibit an exaggerated sense of self-esteem (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). In Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) model of attachment, individuals with secure attachments reported higher levels of self-

esteem (Armsden and Greenberg, 1987). One of the reasons this might be the case is that secure individuals are able to maintain a positive sense of self, despite their awareness of personal flaws (Mikulincer, 1995). Another possible reason is that secure attachment of adolescents with parents gives secure base which basically help in exploring identity related issues and encourage features of self-development, particularly self-esteem (Allen & Land, 1999).

There is a gender difference in parental and peer attachment. According to Sorenson and Brownfield (1991), adolescents react in a different way to parents behaviors. Moreover, it is shown in research by Cross and Madson (1997), girls are strongly attached with their parents; girls may also be more likely to take support from other people, for example peers; as girls may be more dynamic in the search of association in the milieu of their peer relations. In addition to parents, peers also serve as important and influential attachment figures for adolescents (Burhmester, 1992, Carlo et al. 1999). Hay and Ashman (2003) suggested that girls were more influenced by peer relations than boys. Claes (1992) suggests that both genders had same numbers of peer relationships, but girls were more connected to peers. Boys and girls show different behavior in their relationships, girls emphasizing more on belongingness and boys emphasizing on independence (Cross and Madson, 1997). In contrary, some researchers suggest no gender difference in quality of attachment, but girls reported obtaining more parents support than boys (Kenny, 1990).

Positive and secure parental attachment facilitates adolescent in developing strong social skills, superior adjustment in society, confidence in themselves, and high self esteem. A close emotional bond with parents is related to self-esteem (Armsden and Greenberg, 1987; Schultheiss and Blustein, 1994). Specifically, low levels of parental attachment quality predicted low self-esteem (Fass and Tubman, 2002). Positive parental attachment predicts higher self-esteem (Brand, Hancock, and Mattanah, 2004; Fass and Tubman,

2002). Students who experienced negative parental attachment change had significantly lower self-reported self-worth (Hiester, Nordstrom and Swenson, 2009).

Secure parental attachment help adolescents in developing secure peer relationships. Cassidy et al. (1996) suggests that adolescents having secure parental relationship enabled them to build up secure image and beliefs of their peers, which consecutively transmitted to the development of the quality of peer understandings. Black and McCartney, (1997) found that secure peer attachments are related to adolescents' global self-esteem. Strong relationship with peers builds up autonomy, emotional support, and self-worth. For example, Hazan and Zeifman, (1999) suggested that peers relationship grow to be foundations of comfort and emotional support, provide secure foundations, and still turn into basis of separations of sorrow.

In sum, previous researches have revealed that attachment with parents and peers effects on self-esteem of adolescents. Therefore, this study explores (a) effect of parental and peer attachment on self-esteem among adolescents, and (b) gender difference on the variable of parental and peer attachments among adolescents.

Methods:**Sample:**

The participants of the study consisted of 150 students (75 males and 75 females) and ages ranged between 18 to 21 years with mean age 18.46 years. The educational levels of the participants were at least twelve years of education and were from three different colleges of Karachi, Pakistan.

Instruments:

A demographic Information form was used which contained information regarding gender, age, and academic background.

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA; Armsden and Greenberg, 1987) assessed three broad dimensions: quality of communication, degree of mutual trust, and extent of anger and alienation. The scale comprised of total 75 items (25 items for father, 25 items for mother, and 25 items peer. Participants responded on a 5 point likert scale ranging from almost never true to almost always true. The IPPA has been found to have good psychometric properties with the cronbach alpha level for both the parent attachment ($\alpha = .85$) and peer attachment ($\alpha = .78$).

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Questionnaire (R- SEQ) developed by Rosenberg and his colleagues 1965, consisted of 10 items and 4 response categories according to the following score values i.e. strongly agree to strongly disagree. In present study, the reliability coefficient is $=.82$.

Procedure:

Permission was taken from the principals of the colleges for data collection. The survey form was distributed to the participants and they filled manually. The survey form consists of demographic information, Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987), and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Questionnaire (Rosenberg, 1965). It took between 25 minutes average time duration to complete. Instructions were given at the beginning of the test and the purpose of the study was informed. Participants were informed by the investigator that all the information would be kept confidential.

Results:

For all data analysis Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 17.0 was used. On demographic information of the participants descriptive statistics was calculated. To test the first hypothesis i.e. the impact of adolescents' attachment with parents and peers on self-esteem, multiple regression analysis was performed on the data collected. For the second hypothesis, "gender difference

on the variable of parental and peer attachments among adolescents”, t-test was used to analyze the data.

Table 1: Demographic Information of Respondents

| Demographic Variables | |
|-----------------------|-------|
| Age (in years) | |
| Mean | 18.46 |
| Gender | |
| Male | 50% |
| Female | 50% |

Table 2: Analysis of Variance for Linear Regression with Parental and Peer Attachment as predictor of Self-Esteem among Adolescents

| Model | | SS | df | MS | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------|-----|--------|-------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 115.373 | 2 | 57.687 | 3.544 | .033 ^a |
| | Residual | 1660.188 | 102 | 16.276 | | |
| | Total | 1775.562 | 104 | | | |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Peer, Parental Attachment

b. Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem

Table 3: Coefficients for Linear Regression with Parental and Peer Attachment as Predictor of Self-Esteem among Adolescents

| Model | | Un-standardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|---------------------|------------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 13.134 | 4.463 | | 2.943 | .004 |
| | Parental Attachment | -.009 | .025 | -.034 | -.347 | .729 |
| | Peer Attachment | .095 | .036 | .260 | 2.653 | .009 |

a. Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem

Table 4: Summary of Linear Regression with Parental and Peer Attachment as predictor of Self-Esteem among adolescents

| Model | R | R ² | Adj R ² |
|-------|-------------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 1 | .255 ^a | .065 | .047 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Parental & Peer Attachment

b. Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem

Table 5: The Mean Difference between Male and Female on the Variable of Parental and Peer Attachment

| Variable | Gender | Mean | Std Dev | t | df | Sig |
|---------------------|--------|--------|---------|--------|-----|--------|
| Parental Attachment | Female | 161.95 | 12.039 | -1.808 | 103 | 0.0367 |
| | Male | 167.15 | 17.357 | | | |
| Peer Attachment | Female | 156.14 | 16.349 | -1.706 | 103 | 0.0455 |
| | Male | 150.82 | 12.040 | | | |

Note. According to the results parental attachment ($t=-1.808$, $df=103$, $p>.05$) and peer attachment ($t=-1.706$, $df=103$, $p>.05$) is statistically significant.

Discussion:

The main purpose of this investigation was to study analyze the impact of parental and peer attachment on self-esteem among adolescents, and to find out gender difference on the variable of parental and peer attachments among adolescents.

The result suggested that secure parental attachment effects on self-esteem but not significantly. This finding is consistent with previous studies that in all the stages of development attachment with parents are associated with optimistic images of the identity, consisting high levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem (Arbona and Power, 2003). Moreover previous findings also support this view that attachment usually finds well-built association between supportive and warm parental relationship and high self-esteem in adolescence and young adulthood (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch, 1991). Furthermore, researchers have shown that individuals with less secure attachments report lower levels of self-

esteem (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991). Another possible explanation of this finding is that strong and secure attachments with parents help in constructing healthy self among adolescents. As person enters in adolescents years acceptance by peers and peer relationships might take precedence over parental attachment needs. This can be supported by the psychosocial stages outlined by Eriksson. In the early stages the role of the parents and family is of great importance, however as individual progresses to latter stages, friendships and peer groups come to the forefront.

Peer attachment is also significantly important factor in predicting self-esteem. Researches emphasize the role of peer attachment in adolescent's life for increasing global self-esteem. For example (Fass and Tubman, 2002) suggested that secure attachments with peers are likely important for an adolescent's self development and for shaping global self-esteem. Moreover several researchers also underline the importance of both parents and peers attachment in relation to social, personal identity and self-concept.

Gender difference was found on adolescent's attachment with parents. Consistent with several other studies, (Berman and Sperling, 1991; Frank, Avery, and Laman, 1988), that young adult women show higher overall levels of parental attachment and are more emotionally connected to parents than are young adult men. Although significant links between parental attachment and adjustment for both men and women have been reported (Mattanah, Brand, and Hancock, 2004), other studies have found attachment to be more strongly related to psychological health and adjustment for female students (Rice and Whaley, 1994; Kenny and Donaldson, 1992), who may be more likely to experience well-being when their interpersonal relationships are positive and supportive. Furthermore, peers who have the greatest influence on adolescents and those whose support is most important to adolescents are their close friends (Berndt, 1996).

However, there is a significant finding related to gender depicted by the analysis. Peer attachment differed in both gender. A number of Studies have indicated that there may be gender differences in the degree to which, as well as the way in which adolescents are influenced by their peers (i.e. Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986; Brown, 1982). The possible reason is that the difference between both genders is how they see is important in the relationship. Girls tend to be more focused on interpersonal relationships than boys and include the state of their friendships into their sense of identity (Simmons, 2002). Moreover, boys are more likely to include involvement in mutual activities and companionship as most important to friendship while girls give importance to affection and self-disclosure in acquaintances (Maccoby, 1998).

There were some limitations related with current study. Firstly, sample was collected from Karachi, which is metropolitan city of Pakistan. The results of the investigation are limited and cannot be generalize to rural areas of Pakistan. Secondly, the study depended on self-reported data which sometimes lead to biasness. Lastly, this research did not include parents (working status), number of siblings, and number of friends- a significant correlate of parental and peer attachments. For future research should include all these factors and examine relationship.

The result of the study supports the significance of attachment with parents and peers in adolescent's life. As well as findings have implication for all those who are interested in mental health issues of adolescents. The results have implication especially for the parents that they should develop strong and supportive relationship. Moreover, finding of the study on gender differences in parental and peer relationship also help counselors and parents in

dealing with adolescence. It is therefore, suggested that these finding will serve as guideline for parents, psychologists and counselors.

Conclusion

To conclude, the results of the research propose that attachment with parents and peers are significantly important in adolescent's psychological development. The gender of adolescents is also important in dealing with them especially for developing positive self-esteem.

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Appendix A
Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment
(IPPA; Armsden & Greenberg, 1987)

Instructions: This questionnaire asks about your relationships with your mother. Each of the following statements asks about your feelings about your mother. Answer the questions for the one you feel has most influenced you.

| Almost Never Or Never True 1 | Not Very Often True 2 | Sometimes True 3 | Often True 4 | Almost Always or Always True 5 | |
|--|-----------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---|---|
| 1. My mother respects my feelings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I feel my mother does a good job as my mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I wish I had a different mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. My mother accepts me as I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I like to get my mother's point of view on things I'm concerned about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. My mother can tell when I'm upset about something. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. My mother expects too much from me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I get upset easily around my mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I get upset a lot more than my mother knows about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. When we discuss things, my mother cares about my point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. My mother trusts my judgment | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. My mother has her own problems, so I don't bother her with mine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. My mother helps me understand myself better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I tell my mother about my problems and troubles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. I feel angry with my mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I don't get much attention from my mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. My mother helps me talk about my difficulties. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. My mother understands me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. When I am angry about something, my mother tries to be understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I trust my mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. My mother doesn't understand what I'm going through these days. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I can count on my mother when I need to get something off my chest. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. If my mother knows something is bothering me, she asks me about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

The next set of questions asks you about your relationship with your Father.

| Almost Never Or Never True 1 | Not Very Often True 2 | Sometimes True 3 | Often True 4 | Almost Always or Always True 5 | |
|--|-----------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---|---|
| 1. My father respects my feelings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I feel my father does a good job as my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I wish I had a different father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. My father accepts me as I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I like to get my father's point of view on things I'm concerned about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. My father can tell when I'm upset about something. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Talking over my problems with my father makes me feel ashamed or foolish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. My father expects too much from me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I get upset easily around my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I get upset a lot more than my father knows about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. When we discuss things, my father cares about my point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. My father trusts my judgment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. My father has her own problems, so I don't bother her with mine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. My father helps me understand myself better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I tell my father about my problems and troubles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. I feel angry with my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I don't get much attention from my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. My father helps me talk about my difficulties. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. My father understands me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. When I am angry about something, my father tries to be understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I trust my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. My father doesn't understand what I'm going through these days | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I can count on my father when I need to get something off my chest. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. If my father knows something is bothering me, he asks me about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

The next set of questions asks you about your relationship with your Peers.

| Almost Never Or Never True 1 | Not Very Often True 2 | Sometimes True 3 | Often True 4 | Almost Always or Always True 5 | |
|---|-----------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---|---|
| 1 My friends can tell when I'm upset about something. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 When we discuss things, my friends care about my point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 When I discuss things, my friends care about my point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 I wish I had different friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 My friends understand me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 My friends help me to talk about my difficulties. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 My friends accept me as I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 I feel the need to be in touch with my friends more often. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 My friends don't understand what | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 I'm going through these days. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11 I feel alone or apart when I'm with my friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 My friends listen to what I have to say. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 I feel my friends are good friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 My friends are fairly easy to talk to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 When I am angry about something, my friends try to be understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 My friends help me to understand myself better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 My friends care about how I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 I feel angry with my friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 I can count on my friends when I need to get something off my chest. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 I trust my friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 My friends respect my feelings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 I get upset a lot more than my friends know about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 It seems as if my friends are irritated with me for no reason. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 I can tell my friends about my problems and troubles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 If my friends know something is bothering me, they ask me about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Appendix B

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965)

Instructions: Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself.

If you strongly agree, circle

SA

If you agree with the statement, circle

A

If you disagree, circle

D

If you strongly disagree, circle

SD

| | | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|----|--|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| 1. | On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 2. | At times, I think I am no good at all. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 3. | I feel that I have a number of good qualities. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 4. | I am able to do things as well as most other people. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 5. | I feel I do not have much to be proud of. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 6. | I certainly feel useless at times. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 7. | I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 8. | I wish I could have more respect for myself. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 9. | All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. | SA | A | D | SD |

ECONOMIC BENEFITS OF WIDESPREAD BROADBAND ADOPTION IN PAKISTAN

Amir Manzoor¹

Abstract:

Broadband internet access, irrespective of access type can bring enormous benefits to the national economy. This study provides both an identification of the sources of economic benefits of increased uptake of broadband internet and the quantitative estimate of these benefits using two approaches. The study found that under the modest scenario of 50% penetration of broadband internet in Pakistani households the net present value of eventual consumer economic benefits of broadband internet would be about US\$ 100 billion per year.

Keywords: Broadband, Internet, Adoption, Consumer.

JEL Classification: Z000

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1.Introduction

The electronic revolution has engulfed our society. The prices of information technology (IT) equipment continue to fall dramatically. This decline in the prices of IT equipment is affecting the GDP growth two ways: Capital deepening and productivity growth. Capital deepening occurs because producers substitute capital by labor which makes labor and capital more productive. The productivity growth is achieved by efficiency gains from the use of IT. (Brynjolfsson & Hitt, 2000) concluded that change in technology likely produced more impact during the 1990s than increased depth of capital.

The decline in IT equipment prices is important for economy as the low priced IT equipment provides users with more computing power and ability to use new applications. Evidence is available that shows a strong link between economic growth and IT. According to (Jorgenson & Stiroh, 2000), price of information technology equipment fell due to rapidly decreasing prices of semiconductors. This rapid decline in price of semiconductors was the most significant factor responsible for large US productivity gains in second half 1990s. (Oliner & Sichel, 2000) found that though IT was a small sector in US economy in 1990s, it accounted for 40% gain in total US factor productivity. (Baily & Lawrence, 2001) concluded that increase in US productivity growth since 1995 was mainly attributable to IT investment. (Jorgenson, 2001) provided support to this finding by concluding that effects of IT in industries other than computer and software was the reason behind increase in US productivity.

2.Economic Benefits of Broadband Internet Access

A new or improved product always results in both consumer and producer gain. Consumer gain results from availability of a product which was previously not available. Similarly, a consumer can either subscribe or not subscribe to the broadband Internet service. Consumer gain from innovation results when use of broadband Internet increases. This consumer gain can easily surpass the monthly price of broadband Internet access as the use of broadband Internet access accelerates. Producer of products or services, that either relies

on or used in conjunction with broadband Internet, gain from the greater diffusion of broadband. This gain of producers is over and above that available elsewhere (Crandall, 2001).

The sum of this gain, i.e. consumer gain plus producer gain is the gain to the economy. This study would attempt to calculate a rough estimate of these long-term gains to the national economy of Pakistan. In this study we have considered long-time as time period that spans twenty five years or more. This time is considered sufficient for the broadband to become virtually ubiquitous.

3.Estimate of Consumer Gain

Here we will use two approaches. In the first approach, we use a direct estimate to calculate the consumer gain associated with the broadband Internet subscription. In this estimate we include any consumer gain associated with consumer purchase of the broadband Internet related hardware and software and any producer gain associated with increased purchase of such hardware and software.

In the second approach, we estimate consumer gain that results from some other specific benefits provided by broadband Internet access. An example of such a benefit is the reduced total shopping cost because of shopping online.

In calculating these estimates, it is assumed that broadband demand follows a linear curve and has specific demand elasticity. It is assumed that the demand curve would shift outward with increased deployment of broadband Internet. The broadband demand would increase upward maintaining the same slope of the demand curve. The assumption is reasonable provided broadband services become more essential with widespread broadband diffusion.

3.1Direct Evidence of Potential Consumer Gain

Information on consumer subscriptions to the broadband services can be used to provide a direct estimate of consumer gain associated with enhanced availability of the broadband. Pakistan's current population stands at 176,745,364 (World Bank, 2012). The current

broadband penetration in Pakistan is 0.46 percent. This estimate is based on the assumption of a broadband subscription being used by a single individual. There may be cases where more than one persons are using one broadband connection. Because of the unavailability of the data the assumption of one broadband subscription used by one individual was considered appropriate [(PTA, 2012); (Crandall, 2001)]. The average monthly subscription price of broadband Internet access is PKR 1200¹. That translates to total revenue of PKR 14,400 times 813,028, or PKR 11.71 billion per year. It is estimated that by 2030, urban and rural populations will be equal in Pakistan (World Bank, 2012). The government of Pakistan is making intensive efforts to improve telecommunication infrastructure and to make the broadband internet accessible for the poor people. Broadband Internet subsidy schemes, Cellular Village Connection Trial (CVCT), National Rabta Portal, and local search engine “Raftaar Pakistan” are some of the key initiatives. National Rabta Portal (www.pakistan.pk) is a web portal that makes accessible content and information available to general public in Urdu. Availability of such content is part of government’s push strategy to increase broadband Internet demand (PTA, 2012). According to (PTA, 2012) the current penetration rate of broadband subscription is 28% and total broadband subscribers are 1.9 million. If we make a pessimistic assumption of only 16% annual growth in broadband subscription, that would translate to 128 million broadband users by 2040 (around 50% of Pakistani population in 2040). Assuming this 50% adoption of broadband Internet by Pakistani households at constant PKR 1200 per month the total revenue from broadband access subscription would rise to PKR 1872 billion per year² (or US\$ 18.72 billion per year) by 2040. With falling prices of electronic equipment (Deng, 2012), the decline in the real price of broadband service is very likely. Therefore, the increased availability of broadband Internet access could result in consumer gain of more than PKR 1872 billion per year. When broadband service becomes essential, such as ordinary telephone service today, the broadband demand would become price

¹ We assume average broadband price to be price of a 1 Mbps broadband connection.

² These calculations assume that universal broadband penetration in Pakistani households would require 25 years. Current population of Pakistan is 176.7 million and forecasted population in 2040 is 260 million.

inelastic and its value (i.e. the value to consumers of the enhanced availability of broadband) would rise sharply.

3.1.1 Improved Computing Capabilities of Households

The increased demand for broadband Internet access will result in an associated increase in the demand of PCs and home networking equipment. At present, only 3% Pakistanis have a computer (World Bank, 2012) and are able to connect to Internet. Of the three percent of households with computers, many may require an upgrade of hardware resources such as process or RAM. With likely increased investment by households in computing resources, it can be reasonably assumed that every household will have more than one computer. Therefore the broadband-induced demand for computing resources will include the networking equipment, bigger hard disks to store downloaded data (movies, songs, pictures, files etc.), more processor power and memory to meet demands of new Internet-enabled applications and the upgrade of non-computer devices to the Internet will be needed. Consumers will fulfill these requirements by either upgrading their current computers, or buying new ones, and by adding networking capabilities. With increased broadband penetration among households, there would be an increase in both the number of households with computer and number of computers per household.

A modest estimate of broadband-induced demand of IT equipment would be that in 2006-07 Pakistani households spent less than 0.5% of GDP on purchase of IT equipment, software, and services (World Bank, 2012). If we assume this spending to be exact 0.5 % then it equals to US\$ 2.18 billion in 2006-7³. According to (Gartner, 2013) the average expected growth in IT-related purchases was 5.1% for 2016 and expected to grow further. If we make a pessimistic assumption that increased broadband penetration would gradually increase this spending from 0.5% to six percent per year, in the next 25 years (Christine Qiang & Rossotto, 2009), the spending would increase to \$ 71.46 billion per year by 2040⁴.

³ Pakistan's GDP in 2006-7 was US\$ 437.5 billion. Pakistan's GDP in 2012 was US\$ 211.092 billion (World Bank, 2012)

⁴ The projected GDP of Pakistan in 2040 is US\$ 1,191 billion. The estimated GDP growth rate of Pakistan for 2007-50 was 6.4 % (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2012).

In summary, increased broadband penetration would bring an associated increase in sale of both computers and home networking equipment. Initially, the increase in sales of home networking equipment would be low but it will eventually gear up and become a substantial proportion of broadband-induced sales of IT equipment. Such increase in sales would result in increased resources for IT equipment manufacturers to devote more funds for research and development of new IT equipment.

3.1.2 New Services Provided by Broadband Connectivity

Broadband continues to make available new innovative services. An indirect estimate of the value of such services will be more speculative because many benefits of these services cannot be seen clearly at present and these services may require adoption of some other products/services before they can be adopted. We can divide these broadband-related forecasted economic benefits into following three general categories:

- 1) Retailing
- 2) Transportation
- 3) Healthcare

While there may be other sources of benefits related to broadband access but this study didn't include them because of unavailability of related data.

3.1.2.1 Retailing

One significant benefit provided by broadband Internet is improved delivery of goods and services. Take example of book stores such as Amazon.com in USA and Vanguard Books and Liberty Books in Pakistan. Buying a book from an online book store, a consumer may not necessarily get the lowest price but he/she can enjoy convenience, and savings in terms of time, effort, and transportation costs. For a majority of people, the savings in time, effort, and transportation are important.

Broadband Internet connections offer alternative ways of retailing and product distribution that can be used if and when they are more efficient. The transition to alternative broadband retailing would

increase the current significantly low share of retail e-commerce in Pakistan. This transition would bring an associated increase in consumer choice and economic efficiency. In 2011, the retail/wholesale sector in Pakistan added a value of 53.11 % of GDP (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2012). The calculations of these retailing costs do not take into account the cost of time spent on shopping.

To buy a product, a customer generally needs to go to various traditional retail stores and compare choices. Customers spend additional time for item selection, payment, and transportation of the item home. (Time Diaries, 1999) suggests that, in USA, the average adult spends about 45 minutes per day for non-grocery shopping (including 30 minutes of shopping and 15 minutes of travelling). [(Kervenoael, Soopramanien, Elms, & Hallsworth, 2006); (Goswami & Mishra, 2009)], our observations and information gathered from various consumers concludes that the same figure is a reasonable estimate for most Pakistani consumers. While calculating official figure of retail sector contribution to GDP, the cost of consumer time spent on shopping is not accounted for although it is an important economic cost.

The study assumes that average Pakistani values his/her time at a rate equal to one-half the average wage of PKR 41 per hour (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Therefore, the worth of Pakistani consumers' time spent on shopping would be PKR 15.46 per day or PKR 5643 per year per person. As of 2011, the total number of adults (age 18 or above) in Pakistan was approximately 113 million. Assuming that all these individuals are involved in non-grocery shopping, the total worth of time spent on non-grocery shopping amounts to PKR 638 billion per year. We can see that even a modest improvement in the efficiency of this activity of non-grocery shopping can result in significant benefits. Assuming that an increased broadband diffusion improves the efficiency of this activity by just five percent (i.e. through online shopping), a pessimistic scenario, the saving could be approximately PKR 32 billion per year. If we assume the same current percentage of adults in 2040 (i.e. 60%) then, by 2040, there would be 156 million persons that would spend PKR 880.3 per year on non-grocery shopping. If an efficiency of ten percent could be achieved by 2040, the savings in non-grocery shopping would amount to PKR

88 billion per year. With universal broadband service diffusion, the gains can be much greater.

3.1.2.2 Transportation

Worldwide, telecommunications are substituting for travel. Contrary to global trends, telecommuting in Pakistan has not picked up enough momentum. Telecommuting around the globe has grown steadily. In Pakistan, this concept is gaining acceptance at a slower pace. Not all jobs are suited for telecommuting but many others, such as Customer service, Research and technical writing, data entry; financial data preparation, computer programming, medical transcription etc. are suitable for telecommuters. The primary direct benefit of telecommuting is reduction in travel costs of employees and reduction in infrastructure costs. A significant secondary benefit is reduction in traffic congestion costs.

(Krugman, 2001) found that imposed congestion costs on other people by each individual commuting by car in Atlanta were \$14 per workday. Situation of traffic congestion in Atlanta is comparable with major urban cities in Pakistan such as Karachi. [(Beckmann, McGuire, & Winsten, 1956); (Downs, 2004)], our observations and calculations indicate that a 25% of this estimate i.e. \$3.5 (Rs. 350) is a reasonable estimate applicable to Pakistan. There can be other costs paid by the driver but not accounted for such as environmental impact caused by vehicle's emissions. The direct quantifiable benefit of telecommuting includes savings in transportation costs which includes the worth of driver's time and expense and reduction in the costs of congestion and pollution imposed on others. There are other benefits such as increased worker productivity and employment opportunities for disabled people but these benefits are much harder to quantify.

(Crandall, 2001) found that 20 to 40 percent of jobs can benefit from telecommuting at least part of the time. According to (Ted Balaker, 2005) telecommuting is the most cost-effective way to reduce rush-hour traffic and improve a nation's ability to cope with disasters (from hurricanes to terrorist attacks). Current Pakistani workforce is 57.2 million. The labor force participation rate is 32.8 percent (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Assuming one holiday per week, the congest costs per year would be PKR 109,550. If we assume that only

20% of the workforce uses its own transportation to commute to work, then the total congestion costs would be PKR 1253 billion per year. Under a pessimistic scenario of just 5% of work force participation in telecommuting, the total congestion cost savings would be PKR 63 billion per year. Current Pakistani workforce is 32.3 % of population. If we assume the same percentage would exist in 2040 and only 20% of this workforce uses its own transportation than total congestion costs in 2040 would be PKR 1840 billion. Under a pessimistic scenario of just 5% of this work force participation in telecommuting, the total congestion cost savings would be PKR 92 billion per year in 2040. With labor force participation rate of 32.3 % and growing number of vehicles in the cities, the total cost saving could be much larger.

3.1.2.3 Health Care

Health care is a major sector of Pakistani economy. In 2010, Pakistan spent US\$ 4 per capita on national health and US\$ 22 per capita on total health care (Akram & Khan, 2007). According to World Health Organization (WHO), to provide essential health services in Pakistan, an expenditure of US\$ 34 per capita is required (WHO, 2012).

Pakistan's current population is 177 million. Pakistani healthcare industry is growing in size but underserved regions of Pakistan still lack access to proper health care. 45 % of population does not have access to health services. 60% deaths are caused by poverty related communal diseases, child illnesses, reproductive health problems, and malnutrition (Ahmed, 2007).

Telemedicine can improve access to health services and lead to an increase in consumer surplus. There are few active telemedicine projects running in Pakistan that utilize high-speed Internet connections and modern audio-visual technologies (such as video conferencing) to bring high-quality health care to underserved areas. Use of telemedicine could not only bring significant time savings but also reduce costs of healthcare to patients. That would create additional consumer surplus. Telemedicine can substitute conventional in-person monitoring of chronically ill patients by remote monitoring and cut substantially response time needed to address problems of these patients. This time saving will result in fewer hospitalizations and emergency visits. Telemedicine The competitive

nature of healthcare industry in Pakistan would be helpful in ultimately transferring all these cost savings to the consumers.

The current estimate of required Health Care expenditure for 177 million population of Pakistan at US\$ 34 per capita is US\$ 6 billion per year. Assuming that the per capita expenditure remains at \$34, the estimate of required Health Care expenditure for 260 million population of Pakistan in 2040 would be US\$ 8.84 billion per year. If we assume that 60 % of healthcare requirements of 45 % of population can be taken care of by telemedicine (Hewlett Packard, 2012), the current healthcare expenditure would be US\$ 1.62 billion and US\$ 2.39 billion per year in 2040. If we assume that telemedicine could provide the required healthcare at 50 % of the cost than the current savings would be US\$ 0.81 billion per year and US\$ 1.2 billion per year in 2040. Increased and reliable broadband Internet access will greatly facilitate the adoption of telemedicine.

3.2 Summing Up the Consumer Benefits

Future effects of broadband access are uncertain. Convincing quantitative forecast of broadband-related economic benefits is difficult. While broadband Internet offers many advantages and few disadvantages to consumers and producers. Therefore, the study would focus on broadband benefits alone. Table 1 offers the summary of these consumer benefits (or consumer surplus). (Throughout this paper, we take the rate of exchange US\$-PKR as of 30th June 2013 i.e. 1 US\$ = 100 PKR)

Table 1: Summary of Consumer Gain from Increased Broadband Penetration (Billions per Year)

| Direct Estimate | |
|--|-----------------------|
| Broadband Subscription Revenue | PKR 1872 (US\$ 18.72) |
| Household Computer Equipment and Services Purchase | PKR 7146 (US\$ 71.46) |
| Total Gain | PKR 9018 (US\$ 90.18) |
| Alternative Estimates | |
| Shopping | PKR 88 (US\$ 8.8) |
| Traffic Congestion | PKR 92 (US\$ 9.2) |
| Health Care | PKR 12 (US\$ 1.2) |
| Total Gain | PKR 192 (US\$ 1.92) |

Source: Author's own estimates

4. Producers' Gain

A successful innovation generates value for both consumers and producers. To estimate the potential producer gain from increased broadband penetration, the study focusses on following sectors of economy:

- 1) Telecommunications
- 2) Computer hardware and software industries
- 3) Retail and Wholesale
- 4) Entertainment

4.1 Telecommunications

To deliver broadband Internet services, we need telecommunication infrastructure. To facilitate delivery of services, you also need to spend substantial amount on new networking devices. An increased demand of broadband Internet results in increase in revenue of both suppliers of broadband services and suppliers of the equipment used to deliver the service. A significant share of this increased revenue of equipment suppliers accrues as rent to the intellectual capital and facilities used to produce the equipment. We assume that 50% of the revenue from the broadband Internet services is spent on equipment required to deliver the service and that 20 percent of the remainder accrues as "quasi-rents" to the supplier of the broadband services. We further assume that 20-40% of the revenue spent on equipment required to deliver the broadband service accrue as rents to the owners of intellectual and physical capital required producing this equipment. Table 2 shows the estimates of producers' gain, for an expansion of broadband to 50 percent of households, under these assumptions.

Table 2: Estimate of Producer Gains from Increased Broadband Penetration (Billions per Year)

| Source | Share of Revenue that Accrues as Rents to Producers (Billions per year) | |
|---------------------------------------|--|------------------------|
| | Current | 2040 |
| Broadband Subscription | PKR 0.247 (US\$ 0.00247) | PKR 280.8 (US\$ 2.8) |
| Household Computer Equipment Purchase | PKR 42.6 (US\$ 0.426) | PKR 490.42 (US\$ 4.90) |

Source: Author's own estimates

4.2 Computer Hardware and Software Industry

Similar to broadband Internet service, a significant share of the revenues of computer hardware and software suppliers accrues as rents to the intellectual capital and facilities used to develop the hardware and software. We assume that 20-40% of the revenues accrue as producer's surplus. Under these assumptions, producers' gain generated in the computer hardware and software sector from increased broadband Internet penetration could range from US\$ 0.426 to US\$ 4.90 billion per year.

4.3 Retail and wholesale sectors

With increased broadband Internet penetration, it is likely that more consumers would switch to online shopping. This would increase the efficiency of retail distribution. Since the consumer goods industry is very competitive the supply curve is expected to be very elastic and most cost savings would be passed on to the consumer. However, we have no basis to estimate the amount of commerce that will be appropriated as surplus by the successful innovators.

4.4 Entertainment

Since 2006, Pakistani consumers continue to spend more every year on entertainment (Euromonitor, 2012). The study assumes that Pakistani consumer spending on entertainment will continue to grow at the same rate. We can assume that 20-40 % of revenue accrue as rent to the intellectual capital used to produce the entertainment content. However, due to unavailability of entertainment spending figures we were unable to calculate the increase in producers' gain from an increase in entertainment spending.

5. The Benefit of Faster Uptake of Broadband

The analysis of this study offers estimated annual benefits from near-universal adoption of broadband Internet. This estimate reflects the potential benefits available when broadband Internet in Pakistan becomes universal. The current value of these benefits might be low because these benefits are achieved over longer time periods. (Crandall, 2001) found that a faster broadband adaption can help realizing these

benefits early. Once broadband access becomes universal the network effects from developing new services become very large. If we move these benefits a few years forward, they can become very large. Obviously, the accuracy of the estimates based on correctness of the assumptions made. Incorrect assumption can cause overestimation of economic benefits.

6. Conclusion

The universal penetration of broadband in Pakistan might take several years but it can bring enormous benefits to national economy. Some benefits can be forecasted but other cannot. Using two different approaches, this study attempted to calculate these benefits if broadband become near-ubiquitous.

The study found that the present annual consumer gains from broadband Internet is US\$ 2.29 per year. In addition, the present annual producer gain from broadband is US\$ 0.67 billion per year. That means the total annual benefits to the national economy of Pakistan due to broadband are approximately US\$ 3 billion per year.

The study concludes that the annual consumer gains from broadband Internet could eventually reach PKR 9210 billion (US\$ 92.1 billion) per year. In addition, the annual producer gains from broadband could eventually reach to PKR 77 billion (US\$ 7.7 billion) per year. Thus, a reasonable figure for the total annual benefits to the national economy of Pakistan is US\$100 billion per year. A faster uptake of broadband Internet can help realize these benefits earlier.

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INJECTION PHOBIA IN YOUNG ADULT PATIENTS

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Abstract:

The objective of the study was to analyze the relationship between injection phobia and practices of doctors and identify the effect of education of patients on injection phobia. A cross sectional study was conducted on 156 patients and 79 doctors in two private and public sector hospitals of Karachi, Pakistan. Injection phobia Scale-Anxiety Scale (IPS) was administered along with a questionnaire on doctors practices. A negative relationship was found between injection phobia and practices of doctors. Moreover, education of patients had no impact on the injection phobia. We suggest an adequate training about injection phobia be provided to healthcare professionals.

Keywords: Adults, Anxiety, Health Care, Practice, Psychological Distress.

JEL Classifications: Z000

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Introduction:

Phobia in human psychiatric terms is an irrational fear in which proportion does not match the actual level of threat (Bowen, 2005). It can be considered as an emotional state in which a person tries to avoid the source of exposure which makes the person restless and anxious. Such an emotional state interferes in the daily routine activities of the individual as well. An individual may have a number of phobias at one time. Among them, are specific phobias which include fear from situations like height (acrophobia), flying (aerophobia), seeing blood (blood phobia), receiving injections (injection phobia), darkness (achluophobia), crossing the street (agyiophobia), etc. Phobias comprise of four major categories, which include blood-injury-injection type, situational type, natural environment type and animal type (Barlow & Drand, 2011).

Among all of these, injection phobia is the one which runs in families and has an impact on the health seeking behavior of individuals because of the physiological and psychological symptoms felt as a result of phobia. Many people have a fear of injections to some extent but unfortunately if it becomes persistent then it creates a problem and becomes a phobia. If exposure to needles provokes a person to an immediate anxiety response, it is indicative of injection phobia (Carl & Baeyer, 2008).

Injection phobia is common in many countries. For instance, in general Sweden population, prevalence of injection phobia is about 4.5% in pregnant females (Caroline, 2010). Not much literature exists regarding prevalence of injection phobia with special reference to the population of Pakistan, but it is generally observed that people are reluctant towards medical treatments which involve needle administration. A study in the UK showed that the fear of injection usually starts at the age of 5.5 years and remains quite common in adulthood (Duff & Brownlee, 1999). Usually development of fear of injection is followed by an unpleasant experience. The same was

confirmed in a research study on classical conditioning theory applied on fear acquisition for injections which revealed that 63% of the subjects aged between 7 and 18 years had fear of injections because they had previously experienced painful and unpleasant injections (Field, Argyris & Knowles, 2001). The prevalence of injection phobia is 23% according to Nir et al in travelers attending a health clinic (Nir, Paz, Sabo & Potasman, 2003)

Word-of-mouth is a prominent contributor in developing one's fear. An individual may not have experienced a situation himself but still feels the danger when trying for the first time mainly because people around him have narrated painful stories of their own experiences. Many studies support the same notion of negative information contributing to fear (Fiset et. al. 1989). Such negative information creates a negative perception in the mind of the individual who is yet to experience it. This in turn develops fear for situations and objects. Injection phobia is more common in females than males and in people less than 40 years of age (Bienvenu & Eaton, 1998). The onset of needle fear can be attributed to conditioning experiences, vicarious experiences and information/ instruction (Ost, Hellstorm & Kaver, 1992)

This fear may consequently leave an impact on the individual's physiology and psychology and on the behavior of the individual according to the UK's National Phobics Society's report of 2005. Physically, this phobia affects body when sufferers experience temporary palpitations and increased heart blood pressure. Shortness of breath, dry mouth, nausea, tremor, fainting and feeling panic are other bodily symptoms. Psychologically, the individual may feel distressed. His anxiety levels may go high. There may be a feeling of going to faint while seeing needles and behaviorally, the sufferer may avoid looking at the blood or needle, or he may totally avoid the situation and escape. The sufferer may try to avoid even places or people which are associated with needle administration like hospitals, doctors, dentists and nurses, because of which the doctors may amend the medical treatment which can also change the outcome of the

treatment. Educating patients and using relaxation techniques can help to minimize injection phobia (Hamilton, 1995; Yim, 2006) A thorough literature review has revealed that there are not many studies conducted in the past regarding the association of education level of an individual with the injection phobia.

The objective of this study was to identify if there is an impact of injection phobia on the practices of doctors. Additionally, our study aims to analyze the effect of education on injection phobia. The following hypotheses were formulated:

H1 There is a relationship between injection phobia and practices of doctors.

H2 There is an impact of education of the patients on injection phobia.

Methods:

This cross-sectional study was conducted from September 2012 to December 2012. Clinics and emergency wards of two private and two public hospitals located in Karachi, Pakistan were selected for the study.

Sample:

The sample comprised of patients and doctors from the selected clinics and hospitals. Through precision method, 7% of the monthly population of patients visiting the clinics and hospitals were chosen through convenient sampling (n=156). All the doctors of the selected clinics and emergency wards of the selected private and public sector hospitals were chosen (n=79).

Only those patients who scored 20 or more on IPS-Anxiety and were of equal to or more than 18 years of age were included in the study, no upper limit was set for the inclusion of the patients. Patients from both gender, doing different kinds of jobs, including all private

jobs, domestic work, government jobs and also those who were running their own businesses with either of the marital status and education level formed the sample of the study. Doctors, who were MBBS with minimum 1 year experience of practicing medicine, were included in the study. Patients who had received any treatment involving the use of injection or needle within past 24 hours were excluded from the study.

Measures:

The demographic form was used which included variables of age, gender, education status, marital status, occupation and monthly income.

The injection phobia Scale-Anxiety (IPS-Anxiety; Ost, Hellstrom, & Kaver, 1992) is an 18-item, 5-point Likert scale in which individuals rate their degree of fear. The scale ranges from 0 = "No anxiety" to 4 = "Maximum anxiety." In this sample, internal consistency was found to be 0.765

To measure doctors' practices, a questionnaire was developed on the basis of focused group discussions in three different settings with doctors. It consisted of three questions. The variables included course of action in terms of 'counseling', 'change of treatment plan' or 'not listening to patients and continuing with treatment'. For each of the variables a separate question was asked 'Are you professionally trained in counseling a patient who has fear of injection', 'If you change the treatment and choose alternative, in your opinion which of the following impact does the alternative treatment have', 'What is the reason for continuing with the treatment knowing that the patient has phobia of needles'?

Procedure:

As part of ethical consideration, informed consent was sought from all participants of the study. The participants had the right to leave the study anytime or not to answer any of the study questions. The data was kept anonymous by assigning identification numbers to the participants. The results of the study were shared with the participants.

Permission was taken from the hospital administration involved in the study. In the study settings, patients sitting in waiting areas of out-patient departments OPD and emergency wards were approached and the study objective was explained to them. After taking consent, each respondent was interviewed according to the questionnaire and their response was noted down. A total of 300 patients were approached and 156 of them who scored 20 and above from the IPS-Anxiety scale were included in the study. The doctors working in the clinical and emergency wards of hospitals were chosen from their roster schedules and approached. After explaining the objectives of the study, interviews were taken and responses were noted down in the questionnaires.

Statistical Analysis:

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17 version for Windows was used to analyze the data. Regression analysis was carried out to analyze the effect of education of patients on injection phobia. Pearson's correlation was used to identify the relationship between injection phobia and the practices of doctors.

Results:**Table 1: Demographic Information of the Respondents**

| Demographic Variables | | Percentage (%) |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------|
| Age | Between 18 to 21 years | 18 |
| | Between 22 to 25 years | 33 |
| | Between 26 to 29 years | 29 |
| | 30 years and above | 20 |
| Gender | Male | 42.3 |
| | Female | 57.7 |
| Marital Status | Single | 42.9 |
| | Married | 50.6 |
| | Divorced | 3.2 |
| | Separated | 0.6 |
| Education | Widow | 2.6 |
| | Not Educated | 4.5 |
| | Below Matriculation | 3.8 |
| | Matriculation | 7.7 |
| | Intermediate | 18.6 |
| | Graduate | 40.4 |
| Occupational Status | Post Graduate | 25 |
| | Non-working | 36.5 |
| | Working | 63.5 |
| | Private Job | 48.1 |
| | Govt. Job | 3.2 |
| | Domestic Work | 2.6 |
| | Own Business | 9.6 |
| Monthly Income | Less than Rs. 10,000 | 7.7 |
| | Between Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 19,000 | 10.3 |
| | Between Rs. 20,000 to Rs. 29,000 | 5.8 |
| | Between Rs. 30,000 to Rs. 39,000 | 13.5 |
| | Between Rs. 40,000 to Rs. 49,000 | 14.1 |
| | Between Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 99,000 | 42.3 |
| | Rs. 100,000 and above | 6.4 |

Table 2: Pearson's Correlation r between injection phobia and Practices of Doctors

| | | Practices of Doctors |
|-------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| Injection Phobia | Pearson Correlation | -.110 |
| | Sig. 2-tailed) | 0.339 |
| | N | 79 |

Table 3: Analysis of Variance for Linear Regression with Education as predictor of injection phobia among patients

| Model | SS | df | MS | F | Sig. |
|------------|----------|-----|--------|-------|-------|
| Regression | 0.000 | 1 | 0.000 | | |
| Residual | 7928.840 | 154 | 51.486 | 0.000 | 0.999 |
| Total | 7928.840 | 155 | | | |

Table 4: Coefficients for Linear Regression with Education as predictor of injection phobia among patients

| Model | Un-standardized Coefficient | | Standardized Coefficient | t | Sig. |
|----------|-----------------------------|------|--------------------------|--------|-------|
| | B | SE | B | | |
| Constant | 0.000 | .446 | 0.000 | 15.818 | 0.999 |

a. Dependent Variable: injection phobia

Table 5: Summary of Linear Regression with Education as predictor of injection phobia among patients

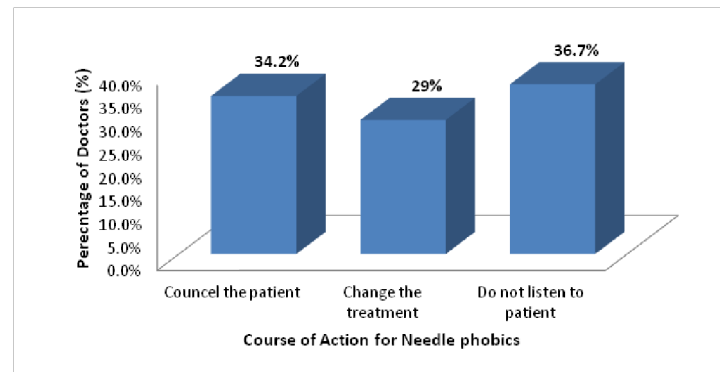
| Dependent Variable | R | R ² | Adj R ² |
|--------------------|-------|----------------|--------------------|
| Education | 0.000 | -0.006 | 7.175 |

df= 1

a. Predictors: (Constant), Education

b. Dependent Variable: injection phobia

Figure 1: Course of Action of Doctors When Encountered With Needle Phobic's



Discussion:

The objective of the study was to analyze the relationship between injection phobia and practices of doctors as well as to identify the effect of education of the patients on injection phobia.

The results of the first hypothesis showed negative relationship between injection phobia and practices of doctors ($r = -.110$). Doctors do not relate their practices to the fear of the patients towards needles. As part of their duty, the doctors do counsel the patients as revealed in our study but majority of the doctors have also reported no formal training in the counseling of patients who have injection phobia. Counseling is a part of medical education. In Pakistan's context, doctors are trained on how to counsel patients to ensure compliance in different diseases. But particularly, the area of injection phobia has not been addressed and no formal training is imparted on this topic. A research study conducted by (Mahler, et al., 2012) has proven the efficacy of training of doctors on the counseling of patients. The study concludes that patients' satisfaction increases

with proper counseling given by doctors which indicates that proper training of doctors on counseling patients when they show fear of needles can help relieve patients' fear towards needle.

Our study indicates that 29% of the doctors perceiving that alternative treatment to injection is equally effective as injection, do change the treatment. A joint report by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and the World Health Organization confirms that there is misconception among prescribers that injectable drugs are more potent and thus more effective than oral drugs which is contrary to the perception of our healthcare practitioners. The data collected from doctors also revealed that due to workload, doctors continue with the treatment regardless of the fear of the patients associated with needles. People suffering from blood and injection phobia also avoid seeking healthcare themselves owing to this fear and hence, may lead to increased morbidity and mortality (Ellinwood & Hamilton 1991; Kleinknecht & Lenz, 1989).

According to the result, education of patients had no impact on the injection phobia ($R^2 = 0.006$, $F(1, 154) = 0.000$, $p > 0.05$). This finding is also supported by a research study conducted on 1019 residents of metropolitan Seattle in which 24% of the study participants had completed high school 41% had received post-graduation education and despite this, had different fears (Fiset, et. al, 1989). Hence, education of patients cannot be termed as a factor to lessen fear towards needles. Therefore, our hypothesis that there is a relationship between education of patients and injection phobia is rejected. This is probably due to the fact that fear exists as a natural psychological phenomenon related to past experience or reference regardless of education.

Limitations of the study included its sample size being small. Moreover, the study is restricted to one city, i.e. Karachi because of which results cannot be generalized to the population. The scale which was used as a questionnaire was self-reported and there was a chance

of responses being affected by individual's frame of reference or state of mind at that point in time. The questionnaire for doctors was based on three focused group discussions merely. Needles are administered by paramedical and nursing staff as well but no information has been gathered for this study from nursing and paramedical staff their experience and specialized training for administration of needles and injections. Hence, the study was limited to doctors only.

Considering the limitations of the study, further research studies can be expected in which more clinics can be added to form a large sample size. The study can be extended to other cities of Pakistan as well to analyze the injection phobia in the entire population. Standardized questionnaires developed to analyze the practices of doctors will tend to provide more reliable information. Nursing and Paramedical staff, which is in close proximity with patients, can be included to form sample in the study along with doctors. An important consideration would be the hospital related anxiety that can add up to the pre-existing phobias of the patient including the injection phobia. The scope of the present study only focuses on the injection phobia and that is why only related questions were asked in the interview but it opens up a broad question for the future researchers to look for the factors contributing towards the injection phobia especially the role of the environment in this regard.

Policy makers should formulate policies of medical and nursing practices particularly with reference to needle administration. Hospitals should implement the stated policies and ensure that the doctors and staff do follow them. Staff which administers needle should be trained in medical procedures. Staff including doctors should be trained to be friendly with patients so as to help them not feel the pain. Hospitals should form a separate area for needle administration. The room should have ambiance to make injection a good experience. The room should be kept clean and tidy with proper disposal system of needles and other instruments if used there. This

will create a psychological impact on patients. Although, availability of such a room may not guarantee its use in all situations like emergencies but it can be very well utilized in an Outpatient department. Patients are now treated as customers in healthcare industry. Hence, patient feedback forms should be used by the hospital management to see if the patient is satisfied with how he has been treated. Moreover, awareness of intravenous procedures, vaccinations, blood tests should be encouraged in the public to inculcate the importance of medical procedures so that patients will not refrain from injections.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, the results of the study suggest that there is no relationship between injection phobia and the practices of the doctors. Moreover, there is no impact of education on injection phobia. Proper counseling of patients related to medical procedures is mandatory by trained health care practitioners. Improved management practices by hospital administrators may play an important role in shedding the workload of practitioners which will render time to doctors for the counseling of patients after which enhanced patient satisfaction from the treatment and decreased fear from needles may be expected.

Conflicting Interests

None declared.

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COUNTRY AND FIRM LEVEL DETERMINANTS OF CAPITAL STRUCTURE: A REVIEW PAPER

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1.Introduction:

The financing activities of a firm are significantly influenced by the capital structure policy hence capital structure is a manifest variable fluctuating shareholder's value. The study aims to find the issue at stake that is to what extent a company's capital structure varies internationally and to critically evaluate the factors which may account for such international variations in the way companies finance themselves. Fan et al. (2012) referred to certain factors which could affect the capital structure of the companies. The authors distinguished between international factors (in both developed and developing countries) and the firm's specific factors which depend on pure firm characteristics that determine the capital structure and maturity structure choice of a company.

The article is organized as follows: Section 1 gives a comprehensive introduction along with theories of capital structure, the objective of the study and the research rationale. Section 2 gives background and discussion on the literature on the country level determinants of capital structure. Section 3 gives a comprehensive background and discussion on the literature on the firm level factors that determine the choice capital structure. Section 4 tries to answer the research purpose by discussing different findings of the literature and hence concludes the study.

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1.1. Capital Structure Theories

Based on the assumptions of perfect market, absence of personal taxes and independent financial activities, the Modigliani-Miller (1958) theory indicates that the decision of capital structure is irrelevant to firm value. However, in reality such assumptions are untenable. The oscillation in the firm value relates to the changes of capital structure was proofed by empirical evidences. According to the tradeoff theory, the firm value can be maximized by achieving the target capital structure which minimizes taxes and agency costs. However, it has been argued that the taxes and the agency costs are meaningless when deciding a financing model (Pinegar and Wilbricht, 1989). According to Myers (1984) pecking order theory asymmetric information, higher costs and taxes are responsible for the popularity of debt but the internal funds/retained earnings should be preferred to any external financing for the reason of efficient control. Nevertheless, some studies suggest contradictable evidences. For instance Ang and Jung (1993) inspecting pecking order theory from South Korean show that the external financing such as bank loans are preferable than internal funds.

Depending upon the academic literature and using the theories (pecking order, trade off and agency costs) as benchmarks, the findings of the study showed that a country's taxation system and a country's legal system and ownership structure are the crucial determinants of capital structure that vary internationally. Firms' profitability and tangibility of assets, uniqueness of the firm and the industry classification, growth opportunities and the size of the firms are regarded as purely firm specific factors that determine the capital structure. It is also important to reveal that according to Chen (2003) China as one of the biggest developing countries has introduced and started to follow a "new pecking order theory" which renders that issuing equity should be preferred over issuing debt. The objective of the research is to provide an adequate background in the area of

capital structure and to identify the determinants of capital structure that vary now firm to firm and country to country and to answer how different researchers found different relationships of these determinants with the choice of capital structure. The study contributes by laying down the foundation for further work that the research on other factors like relationship banking and/or culture (within the country and between the countries) should be studied in detail to see whether they affect the capital structure.

2. Country Level Determinants of Capital Structure

Booth et al. (2001) prove that financing policy can be influenced by country specific factors such as GDP and the development of stock and bond markets. Fan et al. (2012) state that leverage and/or debt maturity is determined by some specific factors in each country, such as tax policy, legal system and suppliers of capital. Franks and Colin (1994) put forward that level of ownership concentration also determines the choice of capital structure. According to Rajan and Zingales (1995), although determinants of a firm's capital structure may be similar at the industry-level within countries, the country-level factors are probably distinct.

2.1 Tax

Based on the assumptions of perfect market, Modigliani and Miller (1963) claimed that in the absence of taxes, it is irrelevant whether the capital is financed by debt or equity. However in the existence of taxes, there is an incentive to raise capital by issuing debt so as to reduce tax payment because the interest paid is tax deductible. Fan et al. (2012) showed that taxation has a great influence on a firm's capital structure in developed countries whereas in developing countries tax shield advantage did not affect the choice of capital structure. Looking at developed countries which are able to take the tax shield benefits seemed to use more long term debt in contrary to less tax shield countries. Debt financing seems plausible

for the opportunity of tax reduction in countries like Netherlands, UK, Peru and USA as dividends are taxed twice at corporate level and personal level. However on the other hand, countries like Turkey, Sweden, Greece and Portugal with tax payable only at corporate level did not encourage exercising tax shield. Debt is unpopular in these countries since tax refund is not allowed. There was no enormous effect on countries like Italy, Germany and Australia which use “imputation tax system” that give no advantage in using the tax shield. Booth et al. (2001) found that in most of the developing countries tax shield cannot be carried back to previous year unlike in developed countries, hence did not leave much incentive for tax advantage. However in some of the developing countries like Pakistan and Korea, tax shield is positively related to debt. In Malaysia, despite using less total debt than that of the former two, debt is observed to have the same positive relation to the tax shield. In the case of multinational companies resident in Germany Buttner et al. (2009) found that a rise in local tax of resident country seemed to increase not only external debt financing but also the inter-company debt financing. This is due to the fact that parent company can borrow money from the subsidiary or associate without losing any control as well as being able to use the tax shield advantage. Pettit and Singer (1985) looked within industries and reported that small firms did not get manoeuvre by tax shield as they did not have huge profits, rendering debt implausible just for tax reason. However big firms have large profits, which renders debt being plausible due to the tax shield advantage.

2.2 Bankruptcy Law

A country’s legal system and government’s law enforcement also tend to shape the capital structure of a firm. According to Trade-off theory, bankruptcy cost is a considerable factor when designing the optimal debt-equity of a company. The rationale of the relationship between bankruptcy law and its enforcement is easy to follow. If the bankruptcy law is strict for insolvent firms, managers may have a

strong incentive to keep the liquidity of the company, probably by using fewer debts. Mazhar and Nasr (2010) gave the example of Pakistan and proved that highly corrupt countries with less integrity being exercised tend to issue more debt than equity and specifically preferring short term maturity debt. Consequently countries with better financial claims, exercising better integrity attract more equity finance as exploitation of external investors is low. Therefore corruption influenced leverage positively whereas negatively related to equity and maturity of debt. A better enforceability of bankruptcy code or deposit insurance also has positive relation with high leverage and high maturity in contrast to countries with an undeveloped bankruptcy framework since the lenders' rights are undermined. Fan et al. (2012) highlighted the fact that neither bankruptcy code nor the distinction of common and civil law had significant implication on developing countries, possibly due to the slight law enforceability and integrity. However Rajan and Zingales (1995) imposed that companies facing bankruptcy in Germany, seemed to liquidate rather than reorganise with the result in managers losing control of the company. Debtors retain less value which has made leverage less popular in Germany since value of the company on liquidation was lowered as compared to reorganisation and also due to the loss of managers' control on bankruptcy. Brounen et al. (2006) also argue more than a quarter of higher managers in Netherlands will consider bankruptcy cost when making decisions. However Americans' bankruptcy code prefers to reorganize the company where managers still retain control enhancing the long term debt popular.

2.3 Suppliers of Capital

In addition to tax and bankruptcy code, suppliers of capital also determine the choice of debt maturity. Miller (1977) argued that the leverage ratio in the economy could be explained by overall investor preferences for debt or equity. For instance, based on the research of approximately 12,000 firms in 42 countries over the period of 1997-2001, De Jong et al. (2008) illustrated that a well developed

bond market had a positive effect on a firms' leverage. In such markets, relatively more investors would like to hold bonds. Fan et al. (2012) also supported the results which previous studies have had, however they focused on a different aspect of the issue; the suppliers of fund for financial intermediaries. They specifically selected three types of financial intermediaries; banks, pension funds and insurance companies and argued that banks may tend to have short-term debt, while pension funds and insurance companies prefer to have long-term debt. They concluded that debt maturity was negatively related to the size of banking sector, symbolized by the amount of deposit in banking sector and the domestic saving level. Furthermore, they also found that in those countries with deposit insurance, the debt maturity tends to be longer. However, there is no significant relation found between insurance companies and capital structure.

2.4 Ownership

Franks and Colin (1994) propose that the level of ownership concentration and corporate control could also affect the capital structure. Theoretically, if an active takeover market exists, companies may hold more debts to make themselves less attractive to raiders. Rajan and Zingales (1995) claimed that the effect of concentrated control of capital structure is still unclear. They argue that an undiversified ownership can effectively reduce agency cost and increase equity usage. However, if the dominated shareholders are banks, they may stop the company from using other forms of funds except borrowing loans from the banks.

3. Firm level Determinants of Capital Structure

Fan et al. (2012) while studying country level determinants of capital structure (examined for both developed and developing countries) also examined the firms' level determinants of capital structure and maturity choice. These pure firm characteristics in some cases were proved to have a significant influence on capital structure

decisions. The choices of financing a firm depends on the asset structure of the company, size of the firm, profitability, growth perspective, uniqueness of the firm and the industry classification. Kayo and Kimura (2011) also state that the agency cost, tradeoff and pecking order theory is of a great significance to measure (firm level) determinants of capital structure.

3.1.1 Profitability

Fan et al. (2012) found that leverage which was defined as book value of the debt over the market value of the firm is negatively related to leverage. Referring to the pecking order theory this seemed completely reasonable since a firm with higher profits would have more retained earnings and this would lead to an internal financing system rendering the issuing of debt unwanted. On the other hand, firms with less profit will be forced to rely on debt financing. Profitability encourages long term debt if it is issued. Similar results are pulled out of Degryse et al. (2009) regarding small firms where profit had a negative effect on leverage and this is more pronounced in short term debt. What is more, the second study put forward that profitability is the key factor of capital structure in certain industries like wholesale and trade retail as well as in transport sector. Booth et al. (2001) studied cross-country and firm specific determinants of capital structure decisions for developing countries, they concluded that firms' profitability should be considered as one of the most significant and reliable factors which affect capital structure worldwide in both developed and developing countries. They strongly supported the idea of profitability that negatively affect the leverage and assume that this factor could be used in order to explain the impact of another factor like firms' growth opportunities. Frank and Goyal (2003) found a negative relation between firms' profit and leverage and also measured the change in volume of the debt ratio reflected by respective change in firms' profit. They concluded firm circumstances were may be of some importance for leverage decision for example that the reaction of low profit firms and high profit firms are almost

identical. In addition, another study by Joeveer (2005) concluded that profitability is a critical factor for capital structure decision which is highly as well as negatively related to leverage especially for small and unlisted companies. However, Mazhar and Nasr (2010) examined the example of Pakistan concluded that profitability was positively correlated with leverage for government owned companies and negatively correlated for private companies respectively. To sum up, retained earnings seemed to be the quickest and safest way to raise capital compared to equity which could be due to the high transaction costs that the later may implies. In small profitable firms, issuing equity is more vigilant because of the managers' fear of losing control. Profitable firms will tend to have less debt and it would be easier for them to raise debt ratio when needed comparing to less profitable ones.

3.1.2 Tangibility

Tangible assets can be put as collateral while borrowing long-term loans, so it attracts more debt maturity (Fan et al., 2012). An extensive use of short term debt was observed in developing countries (Booth et al., 2001). The more tangible assets are owned by companies, the longer the debt maturity will be. However asset tangibility affected total debt and long term debt decisions differently. In general the more tangible assets mix will lead to higher long term financing and smaller total debt ratio. Fan et al. (2012) found in their empirical work that asset tangibility is positively related to long-term debt and as a result firms with a great number of assets tend to use more debt. This outcome is in line with Titman and Wessels (1988) where they proved that companies collateralized their assets for debt financing. On the other hand, issuing this kind of collateralized debt will confine the borrowing firm to limited and specific investment projects. In addition, Frank and Goyal (2003) reported that firms using long-term assets as collateral tend to use more leverage. The findings of the later are in contrast with the Titman and Wessels (1988) that resulted about the intangible assets. Specifically, Frank and Goyal (2003) argued that intangible

assets can be used as collateral and creditors can claim rights on them.

3.1.3 Growth

Another firm characteristic which affects structure of capital could be firm's growth opportunities. According to the agency cost theory, managers' interests may often be in conflict with those of the shareholders. When good investment opportunities arise, the pursuit of growth objectives by issuing equity can create agency costs of the so called managerial discretion. To control this phenomenon shareholders attempt to issue debt. However, when these interests coincide, like in the presence of strong growth investments, it is expected that less debt will exist. In other words, growth opportunities are negatively correlated with leverage, a conclusion which is also consistent with (Fan et al., 2012; De Jong et al., 2008; Frank and Goyal, 2003) and concluded that growth, measured as the market to book ratio, has a negative impact on leverage which is most explicit factor for the long term debt. These findings led to conclude that leverage is preferred to be kept low from fast growing firms, so as not to abandon profitable projects due to the wealth transfer from shareholders to creditors.

3.1.4 Industry Classification

Titman and Wessels (1988) were the first to put industry classification as well as firm's uniqueness as factors influencing capital structure in a negative manner. Firms which manufacture products that require spare parts, as well as specialized servicing are associated with relatively high costs for their customers, workers or even suppliers, in the event of liquidation it would be more than expected to issue less debt. Kayo and Kimura (2011) points out that firms in more progressive environment tend to keep lower level of debt. Despite the fact that Filbeck et al. (1996) proved that new companies do not purely imitate the structure of the leader in their industrial

sector, they do admit that new firms take into account the mean capital structure of the majority of the other firms which belong to the same sector, a phenomenon which they call “herding behaviour”.

3.1.5 Size

The size of the firm is another important determinant of capital structure. Titman and Wessels (1988) imposed that small firms tend to use more short term debt than large firms, which prefer to use long-term debt and they are more leveraged. Fan et al. (2012) put forward that the size of a firm (measured by the total assets) is positively related to leverage or to debt maturity. In other words, the study suggests that larger firms use more long term debt. Furthermore, the outcome of Frank and Goyal (2003) about the effect of firm size (defined by the log of sales) under the tradeoff theory, also imposed that big and matured firms have positive relationship with leverage. However, it is important to mention that Frank and Goyal (2003) made a reference about the relationship between the total sales and the total profits. Assuming the amount of total sales highly correlated with total profits, this according to the pecking order theory would imply that the larger firms with more sales would use less leverage. Concluding, firm size as better measured by the conventional ratio of total sales is positively related with leverage.

3.2 “New Pecking Order Theory”

Finally, at this point this study has separately referred to Republic of China which is one of the largest and transitional developing countries of the world. Keister (2004) examined the Chinese paradigm that firms were mainly controlled and monitored by the state and additionally the current domestic stock market is still at its infancy. Therefore state monopoly on the financial sector prevails and hinders the use of alternative sources of finance and particularly the bond market. The most notable difference between the capital structure of Chinese firms and the western firms is, that Chinese firms prefer short

term finance and have very few long term debts, as well as they generally prefer equity over debt financing. This fact, leads Chen (2003) to suggest a state of a “new pecking order theory” where equity has priority over debt. This is mainly because of the fundamental institutional differences in the capital structure assumptions of western and Chinese firms. The management also prefers equity financing because it is not an obligation. The majority of banks and firms are both owned directly or indirectly by the state, so it would be indifferent as to how much debt is issued. Wald (1999) found that with Chinese firms being centrally controlled, the volatility of earnings and bankruptcy costs are not significant even though Chinese firms experience negative correlation with debt as equally as the rest of the world. State owned firms are less likely to fall into financial crisis comparatively to other private corporations. However there are number of firms following the basic market economy rules despite the central control. According to Chen (2003) other firm specific factors have the same effect on the leverage as on western firms. A positive relationship between growth opportunities and debt is found in the Chinese paradigm. This is again in tandem with Wald (1999) findings that growth effect is similar to other western firms’ capital choices excluding US. Most of the listed firms in China are related to manufacturing and heavy industry. Hence companies in China possess more tangible than intangible assets. So research also proves that there is a positive correlation between the tangible assets and debt for the firms, not only in China but in other parts of the globe as well. As we mentioned earlier, the reason is that, by having more tangible assets increases the collateralization for debt and thus reduces the risk of lender. Chen (2003) research concluded that total debt is found to be positively related to firm’s size, however this relationship is statistically insignificant. Nevertheless, in terms of maturity, firm size was proved to be negatively related to long term debt ratio, with this relationship being statistically highly significant. The reason for this outcome could possibly be the fact that big firms depend on their good reputation as well as the fact that big firms are lured by the gains of turning to the secondary markets.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

Differences among firms' capital structure decisions are explained in a comprehensive way by analyzing the numerous variables ranging among countries. Developing countries tend to have high leverage but low maturity in contrast to developed countries with less leverage but high maturity Fan et al. (2012). The structure of financial institutes in developing countries is different comparatively to the homogeneous financial institutional structure in developed countries. Concerning the firms' specific determinants of capital structure, it can be said that affect capital structure decisions in both developed and developing countries in the same manner. Differences do exist due to these factors, be its country level or firm level, but different studies provide mixed results. Therefore, a critical and analytical usage of these firm specific factors in correspondence with the cross-country determinants should be used to provide a more adequate and whole measure and justification for capital structure decisions. Over and above there is a big room for research to study factors like relationship banking and/or culture (within the country and between the countries) should be studied in detail to see whether they affect the capital structure choice or not. Capital structure decisions rely on a complex array of theoretical foundations and practical considerations. At the managerial level, the decision is often obscured by practical limitations to the theoretical base. In order to be useful to practicing managers, it is impractical to base decisions purely on empirical studies.

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BOYS AND GIRLS LEARN DIFFERENTLY

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Boys and Girls Learn Differently: a guide for teachers and parents by Michael Gurian with Kathy Stevens, Patricia Henley and Terry Trueman- Rev. 10th anniversary ed. (Jossey-Bass 2011)380 pp. paper. ISBN 978-0-470-60825-8.

Every generation has been committed to the task of educating their youth with nobility of purpose. The quest for searching for or emulating existing models of excellence to enhance learning potentials and outcomes of learners is a ubiquitous desire. Nonetheless, the preponderance of research in science makes us question the hierarchy of learning theories and styles in education that have come to be explained in scientific terms.

The human brain is a living, amorphous organism. In the realm of education it means searching for tools that allow it to grow to its fullest capacity. The 1990s was declared as the Decade of the Brain as MRIs and PET advancements floated the concept of 'brain-based learning' showcasing how certain structures in the brain differ, and how blood flow and neurotransmission varies with gender. While some view cultural and socioeconomic factors as determinants of learning outcomes of boys and girls, some take recourse in offering scientific explanations for the like. *Boys and Girls Learn Differently* by **Michael Gurian with Kathy Stevens** corroborates the latter view. Visibly propositioned through the title, seated in scientific evidence, the book accounts for discrete differences between male and female brains that are concomitantly held responsible for varied learning

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and behavioral outcomes of both genders. Seeking a departure from traditional institutional classrooms, their goal is to train educators, parents and the larger community to recognize reasons of both nature and nurture, and brain differences in a bid to create an amiable environment where each child thrives on instruction congealed with love.

Founder of Gurian Institute, one of the pioneer organizations to apply gender science to education on a mass scale, and as leading authorities on education, family development and gender studies, the authors enjoy a world-wide appeal from Colorado to Canada, and from Qatar to France. First published in 2001, *Boys and Girls Learn Differently* accounted for and substantiated their two year successful six-school pilot study in Missouri based on their brain based research. Culled from over twenty years of study, this 10th anniversary edition combines practical application of their initial theory combined with informed data. It also highlights boys' issues in school at a time when cultural interest in this area is growing. Despite advances in scientific knowledge, their initial gender science findings have stood up to a decade of scrutiny, unabashedly speaking in their favor.

For an effectual appraisal, the book is divided into two parts. Part I comprising chapters one and two explains how boys and girls learn differently given the inherent differences between their brains while part II consisting of chapters three to six includes information on designing the ultimate classroom for both genders from preschool to high school putting theory into practice. Though chronologically divided by years based on four stages; preschool and kindergarten, elementary school, middle school and high school to appropriate each learning lesson suitable to the respective age group, the general content(in Part II) across the years is overwhelmingly symmetrical. The introduction defines the theoretical framework and parameters of their research, achieved successes and their innovations with single sex options. Each chapter from three to six ends with a synopsis of

tips for parents, with a list of suggestions for boys and girls separately to empathize with their uniqueness. The book ends with a parents' book study and teachers' book study showcasing all techniques developed and outlined earlier to create an activity pack for communal effort. A concluding epilogue reiterates the need for change in perception and the need for training ourselves in brain biology for the greatest benefit to our children, hence catching up on their argument.

Part I acts as the primer to understanding the theory, and it would not be a truism to contend that it is indispensable to the overall contribution of the book. Graphic illustrations and elaborate tables in Chapter one detail the wide spectrum of gender in the brain by mapping developmental and structural, chemical, functional and hormonal differences in the male and female brain. To delineate the seat of differences, special emphasis is placed on the role of hormones in utero and at puberty. Concomitantly, we learn not only of how the brains are different but also why until no question arise in the mind of the reader regarding differences that sometimes override cultural expectations and social experience. Emotive processing, an area given little credence to and thought of as nonessential to learning earlier are proven crucial in the realm of brain-based research. Pointing out ways in which boys are more emotionally fragile than girls, the authors expose a sensitive side of males never seen or understood before, inspiring the reader to an enlightened vision of the vulnerable male. Emphasis to equally understand and emotionally protect both genders is one of the redeeming qualities of this book. Denying any inherent male or female superiority in moral or social terms, they speak of a skill superiority built into general male and female brain development which can be equalized through altering teaching environments. By demarking areas of learning style differences identified by brain based research (in chapter two), we learn of which learning style suits which gender best. An interesting fact inferred here is that boys are at an advantage in active learning styles oriented to body movements that

stimulates their spatial abilities, whereas girls are more prone to verbal advantages. Through exploration of dominant traits in male and female intelligence, we see the application of the defined intelligence styles appropriated to empower instructors and parents in reinventing the cognitive process both at home and in school.

Cumulatively, Part I of the book shall be of intrinsic value to both students of biology as well as to parents, teachers and social scientists who shall be smitten over by the strength of the infallible evidence provided motivating them to action. Peppered generously with fascinating neurological data that the critical reader wishes to imbibe greedily, the argument moves to the next continuum of questions.

Can good schools be built on successful curricula and programs only? An important part of the social conversation today is on making parents and professionals understand their boys and girls better. As parents where do we go wrong? What simple common sense tips do we apply to create healthy kids who live and learn better? Is it fair to treat boys and girls equally given their differences? What does brain based research say about how adolescents learn?

Part II of the book supplies the promise for deliverance. Chapters three through six highlight brain based research in action through princely doses of bonding and mentoring fused with hybrid structural innovations that warrant a fluid learning process. It shall suffice to say at the outset that these good instructional strategies only work as external stimulants. The child is only receptive to learning when a healthy emotional climate is afforded.

A meticulous perusal of these chapters reveals the nexus between science and emotions welded to learning. A detailed examination of this premise ensues later. Linked thematically, chapters three and four shall be assessed together, while chapters five and six require an aggregate appraisal.

Beginning with the analogy of a plant that ‘grows towards the sun’, chapter three chants the clichéd mantra that the brain thrives on bonds and attachments to grow and learn to its optimum. Needs vary with age but the need remains. Surprisingly, this common sense assumption forms the crux of brain based research and the foundation of early learning, rather all learning. A deepened understanding of this premise builds the incidence of the ultimate classroom through the years. As a preschooler takes the first leap out of the house in a formal environment, the first change sought in these inception years is indubitably redefining the teacher’s role as a second mother to remove the feeling of disconnect between home and school. A prerequisite to learning for young minds is intimate attachment with an elder they can trust and love. Wedded to appropriate bonding rituals, structural innovations as smaller class size, a well-defined teacher to student ratio, integration of physical environment with indoor classrooms, multisensory teaching, group dynamics, intergenerational mentoring, and multigenerational classrooms veer the child towards personal and academic excellence. With parents acting as coordinators with teachers to facilitate the learning process, a zone of comfort and security is cultivated. Remarkably vocalizing the ramifications of fractured intimate relationships that are felt in each area of child development, the authors convince us that by building cohesive bonds with pupils, and removing the emotional woes that plague them incessantly greatly reduces the incidence of violence, aggressive behavior and subsequent disciplinary pitfalls that impede the learning process.

Appropriate application of brain science theory initiated in the formative years even eases the burden of the like from elementary school (chapter four). As the needs of preschoolers and elementary school children are overarchingly similar, what works best at one level is fitting at the next stage. An interesting area of focus for mothers is the connection between food and brain at these formative years that profoundly impacts a child’s ability to learn and behave. Like

loving mothers themselves, the authors sensitively preempt the needs of a growing child. By combining common sense with logic allied to science, the concerned parent is drawn towards the efficacy of their findings and answers that were always there but not fathomed.

Providing barely any inventiveness in content, chapter five (on middle school) and chapter six (on high schools) persevere with the same rhetoric and concedingly require an aggregate examination. Keeping all features and innovations the same as of preceding years for the brain to develop to its optimum, the only structural change is in the case for single sex education from middle school and imparting of psychosocial and sex education along with gender education in high school. Channelizing physical energy through mandatory sports also becomes inevitable in middle and high schools. A novel idea floated by the authors is the demand for uniforms to create cohesion and a sense of community and solidarity among peers bemusing the reader to ponder over the utility of such an undertaking.

Appeasing the angered critic who shall point to the futility of creating a gendered island of learning, the authors temper the argument by marketing the liberal idea of a single sex education (through separate classrooms or schools conceived as respecting the brain's natural tendencies) to those who do not thrive in a gendered coeducational environment. Building rationality through logical reasons enveloped in scientific evidence, the concerned parent and teacher is smitten by the value of this imposed segregation. Middle school encompasses a phase of massive transformations as physical growth is augmented with unprecedented speed of adolescent brain growth. Suffering the pendulum of dwindling self-esteem, the home and school alliance acquires renewed significance. Age appropriate rites of passage in school and counseling facilitate this transition into adolescence. Given the fact that high school is a 'time of refinement' both in terms of brain and gender growth, the brain's desire for freedom has to be balanced by the desire for imposed order by integrating a curriculum with a

blend of disciplines. Gender dialogue and sensitively handled sex education to mitigate a better understanding of the genders shall also allow limiting risky behavior of harassment and the blitzkrieg of teenage pregnancies. Pragmatic in their vision, and sociological in their imagination, the authors censure fallacious cultural expectations and environmental demands on high schoolers that pressurize them to perform exacerbating their emotional stresses. As the connection between the reader and the book is the subject, that is, the child, despite the redundant content, the reader is invoked to complete his perusal of the protracted content.

Whatever the problem may be, the solution through the resource of science is the same. Learning thrives in a culture of understanding and partnership. Pioneering thought in this area is the renewed interest in the 'traditional' role of families as the authors deftly establish it as the missing link between emotional health and academic performance. 'Bonding before learning' is established as a common sense appraisal of compassion that we as caregivers so often forget. Pointing the perils of tossing our vulnerable children into a laissez faire existence, they implore the need to 'slow down'. In the words of Kathy Stevens, "this work isn't giving schools and families yet another thing to do, but giving them a new way to make the important things they are already doing most effective". As a parent, it made me emotionally charged to read of poignant stories of aggressive boys and underachieving girls who thrive when treated humanely. The authors irrefutably prove that when loved and appreciated, emotionally stable pupils shine in academics. Healthy ties at home and school are the food for a healthy brain. Lacking intergenerational support, pressed with constraining demands of work, untrained in gender-specific development, parents today are unfitting for their demanding role as mentors. Training them and the educational fraternity is imperative to minimizing damage to future generations.

The appeal of the book lies in its emotive quality. Creating an atmosphere viable for both genders, they convince us that once cared

for the minor weaknesses of children do not become disorders. Without any intention of provoking the feminist camp, the authors explicitly lean towards males, as boys are the largest group of failed learners in the American school systems. Recognizing the pitfalls in presenting this information, they in no way create or perpetuate stereotypes or limit males and females. To them each child is a sacrosanct individual. Facts are to add wisdom to the individuality already inherent in each child.

The market is flooded with literature on brain science, but what sets this book apart is the humane aspect that is sadly absent from literature of this nature. As the innovations presented were applied in the classroom and proven successful, with significant improvements in test scores, student behavior and teacher effectiveness, the metaphor they use is not limited to rhetoric only, its efficacy is ubiquitously applied. Broad longitudinal studies, and exhaustive case studies augment the merit of their endeavor. Notwithstanding that, it is marred by inconsistencies in the second half of the book and comes across as clumsily organized echoing the same overlapping innovations chapter after chapter. However, what may seem redundant to a general reader may be of value to a teacher or parent who may skip over to the age-relevant section without ado. A thorough perusal of Part I and chapters three and four of Part II suffice to developing an understanding of the rubrics the book is built upon. Not much is missed otherwise, as the continuum of information in the last two chapters is exaggeratingly extended.

Not exactly a piece de resistance for a specialist, it does cover ample ground on building the bridge between knowledge and ignorance, past and present and boys and girls. A one-time read is highly advised to usher much-needed change in our thought process and to redefine our priorities towards our young. The question remains: Are we as educators and parents ready to accept the gauntlet of seducing our boys and girls with love and empathy to embark on a promising future that is built on the bedrock of trust and love?

EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHER RESEARCH: FROM QUESTIONS TO RESULTS

¹Shelina Bhamani

The title of the book being reviewed is Early Childhood Teacher research, written by Kathryn Castle and published by Routledge. The author of this book is primarily an early childhood teacher and researcher. This book is a paper bound version and comprises of 194 pages with preface, table of contents and glossary at the end of the book. Each section of this book features sections that provide readers with notes, examples from the field, reflections, ideas for explorations and further study. The cover page of the book is a jigsaw puzzle which according to the author represents teacher research in early childhood and the author has annotated it by mentioning, “early childhood teacher researchers fit jigsaw puzzle pieces to create a whole picture of what they are studying” (p.ix).

The theme of the book is about teacher research and its significance in early childhood settings and how through teacher research knowledge about young children and their learning is constructed. The book offers a huge stock of resources to practitioners and professionals engaged in early childhood research, providing tips from conceptualizing research to disseminating it to the wider community. This book has eight chapters followed by a set of constructive exercises to practice research and examples of a few research studies carried out by other teacher researchers global or of the same context.

Chapter one consists of explanations about defining what early childhood teacher research is all about. The chapter starts with a self-experience case study by the author of her inspiration to become

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early childhood researcher. Opening chapter allows readers to relate to their own experiences as a teacher and pave path for further inquiry for the same. Later, it has established a fine connection between teaching and researching. The author has used a magnificent definition to describe teacher research “when you combine the act of teaching with the act of researching, you get teacher research: a systematic approach to studying teaching for the improvement of teaching and learning” (p.3). This chapter also briefly elucidates early childhood and its importance and how children and their learning can be advanced from teacher research. Various references are provided here to explain the scope of this which may keep the reader’s interest intact. Chapter ends with notes from the field and interesting ideas for exploration followed by a reference list.

Chapter two presents in detail around the purpose of doing early childhood teacher research, the role of practitioners and significance of integrating research in early childhood teachers’ professional development. It starts with a journal entry quotation from a third grade teacher researcher, “I love the voice of teacher research as it encompasses the personal and professional point of views of who we are as teachers” (p.12), this quote immediately captivates the interest of the teachers who intend to be researchers to get into the in depth understanding of what the author in this book is deliberating upon. The best part of this chapter is the format and layout provided by the author for teacher researcher’s notebook entry on page 26, which may be very constructive for teacher educators to provide their trainee teachers on the orientation day of the training. At the end of chapter two, the author provides readers with an orientation to one of the leading agencies of child development standards development NAEYC, which would not only help the professionals to explore the platform but avail free relevant resources from visiting their websites.

Chapter three is designed as pivotal part of the book where the author has comprehensively illuminated the process of beginning the research. Many practical exercises are given for the readers to come to a point to draft their own research questions. This chapter also starts with a quote, “I am a thinker and a whyer” (p.28) and used to denote a state of a 5 year old child in an early childhood classroom.

This quote sets the whole theme of the chapter, where teacher researchers are explained how their inquiry for investigation can begin taking inspiration from the state of young children. Young children question and inquire anything and everything that comes to their mind, they have questions for all questions and that is where the author of this book has asked the teacher researcher to gain similar skills of questioning. On page 30, the author has beautifully elicited the platforms through which questions for research emerge i.e. “wondering, problems, interactions, professional literature and daily experiences and passion” (p.30). This indeed is a very beneficial piece of writing and can be used widely by early childhood practitioners and teacher researchers for formulating questions and research problems for their inquiry. At the end of this chapter, the author has given a comprehensive sample of research questions and sub questions, by an early childhood teacher researcher.

Chapter four describes the process of planning the research study after the conceptualization and formulation of the research question. Wide range of teacher research types are explained including the mix method. In this chapter, the author has systematically defined the process of research and provides a step by step guide for a teacher research project. Several qualitative and quantitative designs are discussed briefly with very relevant examples, sample of teacher research project plan is given which could let the readers to conceptualize the idea more concretely. At the end of fourth chapter, research ethics in early childhood are discussed with cases.

Chapter five to seven focus on data management. These chapters elaborate how various forms of research data are applicable and useful for the teacher research in the early years’ settings. Further a few data interpretation and its techniques are shared which are beneficial and provide hands on insights to the readers. It has established a framework for data analysis and interpretation for the readers as well. It also talked about how research findings can be disseminated to the relevant key stakeholders and various ways of doing so is discussed in detail. In addition to it, specimens of data collection survey forms, data entry formats, and data analysis are presented across the chapters to facilitate the readers with daily classroom examples.

Chapter eight, which is the last chapter, starts with an interesting quote, “It is here that rubber meets the road, where people take specific actions to modify teaching practices, develop new classroom procedures, or engage in new learning process” (p.154). It particularizes the process of how teacher research can benefit the teacher, curriculum, community and policy development. Since, it is the concluding chapter it merely talks about how teacher research can have wide range of constructive and imperative implications in the field followed with a reference reading section.

Overall, the author in this book has been very focused in addressing the targeted readers i.e. early childhood teachers and accordingly have used the language, illustrations, templates and examples. The book is highly recommended for the novice early childhood teachers, teacher researchers and early childhood educators. It can be very fruitful for university faculty and teacher research as it has ample ideas and templates which can be beneficial for providing experiential learning opportunity to trainee teachers.

Reference:

Castle, K. (2011). *Early Childhood Teacher Research: From Questions to Results*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group. 7625 Empire Drive, Florence, KY 41042.

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS
(Research Section)

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2. Papers for publication should be sent in triplicate or by e-mail to:

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