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# Contents

# LIFESTYLE CHANGES OF OLDER ADULTS AND SATISFACTION WITH LIFE

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**ABSTRACT**

This study aimed to reveal the factors that define the change or continuity of lifestyle of older adults after retirement. Grounded theory was the basis for examining the attitudes and experiences of 9 semi-structured interviews. Analysing the interviews, "life satisfaction" was set as a major category followed by four sub-categories: "social relations", "activity changes and slows down", the meaning of life", and "healthy lifestyle". The participants in the study have life satisfaction as the main goal. They associate it with quality social relations with family and significant others and replacing or adding new activities to their lifestyle.

Slowing down the pace of their actions enables enough time to think about the meaning of life and can lead to a healthy and successful life. However, changes following retirement can negatively influence participants' life satisfaction or even push them to a negative view of life in old age. Therefore, the study suggests that older adults should plan for changes in their lifestyle after retirement to preserve life satisfaction and lead a healthy and satisfying life in old age.

**Keywords:** Life satisfaction, Lifestyle, Healthy Living, Organization, Social relations, meaning of life, Activities

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## INTRODUCTION

In this article, we treat lifestyle as a combination of the meaning of life course proposed by Alvin as a "web of events and transitions" (2012).

Ageing is an inevitable, multifaceted, vague and complex physiological, social and psychological phenomenon, although many scholars and researchers have studied it for decades (Wong, 2018; Urtamo et al., 2019). As life expectancy is increasing and longevity is a reality, maintaining a healthy lifestyle for older adults presents a great challenge and is an extremely important factor in successful ageing (Atkins et al., 2013). The healthy living of older adults is closely related to their health and influences their lifestyle; as Visser et al. (2019) argue: a" healthy lifestyle benefits physical, psychological, cognitive, and social functioning up to very old age". Therefore, maintaining an active lifestyle, quality nutrition, good social relations, and mental activities are the prerequisites of a healthy lifestyle (Stuntz & Weiss, 2010).

Zantinge et al. (2013) found out that the transition to retirement is favourable and unfavourable, depending on various factors like the type of lifestyle and personal situation of the retiree. Physical, environmental, and interpersonal changes and social expectations generate tensions between past and contemporary behaviour patterns and create new possibilities for ageing (Breheny & Griffiths, 2017; Henning et al., 2019). Understanding the psychological and social factors that shape older people's lifestyle is essential to understanding the changes in older people's lives (Halaweh et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2015; Alvin, 2012).

Katz (2013) argues that lifestyle, in gerontological terms, promotes healthy and successful ageing through diverse ageing experiences and is the dialect between choice and constraint across the life course. Vigezzi et al. (2021) revealed that the transition to retirement independently impacts perceived health status, physical activity, and risky behaviours. Through the life course approach, we can identify key opportunities for lowering the risk and enhancing the protective factors through all life stages (Jones et al., 2019). Understanding individual changes of behaviour of retired older adults offer important perspectives that can inform forming the programs and practice for healthy living for older people at home and in aged care.

**Life satisfaction**

Life satisfaction is multifaceted and always personal and is comprised of several factors such as employment status, education, social support, daily activities, health, cognitive quality (Papi & Cheragi, 2021); economic conditions and role change (Güven & Șener, 2010); health self-assessment (Kutubaeva, 2019; Lim et al., 2016); self-assessment of physical and mental health, and physical activity (An et al. (2020). Moreover, it is not uniform across different age groups and individuals.

Banjare et al. (2015) and Cheung and Lucas (2015) argue that life satisfaction is the subjective global evaluation of personal content and happiness and positively influences health and well-being (Nakamura et al., 2022). Conversely, life satisfaction is associated with life trauma and chronic stressors throughout the life span of people, especially after retirement (Ren et al., 2021).

**Social relations**

Antonucci (2001) and Kauppi et al. (2021) argue that people usually form a social convoy, which remains stable in old age but often lose outer social network circles during retirement, which constantly changes its structure (Comi, Cottini, and Lucifora (2022). Litwin and Tur-Sinai's (2015) main findings reveal that a strong tie with personal social network members substitutes for weak links of colleagues at work and influences the decision to retire. Sometimes social network even shrinks deliberately due to retirement or emergency health (Cherepanova, Tukhvatulina, and Mirza, 2016). Shwartz and Litwin's (2018) research report shows that women grow weak ties and reduce strong relations, representing lower family involvement. Moreover, Finchum and Weber (2000) argue that older adults can actively change their behaviour and establish and constantly re-establish their new friendship networks.

**Activity changes and slows down.**

The results of the retrospective judgment of the passage of time study by Droit-Volet (2019) showed no change with age. Robertson et al. (2015) study showed that merely priming older people with negative stereotypes about ageing walked slowly, and their perception was that time is slowing down. Namely, the perception of older people that time is slowing down is associated with structural and functional changes in the brain that correlate with declines in cognitive tasks that require quick response or decision-making

(Murman, 2019). Primarily, when older people feel that their activities are worthwhile, they age healthily, sustain meaningful relationships, and optimally use their time (Steptoe & Fancourt, 2019). Bejan (2019) understands time as "mind time", which is a sequence of images received from sensory organs. Older people obtain a lower rate of perceived images. However, "slower" days are more productive, active, and full of experiences because of the body and mind rest.

**Meaning of life**

Hallford et al. (2018) analysis indicate that life's purpose, well-being, and life satisfaction are related. Lin et al. (2020) research findings reveal a positive correlation between social support and the meaning of life with life satisfaction.

Derkx et al. (2020) define life's meaning through two factors: communion, defined as connectedness and moral worth, and agency, described as control and self-worth, which have a significant role in experiencing meaning. Dewitte and Dezutter (2021) indicate that meaning reflectivity is an important process in searching for purpose in the life of older adults. According to Halama et al. (2021), retirees generally maintain relations with previous sources of meaning, like family and work (Breheny and Griffiths, 2017). Gohil & Charak (2013) found a negative association between retirement and the importance of life. The purpose of life of retired adults significantly increases after retirement, especially among socioeconomically disadvantaged populations and is primarily associated with living circumstances (Yemiscigil et al., 2021; Hupkens et al., 2016).

**Healthy lifestyle**

Successful ageing is not a new concept Wong (2018). Rowe and Kahn (1988) developed the successful ageing concept by assuming that successful ageing is more than the absence of disease. Healthy lifestyle behaviours like regular physical activity, quality nutrition, and sociodemographic characteristics like sex, age, marital status, education, and chronic disease influence life satisfaction (Phulkerd et al. (2021). According to Shafiee et al. (2020) younger, highly educated men with good financial income and healthy lifestyles age successfully. However, reduced self-care capacity, social, financial, mental, and physical aspects, loneliness, anxiety, and poor health influence reduce life satisfaction (Borg et al. 2005) and healthy adults have family and good social relationships, can adapt quickly to new circumstances, and perceive a good quality of life (Llobet et al. 2011). Parra-Rizo & Sanchis-Soler (2020) argues that older adults who performed high physical activities perceived increased well-being and personal autonomy.

## METHODS

### Study design

To make sense of participants' social worlds through the narratives to explore the life course changes of older adults we conducted semi-structured interviews (Chippendale, 2013). Study research questions led us to use a qualitative method based on Ragin's (2007, 101) qualitative research approach. Ragin (2007) argues that qualitative research advantages lay in the open approach to the research subject with a relatively small number of topics, based on the selection of the research field, locations, and cases.

### Sample and recruitment

We followed the suggestions from Creswell (1998), who suggests 5 to 25 participants. To choose participants, we conducted the snowball method, where one participant suggests another according to pre-set characteristics like being older than 57 years and retired and being an attendee of the regular session of the program for older adults in one of the Slovene municipalities. Three participants refused to participate in the study due to the direct semi-structured interview method. Of the twelve participants included in the study, nine of them agreed to participate. We arranged a meeting in vivo with participants. Those who signed written consent to participate in a study attended the semi-structured interviews.

Before conducting the semi-structured interviews, we gathered basic data about the participants in the research (n = 9) who were retired and aged from 67 to 79. Of the nine participants, four were married, four were divorced, and one was widowed. Three participants had one child, three had two children, and three had 3 children. We informed participants in writing and verbally about the study's goals and answered all their questions.

### Qualitative method and data analysis

For the study, we developed key interview questions about participants' lifestyles and sent the questions to the participants. Research questions asked about satisfaction with life and the quality

of life, social relations, activities and slows down the meaning of life, and healthy life.
Data obtained from semi-structured interviews were analysed using a grounded theory approach based on a precise and rigorous analytical process. We formed theoretical assumptions about lifestyle changes and developed a new conceptual model (Charmaz, 2009). To analyse the data from the study, we used the contents analysis suggested by Lamut et al. (2002), which consisted of:

- Gathering and verifying data.
- Coding the data.
- Setting the conceptual categories and re-iterating the types.
- Furthermore, building a new concept.

Analysing the narratives of older adults, we made sense of their own real-life experiences and developed a deeper understanding of the complexity of lifestyle adoption.

We openly coded segments and quotations from semi-structured interviews using Atlas. Ti software 7.0 followed by axial coding to conceptualise the codes. In the next phase, we identified, described, and combined related findings into categories and sub-categories to develop similar concepts and associations between codes. Next, we constructed diagrams and network views. In the third phase, we integrated types to develop the theoretical concept of the study (Creswell, 2011). Two reviewers constantly assessed and compared data during the analysis. We discussed different views resulting in seeking agreement and extra coding. In the fourth phase, we constructed and explained the model of the study with a storyline.

## RESULTS

### Qualitative analysis

As a result of the main stage, five categories emerged from the content analysis:" "Satisfaction with life", "Social relations", "Activity changes and slowdowns", "Meaning of life«, and "Healthy life". The coding process combined interview data in one super category: satisfaction with life. Data analysis yielded 64 codes.

Table 1: Contents of the hermeneutic unit

| Categories | Codes | Number of codes |
|---|---|---|
| Life satisfaction – super category | | |
| | View of ageing | 3 |
| | Self-image | 8 |
| | View of life | 7 |
| Social relations | | |
| | Social network | 2 |
| | Helping others | 3 |
| | Loneliness | 4 |
| | Self-worth | 4 |
| Meaning of life | | |
| | Personal vision | 4 |
| | Different view | 3 |
| | Spirituality | 6 |
| Activity changes and slowdowns | | |
| | Activity changes | 7 |
| | Slow pace | 8 |
| Healthy life | | |
| | Body maintenance | 3 |
| | Non-stressed living | 2 |

We linked sub-codes, codes and categories to research questions to develop the conceptual model of a study. We show the results in Table 2.

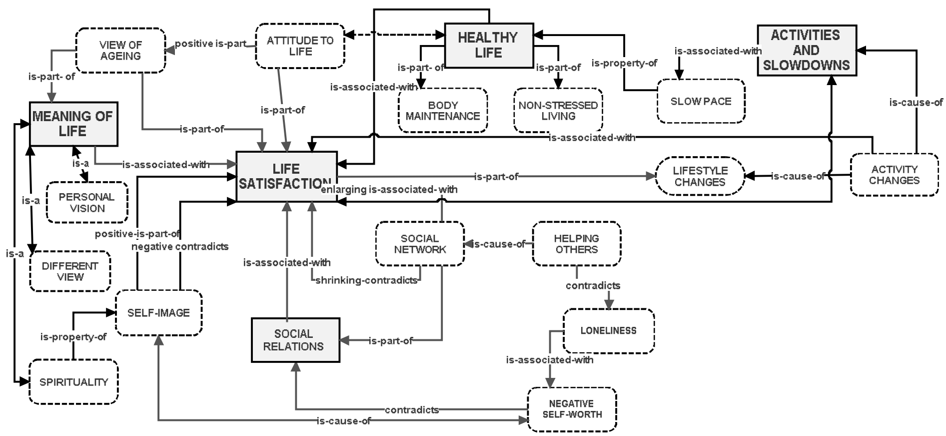
Table 2: Relations between research questions and categories

| Research questions | Categories | Codes | Sub-codes |
|---|---|---|---|
| How does life after retirement affect your life satisfaction? | Life satisfaction | life satisfaction right future direction, ageing awareness, feeling young, taking care of oneself, positive living, positive self-concept, sensing no life changes, life is superb, negative self-concept, quality of life is bad, losing social convoy, feeling unwell, comfortable with strangers | |
| What influenced your social relations after retirement? | Social relations | helping others, being healthy, expanding social network, loneliness, missing job, social isolation, desire to meet new people | |
| How has retirement changed your activities? | Activity changes and slows down | slows down, time for oneself, learning new things, ageing body changes, accepting changes, new activities, replacing one job with another, non-dramatic changes | doesn't matter being slower, keeps forgetting, |
| How do you see | Meaning of | calming down, | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| your life in the future? | life | finding future purpose in life, spiritual development, resilient to life events, deepening, working on oneself, seeing things differently oneself, analysing life | |
| Do you live a healthier life after retirement? | Healthy life | taking care of an ageing body, eating healthy, relaxed and unconcerned life | |

We present a conceptual model of lifestyle changes using associations between categories, codes and subcodes in Figure1. Further, we present a detailed explanation of a conceptual model of lifestyle changes.

Figure1: Conceptual network on changes in the lifestyle




**Perceived life satisfaction**

Maja, the first participant in a study, expressed satisfaction with life:" I am satisfied. I know I am going in the right direction. I am aware of changes due to the ageing process. Still, I am young by heart and feel satisfied. I must take care of my health to follow my future path."

Barbara is enthusiastic about her contemporary life:" It is something beautiful, positive. I accept all that life offers me. I live for today, not for tomorrow. Last few years, I have maintained a very positive image of myself". Simon shares her enthusiasm: "I feel great. I am satisfied with my life; I have no complaints. I would repeat my life in the same way." Erna has similar thoughts: "My life is superb, although I am most of the time without money. I love myself and enjoy myself. I would not change my life no matter what."

Monika expresses great dissatisfaction with her life:" Image of myself suffers, it is much worse than it was in previous years. I used to laugh a lot, telling jokes. My marriage collapsed; my feeling changed. I am not comfortable in the presence of other people because they discreetly avoid me. So, you do not feel well. I feel comfortable only in the company of people I do not know, and they do not know me. I feel terrible."

In summary, being satisfied with contemporary life after changes in the lifestyle of participants in the study is the most important category. It describes the attitude of older adults that have gone through changes in their lifestyle triggered by important life events like retirement, divorce, illness, psychological distress and the effects of ageing. Satisfaction with life provided motivation to embrace changes and set future goals or to dive into depression followed by deep dissatisfaction with life.

**Changes in social relations**

Older adults experience changes in their social network, which reduces and diminishes. In addition, extraordinary events with emotional consequences, like the death of a spouse or family member, divorce, retirement, moving to a different place, and illness, usually negatively influence the social network of older people. Retirement and some other life events facilitate the need for participants to preserve their social relations and build new connections with other people to preserve their self-esteem and reduce their feelings of loneliness.

We describe two life experiences that imposed negative changes in their social relations and the process of establishing a new social network. First, Monika was divorced, radically changing their habits and lifestyle along with her retirement. As a result, she alienated herself from her social network. She struggles to establish new social relations, but with limited success:" I do not know. All of a sudden, you are alone. Nobody needs you anymore. There is no job, and children have their own life.

Anita had a similar experience taking care of her ill mother, losing her job, and her daughter leaving home:" I had to take care of my sick mother. All my activities were related to her illness. As a result, I lost my job, and my daughter left home."

Maja thinks more positively: "I will try to help people when I have the opportunity. My social network is larger because I have the privilege to babysit my grandson." Fani has a similar goal:" If I am healthy, I intend to help older people. I want to visit them, do some household activities, and supply them with necessities."

To widen their social network, participants in this study renewed their social convoy. In this way, new members of their social network, allowing them to be in contact with other people; as Maja stated: "I got involved in sports activities, mountaineering, and cycling, travelling. My social network widened substantially". On the other hand, Monika experienced sudden loneliness because divorce severely reduced her social convoy. Therefore, she had to renew it: "I have a strong desire to make more of myself and to find people to travel with me, to go to the theatre and movies."

Anita had to take of her ill mother and forgot about her social relations with other people resulting in negative consequences: "It made me sad and lonely for years."

Understanding the notion of time

Participants understand the notion of time differently. They know the ageing process is slowly taking place due to structural and functional changes. One of the interviewees, Fani described the contemporary notion of time: "My age is perhaps the reason that I do everything with a slower pace; I have a feeling there is no rush". Erna perceives a different time structure, saying: "Now I have much time for myself so that I can create and learn different skills".

The notion of time appeared in three sub-categories that solidify different perceptions of time: (i) slowdown: Barbara argues," I am slower in doing household activities. It doesn't matter. I can postpone it till tomorrow." (ii) perception of ageing: Marko observes his behaviour: "I am less skilful at my work. I need much more time to do the work." (iii) cognitive incursion: Simon is aware of the ageing changes: "Things change… One keeps forgetting, begin to work at a slower pace." Fani experiences cognitive and physical changes: "Body is ageing. It operates slowly." Monika shares a similar experience: "My reasoning changes, my body changes, I become slower."

Participants in the study want to be useful and add some value to society, but differently. Although the participant's activities changed after retirement, they all felt the need to replace their work and daily routines with new, mostly different activities. However, some participants wanted to preserve some continuity of their lifestyle, like accepting a new job after retirement. One of the participants, Vlado, and his spouse even planned major events and changes after retirement:" My wife retired before me and changed her activities." adding a plethora of new activities to their lifestyle: "We added new ones like maintaining family relations, sports activities, travel, mountaineering, outdoor activities and attending the University for the third age". The other two participants are highly motivated to continue their lifestyles after retirement.

Simon just replaced one job with another to preserve the continuity of his lifestyle. He argues:" I became a keeper of a mountain hut after retirement." The other is determined to add minor changes to her lifestyle: "I am going to continue all my contemporary activities and add another like learning of a foreign language."

Monika tries to beat her loneliness by adding new activities in her life: "I am a member of a drama group, attend an English language course, and I am responsible for the administration of professional society."

All life events cause changes and necessitate a certain effort to live an active life. Sometimes, Fani, a female participant demonstrates that lifestyle changes radically" After retiring, I got involved in several unique activities. I am a member of the Women's country club and attend computer and gymnastics courses. I lead several classes on cooking and baking. I am fully involved in these activities. In summer, autumn and winter, I work on goblins."

Some older adults maintain the continuity of their lifestyle regarding major events in their life. Vlado did not dramatise his retirement. He even felt some relief letting go of job duties: "Retirement is nothing dramatic. No more job duties."

Although the participants varied in their responses to major life events, a range of benefits ensued from continuity, activity change, new jobs, education, and learning. Many expressed excitements because of the changes in their lifestyle, providing unique opportunities to enjoy life. For example, Fani was very proud that she got a new chance: "I babysit my daughter's 19 months old twins."

**Changes in the meaning of life**

Slowing down after retirement balanced the pace of participants in the study. As a result, they had more time to think about their life's meaning. Changes or balancing their lifestyle urged the need to go on a journey to a new phase of spiritual development.

Maja: "I must calm down to find the future meaning in my life. I take care of my spiritual development. I want to be resilient whatever happens to me".

Anita has similar thoughts about her life: "When I deepen myself, I feel calm, think and analyse my life. I must say I look forward to my future life gaining its meaning ".

Marko emphasised the importance of spiritual evelopment: "Working on myself changed me when I participated in the course for spiritual development. After several years of work, I am a transformed person".

Monika widens her view of life:" You see some things differently. For example, I perceive nature in a very different way and see some things never before."

Participants feel a strong need to go on the journey of spiritual development. They joined educational courses on spiritual growth and spent much time thinking about the meaning of their life and future. The spiritual journey was a new phase in the quality of their life.

Participants in a study emphasise a healthy lifestyle. They need to be physically active in the natural environment and eat healthily. Maja narrates: "I have to take care of my Body because it is ageing. I realised that I ate unhealthy food and changed it radically."

Erna wants to change her living environment: "I want to move to the countryside to live a more relaxed and unconcerned life in nature".

Fani connects a healthy lifestyle with close attention to her Body: "I constantly take care of my body, keep it clean and functional".

**DISCUSSION**

The study's findings revealed that participants express high satisfaction with life and connect it with the overall quality of their life by exploring cognitive, psychological, social, and physical activity capacities. Furthermore, participants are satisfied with their lives because they are active, live healthily, learn new skills, work actively on their social network, and grow spiritually. These findings correspond with the conclusions of Phulkerd et al. (2021), who argue that healthy lifestyle behaviours, physical activity, and healthy nutrition improve the satisfaction with life of older adults.

Participants in the study identified two dimensions of life satisfaction caused by important life events. Those participants who had positive life experiences felt good, had a positive image of themselves, were satisfied with their past life, and tried to live for today. These findings are similar to Inal et al. (2007) research results that life satisfaction is subjective, and is the global personal evaluation of content life, satisfaction with life, and emotional feeling of happiness (Cheung and Lucas, 2015). Conversely, those participants that have stressed experiences with important life events perceive negative satisfaction with life. Singh and Mishra (2009) report similar findings, associating depression and loneliness with the lack of close family ties and non-participation in community activities. Extraordinary events with strong emotional responses negatively influence participants' social networks and sometimes radically change their habits and lifestyle, causing alienation from their social network, loneliness, and depression.

Similar research results from Comi, Cottini, and Lucifora (2022) and Kauppi and colleagues (2021) show that major life events like retirement change the structure of a retiree's social network and have a positive influence of the large social network on the satisfaction with life of older adults 50+ (Tomini and Groot, 2016).

Participants in our study discriminate between the time before and now and are aware of the abundance of time for sports, outdoor activities, travel, participating in associations, arts, and making small products. Therefore, they try to adapt and control the ageing process by implementing new functional roles to slow down all activities, primarily developing social functions that maintain their feeling of usefulness and functionality.

Participants develop a primarily slows down approach, and they experience results in adding new activities and abandoning the old. McDonald and colleagues (2017) had similar findings, not detecting consistent patterns of movements. The transition of the lifestyle of older adults facing activity changes has favourable and sometimes unfavourable effects depending on personal factors (Zantinge et al., 2013).

In conclusion, changing activities, new life circumstances, major life events, and variations in social convoy usually result in a changed worldview. These changes empower the desire to be involved in more spiritual activities and seek the meaning of life. The abundance of time allows for personal exploration and new exciting journeys into spiritual development as a unique quality of their existence. The desire to search for the meaning of life connects with new circumstances that allow more time for thinking about more abstract and moral aspects of the importance of life. It is revealed as associated with a quality environment close to nature and an unconcerned and relaxed life. Participants notice that calming down, surfaces new views on their existence, and working on revealing their true selves shows some notions of their future. These results are consistent with Dewitte and Dezutter's (2021) research, which indicates that reflective thinking and life review (Mallete & Oliver, 2006) have an important role in seeking meaning in the life of older adults. In addition, results support Hupkens et al. (2016) findings that the meaning of life is primarily associated with living circumstances and human relations.

Participants especially emphasised caring for the ageing body, keeping it clean and functional, and healthy nutrition. Phulkerd et al. (2021) similarly found that healthy lifestyle behaviours, personal characteristics and absence of chronic disease results in a positive and healthy life.

Changes due to the slowing pace of life to changes as consequences of ageing and changes in lifestyle lead participants on a more spiritual journey. Participants notice that calming down, surfaces new views on their existence, and working on revealing their true selves shows some notions of their future.

Overall, the current study supported Elder et al. (2003) framework that outposts five broad meaning categories: ageing is a lifelong process, individual construction of life course, historical events that shape life experience, consequences of life transitions, the realisation of life satisfaction through a network of shared relationships.

The knowledge from the study can improve the understanding of motivations for healthy lifestyle changes and reveal potential implications for individual prerequisites to healthy ageing. Additionally, health-promoting ageing and lifestyle counselling can adjust individual needs.

Finally, this study has important implications for developing the strategy of coping with the consequences that result from the major events that triggered changes in the lifestyle of older adults. It is important to facilitate adjustments to new circumstances often imposed by major life events, which lead to healthy ageing. Adapting strategies for older adults develop an understanding of the most major life events changes and smoothly transit between life events. It is important to ensure that older adults act independently and build self-management events-sensitive strategies.

**Limitations and further research**

This study has limitations. The sample is small. It evenly distributes gender and sets cultural, geographical and professional limits. A large selection of older adults should widen the knowledge about the lifestyle of older adults after retirement. Further research should include a larger sample of participants, distributed geographically by age and profession, and the influence of life events on the lifestyle of participants. Further research could also benefit from analysing more closely the strategies that older adults implement to cope with major life changes.

## CONCLUSION

Thus, older adults' life course concepts are multifaceted and strongly connected to major life events, ageing, health, social convoy, activities, and spiritual development and deeply impact emotions resulting in life satisfaction and action change.

Major events and other circumstances resulting in changes are only sometimes beneficiary. For example, Breheny and Griffiths (2017) found that older adults want to maintain their behavioural patterns regardless of cost because changes generate tensions between past and contemporary behaviour and affect life satisfaction. Nevertheless, changes generate new opportunities, which some older adults want to avoid embracing.

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ETHICAL APPROVAL: We applied the ethical principles Code of ethics in medical and social care in Slovenija (2014). All personal data concerning participants in the study were anonymised.

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# HIGHER-EDUCATION TEACHING STAFF ATTITUDES TOWARDS ADJUSTMENTS OF THE ACADEMIC PROCESS FOR STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

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**Abstract**

Adjustments to the academic process are one of the most crucial factors that enable students with special educational needs (SEN) to succeed in higher education. They can also be viewed as positive discrimination, enabling students with SEN to fully participate in their studies and achieve their educational goals. Students with SEN can be as successful in their studies as their peers without SEN, provided that higher-education teaching staff adjust the academic process. However, willingness to adjust in the academic process is also influenced by teachers' attitudes toward and provision of adjustments. Research shows that the more positive higher-education teacher' attitudes toward adjustments are, the greater their willingness to adapt the academic process. In the present study, we investigated the attitudes of higher-education teaching staff involved in the teaching process at the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia, towards adjustments in the academic process for different groups of students with SEN. We found that higher-education teaching staff have a positive attitude towards adjustments in the academic process for all groups of students with SEN, but there is a greater reluctance to adapt the academic process for students with emotional and behavioural problems, blind and visually impaired students, and students with speech and language disorders.

**Key words:** Higher education; teachers' attitudes; adjustment; students with special educational needs; inclusion; accessibility

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## Introduction

Most students who have SEN have them because of barriers, disabilities, or deficits due to lifelong neurological or physical causes. Some of them succeed in developing compensatory strategies that help them overcome barriers in the academic environment, while others are unable to do so or their SEN is such that overcoming barriers is not possible. These students with SEN need adjustments in the academic process to overcome barriers (Gibson, 2012; Jakšić Ivačič & Danilovska, 2019; Quinn, 2013; Wilson et al., 2016). Adjustments can be viewed as a form of positive discrimination (Rebolj, 2018) that allows students with SEN to fully participate in their studies and find a way to achieve the same educational goals. Thus, adjustments are not an advantage or privilege that is due or granted to an individual, but rather it means recognising diversity and opening up opportunities while taking into account the diversity of students (Rebolj, 2018). Adjustments to the academic process is one of the most important factors that enable students with SEN to succeed in the higher education environment. Students with SEN face more obstacles in their studies than other peers, which is why they need additional support and help from teachers as professionals specifically responsible for them (European Agency /.../, 2006; Heiman & Kariv, 2004).

Higher-education teachers have a key role in supporting students with SEN (Sandoval, Morgado & Domenech, 2021). Because they are most familiar with students with SEN and the requirements of the course they teach, they are in the best position to support students with SEN. It is the higher-education teachers who, through their pedagogical work, can help improve the self-esteem and self-image of students with SEN (Emmers, Baeyens & Petry, 2020; Košak Babuder, 2020; Rieser, 2006).

Students with SEN are more likely to succeed in their studies and can be as successful as their peers without SEN, if higher-education teachers make adjustments of the academic process (Martins, Borges & Gonçalves, 2018). Higher-education teachers' attitudes toward students with SEN and toward reasonable adjustments in the academic process have a significant impact on their willingness to adjust (Bourke, Strehorn & Silver, 2000; Lane & Nagchoudhuri, 2015). The more positive the attitude, the greater the willingness of higher-education teachers are to adjust (Bourke et al., 2000; Lane & Nagchoudhuri, 2015; Martins et al., 2018).

Higher-education teaching staff should respond to requests for adjustments for students with SEN. Many respond positively and offer adjustments. It is not only important that they offer adjustments, but equally important is how they feel about it or what their attitude toward adjustments is. Research in this area has produced a range of results, from positive to negative attitudes of higher-education staff toward adjustments of the academic process. Goltnik Urnaut (2016) and Rebolj (2018) both conclude that higher-education staff in Slovenian higher education have a positive attitude towards adjustments in the academic process and are willing to make adaptations. In the U.S., Behling & Tobin (2018) come to the opposite conclusion, finding that the requirement to adjust the academic process for students with SEN evokes feelings of uncertainty, confusion, frustration, and even anger among many higher-education teachers. In a review of research on students with SEN in higher education, Moriña (2017) found that students with SEN perceive feelings of higher-education teachers, as students indicated that they frequently encounter negative attitudes from teaching staff in the academic process, manifested in negative comments, observations, use of derogatory terms, or terms with negative connotations.

Researchers have made other important findings in their studies of higher-education teaching staff attitudes toward students with SEN and adjustments of the academic process. Jensen, McCray & Krampe (2004) and Behling & Tobin (2018) find that higher-education teachers feel that implementing adjustments takes too much time that could otherwise be spent on other students and research. Rebolj (2018), however, comes to a different conclusion in her dissertation: teaching staff at the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia, report that they rarely spend additional time implementing adjustments. Claiborne et al. (2011), based on interviews with teachers about their experiences teaching students with SEN in New Zealand, found that teachers would be grateful to receive information in advance about the adjustments each student would need, as it would allow them to prepare before beginning the teaching process. For the teachers interviewed, building a good relationship with students with SEN was crucial. They also emphasised that it was important for them to create an atmosphere where students with SEN felt accepted. Claiborne et al. (2011) found that in such an environment, it was easier for students to identify as students with SEN, make the necessary adjustments, and become more actively involved in their academic lives.

The nature of the student's deficit or special needs also influences the attitude of higher-education staff towards students with disabilities and the adjustment of the academic process. In Slovenia, according to the Higher Education Act (2022), students with SEN include physically disabled students, students with long-term illnesses, blind and visually impaired students, deaf and hard-of-hearing students classified as students with visual deficits, as well as students with severe specific learning difficulties, students with speech and language disorders, students with emotional and behavioural difficulties, and students with autism spectrum disorders classified as students with invisible or hidden deficits (Fuller et al., 2004; Wolf, 2001). Invisible or hidden deficits refer to those barriers, disorders, deficits that rarely manifest in physical form and occur due to impairments in psychological processes - e.g., organisation, reading and writing, attention, memory, communication, coordination (Couzens et al., 2015; Košak Babuder, 2020; Wolf, 2001). Because their deficits are hidden, these students are often overlooked by teaching staff in higher education (Košak Babuder, 2020), although their numbers are increasing each year (Couzens et al., 2015; Košak Babuder, 2020; Rehfuss & Quillin, 2005). Deckoff-Jones & Duell (2018) point out that there is a significant difference in how an individual is treated depending on whether they have visible or invisible deficits. When a student has visible deficits, both teachers and peers are more likely to understand the need for adjustments of the academic process than when the deficits are invisible (Rehfuss & Quillin, 2005), as the latter are often questioned for legitimacy. In addition, higher-education teachers often believe that invisible deficits disappear in adulthood (Tuomi & Jauhojärvi-Koskelo, 2015). Because of potential stigma, students with invisible deficits are less likely to disclose their needs and therefore less likely to be understood (Couzens et al., 2015; Košak Babuder, 2020; Ryan, 2007; Woodcock & Vialle, 2011).

**Research problem and research question**

The success of students with SEN in higher education is influenced by the attitudes and willingness of teaching staff to provide and implement adjustments in the academic process (Burgstahler, 2005; Dona & Edmister, 2001; Lane & Nagchoudhuri 2015; Leyser et al., 1998; Leyser et al., 2000; Leyser et al., 2011; Rebolj, 2014; Scott & Gregg, 2000; Skinner, 2004; Vogel et al., 2008). The more positive higher-education teachers' attitudes toward students with SEN and implementing adjustments in the academic process, the more likely they are to offer them (Bourke et al., 2000; Lane & Nagchoudhuri, 2015).

This paper presents the results of a study investigating the attitudes of teaching staff at the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia, toward adjusting the academic process for specific groups of students with SEN.

**Method**

Descriptive and causal non-experimental research methods and a quantitative research approach were used in the study.

Participants

323 higher-education teachers, researchers, and assistants participated in the survey, representing 5.2% of the total population at the time of the study. Survey participants completed an online questionnaire designed for the purposes of the survey.

Instrument

In the questionnaire designed for the survey, we used a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree) for 11 items that were divided into two groups to assess the views of the surveyed higher-education teaching staff on adjusting the academic process for different groups of students with SEN (blind and visually impaired students; deaf and hard-of-hearing students; students with speech and language disorders; students with severe specific learning difficulties; physically impaired students; students with long-term illnesses; students with autism spectrum disorders; and students with emotional and behavioural difficulties).

For the items in the first group (I1–I5), respondents were asked to identify all students with SEN, regardless of group. The second group of statements (I6–I11) referred to each group of students with SEN separately.

**Research design**

Data were processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0, Windows environment. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to describe the main characteristics. The following methods were used: Counts/absolute frequencies (f); structural percentages/frequencies (f%); arithmetic mean (M); standard deviation (SD).

**Results**

The first step was to investigate the views of higher-education teaching staff on adjusting the academic process for specific groups of students with SEN. For this purpose, five items (I1–I5) were created to apply to all groups of students with SEN. We were interested in how respondents rated their knowledge of the basic educational needs of students with SEN and their knowledge of the possible adjustments that could be offered to them. We also wanted to find out what their attitudes were toward adjustments in the academic process. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Frequency and structural distribution of responses to items I1 to I5 regarding knowledge of basic educational needs of students with SEN and of reasonable adjustments in the academic process

| Items in support of attitudes | | 1- strongly disagree | 2- disagree | 3- neither agree nor disagree | 4- agree | 5- strongly agree | Total | Arithmetic mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I1 - I am aware of the basic educational needs of students with SEN. | f | 24 | 62 | 83 | 127 | 27 | 323 | 3.22 | 1.083 |
| | f % | 7.4 | 19.2 | 25.7 | 39.3 | 8.4 | 100 | | |
| I2 - I am aware of the various academic process adjustments that I can provide to students with SEN. | f | 20 | 62 | 74 | 132 | 35 | 323 | 3.31 | 1.091 |
| | f % | 6.2 | 19.2 | 22.9 | 40.9 | 10.8 | 100 | | |
| I3 - Course adjustments and addressing the educational needs of students are part of my professional responsibility. | f | 3 | 22 | 49 | 152 | 97 | 323 | 3.98 | 0.900 |
| | f % | 0.9 | 6.8 | 15.2 | 47.1 | 30.0 | 100 | | |
| I4 - Course adjustments are an important means of removing barriers so that students with SEN can be successful in their studies. | f | 3 | 8 | 26 | 141 | 145 | 323 | 4.29 | 0.793 |
| | f % | 0.9 | 2.5 | 8.0 | 43.7 | 44.9 | 100 | | |
| I5 - Course adjustments can benefit all students. not just students with SEN. | f | 7 | 33 | 77 | 106 | 100 | 323 | 3.80 | 1.056 |
| | f % | 2.2 | 10.2 | 23.8 | 32.8 | 31.0 | 100 | | |

Legend: f = frequency distribution; f % = structural distribution

The respondents' level of agreement with the items studied can be divided into two groups. The first group consists of "principled" items: I3, I4 and I5, with an agreement value of $3.22 \leq M \leq 4.29$ (I4 - SD = 0.793; I3 - SD = 0.900; I5 - SD = 1.056). The second group is represented by the "practical" items, namely I1 and I2, with agreement rates of M = 3.22 (I1) and M = 3.31 (I2). However, the dispersion of agreement rates in this case is slightly higher ($1.083 \leq SD \leq 1.091$).

The area of respondents' attitudes toward adjustments and accommodations of academic process for students with SEN was further explored with items from I6 to I11, where respondents expressed their attitudes toward each group of students with SEN separately according to respondents' attitudes. Results are presented in tables 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7, which show the percentages of respondents' answers to Items I6 to I11.

Table 2: Frequency and structural distribution of responses to item I6 and by groups of students with SEN

| I6 – Students have a right to adjustments of the academic process, and this is not a privilege. / Groups of students with SEN | | 1- strongly disagree | 2- disagree | 3- neither agree nor disagree | 4- agree | 5- strongly agree | No answer | Total | Arithmetic mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Blind and visually impaired students | f | 13 | 16 | 20 | 71 | 203 | 0 | 323 | 4.35 | 1.065 |
| | f % | 4.0 | 5.0 | 6.2 | 22.0 | 62.8 | 0.0 | 100 | | |
| Deaf and hard-of-hearing students | f | 9 | 6 | 25 | 76 | 202 | 5 | 323 | 4.43 | 0.926 |
| | f % | 2.8 | 1.9 | 7.7 | 23.5 | 62.5 | 1.5 | 100 | | |
| Students with severe specific learning difficulties | f | 5 | 12 | 33 | 86 | 181 | 6 | 323 | 4.34 | 0.924 |
| | f % | 1.5 | 3.7 | 10.2 | 26.6 | 56.0 | 1.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with speech and language disorders | f | 7 | 16 | 33 | 78 | 183 | 6 | 323 | 4.31 | 0.996 |
| | f % | 2.2 | 5.0 | 10.2 | 24.1 | 56.7 | 1.9 | 100 | | |
| Physically disabled students | f | 7 | 10 | 25 | 73 | 202 | 6 | 323 | 4.43 | 0.927 |
| | f % | 2.2 | 3.1 | 7.7 | 22.6 | 62.5 | 1.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with long-term illnesses | f | 4 | 5 | 42 | 74 | 192 | 6 | 323 | 4.40 | 0.868 |
| | f % | 1.2 | 1.5 | 13.0 | 22.9 | 59.4 | 1.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with autism spectrum disorders | f | 7 | 12 | 48 | 80 | 169 | 7 | 323 | 4.24 | 0.992 |
| | f % | 2.2 | 3.7 | 14.9 | 24.8 | 52.3 | 2.2 | 100 | | |
| Students with emotional and behavioural difficulties | f | 14 | 24 | 64 | 69 | 146 | 6 | 323 | 3.97 | 1.169 |
| | f % | 4.3 | 7.4 | 19.8 | 21.4 | 45.2 | 1.9 | 100 | | |

Legend: f = frequency distribution; f % = structural distribution

The mean of the agreement rates for item I6 shows that agreement (M ≥ 4) prevails among the respondents. There is also no significant difference in the level of agreement (0.868 ≤ SD ≤ 1.169). In comparison, the level of agreement is lowest in the group of students with emotional and behavioural problems (M = 3.97).



Table 3: Frequency and structural distribution of responses to item I7 and by groups of students with SEN

| I7 – I am willing to teach and support students to engage them in the academic process. / Groups of students with SEN | | 1- strongly disagree | 2- disagree | 3- neither agree nor disagree | 4- agree | 5- strongly agree | No answer | Total | Arithmetic mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Blind and visually impaired students | f | 13 | 17 | 45 | 104 | 144 | 0 | 323 | 4.08 | 1.075 |
| | f % | 4.0 | 5.3 | 13.9 | 32.2 | 44.6 | 0 | 100 | | |
| Deaf and hard-of-hearing students | f | 9 | 9 | 42 | 113 | 145 | 5 | 323 | 4.18 | 0.962 |
| | f % | 2.8 | 2.8 | 13.0 | 35.0 | 44.9 | 1.5 | 100 | | |
| Students with severe specific learning difficulties | f | 4 | 5 | 39 | 118 | 152 | 5 | 323 | 4.29 | 0.835 |
| | f % | 1.2 | 1.5 | 12.1 | 36.5 | 47.1 | 1.5 | 100 | | |
| Students with speech and language disorders | f | 3 | 4 | 26 | 120 | 165 | 5 | 323 | 4.38 | 0.768 |
| | f % | 0.9 | 1.2 | 8.0 | 37.2 | 51.1 | 1.5 | 100 | | |
| Physically disabled students | f | 5 | 4 | 33 | 111 | 165 | 5 | 323 | 4.34 | 0.836 |
| | f % | 1.5 | 1.2 | 10.2 | 34.4 | 51.1 | 1.5 | 100 | | |
| Students with long-term illnesses | f | 3 | 3 | 46 | 114 | 152 | 5 | 323 | 4.29 | 0.816 |
| | f % | 0.9 | 0.9 | 14.2 | 35.3 | 47.1 | 1.5 | 100 | | |
| Students with autism spectrum disorders | f | 7 | 16 | 47 | 112 | 135 | 6 | 323 | 4.11 | 0.983 |
| | f % | 2.2 | 5.0 | 14.6 | 34.7 | 41.8 | 1.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with emotional and behavioural difficulties | f | 15 | 18 | 51 | 103 | 131 | 5 | 323 | 4.00 | 1.108 |
| | f % | 4.6 | 5.6 | 15.8 | 31.9 | 40.6 | 1.5 | 100 | | |

Legend: f = frequency distribution; f % = structural distribution

The results for item I7 also show high agreement values, as they range from 4.00 ≤ M ≤ 4.38. The highest dispersion of agreement is found in the group of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties (SD = 1.108) and in the group of blind and visually impaired students (SD = 1.057), and the lowest in the group of students with speech and language disorders (SD = 0.768). For all groups of students with SEN, on average, respondents agree or strongly agree that they are willing to teach and support them to participate in the academic process. The highest willingness to teach and support them is expressed by respondents for students with speech and language disorders, where the results are also the least dispersed (SD = 0.768), while the lowest willingness is found for the group of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties (M = 4.00; SD = 1.108) and the group of students who are blind or visually impaired (M = 4.08; SD = 1.075).

Table 4: Frequency and structural distribution of responses to Item I8 and by groups of students with SEN

| I8 – Adjustments of the academic process are a disincentive for students. / Groups of students with SEN | | 1- strongly disagree | 2- disagree | 3- neither agree nor disagree | 4- agree | 5- strongly agree | No answer | Total | Arithmetic mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Blind and visually impaired students | f | 182 | 88 | 30 | 4 | 5 | 14 | 323 | 1.58 | 0.844 |
| | f % | 56.3 | 27.2 | 9.3 | 1.2 | 1.5 | 4.3 | 100 | | |
| Deaf and hard-of-hearing students | f | 181 | 84 | 31 | 5 | 3 | 19 | 323 | 1.57 | 0.818 |
| | f % | 56.0 | 26.0 | 9.6 | 1.5 | 0.9 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with severe specific learning difficulties | f | 145 | 96 | 47 | 9 | 7 | 19 | 323 | 1.81 | 0.961 |
| | f % | 44.9 | 29.7 | 14.6 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with speech and language disorders | f | 135 | 90 | 48 | 20 | 11 | 19 | 323 | 1.95 | 1.092 |
| | f % | 41.8 | 27.9 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 3.4 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Physically disabled students | f | 164 | 87 | 39 | 9 | 5 | 19 | 323 | 1.70 | 0.919 |
| | f % | 50.8 | 26.9 | 12.1 | 2.8 | 1.5 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with long-term illnesses | f | 155 | 95 | 43 | 8 | 3 | 19 | 323 | 1.71 | 0.875 |
| | f % | 48.0 | 29.4 | 13.3 | 2.5 | 0.9 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with autism spectrum disorders | f | 154 | 90 | 46 | 10 | 3 | 20 | 323 | 1.74 | 0.903 |
| | f % | 47.7 | 27.9 | 14.2 | 3.1 | 0.9 | 6.2 | 100 | | |
| Students with emotional and behavioural difficulties | f | 130 | 81 | 68 | 14 | 11 | 19 | 323 | 2.00 | 1.079 |
| | f % | 40.2 | 25.1 | 21.1 | 4.3 | 3.4 | 5.9 | 100 | | |

Legend: f = frequency distribution; f % = structural distribution

Most of higher-education teaching staff surveyed strongly disagree or disagree with item I8. Most undecideds, slightly more than one-fifth (21.1%), are found in the group of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties, and the fewest in the group of blind or visually impaired students (9%) and deaf and hard-of-hearing students

(10%). For all other groups, the percentage of respondents who agreed with item I8 is low, ranging from 3% for deaf and hard-of-hearing students to 10% for students with speech and language disorders.



Table 5: Frequency and structural distribution of responses to item I9 and by groups of students with SEN

| I9 – Students could complete all requirements without adjustments if they tried a little harder. / Groups of students with SEN | | 1- strongly disagree | 2- disagree | 3- neither agree nor disagree | 4- agree | 5- strongly agree | No answer | Total | Arithmetic mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Blind and visually impaired students | f | 187 | 93 | 22 | 3 | 4 | 14 | 323 | 1.52 | 0.779 |
| | f % | 57.9 | 28.8 | 6.8 | 0.9 | 1.2 | 4.3 | 100 | | |
| Deaf and hard-of-hearing students | f | 175 | 96 | 24 | 7 | 2 | 19 | 323 | 1.57 | 0.789 |
| | f % | 54.2 | 29.7 | 7.4 | 2.2 | 0.6 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with severe specific learning difficulties | f | 131 | 94 | 51 | 21 | 7 | 19 | 323 | 1.94 | 1.041 |
| | f % | 40.6 | 29.1 | 15.8 | 6.5 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with speech and language disorders | f | 126 | 82 | 53 | 27 | 16 | 19 | 323 | 2.10 | 1.189 |
| | f % | 39.0 | 25.4 | 16.4 | 8.4 | 5.0 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Physically disabled students | f | 156 | 83 | 45 | 13 | 7 | 19 | 323 | 1.79 | 0.999 |
| | f % | 48.3 | 25.7 | 13.9 | 4.0 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with long-term illnesses | f | 143 | 95 | 52 | 12 | 2 | 19 | 323 | 1.80 | 0.906 |
| | f % | 44.3 | 29.4 | 16.1 | 3.7 | 0.6 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with autism spectrum disorders | f | 142 | 87 | 59 | 12 | 3 | 20 | 323 | 1.83 | 0.942 |
| | f % | 44.0 | 26.9 | 18.3 | 3.7 | 0.9 | 6.2 | 100 | | |
| Students with emotional and behavioural difficulties | f | 121 | 80 | 81 | 12 | 10 | 19 | 323 | 2.05 | 1.058 |
| | f % | 37.5 | 24.8 | 25.1 | 3.7 | 3.1 | 5.9 | 100 | | |

Legend: f = frequency distribution; f % = structural distribution

For item I9 the number of respondents who disagree is also significantly higher than those who agree. Disagreement is highest among blind and visually impaired students (M = 1.52; SD = 0.779) and deaf and hard-of-hearing students (M = 1.57; SD = 0.789). The highest percentage of undecided respondents is found in the group of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties (25%) and the lowest in the groups of blind and visually impaired students (7%) and deaf and hard-of-hearing students (7%). For all other groups, the percentage of undecided respondents ranges from 16% to 18%. The percentage of respondents agreeing with item I9 is low in all groups, ranging from 2% in the group of blind and visually impaired students to 13% in the group of students with speech and language disorders.

Table 6: Frequency and structural distribution of responses to item I10 and by groups of students with SEN

| I10 – By adjusting for students with SEN, we discriminate against other students without SEN. Groups of students with SEN | | 1- strongly disagree | 2- disagree | 3- neither agree nor disagree | 4- agree | 5- strongly agree | No answer | Total | Arithmetic mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Blind and visually impaired students | f | 170 | 77 | 39 | 17 | 6 | 14 | 323 | 1.74 | 1.005 |
| | f % | 52.6 | 23.8 | 12.1 | 5.3 | 1.9 | 4.3 | 100 | | |
| Deaf and hard-of-hearing students | f | 168 | 75 | 40 | 17 | 4 | 19 | 323 | 1.73 | 0.978 |
| | f % | 52.0 | 23.2 | 12.4 | 5.3 | 1.2 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with severe specific learning difficulties | f | 138 | 75 | 52 | 32 | 7 | 19 | 323 | 2.00 | 1.121 |
| | f % | 42.7 | 23.2 | 16.1 | 9.9 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with speech and language disorders | f | 139 | 74 | 54 | 29 | 8 | 19 | 323 | 1.99 | 1.121 |
| | f % | 43.0 | 22.9 | 16.7 | 9.0 | 2.5 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Physically disabled students | f | 161 | 78 | 43 | 15 | 7 | 19 | 323 | 1.78 | 1.015 |
| | f % | 49.8 | 24.1 | 13.3 | 4.6 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with long-term illnesses | f | 151 | 78 | 52 | 20 | 3 | 19 | 323 | 1.84 | 0.998 |
| | f % | 46.7 | 24.1 | 16.1 | 6.2 | 0.9 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Students with autism spectrum disorders | f | 146 | 76 | 54 | 23 | 4 | 20 | 323 | 1.89 | 1.036 |
| | f % | 45.2 | 23.5 | 16.7 | 7.1 | 1.2 | 6.2 | 100 | | |
| Students with emotional and behavioural difficulties | f | 127 | 76 | 63 | 28 | 8 | 21 | 323 | 2.05 | 1.113 |
| | f % | 39.3 | 23.5 | 19.5 | 8.7 | 2.5 | 6.5 | 100 | | |

Legend: f = frequency distribution; f % = structural distribution

Most of respondents disagree or strongly disagree with item I10. The percentage of undecideds is also relatively low, ranging from 12% for blind and visually impaired and deaf and hard-of-hearing students to 19% for the group of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties. However, the percentage of respondents who agree or strongly agree with the item ranges from 6% to 12%. 12% of respondents feel that adjustments for students with SEN would discriminate against other students when it comes to adjustments for students with severe specific learning difficulties, 11% for students with speech and language disorders, and 11% for students with emotional and behavioural difficulties. For other student groups, this percentage ranges from 6% to 8%.

Table 7: Frequency and structural distribution of responses to item I11, and by groups of students with SEN

| I11 – I know of adjustments of the academic process that can reduce the impact of a student's deficit on his/her academic performance. Groups of students with SEN | | 1- strongly disagree | 2- disagree | 3- neither agree nor disagree | 4- agree | 5- strongly agree | No answer | Total | Arithmetic mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Blind and visually impaired students | f | 67 | 74 | 98 | 53 | 16 | 15 | 323 | 2,60 | 1,155 |
| | f % | 20.7 | 22.9 | 30.3 | 16.4 | 5.0 | 4.6 | 100 | | |
| Deaf and hard-of-hearing students | f | 59 | 69 | 103 | 57 | 17 | 18 | 323 | 2.69 | 1.147 |
| | f % | 18.3 | 21.4 | 31.9 | 17.6 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 100 | | |
| Students with severe specific learning difficulties | f | 44 | 60 | 99 | 78 | 22 | 20 | 323 | 2.91 | 1.151 |
| | f % | 13.6 | 18.6 | 30.7 | 24.1 | 6.8 | 6.2 | 100 | | |
| Students with speech and language disorders | f | 44 | 51 | 111 | 71 | 27 | 19 | 323 | 2.95 | 1.157 |
| | f % | 13.6 | 15.8 | 34.4 | 22.0 | 8.4 | 5.9 | 100 | | |
| Physically disabled students | f | 45 | 47 | 94 | 79 | 38 | 20 | 323 | 3.06 | 1.230 |
| | f % | 13.9 | 14.6 | 29.1 | 24.5 | 11.8 | 6.2 | 100 | | |
| Students with long-term illnesses | f | 47 | 56 | 109 | 72 | 19 | 20 | 323 | 2.87 | 1.132 |
| | f % | 14.6 | 17.3 | 33.7 | 22.3 | 5.9 | 6.2 | 100 | | |
| Students with autism spectrum disorders | f | 70 | 69 | 101 | 46 | 16 | 21 | 323 | 2.57 | 1.156 |
| | f % | 21.7 | 21.4 | 31.3 | 14.2 | 5.0 | 6.5 | 100 | | |
| Students with emotional and behavioural difficulties | f | 65 | 69 | 102 | 48 | 20 | 19 | 323 | 2.63 | 1.172 |
| | f % | 20.1 | 21.4 | 31.6 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 5.9 | 100 | | |

Legend: f = frequency distribution; f % = structural distribution

For item I11, the percentage of undecided higher-education teaching staff is about 1/3, and this is true for all groups of students. The percentage of respondents strongly disagreeing or disagreeing with this item is about 40% for all groups of students. In the groups of blind and visually impaired students (44%), students with autism spectrum disorders (43%), and students with emotional and behavioural difficulties (41%), more than 40% of respondents disagree or strongly disagree with this item. In the group of deaf and hard-of-hearing students, the percentage of respondents who disagree or strongly disagree with this item is 40%. Respondents in the groups of students with severe specific learning difficulties and students with long-term illnesses feel somewhat more qualified (the percentage of respondents who disagree with the statement is 32% in both groups), in the group of students with speech and language disorders (29% of respondents disagree), and in the group of students with physical disabilities (28% disagree).

**Discussion**

From the agreement values, it can be concluded that the respondents have a positive attitude toward the adjustment of academic process for all groups of students with SEN and are willing to implement adjustments. The results show that respondents believe that adjustments are an important means of removing barriers for all students with SEN (I7) and that they enable them to be more successful in their studies, as well as that students with SEN have a right to adjustments and that it is not a privilege for students with SEN to receive them (I6). Goltnik Urnaut (2016) came to a similar conclusion in her study: most respondents expressed a willingness to teach all students with SEN and to support them in their inclusion in the teaching process, and believed that providing adjustments in the academic process and addressing students' educational needs were part of their professional responsibilities. In our survey, we also found that most respondents considered providing adjustments in the academic process and addressing students' educational needs to be part of their professional responsibilities (I3).

Based on the observed (dis)agreement with items I9 "Students could complete all requirements without adjustments if they tried a little harder" and I10 "By making adjustments for students with SEN we discriminate against other students without SEN" we can conclude that there are few among the higher-education teaching staff we interviewed who perceive adjustments for students with SEN as a special privilege for this group of students or as discrimination against all other students. Respondents believe that most students with SEN cannot just try a little harder and complete their studies without adjustments in the academic process, and that by adjusting for students with SEN we are not discriminating against students who do not have SEN and that the adjustments are not concessions (I8). For example, Molina et al. (2016) note that some higher-education teaching staff view adjustments in the academic process for students with SEN as an expression of special affection and preference toward them.

Our survey results also indicate that more than half (68%) of respondents are undecided or believe that there are no known adjustments in the academic process for any group of students with SEN that could reduce the impact of the deficit on student academic achievement (I11). Becker & Palladino (2016) and Sniatecki, Perry & Snell (2015) came to a similar conclusion in their research. This contrasts with the results of the item on their knowledge of the various academic process adjustments (I2) they can offer students with SEN, where 52% of respondents rated their knowledge as good. It is possible that respondents felt they had a good knowledge of academic process adjustments for students with SEN (I2), either because they were referring only to students with SEN whom they had already encountered or because they based their opinions on their own experiences with academic process adjustments. In terms of knowledge about adjustments to the academic process for each group of students with SEN (I11), the results show that respondents had little knowledge about adjustments for some groups of students with SEN. By agreeing with statement I2, they did not take into account the diversity of the group of students with SEN and the fact that students with different SEN may need specific adjustments in the academic process depending on their deficits. Respondents' answers may also have been influenced by their own belief that adjustments in the academic process are part of their professional responsibility and therefore expected to know and implement them.

Thus, while the socially desirable response for item I2 may have been that they are aware of the different adjustments and educational needs of students with SEN, this was not the case for specific groups of students with SEN (I11).

Summarising the results for items I6, I7, I8, I9, I10, and I11, there is a tendency toward higher rates of agreement for certain groups of students with SEN. The group of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties stands out the most for all items where respondents express stronger disagreement and thus more negative

attitudes than for the other groups of students with SEN. Our findings are consistent with those of Cook, Yamaguci & Solomon (1993), Monsen, Ewing & Kwoka (2014) and St-Ong & Lemyre (2018).
Another frequently highlighted group of students is blind and visually impaired students, as respondents are least familiar with adjustments for this group of students of all student groups with SEN (this is also roughly true for the group of students with autism spectrum disorders). It is possible that respondents are unwilling to make adjustments or are unsure because they know little about them, which is also the finding of other research that found that higher-education teacher lack knowledge about how to support visually impaired students in their studies (Miyauchi, 2020; Mushome & Monome, 2013) but have favourable attitudes (Mamah et al., 2011).

**Conclusion**

Based on the levels of agreement expressed by higher-education teaching staff, it is clear that they are largely positive about adjusting the academic process for all groups of students with SEN. They are willing to make these adjustments and consider them key to removing barriers and enabling an education in which students with SEN can succeed. Such attitudes are an extremely important predictor of the quality and inclusive nature of the educational process for students with SEN (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Cook et al., 2000; Lane & Nagchoudhuri 2015; Rebolj, 2014).

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# STUDY MODEL: MEDIA DIGITIZATION AND COMMUNICATION

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**Summary**
This paper addresses the proposal of a student education program for the digitization of media and communication and methods that explore the relationship between communication and digital forms of media. As digital technology permeates all aspects of life, traditional media and analogue culture are transformed into new and complex interrelationships. Digital cultures combine theory and reflection with practice and creation. Digital studies and digital humanities help prepare students for careers in cultural institutions such as academic libraries and museums and provide educators with tools to prepare students for the demands of the 21st century. Digital studies prepare students for every aspect of modern life requiring new literacy skills in understanding and using digital technologies. The program is designed for students who develop their careers in academic circles where education in the field of digitization of the humanities and the history of books and media are increasingly valued. The basic concept of the proposed studies is based on new media studies, internet studies, digital methods, digital sociology, data studies, digital culture, software content, digitized infrastructure studies.
Keywords: digitization, media, communication, education

## Introduction

In the 21st century, the communication of information and data is of high importance for almost all professions. On the demand side, students and teachers are closing the circle around the “digital” and expressing the desire to study it, and on the supply side, the faculties and external factors require this new source of knowledge production. The proposed study model aims to present the concept of student education in the field of digitization of media and communication. The basic idea is based on the premise that digitization changes organizations’ business models, technologies,

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and value propositions. The goal of the project is to establish digital studies to expand the social field to include digital humanities, modernize methods, and contribute to the formation of the first generation of digital visual humanities scholars. The proposed study is based on the idea of knowledge entrepreneurship. Choosing courses in digital studies provides students with the opportunity to produce digital content in a variety of formats and to critically evaluate and analyse the digital content they encounter. What is meant by digitization and data? At the individual level, these technological changes can be seen in the way recommendations for books and movies are received. To this end, data collection tools have been developed that link previously independent areas of work and life. The lack of digital studies and communication has been the motive for exploring the rich potential of digital media for critical analysis and creative discovery. The proposed program is characterized by an integrative approach to how digitization and data should be understood in their broadest sense and their interrelationships with society as a whole. The program proposed in this paper provides basic knowledge in fundamental areas such as information technology, digitization, digital transformation, communication skills, decision making, including business administration, economics, technology, innovation management, entrepreneurship, data control organization design and cognitive psychology, management, and a range of elective courses.

**Digitization - a new information paradigm**

Digitization affects the media and communication at two distinct levels: It initiates a fundamental change in the media system and causes the medialization of non-media systems. Digitization is a media transformation that changes traditional media and creates new media. It changes the way people use the media and how they communicate. At the same time, digitization leads to the medialization of non-media systems. Many digital technologies are becoming an integral part of systems and processes that were not previously media based. Media, communication, and information, therefore, play a key role in the structure and functional logic of many systems that were previously purely technical, economic, or social in nature. Digital transformation reflects the full integration of social and digital technologies into an organization’s operations in a way that makes the most sense given the organization’s goals and objectives. Digital transformation is a fundamental change in the structure and functional logic of economic, social, political, and technical systems through the proliferation of digital technologies. The role of media in modern society is constantly expanding. In particular, the world of digital media is growing exponentially, leading to a growing demand for the latest content, modern technologies to create and distribute that content, and new content creators to produce it.

As a result of digitization, media, communication, and information are gaining a key position in the structure and functional logic of systems that have not previously been related to media and communication. Digitization thus changes the status of communication itself. Systems and processes that were previously purely technical, economic, or social in nature are acquiring an information or a communication dimension. This gives media and communication studies a new significance for understanding and shaping these systems and their operating principles1.

The core competencies that students will gain in the proposed digital media and communication courses will also increase their employability in professions that are not solely media-oriented, as employers increasingly seek employees who are proficient in digital media technologies. Digital tools are increasingly being used in media studies, opening new vistas for research and analysis while creating new problems. These studies are aimed at students who will use digital tools in their research and provide information about applications, standards, and problems. Knowledge of digital things is becoming an ephemeral “hot commodity”, countering more optimistic claims about employability and positive impact on the business world. Digital technology and communications are constantly in flux. The proposed integrated degree in Digital Technology and Communication prepares tech-savvy students to share ideas in a world defined by digital media. The curriculum focuses on emerging technologies and teaches students to craft powerful messages, design multimedia campaigns, and build a digital identity. Given the increasing importance of digital technology in the daily lives of students, not to mention the general population, it was probably only a matter of time before the study of its relationship to society, ethics, and politics would be supported at the institutional level. Our future students will be the leading practical experts in media, communication, technology, and digitization of the future. They are the protagonists of our fast-growing Internet world, bringing with them

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[1] The definition was proposed by Dr. Jörn Lengsfeld as a part of the framework of the digital age. The text was first published in Jörn Lengsfeld: Digital Era Framework.

the skills, knowledge, and critical insights needed to navigate and progress in today's algorithmic society. The world of digital media is rapidly changing and is characterized by hard work and creativity. The evolution of digital and social media has led to profound changes in cultural practices. More and more people live and work through media communication, making it even more urgent to study the relationship between culture, media, and technology. The Digital Technology and Communication program is designed to address these challenges and enable students to live and work in the digital present and future. Students will take modules that enable them to develop media production and media, and critical and analytical skills to examine the relationship between communication, digital technology, and culture. The program combines communication studies with a focus on digital innovation, practical business skills, and connections. Graduates will have skills and expertise in growing and understanding the functions and impact of the media industry, in developing skills that can be applied to a range of social functions. They will be able to collaborate with the local media industry by building their professional networks.

**Fundamental preconditions for designing the content of education in the digitization of media and communications**

Digital Technology and Communication are the intersection of social, communication, and computer sciences. The field provides content on a variety of digital, social, and creative media to explore connectivity as a sum of technologies, industries, and user practices. In addition to strengthening critical and analytical thinking, another fundamental premise is to equip students with the skills and knowledge necessary to work in companies, organizations, and institutions that deal with aspects of digitization and databases. Researchers in this area explore the digital communication, screen, and sound industries, focusing on imaginative, synthetic, and analytical concepts and practices across a variety of technology platforms. Topics include the exploration of complex collaborative digital environments (especially in the context of social media), the challenges of constant change in the digital arena, and the role of technology in contemporary social life. Digital Technology and Communication majors examine digital practices and cultures that shape scholarly research, creative production, and growing areas of daily life. In particular, the major aims to foster ways of thinking and activities that cross disciplinary boundaries, such as developing digital techniques to create and transfer critical theories to the level of digital culture or exploring the possibilities and limitations of algorithmic approaches to textual evidence.

Throughout their studies, students work on real-world projects that promote their future employment by using the skills and abilities developed during their studies to contribute to industry content, research, or a real-world corporate website. Digital Technology and Communication majors address new research questions arising from digital cultures and methodologies, creatively apply digital tools and media, and develop the skills that make up 21st-century digital literacy. The widespread influence of digital media on almost all aspects of modern life requires new literacy skills to understand and use digital technologies. Digital media has shaped the needs of users and the demands of the digital media industry, providing an innovative learning experience that is directly relevant to the sector.

The proposed program aims to develop and disseminate knowledge and awareness in the field of digital technologies and their impact on the economy and people’s lives, as well as to motivate the implementation of development activities in this field. The labour market will be subject to further changes in the coming years. These include the transition to project work and the expansion of remote and hybrid work systems. What can be done to prepare for the changes ahead? Leading Digital Transformation is a comprehensive, modular educational program that teaches students how to leverage exponential development technologies to transform organizations and drive growth. Digital Technology and Communication can be for any discipline - from social media and mobile phones to algorithms in self-driving cars. Digital and information technologies are a part of everyday life. Digital Media Studies is a unique major that prepares students to apply HTML, CSS, JavaScript, and creative applications from Adobe Creative Cloud and other writing tools. Some industries that employ digital media designers include creative agencies, film and video production, online companies, website development, video game companies, and marketing agencies. In a digital world, the jobs of the future will depend on digital skills. Students also have the option of choosing a course that combines courses from two or more academic disciplines into a coherent curriculum. Examples of some specific areas that have developed include digital media studies, communications, and arts management. Upon graduation, students can start careers in web design, web development, mobile app development, digital marketing, digital content creation, and interactive animation. Demand is driven by the growing popularity of mobile devices, digital marketing, and e-commerce solutions.

Today, many universities in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland offer digital study programs in many fields and disciplines. Outstanding examples include the University of Bonn, the Free University of Berlin, the Geneva School of Business, the University of RWTH Aachen, the University of Applied Sciences in Europe, the University of Kaiserslautern, the Frankfurt School of Finance and Management, the University of Lausanne, University of Bern, University of Basel, Georgia Institute of Technology, Swiss Academy of Humanities and Social Sciences, Lee Cleveland University, Roehampton University, Rochester, etc. Rochester's has a long tradition of students pursuing their goals in an environment that inspires, supports and empowers them. Rochester's unique engineering curriculum enables students to take responsibility for their programs, careers, and lives. In addition, digitization also requires appropriate skills for those involved (Rienties et al., 2013)1. Most scholars have studied digitization primarily as either an external process (Fevolden & Tømte2, 2015; Zawachi-Richter & Naidu, 2016) or an internal process (Zawaki-Richter & Latchem, 2018)3. The possibilities are endless. The programs within these studies focus on all the different digital technologies and media, their impact on people and society, and ethical and moral dilemmas that sometimes arise. Although the programs and content of the digital sciences in the aforementioned degree programs vary, they often reflect common values and methods. Communication and Digital Media was established as a study program at Aalborg University in 1985 and forms the basis for several study programs whose common denominator is the development of ICT, media, and communication4. Despite the strong

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[1]Rienties, B., Brouwer, N. & Lygo-Baker, S., 2013, 'Effects of online professional development on the beliefs and intentions of higher education teachers towards facilitating learning and technology', Teaching and Teacher Education, 29, pp. 122 - 31. [Crossref], [Web of Science ®], [Google Scholar]

[2]Cited by: Fossland, T. , 2015. , Digitale læringsformer i higer tdanning ( Oslo , Universitetsforlaget ). [Google Scholar]

[3]Zawakcki-Richter, O. & Latchem, C., 2018, 'Researching Four Decades of Research in Computers and Education', Computers and Education, 122, pp. 136 - 52. [Crossref], [Web of Science ®], [ Google Scholar]

[4]Translated paper: Cathrine Edelhard Tømte, Trine Fossland, Per Olaf Aamodt & Lise Degn (2019) Digitization in Higher Education: Mapping Institutional Approaches to Teaching and Learning, Quality in Higher Education, 25: 1, 98-114, DOI: 10.1080 / 13520383

trend in digital sciences towards networked and multimodal forms of knowledge, much of digital science focuses on documents and texts in a way that distinguishes the work of this field from digital research in media, information and communication sciences, and similar fields. In the high-tech, software, Internet, and data services industries today, data is at the heart of the enterprise. Innovation in software development is the key not only to increasing business agility, but also to rapidly developing and offering outstanding experiences and innovative products that deliver lasting customer satisfaction.

**Research of material for modelling the study contents**

The integrated digital media and communication study focuses on these skills, allowing students to solve, for example, a problem or a unique question they have identified using a digital platform. The degree prepares students to use media to make a difference in many areas of work. The integrated professional study program allows prospective students from all disciplines to explore the representation of objects, people, and content in a digital environment, develop a career-related project, and gain hands-on experience using digital tools to manipulate, visualize, and translate data and digital artifacts. Digital technologies can help improve communication, collaboration, content management, access to analytics data and social media, and employee and user experiences. Successful organizations rely on digital technologies to create workplaces that improve business cohesion. Students develop elements of design skills, master graphic design, including history and theory, and implement processes that integrate current “best practices” in research, technology, and communication. Digital media degree programs help students gain the important knowledge and skills they need in digital media, technology, and production. Digital media-focused degree programs can prepare bachelor’s graduates for careers in animation, studio production, and video game design.

Digital Technology and Communication will engage students in the discovery, analysis, and creation of digital information and media. Digital media meets the growing need for professionals ready for careers in interaction design1.

By learning about the exciting and dynamic potential of a wide range of tools and technologies, students create innovative projects, from

[1] MIT Sloan Management Review and Deloitte examine executives' attitudes about what drives digital transformation

photo essays to web documentaries, from interactive videos to sophisticated websites, and from motion typography to 3-D visualizations. By working collaboratively with digital tools, students will tap into new sources of information and apply digital technologies in meaningful ways across a variety of fields of study. This assumption in itself justifies interest in the study, understanding, analysis, and critical thinking of society as a resource for communication and the forms and means of communication as a resource for sociability. The constant proliferation of Internet communication technologies increasingly enables people from diverse backgrounds to communicate directly and quickly with one another. By removing traditional barriers to communication, such as distance and time, these technologies can reinforce cultural rhetorical differences. This situation can be particularly problematic because both cultural and media factors can confuse the overall situational discourse. The required experience requires independent research, interdisciplinary analysis, technological skills, and the development of publicly accessible digital studies or new media projects. The proposed degree program provides students with the knowledge necessary to effectively integrate into the 21st-century digital information environment and information architecture. Courses provide marketable employment potential through the development of concrete skills in web analysis, information organization, and presentation in digital environments. Digital research facilities are information packages that students can use to organize and store their data. Currently, many different methods are used to optimize digital objects for research purposes. These methods have been applied in many scientific disciplines but differ in their architecture and approach. The field of digital studies in the world is rapidly expanding to include the research interests of social workers in the humanities, multimedia artists, and activists. This revolutionary endeavour is introducing the world to a contemporary style of thinking that has emerged directly from the culture of digitization itself. Digital Media and Communication Studies explore the creation, use, and impact of digital content and information on the humanities and art society as a whole. It brings a human perspective to issues of the digital age. These Studies allow students to develop expertise in a field that interests them while gaining technological skills. The program was proposed with the vision of combining business, law, social sciences, and technical expertise in computer and technology sciences to address the challenges of digital transformation. The flexible curriculum is tailored to the interests of individual students.

Throughout the program, the students choose their specialization, participate in online coding courses and self-study methods, complete internships, gain hands-on experience, and create a professional portfolio representing their work.
Digital Technology and Communication will enable students to expand their digital literacy; use digital media more clearly; practice basic concepts of coding; analyze, interpret, and communicate effectively; understand the meanings that can be derived from digital data; integrate and enhance the content, and practice of their education with digital tools and thinking. A graduate specialist can sharpen critical thinking skills, foster creativity, and support interdisciplinary thinking and application. Digital students will learn how to create visual content and code and deliver screen interfaces for computer applications and websites. At the intersection of these emerging fields of hardware and software, devices and users, students will engage the practical, theoretical, and ethical foundations of critical thinking in an increasingly media-driven world, with an emphasis on visual communication and information design systems, hands-on learning prepares the medium for a lifetime of experimentation and innovation. Case studies and thought-provoking insights create coherent content from a variety of fields that have helped invigorate the study of digital science and technology. Digital Technology and Communication teach students to think about how objects, words, people, and content are represented in a digital environment. Especially in today’s world, where the digital dimension of information and communication is intensifying, following the recent shift in the communication paradigm: from traditional forms and means of communication to the so-called new media or the latest information and communication technologies. Skills and practical experience with digital tools for handling, visualizing, translating, and experimenting with digital information. Emphasis is placed on the efficient and ethical use and understanding of digital technologies in the digital society. The program focuses on the various digital technologies and media, their impact on people and society, and the ethical and moral dilemmas that sometimes arise. Elective courses explore media for social change, tangible computing, transmedia expression, and more, allowing students to use media to pursue their interests. All Digital Technology and Communication courses combine theory and practice in lab seminars that include hands-on instruction to help students create sophisticated media-based works. Digital Technology and Communication aim to create space for social and cultural inquiry with and about digital technology. In particular,

they focus on ambitious and experimental work that explores and critically addresses the role of digital data, methods, devices, and infrastructures in collective life, as well as the issues, challenges, and problems associated with them. In terms of content, the study is about communication, a universal but particular way of connecting people and ideas. It describes in detail the increasing and diverse uses, functions, interactions, and effects of communication in modern “world society”, emphasizing the dialectic between society and communication.

In today’s economy, there are enormous changes in technology as well as in political and economic development. The only thing that is known to be constant from day to day is change. It will never stop. That is why we are constantly developing and revising programs to adapt them to the dynamic environment of the business world. We evaluate ourselves based on our success in educating and helping students grow, and our success can only be measured by the long-term positive impact we have on the lives of our students and our community.

It is also based on the idea of combining business, law, social sciences, and technical disciplines in computer and technology sciences to address the challenges of digital transformation. The study addresses issues of power, privilege, and approaches that shape the digital world. Starting with a historical overview, students will explore topics such as digital security and privacy, digital identities, and copyright and fair use. In addition to these theoretical foundations, students will be introduced to key principles of project management and development, data analysis, visualization, and curation. By learning about and thinking critically about a variety of tools and platforms, students will develop projects that help them create a context for making informed, ethical decisions about the use of technology.

Innovative design in the 21st century requires working not only across disciplines but also across educational units that practice different ways of thinking.

Regardless of their specialized major, students will work and thrive in environments that increasingly rely on digital tools and platforms to create and share information. The Department of Digital Technology and Communication takes an interdisciplinary approach that incorporates diverse methods, frameworks, and discourses from a variety of academic fields. However, the uniqueness of the program lies in its singular focus on everything related to the phenomenon of digital technology. This includes studies of digital media, digital humanities, digital pedagogy, digital art, aesthetic practice and design, and critical thinking about the digital technology of the future. However, separating “digital” from more traditional concepts of social science, art, and design leaves the question unanswered: what is studied in the study of digital technology? Because digital studies span so many academic disciplines, a smaller portion of digital studies attracts students from the humanities, social sciences, physical and natural sciences, and other fields. Given the increasing importance of digital technology in the daily lives of students, not to mention the general population, it was probably only a matter of time before the study of its relationship to art, society, ethics, and politics would be supported at the institutional level. They share a common interest in understanding the impact of digital technology and using digital tools to present, analyse, and preserve the human language and cultural products. Together, their work shows how digital studies span a range of human activities, from everyday speech and writing to historical documents and literary texts, and include music and art as well as mundane objects, places, and institutions.

Communication and technology are constantly evolving. The proposed integrated study of digitizing media and communication teaches tech-savvy adults and youth how to share ideas in a media-driven world. The ultimate goal of the curriculum is based on emerging technologies and teaches students to craft powerful messages, design multimedia campaigns, and build a digital identity. The emerging educational field of communication and digital studies is transforming research and learning environments and cultural preservation systems by leveraging institutional differences through collaboration that transcends traditional institutional units and hierarchies.

## Conclusion

Digital Media and Communication Studies are studies that examine the relationship between communication and digital media forms by asking four questions:

- How do digital media affect the way we communicate?
- How are digital tools used to best communicate with each other?
- What is the role of visual, audio, and interactive elements of digital media and how can they be used?
- How does digitization affect the way information is accessed and understood?

The following goals should be achieved:

- Compare new and old media in terms of their form, impact, and accessibility.
- Analyse the impact of new media on social processes and news production, content, and consumption
- Demonstrate how new media impact the importance of expanding oversight and the dynamics between oversight and security.
- Discuss how new media are changing the way one thinks about the world, one's place in it, and ultimately one's identity
- Develop a persuasive, theoretically grounded argument for or against the use of new media

Digital Media and Communication Studies are a diverse and growing interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary field in which humanistic research is improving and redefining the possibilities of digital tools for research, analysis, publication, distribution, and application of scientific work1. Students will engage in research topics of personal interest to visual culture using a variety of digital resources and analytical methods in the context of the latest theoretical discussions of the digital in the social sciences. The study program focuses on theory and practice, the Digital Technology and Communication curriculum helps students gain experience in using digital tools and develop a complex understanding of digital cultures. The curriculum covers contents such as:

• Multimedia production
• Social media
• Ethics and digital culture
• Data design and visualization
• Data literacy
• Digital identity and representation
• And others.

It combines a high-level strategy with practical tools that can be used to create digital media programs that achieve a measurable level. Students will better understand the essence of digital and social media - the clutter of platforms, applications, and devices.

The program establishes new connections across disciplinary boundaries by addressing different but overlapping areas of intellectual activity:

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[1] Michael Chui and Mark Collins · McKinsey & Company Better business: How to harness value from IoT technologies. 17th November 2021

Digital information structures - consider and evaluate how digital archives, databases, and other digital information architectures are used and created.

Digital media - consideration of how digital technology-mediated communications, such as the Internet, mobile and smart devices, including digital video and audio content, as well as games and simulations produced by everyday discourse and media professionals, are used and evaluated.

Digital forms - analysis and evaluation of mechanical and aesthetic design elements in digital content, including visual, audio, interactive, and other components.

Digital practices - acquiring skills that enable the creation of expressive and strategic communication content using digital tools such as digital video and audio equipment, as well as video and audio editing software, web design, database design, information architecture, application design, computer simulation, and digital gaming.

Students of digitization of media and communication studies who meet all requirements obtain a bachelor's degree in digital studies and communications. The bachelor's degree program prepares students for careers in advertising, marketing, communications law, and more.

During their education, digital studies students study digital practices and cultures that shape professional research, creative production, and growing areas of daily life. In particular, the educational process aims to support thinking and activities that transcend disciplinary boundaries, such as developing digital techniques for creating art or music, bringing critical theory to digital cultures, or exploring the possibilities and limitations of algorithmic approaches to textual evidence.

Students in the studies of digitization of media and communication take interdisciplinary courses that make significant use of digital technologies. The following learning outcomes describe a set of goals that a student who has mastered this study should expect to work towards by fulfilling the requirements of the course:

- Develop skills for designing, creating, and sharing ideas that can be expressed through unique multimodal, procedural, and networked capabilities of digital tools.
- Explore processes of knowledge production using digital technology in researching, analysing, and conducting critical inquiry.

- Build knowledge of contemporary and historical digital cultures, including social, ethical, and philosophical issues related to technology.
- Build, promote, and maintain an active and engaged digital identity.
- Critically assess the relationship between digital media and society and analyze online platforms and content using a range of disciplinary perspectives from the humanities and/or social sciences.
- Build practical skills in using digital communication technologies with a variety of tools, including digital video and photography, mapping, and social media management.
- Understand the major theories and concepts related to digital studies and the historical context of the development of digital technologies.
- Become familiar with the methods, concepts, and tools necessary for researching and evaluating information related to digital studies.
- Think critically about how digital technologies work and their impact on society.
- Be able to create strategic communication content and self-representations using digital tools.
- Understand professional and ethical principles in the field of digital studies.
- Understand various theoretical frameworks from the history and theory of media studies.
- Learn about the aesthetic and technical design of media that you will use in critical analysis and media design.
- Acquire advanced reading, thinking, analysis, and presentation skills in the critical evaluation of texts, images, and sounds that incorporate new media.
- Conceptualize and implement media design with an emphasis on creative problem-solving techniques for digital media delivery.
- Have proficiency in writing and presentation skills and acquisition of professional skills in ethical and legal issues, teamwork, leadership, and lifelong learning.
- Prepare for careers traditionally associated with a liberal education (e.g., law, teaching, labour, public service), as well as those related to media analysis and production, including careers in the entertainment and communications industries.

Digitization of Media and Communication Studies provide students the opportunity to combine critical engagement with new forms of digital media and identities with creative and analytical practices in the use of digital media, as well as the application of computational tools and techniques in traditional humanities fields. Although often practical or applied, Digitizing and Communicating Media are courses of study that also truly encourage and require work that is primarily critical, theoretical, or experimental in nature. Assignments are designed to balance theory with professional-level production knowledge. In all subjects, students develop strong skills in critical thinking, communication, and research. Collaboration is a hallmark of the media field, and this major requires students to work together in many courses. Students are required to demonstrate effective written and oral skills. In general, digital media and communication majors are a critical, creative response to the widespread influence of digital media on almost all aspects of modern life, especially the recognition that teaching, research, and scholarship in the humanities cannot remain isolated from the networks, platforms, and new media around us[1]. This degree program will enable you to meet employer demand for employees with comprehensive and adaptable professional skills. Students will gain valuable work experience through challenging internships and build a digital portfolio of their dissertations.

During their studies, students design digital art and narration, build digital research tools for public access, and acquire computer skills that they document in their theses.

The program's curriculum provides the tools necessary to critically analyse how digitization shapes human discourse while developing a technical understanding of how digital media and content are produced and delivered to prepare students for careers in social and technological fields.

The program combines theory and practice in how digital technologies have changed the way information is shared and disseminated, how the past is understood, how people interact, and how they spend their leisure time. The digital age has changed the terms of engagement in areas as diverse as politics and culture: While it can act as a force for good, democratizing participation, production, and exchange, it can also be exploitative, introducing new forms of control and surveillance. They teach a broad range of

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1Source: Gannon%20University%20_%20Digital%20Media%20Communication.html

skills in using digital tools and research methods to help students become both media researchers and active agents in a wide range of industries and cultural organizations in today's digitally mediated world. Undergraduate students demonstrate how digital media can help solve real-world problems. Comprehensive digital and media studies of real-world projects are designed for businesses and organizations. The Digital and Media Studies bachelor's degree program allows students to develop expertise in a field that interests them while gaining technological skills.
The flexible curriculum is tailored to the interests of individual students. Throughout the program, students choose their specialization according to their chosen fields, participate in online coding paths and course methods, complete internships, gain real-world experience, and create a professional portfolio that represents their future work. The Media Digitization and Communications student also receive extensive hands-on training in a broad range of new media using powerful software and equipment, as well as an understanding of the concepts, history, and legacy of digital media in traditional media.
The media digitization and communication student will prepare to meet the demands of a rapidly changing media environment. In this hands-on phase, he or she will develop artistic and technical skills in a range of digital media - from design principles to interactive design or motion design to filmmaking. Theoretical topics such as the cultural impact and ethical responsibilities of mass communication professionals help develop a holistic understanding of contemporary media. The STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics) 1 label is awarded to profiles that have a quantitative-technical focus and allow students to pursue an additional elective internship after graduation.
Graduates can pursue careers in multimedia design, advertising, digital content management, human resources, research, digital journalism, digital marketing, music promotion, film production, academia, archives, museums, galleries, and business consulting.

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[1]The term STEM comes from the English language and is actually an acronym composed of the initials of four areas - science, technology, engineering, and mathematics.

The study concept is based on close collaboration between students and faculty in teaching, team projects, and everyday work. Dedicated collaborative spaces, innovative teaching methods, and small classes allow students to develop and lead their projects. In addition, academic and non-academic mentors support students in planning and implementing new project ideas and help them build their network. All digital studies content combines theory and practice in lab-based seminars that include hands-on instruction to help students create sophisticated media-based work. The Digital Technology and Communication major thus provides a framework for studying digital tools, culture, and practices that influence daily life and shape the way one thinks, works, plays, communicates, organizes, consumes, and learns. Digital Technology and Communication courses enable students to understand the social, political, economic, and historical context of these technologies, gain knowledge of specific methods of digital research and digital creation, and consider global networks and transnational information protocols that enable digital media.

Upon completion of the Media Digitization and Communication degree, students will be prepared for a variety of careers such as Digital Strategist, Digital media project manager, producer, or consultant, digital video expert, educational media designer, interactive media producer or consultant, mobile application designer, mobile content developer, graphic motion designer, special effects designer in post-production, media production assistant, custom skills designer, user interface designer, visual designer for print and online media, web administrator, web designer.

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# POLICY ENVIRONMENT FOR CUSTOMARY LAND OWNERSHIP AMONG RURAL WOMEN IN MBOZI DISTRICT, TANZANIA

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**ABSTRACT**

The present study was conducted in Mbozi District, Songwe region of Tanzania to investigate the policy environment that promotes customary land ownership among rural women. The study employed a cross-sectional research design with non-probability sampling technique which involved a purposive selection of 8 villages out of 142 villages based on beneficiaries of certificates of customary right of occupancy. A snowball sampling technique was used to obtain 145 women beneficiaries of the customary land titles and convenience-sampling technique was used to obtain 145 women without customary land titles, which gave 290 of women respondents for the study. Primary data collection involved a survey questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions, focus group discussions, and in-depth interviews while secondary data collection involved reviews of land policy documents and legal frameworks. Content analysis was used to analyse qualitative data. Quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (version 20) to summarize the responses into frequencies and percentages. The results of the study exposed remarkable awareness of the Tanzanian land policy and customary land ownership in the country. About 75% of respondents were knowledgeable of the procedures of obtaining certificates of rights of occupancy. Among the benefits of land ownership was the option of using land titles for loans as collateral. The challenges regarding customary land titles as reported

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by 89 % of women were re related to limited access to the existing opportunities due to lack of information. This study is relevant for land governance not only in Tanzania but also in SSA at large because it evokes the voices of the minority gender on matters relating to land ownership, as well as gender discourse in the region.

**Keywords**: Policy; customary land ownership; women; Tanzania, customary land titles

## INTRODUCTION

For a long time, land has largely been regarded as the primary asset for survival and economic development in the developing world (FAO, 2014; Kironde, 2009). Land is essential in supporting the livelihoods of rural populations that largely consist of women. The significance of land in Africa's development is underscored by the fact that over half of the population derive their livelihoods from crop and livestock farming and related activities that together contribute to a substantial portion of the Gross Domestic Product in individual countries (FAO, 2014). Literature advances that in rural parts of most SSA, land is not only regarded as the primary means of livelihood but also the main asset for wealth accumulation and generational inheritance. Cognizant of this, land remains the most important factor for economic development in the region.

The importance of land resources makes access to land critical for agricultural production and sustainable development (Karis & Killian, 2011; Kironde, 2009). Compared to men, consequently, the world over, women have been linked to bear most family and societal responsibilities (Leavens et al., 2019). However, the existing statutory and customary laws in many African countries still widely restrict women's access to essential productive resources including land and other property types (Abdullahi, 2016). Although considerable efforts have been made the world over to increase and tenure security for customary land-holding and the need to protect vulnerable groups like women, this has not been reflected in the practice on the ground (Forsythe et al., 2015; Wily, 2011).

In Tanzania, several institutions have been developed to promote women's access to and control over land for their economic and social empowerment. For instance, the Tanzanian National Land Policy of 1995 recognizes that everyone irrespective of gender has the right to own or hold any property, including land. Despite these remarkable efforts, customary land ownership by women has progressed slowly in the country, and the desired results may not have entirely been achieved. One important question remains unanswered in the midst of all these: Why do women not have enough access to land despite favorable policy in SSA despite the enabling frameworks, which have been put in place in the region for land ownership? This particular question formed the basis of the present study that sought answers in the study that was carried out in Mbozi district in Songwe region of Tanzania to analyze the policy environment for customary land titles ownership among women. The study first assessed the demographic profile of the selected women participants, and then assessed their knowledge on the Tanzania land policy, customary land ownership, the importance of customary land ownership, and the challenges of assessing customary land. The study provides a general understanding of the policy framework for land ownership by women in Tanzania and can be useful for researchers, decision-makers, and policymakers for future interventions.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Research Methodology

### Research area and Research design

The study was conducted in Mbozi District in Songwe region of Tanzania. The district was purposively selected as one of the first ones to implement the scheme for the Village Land Act of Tanzania as a pilot district since 1999 (Fairley, 2013). The study employed a cross-sectional research design which involved data collection at a single point in time (Creswell, 2014). This design was adopted to meet the questions validly, reliably, objectively, accurately, and economically and obtain an overall ‘picture’ of the topical issue at the time of the study.

## Sampling procedure and sample size

A non-probability sampling technique that involved a purposive selection of villages based on beneficiaries of certificates of customary right of occupancy projects was employed. This led to the selection of eight villages; Ipunga, Igamba, Mbozi, Halungu, Idiwili, Ihanda, Msanyila, Msiya out 121 villages present in the Mbozi district council. In each of the selected villages, a snowball sampling technique was then used to obtain women beneficiaries of the customary ownership of land titles, based on the technique 290 women respondents were obtained in households (Table 1).

Table 1: The sample sizes obtained from different villages in Mbozi district of Tanzania for the study

| Study village | Number of respondents | |
|---|---|---|
| | CLT Beneficiaries | Non-CLT Beneficiaries |
| Ipunga | 17 | 23 |
| Igamba | 32 | 17 |
| Mbozi | 12 | 16 |
| Halungu | 18 | 24 |
| Idiwili | 4 | 29 |
| Ihanda | 10 | 14 |
| Msanyila | 9 | 16 |
| Msiya | 43 | 6 |
| **Total** | **145** | **145** |

Furthermore, within the same villages where the land projects had been carried out, the same sampling technique was used to obtain an equal number of household representatives that were farmers but non-beneficiaries of the customary land program. This decision was reached to enable the comparison of different households in the project area. Based on the procedure, a total of 290 respondents from both cases for the study were interviewed.

## Data collection

The study used both quantitative and qualitative data collection. Primary data on the demographic, social, and economic information of the women respondents was collected using a survey questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions. Primary data collection also involved focus group discussions (FDGs) with 3 sets of respondent groups with 6-8 members in 3 villages with high number of women with customary land titles making a total of 9 groups with and without the land projects. Such groups were composed of men only, women only, mixed men and women with due considerations of the essential characteristics of being married, unmarried men and women, widows, and separated heads of households. The groups were expected to provide views relating to awareness, benefits and challenges of customary land titles (CLTs) to rural women's economic empowerment. Lastly, primary data collection also involved in-depth key informant interviews with guiding questions to representatives of ministers of responsible ministries, district officials, and village executive and ward executive leaders, representatives of non-governmental organizations, and community members. The coverage was intended to provide qualitative information to supplement the quantitative information collected using the questionnaire. Secondary data was collected through review of various documents related to customary land ownership. These were the policy documents and legal frameworks like the National Land Policy, Land Laws, Women's Empowerment Index, journals, and official reports from the Open University Library, University of Dar es Salaam, and Women's Legal Aid, Tanzania Gender Networking Program, the Ministry of Land, and the ministry of Health, Gender, Aged People and Children. Triangulation in the present study aimed to complement the information collected through other methods such as questionnaires.

**Data Analysis**

Qualitative data analysis methods were used to analyse the verbal and written information obtained in the field to get an interpretation of their meaning. This was to reduce the total content of qualitative information to a series of themes and categories. This way, the content of the messages gathered from the FGDs and key informants was used to make inferences and draw meaningful conclusions. The quantitative data collected using the questionnaire was analysed descriptively using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) (version 20) to summarize responses into frequencies and percentages in SPSS software in cross-tabulations.

## Results and Discussions

### 1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic information of women respondents involved in the present study is presented in Table 2. A majority (63%) of the women who had access to CLTs were within the middle age group of 36-60 years. Although all age categories were covered, very few (7.8%) of the women respondents who had access to land titles occurred in the lower age group (18 – 35 years).

Table 2: Demographic variables of women respondents involved in the study in Mbozi District in Tanzania

| **Variable** | **Types of CLTs1 owned** | | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **Alone** | **Joint** | |
| Age | | | |
| 18-35 | 6.4% | 1.4% | 7.8% |
| 36-60 | 44.7% | 19.1% | 63.8% |
| > 60 | 22.7% | 5.7% | 28.4% |
| **Overall** | **73.8%** | **26.2%** | **100%** |
| Marital Status | | | |
| Single | 1.0% | | 1.0% |
| Married | 46.7% | 16.2% | 62.9% |
| Widow | 24.8% | 5.7% | 30.5% |
| Divorced | 4.8% | 1.0% | 5.7% |
| **Overall** | **77.1%** | **22.9%** | **100%** |
| Education | | | |
| No formal education | 16.4% | 5.7% | 22.1% |
| Primary education | 47.9% | 17.9% | 65.7% |
| Secondary education | 7.9% | 2.1% | 10.0% |
| Technical/Diploma | 1.4% | 0.7% | 2.1% |
| **Overall** | **73.6%** | **26.4%** | **100%** |
| Household size | | | |
| 1-4 | 21.8% | 8.3% | 30.1% |
| 5-6 | 32.3% | 9.0% | 41.4% |
| >=7 | 18.0% | 10.5% | 28.6% |
| **Overall** | **72.2%** | **27.8%** | **100%** |

### 2. Customary Land Titles

Customary land titles were mostly accessed by married individuals (62.9%), followed by widows (30.5%). Women who were single and/or divorced had less access to land titles. This could be related to the customary laws on land ownership. In several communities, women are disposed of marital lands upon separation (Tsikata, 2003). The results may also suggest that families of married individuals were more knowledgeable on land property ownership. According to Yngstrom (2002), in the African culture, marriage provides secure access to land, but “separated” women may access their lands as long as they remain unattached. However, this is an ongoing debate. Similar results were obtained in another study conducted in Ghana by Kuusaana et al. (2013) where it was established that women who fail to re-marry within their ex-husband’s family may have issues accessing land of the deceased under custom laws unless they find legal means of claiming the lands.

The study however showed that respondents of all literacy levels had an access to land titles. These results are similar to those obtained by Moyo (2017) in Makete district where women’s education level seemed to have less influence regarding their understanding of property rights. The distribution of CLTs appeared to have a fair distribution among the size of households. Neither of the groups in terms of the size of households dominated, meaning that regardless of the number of members in a household, the knowledge of a woman’s secure to land title had positive relation. Generally, across all demographic variables, the women that attained CLTs as individuals were more (> 70%) than those that had joint ownership. Because of this, individual ownership of CLTs was mostly favored among the women in the study area for more customary land ownership security.

**3. The Policy Environment for Customary Land Ownership among Rural Women**

The present study also assessed the policy environment enabling access to CLTs among women in the study area. The percentages of women respondents regarding various policy issues relating to CLTs have been shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Responses of women participants in Mbozi district of Tanzania regarding customary land ownership

| Knowledge statement | Response | Type of CLTs owned | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Individual | Joint | Total |
| Know about land policy | Yes | 86 (61.0) | 18 (12.8) | 104 (73.8) |
| | No | 18 (12.8) | 19 (13.5) | 37 (26.2) |
| | **Total** | **104 (73.8)** | **37 (26.2)** | **141 (100)** |
| Know about customary ownership | Yes | 87 (61.7) | 18 (12.8) | 105 (74.5) |
| | No | 17 (12.1) | 19 (13.5) | 36 (25.5) |
| | **Total** | **104 (73.8)** | **37 (26.2)** | **141 (100)** |
| Know if customary land titles important | Yes | 97 (68.8) | 30 (21.3) | 127 (90.1) |
| | No | 7 (5.0) | 7 (5.0) | 14 (9.1) |
| | **Total** | **104 (73.8)** | **37 (26.2)** | **141 (100)** |
| Know any challenge to women access to customary land | Yes | 92 (62.2) | 32 (23.0) | 124 (89.2) |
| | No | 10 (7.2) | 5 (3.6) | 15 (10.8) |
| | **Total** | **102 (73.4)** | **37 (26.2)** | **139 (100)** |

### 3.1 The Tanzania land policy

One of the goals of gender empowerment has been to ensure that the underprivileged groups, particularly women, are well captured in policies in all aspects of economic and socio-cultural life. The study showed that over half of the women respondents were aware of the Tanzania land policy such as the Land Policy of 1995 and the Village Land Act No. 5 of 1999, which together offer women equal land rights. The Village Land Act, for instance, contains formal processes for village governments and land committees to secure titles for village land, allocate land to village members and resolve land conflicts at the village level. These high knowledge rates indicate that there was increased awareness of land property rights over years. Since 2004, the programs of land titling have been carried out in Mbozi district, which could also be responsible for the increased awareness.

A good number of the participants (37%) were unaware of the Tanzanian land policy, showing that the required levels of awareness may not have been achieved in the country. During the FGDs, the Ihanda village chair said that:

“The Tanzanian Land Policy allows both men and women have the right to own customary land. However, women who own CLTs are very few due to lack of awareness and patriarchal domination. In this village, men inherit traditional practices, which provide land ownership to sons/men and limit land ownership by women. Widows at least have the right to own CLTs without any fear due to the absence of husbands and sons."

This response demonstrates inadequate awareness concerning the provision made in the land policy for land ownership by both men and women. Just like men, some women were also unaware of such provisions in the land policy, probably due to the inadequacy of information channels. One of the Msanyira women said that:
"…we do not know any legal framework due to shortage of seminars"

As noted by Moyo (2017), perhaps the most important mechanisms of countering these challenges can include awareness creation campaigns and education aimed at building the capacity of citizens as to the necessity of equity in access to property rights. Awareness-raising programs can serve to enlighten communities on land laws and policies and the various rights provided for at the local; district, ward, and village levels (Moyo, 2017). According to the acting District Land Officer of Mbozi, the Tanzanian land policy is good because it allows both men and women to own land. However, the lack of awareness by many people has been the main challenge. Although the president for national development governs land, people do not know that they have the right to own land.

The land tenure system in many countries in SSA is dualistic. In Tanzania, the execution of the land policy execution is informed by two land acts, the Village Land Act No. 04 and the Land Act 05 of 1999 which administer customary or indigenous lands and urban lands respectively (Shimwela, 2018). According to Chief Rudia from Ipunga Ward:
"…before the current Tanzanian land policy, Mbozi community were farming surveyed land till now a majority of people are farming and are living on surveyed land. It was just 2018 when Ipunga village obtained Certificates of Customary Right of Occupancy".

Accordingly, the Ipunga village executive officer also said that land was a government property and that citizens are allowed to rent it. The Agricultural Extension Officer of Ipunga village also said that the land policy authorized land ownership according to the land law regulations. According to him, some of the objectives of the land

policy were to solve land conflicts in the community and provide authorization to landowners. The village executive officer of Msiya ward also said that:
"…the land policy states that every person in our community has the right to own CLTs and its objectives are to authorize land ownership in the community."

The Ihanda Village land executive confirmed that the CLTs were properties of the landowners. According to the Ihanda village chair:
"…the land policy states that land is a property that provides development to the owner. For Tanzanians, the land is owned by the government and the people of Tanzania rent for 99 years but when the government wants to use land, the owners are compensated financially."

These responses mean that as much as the government owns all land in Tanzania, the citizens also have land ownership rights. The Tanzania Village Land Act and Land Act of 1999 declare land as a public property vested in the president authorities (John & Kabote, 2017). Therefore, although the Tanzania land policy recognizes the existence of a customary tenure system that is not only legal but also dominant in Tanzania, all land in Tanzania is public land vested to the President on behalf of the citizens (Rashid, 2021).

### 3.2 Customary land ownership in Tanzania

Like most other countries in Africa, Tanzania practices a dual system of land tenure that recognizes statutory and customary land tenure. This means that tenure in Tanzania has always been characterized by a concurrent system of statutory law and traditional norms. As already discussed in section 3.3.1, all land is public and vested to the presidency which holds the land in trust on behalf of all citizens (Otto et al., 2019). A majority (74.5%) of the respondents in the present study were knowledgeable about the customary land ownership in Tanzania. The respondents were also aware of the provision of customary land ownership by both men and women. According to Rashid (2021), this type of land ownership is not only legal but dominant in the country. During the key informant interview in Ihanda, the village executive officer said that:
"…in 2004, we were lucky to be educated on the equal ownership of land to men and women as per land policy and laws. The objective of the land project is good as it is aimed at securing land, promoting equal ownership, and enabling its land as collateral for loans from

financial institutions. The Village Land Law No. 5 of 1999 provides women equal ownership to customary land."

The village executive also confirmed that the Village land Law of 1999 provides women with equal access and ownership to customary land. Although the Tanzanian law provides for the customary right of occupancy of villages, the customary legal power of village authorities is either non-existent or diluted due to migration and urbanization. This translates to the vulnerability of customarily owned land in Tanzania (Aikaeli & Markussen, 2017). The chief of Ipunga ward explained that the traditional law for customary land ownership authorized a person to own land witnessed by the chief and his cabinet as the controllers of land despite the presence of clan leaders. The condition for such ownership was to make sure that neighbors of all sides of that land were present and witnessed the marked boundaries of that area by planting trees but nowadays, chiefs are not among those people who witness the boundaries of the owned land through the current legal frameworks. According to the chief of Ipunga ward, the Tanzanian government had ignored the local chiefs in the process of CLTs because it wanted the land to be owned legally not locally. These responses demonstrate that customary land tenure is still surrounded by mini-conflicts in terms of control and protection.

The women-only FGDs in Igamba ward similarly showed that the participants did not understand what the land policy meant because through listening to radios they understood that women have equal rights to land ownership but their husbands often say that:
"…women have no right to own land even if you have 3 hectares of land in the family because all are owned by men."
This shows that a majority of the rural men felt that women should not be granted full land rights. According to Moyo (2017), men are resistant to change in some clans, making customary laws to continue determining property rights that are discriminatory to women. Nevertheless, the present study shows that women are gradually getting ownership of CLTs. During the FDGs, one respondent said that:
"In previous years, land was only owned by males but now land is being titled jointly, and in most cases, individually for women who hold the rights."

Similar findings were also established by Bayidenge (2018) in Busanze district in Rwanda. Tanzania's land reforms during the 1990s introduced major changes to the land system and prescribed equal rights between men and women (Newman, 2011). The National Land Policy of 1995 was the first major land reform to mandate equal rights for both genders. One of the objectives of this policy was to promote equitable distribution and access of land to all citizens". Consequently, these have been among of the law reforms and policy clauses that have brought gender equality in terms of land ownership in Tanzania. Women can own land individually or jointly with their spouses. A previous study by Doss et al. (2014) showed that like in other developing countries like India and Malawi, it is more common for women to be joint owners than individual owners of land in Tanzania.

An increasing number of feminist activists and scholars are now advocating for individual titling as one important mechanism of securing women's access to land and land rights (Doss et al., 2014; Goldman et al., 2016; Gupta, 2002). However, research across Tanzania suggests that little progress has been made regarding women's land ownership individually (Daley & Englert, 2010).

Regarding the customary right of occupancy, a majority of the respondents (74.5%) knew the procedures of getting customary certificates of rights of occupancy (CCROs). In addition, a majority (90%) of the respondents also acknowledged the importance of CLTs. However, empowerment in decision-making on the allocation of land resources was reportedly frequently. While land reforms in Tanzania have provided the platform for addressing women's access to land, much remains unknown regarding to what extent this has led to increased access to land and security for women and communities (Goldman et al., 2016).

### 3.3 Importance of customary land ownership by women

The present study also attempted to identify the importance of ownership of customary land to the rural women in Mbozi District. One of the benefits of CLTs concerns their use as collateral for bank loans. During the key informant interviews, the district land officer said that:

"CLTs are important as collateral for loans from financial institutions like Tanzania Agricultural Development Bank (TADB) and Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (CRDB), hence they increase income, agricultural production, and food availability. They were also used as collateral for loans for increasing assert ownership; hence improve business through various investments such as building houses. This is because CLTs are trusted by banks."

The Ihanda village land executive confirmed that CLTs indeed help women economically in terms of obtaining bank loans for building houses, and entrepreneurship. This not only brought social security for them, but also makes them strong in decision-making. A CRDB Loan Officer in Mbozi district asserted that:
"CLTs are received as collateral for loans to both male and female farmers. Apart from that we also receive Governmental land title and contract of land sales. Women receive loans with small amounts of interest rates which range from 14% while others interest rates are 17 to 18%."

One of the objectives of the formalization of property/land rights in Tanzania by the government was to allow owners to utilize their lands as collateral for bank loans. In such cases, the bank examines the collateralized lands before loan issuance and presumably, the plots identified by CCROs are more likely to be used as collateral, due to their existence on maps and surveys. The men's FDGs in Msiya village also revealed the importance of CLTs in providing women with capital through bank loans. One of them said:
"We support the use of CLTs by women for bank loans because they lead development to our families. Besides, women are more trusted by banks to repay the loans obtained through CLTs, unlike men who are less trusted and my not receive bank loans even if they have CTLs."

This further asserts the importance of CLTs to women who can use them for the economic prosperity of their families. Despite the importance of CLTs in obtaining bank loans, this can sometimes be challenging. The men from Msiya village said that:
"…when you get a loan from a bank, the interest of the loan is too big within a very short payback period which comes even before the harvesting period and banks start to demand penalties due to delayed repayments."

Due to this challenge, sometimes-certain conditions/procedures accompany the use of CLTs as collateral for bank loans, thus some

women may not have benefited at all. During the key informant interview in Halungu ward, the assistant chief said that:
"Upon the introduction of CLTs, we were told that they would help women to get bank loans but to date, no woman has obtained any loan. This is due to lack of education to women about loans and many banks do not trust these CLTs saying that they have low value."

This shows that sometimes banks may not accept the CLTs as collateral for bank loans due to various reasons. According to the CRDB loan officer in Mbozi district, landowners may receive small amounts of loans with high interest rates of 23% because CLTs have low values and are not trusted by banks even though they reflect property ownership. The CRDB loan officer of Mbozi district further noted that:
"Due to corruption, land officers give CLTs to landless people since they are authorized by district land councils. While people with governmental land titles are mostly trusted by the bank and given huge amounts of loans (> 30.000.000/=TSH) at an interest rate is 20%, those with CLTs cannot get more than 30,000,000/=TSH. Our banks are interested in the governmental land title than CLTs."

This shows that the banks may prefer government land titles over CLTs as collateral for bank loans. A study conducted in the Mbozi, Bariadi, and Kisarawe districts also showed that most financial institutions were reluctant to accept the CCROs relative to granted rights of occupancy due to low security on type of crops and unsound business (Fairley 2013). Similarly, owners of CLTs are required to be members of cooperative societies before they can access bank loans. A TADB Loan Officer of Mbeya Regional Branch confirmed that they provided loans to Mbozi women with customary land who are affiliated to Agricultural Members of Cooperative Society (AMCOS) and involved in coffee production since they use their CLTs or unregistered lands as collateral provided that the village chairperson confirms land ownership. However, this condition is not mandatory as she reported that:
"Even women who are not members of AMCOS can get TADB loans if they are small-holder farmers (0-49 hectares). For a woman who is not affiliated with AMCOS but owns CLTs and big agricultural companies and wants a loan for buying a tractor or combined harvester, we give her a loan but the agricultural inputs will also be used as collateral. Also, the bank provides loans to women with joint

ownership who are managers of big agricultural companies without using CLTs as collateral. Also, a woman who is a coffee producer and member of AMCOS receives a loan without using CLTs as collateral. A woman who owns many small-scale agricultural processing industries can receive TADB loans. However, the amount of loan given to these categories of women depends on production costs of inputs per hectare. E.g. they obtain 800,000/=TSH per hectare of maize production since the production costs vary from one crop type or processing industry to another. Most women who benefit from these loans are coffee and maize producers from Mbozi, pyrethrum producers from Iringa, and potato producers from Tukuyu."

Conversely, the Ihanda village executive officer provided similar response. These responses confirm that apart from ownership of CLTs, women may have to meet other conditions before being offered bank loans using their CLTs as collateral. Additionally, factors other than CLTs were considered as collateral for bank loans, especially for women farmers. TADB Loan Officer of Mbeya Regional Branch noted that the main challenges TADB faces from these loans are the price variations of agricultural produce and lack of sustainable markets, which affects timely loan repayments. Therefore, the women can incur high costs of production but get losses due to price depressions and market fluctuations. Another challenge reported by the TADB officer was the culture of the Ndali tribe, which prevents women from owning CLTs and getting individual or group bank loans, especially if they are not members of AMCOS and they do not own CLTs. He said:
"Upon failure of a woman to repay a bank loan, TADB decides as per the loan contract whereby the assets used as collateral are seized by the bank. However, this is the last decision we make because the bank itself is not interested in escalating poverty levels but rather wants to empower women economically. Sometimes, the bank can extend the repayment period expecting that the price of their produce will increase and the market will to be available and by so doing, many women can afford to repay their loans."

This shows that ownership of CLTs can help women to develop economically. Generally, land titling may enable greater access to credit facilities through use as collateral. Thus, increased income generation and economic development can be realized through secure rights and greater (Rodgers & Menon, 2012). The TADB loan officer, however, recommended that:

"1. The government should prioritize women's agricultural projects for support. 2. Women should invest mostly in industrial processing projects. 3. Women should be involved in the value chain, so when they produce their goods they will know where markets with good prices are hence will repay their loans timely and will get more loans for expansions, hence economic development. 4. Government investment policy should favor women, because, you find women initiating their small-scale agricultural processing industries yet you find they have to pay a lot of money e.g. to NEMC hence demoralize women to invest in the industrial development sector. 5. Women should be given loan education to benefit from those loans, 6. The government should provide CLTs to all regions without bureaucracy example, Ilege and Lukwa lack CLTs hence women miss loans opportunities through AMCOS or individually."

A loan beneficiary from Halungu village reported that:

"I'm among those who highly benefited by CLTs as collateral for a loan. I used to get a loan using my company through CRDB company where I first borrowed 3,500,000/=, thereafter 35,000,000/=, and 100,000,000/=, and lastly 650,000,000/=, repaid without any problems and received a certificate of loan repayment. Soon after the change of leadership, we started to meet many problems in terms of high taxes and reduced prices of agricultural produce and my company collapsed. Due to these reasons, I stopped borrowing by using CLTs from CRDB. When I went to TADB, which deals with farmers specifically, I found that they have very difficult conditions, which do not favor farmers, especially men. One has to be a member of AMOCS, which then borrows the loan on behalf of farmers, which is not often agreeable to AMOCS who may have taken loans from other financial institutions on behalf of other farmers for agricultural inputs. Rather this bank deals with the bourgeoisie only who can get a loan from the World Bank or Bank of Tanzania (BOT) and does not deal with small farmers (< 50 hectares). However, even if TADB offers loans to farmers through AMOCS, it still asks for collateral to authorize their loans. The procedures are very long, contradicting, and exploitative of farmers in terms of the cost. For example, if a farmer wants 6,000,000/=, he gets only about 4,000,000/= of which 1,000, 000/= is the interest hence at the end you get only 3,000,000/=."

This shows that the bank loans obtained through CLTs may be very costly to women farmers. The loan beneficiary from Halungu village recommended that:
"If TADB wants to help small-scale farmers who own customary land of 0-49 hectares, especially to women the loans should be given to the farmers and not through AMCOS which should only provide the required collateral. The bank should loan every person/ farmer according to their needs and ability to repay and availability of collateral. This stands to benefit both the bank and the farmer."
Another challenge regarding of issuance of bank loans through AMCOS that this loan beneficiary from Halungu village was:
"…leaders can miss-allocate loans which do not reach the respective landowner and once the borrowers fail to repay the bank loan, the burden remains on the farmers and the AMCOS which then collapse or die."

A similar study in Manyara, Mbeya and Dodoma regions of Tanzania also established that there may be instances of fraud in which the CCROs submitted to banks as collateral do not belong to the loan applicants (Stein et al., 2016). All these issues must all be taken into consideration regarding the policy environment for ownership of CLTs. Apart from economic empowerment in terms of access to bank loans for development as already discussed extensively in the first part of this section, customary land ownership also offers social security to women. During one of the key informant interviews in Ipunga, the Ward Village Welfare Committee said this:
"…land should be owned by both men and women. If men reject land co-ownership with their wives, then women should own land individually to protect the land from forcefully being taken by their sons who are the main women's land rights violators in our village. Doing so provides security to women."

The Ihanda village executive officer also confirmed the importance of CLTs for the social security of women, which is separated thinly from economic security. He gave an example of a woman who had owned CLTs since 2004 and had afforded to obtain bank loans to build houses residential and commercial premises and bought another big piece of land for farming. Although secured access to land does not completely ensure "social security", it remains paramount for ensuring some sort of stability for women in the society. Similarly, when women have secure land rights, they often achieve an enhanced social status that contributes to their empowerment (Gomez & Tran, 2012).

### 3.4 Challenges to women's access to ownership of customary land

Identifying the challenges regarding women's access to ownership of customary land was considered as an important aspect for future interventions. Majority (89%) of women revealed that in most cases, the underlying challenges had to do with limited access to existing opportunities due to lack of information. In addition, when socio-economic and cultural privileges arise in most cases preference was given to men. While African countries have achieved different policy and legal strides in addressing land matters, even where the laws are equitable, women may be unaware of their legal rights to land (Odeny, 2013).

The issue of polygamy creates some challenges concerning customary land ownership. From the FGDs in Msanyira Village, the women agreed that CLTs were good for land security and for providing collateral to banks for financial support but the main challenge was polygamist marriages and their exclusion from family decision-making by their husbands. The women-only FGDs in Igamba ward also revealed the challenge of polygamous families' relative to land titles:

"Most families own small pieces but marry many women; hence, men do not write the name of a single woman in CLTs because, upon divorce, they can leave with the CLTs leaving other women to suffer with their children."

The Tanzanian Marriage Act of 1971 is comparatively progressive regarding women's property rights and recognizes both monogamous and polygamous marriages (Moyo, 2017). The act also permits married women to hold property individually whether in monogamous or polygamous marriages and allows couples to co-own land under joint registration, and the husband/wife approval is required during the transfer of matrimonial property. This act can help address some of the land ownership conflicts in the cases of polygamy. However, most of the FDGs revealed that they feared owning land with their wives due to divorce. The village welfare committee of Ipunga ward said that:

"Even if I own 20 hectares, we will continue to produce together on that land and distribute the produce equally upon divorce but the land will remain mine. But all these will be followed only if she divorces following procedures, otherwise, she will get nothing. It is very unfair for a man for a divorced wife to continue agricultural production on my own land."

Similar responses were obtained in the men's FDGs in Msiya Village. These responses show that the issues of polygamy and divorce raise a lot of challenges concerning customary land ownership which must be addressed by relevant policies. In rural areas, divorced women were also treated unequally in the distribution of property rights especially since majorities have traditional marriages that are difficult to prove in court. Owing to lack of knowledge, customary norms often prevail over any distribution of assets upon separation (Moyo, 2017). The women from Msanyira village suggested that if it happens in a polygamous family that the woman who owns CLTs divorces, they should return the CLTs to the remaining family members.
"...this will keep the family land safe and other women will benefit from it. Otherwise, only men have the right to land in our village."

The issue of widows and access to land has received much attention over the years. Tanzanian statutory law allows women to retain and control their own property, whether acquired before or during marriage (Leavens et al., 2019). However, the customary land tenure vests property control in men, and women's land rights are dependent on their marital roles and status (Leavens et al., 2019). Women acquire land through marriage but this does not give women secure property rights, and their land rights are jeopardized upon widowhood or divorce because the husband's clan can repossess the land. The Ihanda village chair said that:
"…widows are experience violence from husband's male relatives,"
He provided an example of a widow who had lost her land soon after the death of her husband to her father-in-law.
"Before the death of her husband, they had a loan of 100,000/= TSH from their neighbor which the widow was required to pay that loan and she was able to pay it without selling their land. But her father-in-law secretly sold the land and when he was asked why he did that, he responded that it was the family land and he sold it because he wanted to pay back the loan left by his dead son. He sold the land for 800,000/TSH, cleared the debt, and spent the balance, leaving the widow with nothing to fend for her children. She is really suffering."

These findings concur with those obtained from Makete district by Moyo (2017) that many widows undergo discriminatory practices upon the death of their husbands. As has already been discussed in this section, because women's primary means of accessing land is through marriage, their land rights are jeopardized upon widowhood and/or divorce (Leavens et al., 2019). A widow may retain the status quo through inheritance, but in most places, widows risk complete dispossession by the husband's relatives (Ikdahl, 2008).
The present study showed that some women might not be ready to take up ownership of customary lands. The district land officer responded that:
"A majority of women are not aware of CLTs or feel inferior to own CLTs and feel that CLTs ownership as a man's right."

This problem can be solved by joint ownership of men and women for women who may not be ready for individual land ownership. The assistant of Chief of Halungu ward said that:
'Owning CLTs with wives provides security to the wives after the husbands die. I like to own land with my wife because our tradition makes it very challenging my wife to own land alone. I have two wives who each have a piece of land to cultivate. It is very difficult to provide CLTs to both and once I give CLTs to one wife, it will be very difficult to have rights upon divorce. Hence, a wife can sell that land to another person or the new husband, which may be disadvantageous to the former husband.
This shows that joint land ownership of married women is easier in the traditional settings and provides social security to the women as opposed to individual ownership, which is still shunned by many. As already mentioned in the previous parts of this section, An increasing number of feminist activists and scholars are now advocating for individual titling as the single most important pathway of securing women's access to land and economic empowerment (Doss et al., 2014; Goldman et al., 2016; Gupta, 2002). However, research across Tanzania suggests that little progress has been made regarding women's land ownership individually (Daley & Englert, 2010). According to the chief from Ipunga Ward:
"…a woman is also a human being therefore; she has the right to own land from her parents and husband's lands."

The Ipunga village executive officer explained that the government offers CLTs to both men and women but traditionally, women are not allowed to own land. This shows that women are still disadvantaged due to traditional beliefs over land ownership. Remedies to this can include amending outdated laws and provisions that discriminate against women's property rights (Moyo, 2017). Customary laws and traditional values hamper the advancement of women in accessing land. Legally, women are allowed to own land just like men (Leavens et al., 2019). Similarly, the land laws provide for strong protection of women landowners, recognize a wife’s right to land upon divorce/widowhood, and prevent village land councils from discriminating against women, (Englert & Daley, 2008). All these provisions can help strengthen women’s access to land.

The issue of customary land ownership by female children has also received substantial attention. The principle of customary law in land possession is that inheritance is basically along the male line (Karis & Killian, 2011). About 80% of Tanzania’s communities are patrilineal, and their customary land tenure favors male heirs and does not bequeath land to female children (Leavens et al., 2019). A study on land access in Makete district in Tanzania also revealed that daughters are rarely allocated family land through inheritance because they have access to land when they get married to other families, which may not always be the case (Moyo, 2017). The Ipunga Agricultural Extension Officer responded that:
“I do not know much about ownership of CLTs by women due to lack of information but Tanzania wants to provide equal land ownership. However, in our community men provide land to male children and ignore the female ones by expecting that they will own their husband’s lands. Ownership of CLTs ownership by women program is good because it reduces land conflicts and loss of land to widows.”

Despite the enabling policy framework and the land policy that enables land ownership by women, there are still some contradictions regarding the ownership of customary land by women. The Ihanda Village land executive reported that the land policy does not state that women should own family land or husband’s land. He said:
“Many conflicts arise over family lands which according to our community are family properties and do not belong to the husband or wife.”

This response indicates that the people may still be unaware of the provision for women to own customary land as provided for in the land policy. The Ipunga Village Welfare Committee agreed that there is lack of education to women concerning ownership of CLTs. This calls for more efforts regarding awareness creation and heated campaigns among Tanzanian women concerning ownership of customary lands.

## Conclusions and Recommendations

The present study was carried out in Mbozi district in Songwe region of Tanzania to analyze the policy environment for customary land ownership among women. The study first assessed the demographic profile of the selected women participants, and then assessed their knowledge on the Tanzania land policy, customary land ownership, the importance of customary land ownership, and the challenges of assessing customary land. The study exposed remarkable awareness of the Tanzanian land policy and customary land ownership in the country. About 75% of respondents were knowledgeable of the procedures of accessing certificates of rights of occupancy. The issue of customary land ownership was delved into and revealed that women are still underprivileged in this regard due to discriminative cultural and traditional norms. Among the benefits of land ownership was the option of using land titles for loans as collateral.

The challenges regarding customary land titles were also acknowledged by 89% of the women, and in most cases, these challenges were related to limited access to the existing opportunities due to lack of information. The study provides a general understanding of the policy framework for land ownership by women in Tanzania and can be useful for researchers, decision-makers, and policymakers for future interventions. These results are important for policy implications regarding the rights of women to land in Tanzania and other African countries. It is important to examine legislation that affect women’s land tenure rights in African countries with a specific reference to the types of rights that exist and how those rights are held including whether women can hold property in their own names.

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# RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP AND ACCOUNTABILITY CHALLENGE IN NIGERIA'S PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: A GLOCALISED PERSPECTIVE.

Stephen Chinedu Chioke [1]

**Abstract**

While considering the idea of glocalisation, responsible leadership as a matter of importance must be characterized by innovation and social engineering. Also, Nigeria's leadership and public accountability questions, problems and allied negativities must be scientifically understood in order to attain sustainable development. The reason for this is that Nigeria in recent times is fraught with divergent leadership challenges which have made the attainment of sustainable development overtly impossible. Therefore, with heavy emphasis on qualitative research approach, the study sets out to interrogate prerequisites for responsible leadership and accountability in Nigeria's public administration and sustainable development; implications for responsible leadership and accountability challenge in Nigeria's public administration and sustainable development. The study revealed inter alia that responsible leadership and accountability challenge encouraged loss of money in Nigeria and so on. It therefore concluded that, responsible leadership accountability challenge in the Nigeria's public administration grossly affects sustainable development. The study recommended periodic briefing of the electorate with regard to the functionalities of government and its agencies as a way forward.

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**Introduction**

Arguably, Nigeria has both in the past and present had responsible and irresponsible leadership bedeviled by accountability challenges of different sort. The reason for this is that third world countries' leaders see themselves as being above the law. In simple term, the law does not apply to such egocentric leaders in public organizations and the federation in general as it ought to. Logically, “If law does not apply, it cannot control (Chan & Rosenbloom, 2010:15).” It follows then that the dearth of responsible and accountable leadership have in most cases reared its ugly head against the attainment of a glocally managed society here and/or there within Africa’s region, which Nigeria has been worst damaged by its ebb and flow. Questions about responsible leadership and accountability in public administration remain problematic in this period where attention has been shifted from Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). As such, the problem of accountability is amongst the prominent challenges in contemporary leadership in Nigeria. The reason for this may have been aptly captured by National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) (2004:50) when it stated that, “Once any organization is in government hands, there is bound to be questions about its accountability. In theory, all parts of government are accountable to the political leadership and finally to the people.”  Suffice it to say that; in practice, the issue of leadership and accountability has been relegated to the back and glocalisation in carrying out leadership functions also treated with a wave of hand. Concerning the idea of glocalisation in the context of this paper; responsible leadership as a matter of importance must be characterized by innovation and social engineering that aligns with local needs while considering international best practices. This is where Africa’s Economies like Nigeria have failed and must be succinctly re-engineered to incorporate both the outside and the inside. Then, what are the outside and the inside? The outside is apparently the global guidelines and principles, which must be tailored to suit the locality where it is imported into – the inside. To get it right, “Sustainable development requires better scientific understanding of the problems (McKeown, 2002:9).” Therefore, Nigeria’s leadership and public accountability questions, problems and allied negativities must be scientifically understood in order to attain sustainable development. The reason for this is that Nigeria is fraught with divergent leadership challenges which have made the attainment of sustainable development overtly impossible in recent times in various component units of Nigeria and other climes in the world. This aptly captures the need for this study.

Significantly; it should be noted that, "Life is challenge. Every new day throws up its own challenges. But through it all even in the transformation continuum (though there be differentia of rate/pace/speed) there are the basics. There are standards. There is need for dynamism as well as stability. There is need for focus (Udenta, 2007:312). What are the basics that must be followed? What are the standards that have prompted the need for such focus? This study sees globalization and glocalization as the basics/standards that must be focused on and meticulously followed. In respect to this, public policy makers in Nigeria should formulate policies that suit current international best practices. This is where globalisation comes into play. Indeed, "Generally, globalization is seen as a process of reducing barriers between countries and of encouraging closer economic, political and social interaction which could vastly increase the ability of people everywhere to share knowledge about living standards. Globalization is a process and a means to achieve the goals of globalism (Sapru, 2013:580)." While we think globally, Nigeria is expected to look into the varied domestic social values and implement them yet in line with international standard so as to have a glocalised polity ready to be re-engineered towards sustainable development.

The problem is that the leadership over the years has neglected the peculiar social, political cum economic milieus associated with Nigeria. Then again, the Nigerian problem is no doubt hinged upon leadership. Achebe (1983:10) in supporting this perspective submitted that; "Nigerians are what they are only because their leaders are not what they should be." The paper aligns with the preceding view of Achebe (1983); because perfect leadership is leadership by example. Considering recent happenings and the calibre of leaders that Nigeria parades; it is clear that change is vital at the moment. The change Nigeria needs is a replacement or shift from the status quo (Chioke, 2017). Thus, the need for a paradigm shift loudly calls for an accentuated attention and presto-chango in the country's policy implementation strategies.

Abonyi (2005:61) says, "An organization exists not in a vacuum, but mutually dependent on its external environment. It is a part of larger system, the industry to which it belongs and society. Thus, the enterprise receives inputs, transforms them and exports the outputs to the environment…" The input received is better transformed by responsible leadership, but where none is existing, it becomes an issue to the general system – Nigeria and even beyond. Meanwhile, "Despite a plethora of development policies and programmes instituted over the past four decades, and its enormous materials and human resources, Nigeria remains a socio-economically undeveloped country (NEPAD, 2008:1)." Why? In some cases, it is truly a matter of lack of responsible leadership. Also, the reason could be attributed to accountability challenge associated with responsible leadership exemplified in its posture of no or little accountability to the electorate. Therefore, responsible leadership and the problem of accountability in the bureaucratic structure and/or public administration of Africa's economies like Nigeria have guaranteed: unethical behaviours, lack of innovation, loss of money, and so on. The focus of this paper is to examine the prerequisites for responsible leadership and accountability in Nigeria's public administration and sustainable development from a glocal backdrop.

## Addressing the Conceptual Framework from a Glocal Viewpoint

### Responsible Leadership

Social sciences must be context sensitive but not context dependent (Khondker, 2004:4). In light of this, the paper begins by defining separately the two terms – a) Responsible and b). Leadership. Responsible means, "Having the job or duty of doing something or taking care of somebody/something, so that you may be blamed if something goes wrong. To have to report to somebody/something with authority or in a higher position and explain to them what you have done (Hornby, 2005:1002)." In differentia, leadership is "the state or position of being a leader (Hornby, 2005:672)." To start with, to lead is to be a leader and leadership entails leading. Leadership or being a leader is more of directing others (Chioke, 2012:112). While I stand to be corrected; leadership from a global dimension entails planning the will of the state (public policies), budgeting the amount of materials and money needed for the execution of the will of the state, organizing via the establishment of structures in form of interrelated functions and determination of the activities required for the attainment of the will of the state, directing by continuous task of making decisions and embodying those decisions into the general order and interest of the state, coordinating by bringing together different parts of the general order/interest and the human resources involved in it and reporting the activities attained and those yet to be attained to the appropriate authority usually the electorate. In Nigeria, the story is however different and appalling. From our corrupted viewpoint, leadership is all about occupying a political office, theoretically dishing out instructions on what should be done and then looting the public treasury. To the shame of these ravenous wolves that occupy hallowed seats at the Federal, State and Local government levels, leadership is beyond this. It is about shunning corruption and not pretending to be shunning corruption while wallowing in obnoxious practices.

In this dimension, it suffices to say that leadership is action oriented. Then again, Grahame (2016:2) was right to opine that, “If leadership is action then responsible leadership is responsible action. Responsible leadership is taking responsible action.” Shi and Ye (2016:878) posit that, “…responsible leadership weighs and balances diverse claims from all stakeholders in accordance with the code of ethics, then makes efforts to build and maintain lasting and trustful relationships with stakeholders, aiming to achieve sustainable development of corporate and society.” Responsible leadership is aimed at building mutually beneficial relationships with stakeholders inside and outside organization through carrying out corporate social responsibility actively, in order to realize mutual benefits and shared goals (Song, Sun and Wei, 2009:988). What about capacity building and mentorship? Within the purview of the current debate, the researcher maintains that, a glocally minded leadership focuses on capacity building via training in line with international standards of education and geared toward mentoring the entirety of its followership via proper orientation.

Importantly, a responsible leader is to a greater extent a transparent leader and as such, transparency is required for responsible leadership to be in place. Also, it could be averred that transparency is needed to make accountability workable. Thus, transparency is multifaceted. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2001:3) opines that, “A system is transparent when all relevant information on the budget is made available in both a timely and systematic manner.”

From a glocal viewpoint, this paper is of the view that responsible leadership entails making and enforcing sustainable development blueprints, which agree with the globally acclaimed Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by taking into cognizance local needs and considering the interests of all citizens in the country irrespective of social stratification. Bearing these premises raised in mind, responsible leadership is herein again operationalised as government at any level that is transparent, accountable to the people that elected it and responsive to local needs while maintaining international best practice in its public administration processes.

However, Voegtlin (2011:59) sees responsible leadership in this context means that leaders have to recognize (moral) problems by considering the consequences of their decisions or actions for all possibly affected constituencies. They should then use their influence to incorporate stakeholder groups into the decision-making process by providing arenas for discussion and dialogue. The arguments are evaluated from the perspectives of all affected stakeholders. The responsible leader thereby advocates arguments that emphasise the point of view of the organization. Further, he or she tries to achieve a consensus among the participants by weighing and balancing the different interests. He further stated that, responsible leadership represents a continuum, ranging through non-responsible leadership, which can be characterized as self-interested, egoistic leadership behavior acting solely on an instrumental rationale, to the responsible leader acting according to the ideal presented above (Voegtlin, 2011:59). Responsible leadership is one built on appropriate responses on significant areas of responsibilities. This kind is one that takes responsibility for actions whether good or bad. From this, one could authoritatively say that blame game politicians are not responsible leaders. It becomes imperative to note that responsible leadership is accountable leadership. Hence, where there is no responsible leadership, accountability goes into extinction.

**Accountability: A Conceptual Dissection**

The notion of accountability as used in this study is same with public or political accountability. While this is the point here, Okoli (2011) cited in (Osuebi, Nwachukwu, Arinze & Nnadi, 2019:24) sees, political accountability as a variant of public accountability. However, for the purpose of this study, the phenomena – accountability, public accountability and political accountability are interchangeably used. Political accountability according to Bassey (2014) as cited in Osuebi, et al (2019:24) is the accountability of government, civil servant and politicians to the public and to the legislative bodies such as congress or parliament. Additionally, it has been argued that, “Political accountability is the accountability of the government, civil servants and politicians to the public and to legislative bodies such as congress or a parliament.” The just cited definitions aptly captured the true sense of accountability. It becomes imperative to state that, “Political Accountability is a fundamental feature in any effective public administrative system. It presupposes that all governmental departments have to be efficient because they have to ensure value for tax payers' money (Osuebi, et al 2019:24)." Therefore, it becomes germane to state that Okoli (2011) cited in Osuebi, et al (2019:24) aptly relayed the point as follows: "Political accountability means that political office holders are accountable and answerable to the people. When this happens, they become the servants and not the masters of the people. They respond to the yearnings, demands and aspirations of the people, thereby promoting good governance." This is where principal – agent theory surfaces in this enquiry; because political accountability in this paper is about rendering an account cum being held accountable. This is the missing mark of responsible leadership in third world countries like Nigeria.

This paper therefore contends that; accountability, the obligation imposed by law, regulation and lawful order on political office holders and bureaucrats must be fostered and maintained by all sovereign states in Africa and the world at large. Why? Krishna (2010) cited in Sapru (2013:516) may have captured the reasons thus, "accountability is the prerequisite for preventing abuse of delegated power by the ministries and public servants. Any breakdown in the process of accountability is liable to lead to effective, corrupt and irresponsible rule." Developgoodhabits.com (2019:1) reinforced, "accountability requires two parts: internal control and external support. Being personally responsible for your results is important, but it's not enough to achieve peak performance. You need that external accountability to keep you on track." At this juncture, the internal control as stated above is equally of two aspects: internal control by oneself and internal control by the internal environment of the organization. Then, the external support is the outside observer or the general public that such person is answerable to.

## The Concept of Sustainable Development

Sustainable development herein connotes all attempts at preserving or conserving varied resources for the future. The notion of 'future' as operationalised above suggests that sustainable development is and should be treated as a long term plan. To corroborate this, "The overall goal of sustainable development (SD) is the long-term stability of the economy and environment; this is only achievable through the integration and acknowledgement of economic, environmental, and social concerns throughout the decision making process (Emas, 2015:2)." Vander-Merwe & Van-der-Merwe (1999:1) defined it thus, "Sustainable development is a program that changes the economic development process to ensure the basic quality of life, protecting valuable ecosystems and other communities at the same time." Hence, to sustainably develop, no community should be found destroying another and must not be allowed to do so. In this dimension, the paper directly points out the need to curtail the inhuman activities of Boko Haram sect in Northern Nigeria and the Fulani herdsmen's nefarious actions against the Southern and Western communities as such dastardly activities negate the concept of sustainable development in the context of the just cited literature.

In achieving sustainable development, decision making is very important and must be given due consideration. It is thus believed that, "The key principle of sustainable development underlying all others is the integration of environmental, social, and economic concerns into all aspects of decision making (Emas, 2015:3)." Additionally, "The point, rather, is that all other principles and concepts in the sustainable development framework have integrated decision-making at their foundation, and that integrated decision-making provides the glue that holds them together. Without integrated decision-making, sustainable development is simply an odd assortment of unrelated principles (Dernbach, 2003:258)." To advance this course, the researcher emphasize that: The problem envisageable herein is that the leadership over the years has neglected the peculiar social, political cum economic milieus associated with Nigeria. To this effect, "It is this deeply fixed concept of integration that distinguishes sustainability from other forms of policy (Emas, 2015:3)." Nevertheless, "In practice, sustainable development requires the integration of economic, environmental, and social objectives across sectors, territories, and generations. Therefore, sustainable development requires the elimination of fragmentation; that is; environmental, social and economic concerns must be integrated throughout decision making processes in order to move towards development that is truly sustainable (Emas, 2015:3)." In this regard, sustainable development is geared towards integration of important factors capable of ensuring social stability and re-engineering for future generations.

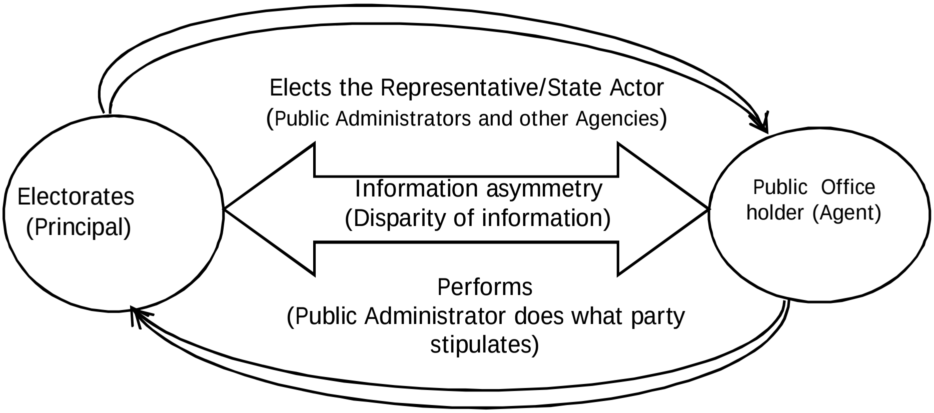
There is no development to sustain, because what is obtainable here in Nigeria is no development. With respect to this, Nigeria has not witnessed development in the true sense of development when viewed from a global perspective. In short, Nigeria is not yet developed and nothing more pretentious than this. Importantly, "Sustainable development should provide a solution in terms of meeting basic human needs, integrating environmental development and protection, achieving equality, ensuring social self-determination and cultural diversity, and maintaining ecological integrity (Tomislav, 2018:87).” However, this description is not the real picture of what is obtainable here and therefore could be regarded as utopian in Nigeria public space. In Nigeria are there are instances of divisions, ethnic chauvinism, fragmentations, divide and rule policies, religious bigotry/intolerance, Boko Haram insurgencies, power failure, attempts towards ruganisation of component states for cattle rearing business of the Northern elites, herdsmen attack on helpless farmers, attendant extreme hunger, difficulty in accessing basic needs, manipulation or outright disregard for federal character principle, dirty politicking, and other leadership questions.

The truth remains that no one can talk about preserving or conserving for the future yet unseen amidst extreme hunger. Therefore, the foregoing positions of the researcher is directly or indirectly aligned with Vare & Scott (2007:191) viewpoint as follows: “Sustainable development is a process of changes, where resources are raised, the direction of investments is determined, the development of technology is focused and the work of different institutions is harmonized, thus the potential for achieving human needs and desires is increased as well.” Consequent upon this, Emas (2015:3) was right to have posited that, “sustainable development requires the elimination of fragmentation…”

Theoretical Framework

To advance this study, the paper adopts Principal – Agent Theory (PAT). From a historical point of view, it has been said that, “The principal and agent theory emerged in the 1970s from the combined disciplines of economics and institutional theory. There is some contention as to who originated the theory, with theorists Stephen Ross and Barry Mitnick claiming its authorship (Mitnick, 2006).” The advocates of this theory maintain that the modern democratic state is based on a set of principal-agent relationships in the public sector (Sapru, 2013:427). These relationships have in one form or the other influenced the thinking on leadership in various forms. For example, it involves the relationships that exist between leaders and the masses. This has informed the choice of anchoring the study upon this theory, because every responsible leadership (Agent) relates with the masses (Principal).

Figure 1: Diagram showing Principal and Agent relationship




Source: Author's description

With regard to this study, the Principal is the public, while the Agent(s) is/are the chief executive, politicians and bureaucrats. Sapru (2013:430) contends that, "The principal-agent structure of the state is characterized by ambiguity, opportunistic behavior, moral hazard, and adverse selection. This sort of structure does not prevent the agent from reversing the relationship and regarding itself as the principal." This is the bane of Nigeria and other African economies. "The theory of principal and agent suggests that accountability problems are inherently worse in the public sector and in public enterprise in particular. This means that poor accountability is a justification for privatization in addition to the economic rationale set out earlier (NOUN, 2004:12)." This being the truth, it has remained enigmatic for political office holders to be accountable to the electorate. In other words, Nigeria is fraught with responsible leadership and accountability challenge. Hence, there is need to examine its implications while addressing matters arising with respect to responsible leadership and accountability challenges from a glocal perspective.

It has always been an issue for conscious scrutiny whether or not the agent is running and actually meeting the principal's set targets. Thus, to have a responsible leadership that would sustainably develop the country, it is expected that the values of real democracy should be adequately inculcated by creating conducive atmosphere for unity and collective will to be manifestly pursued and attained. At this juncture, it should be noted that:

The easier it is for the public to understand what members of the government are doing, the more accountable the public will hold the politicians. This accountability strengthens the first set of principals (public) and agents (elected politicians). It also brings in the public as a monitor to check the second set of principals (elected politicians) and agents (bureaucrats). If agents are doing what principals want, there should be better budget performance (Sapru, 2013:429).

Suffice it to say that, when there is budget performance, responsible leadership is in place and accountability would be easily rendered as it is difficult and rare for one to render account of what has not been discharged. Therefore, what makes leaders not to be accountable is when there is zero performance. The point is that when one has manifestly and judiciously executed a task, one readily and eagerly renders account, but when the reverse is the case, the agent finds it uncomfortable for the principal to demand stewardship let alone being compelled to act accordingly. He (agent) will therefore corruptly evade accounting for his stewardship. That is where irresponsible leadership surfaces.

In applying this theory, the researcher notes that a responsible principal will guarantee ethical behaviours, visible innovations, zero tolerance to loss of money, sustainable development etc and vice versa. In the present case of Nigeria, the agent(s) is/are usually not running the will of the state in keeping with the needs, dictates and demands of the electorate (principal). This is where glocalisation comes into play in this enquiry by identifying the prerequisites for responsible leadership and accountability in the country's public administration and sustainable development.

Prerequisites for Responsible Leadership and Accountability in Nigeria's Public Administration and Sustainable Development: Addressing the Obstacles from a Glocalised Parallax.

Considering the need to have a glocally managed society, the following are considered prerequisites for the glocalisation of the country's leadership/public administration:

Rule of law – Simply put, rule of law is rule according to the law. Sapru (2013:585-586) contends that:

This means that the citizens are legally protected from the arbitrary or capricious actions by public authorities. The rule of law is based on the enterprise of independent judiciary. The legal order that is established on this foundation serves to regulate relations between individuals and groups within a society as well as between individuals and groups within a society as well as between individuals and groups within a society as well as between citizens and state (pp.585 – 586).

When there is rule of law, the leaders are held accountable for their actions and inactions. Through this, sustainable development would be attained. It is however regrettable that in Nigeria, rule of law is far from the routine practices and this has plunged the country into severe underdevelopment. Nigeria while adhering to international laws must learn to hold her leaders responsible in terms of keeping and upholding domestic laws and the entirety of her grundnorm. The inability to do so generates the problem of accountability in Nigeria and must be corrected as quick as possible.

Political Participation – In Nigeria, there is high rate of political apathy which has snowballed into various leadership ordeals. Pertinently, political participation is the cornerstone for a democratic society. It then appears that political participation is closely associated with society-centred approach. This is because when citizens participate in the determination of the dividends of democracy or contribute either immensely or considerably to the mobilization of human resources needed for socio-economic cum political programs of the State, there is political participation and governance of such sovereign entity is said to be society-centred. Imperatively, Sapru (2013) was right to have emphasized that:

In a democracy, as distinct from an autocracy, governance should be ‘society centred.’ It would include the government, which is its dominant part, based on transparency, the private sector and the civil society. All three are critical sustaining human, economic and social development. The government creates a conducive political, legal and living environment. The private sector promotes enterprise and generates job and income. The civil society facilitates interaction by mobilizing groups to participate in economic, social and political activities.

Bearing the aforestated position in mind, the leadership and/or administrators of African polities and Nigeria in particular should run a society centred and all inclusive governance demonstrated through political participation from a glocalised standpoint - in line with global principles and local values.

Merit System – Over the years, public administration cum the determination of who gets what has been erroneously based on nepotism, favouritism, ethnocentrism and other unethical standards. These just mentioned parameters are not within the purview of international best practices. It then suffices to aver that institutional recruitment and selection processes should be based on merit. From a global viewpoint, “employment into the civil service is based on technical qualifications (Chioke, 2012:88).” But to attain sustainable development, a responsible leadership ought to consider the use of qualified and available local manpower in the recruitment processes into her bureaucracies. This is where glocalisation comes into play in part of discourse.

For the leadership to be responsible and accountable to the public, merit system remains a veritable instrument. Therefore, sustainable development is conditioned via priority placed upon credible as well as creditable arrangements for global best practices, which meritocracy is part of them.

Commitment – The level of commitment that leaders have determines how far sustainable development plans/strategies will go. In this dimension; development whether rural or urban requires commitment for it to be sustained. Udenta (2011:144) reiterates that, “All in all, commitment calls for appropriate attitudinal dispositions as well as the ability to make sacrifices, if and when occasion calls for such. As every true captain knows, come what may, the captain is the first to enter the craft and the last to exit. That is commitment.” This is the expected normal that responsible captains (leaders) should apply. Considering global standard/feature and the need to further current local needs, commitment is herein seen as being sacrosanct as well as a prerequisite for responsible leadership, accountability and sustainable development in Nigeria.

Political/Government Accountability – Meanwhile, “At the core of political accountability is the need for rigorous systems of financial administration with swift and tough penalties for malfeasance. The political commitment to establish honest and effective systems of administrative accountability can be achieved only through an effective system of political accountability and a sound judicial system (Sapru, 2013).” The performance of this will consequently give room for a responsible leadership and sustainable development in Nigeria and even beyond.

Responsible Leadership and Accountability Challenge: Implications for Nigeria’s Public Administration and Sustainable Development

There is no gainsaying that the problem of leadership lacuna is currently troubling some African economies like Nigeria. To corroborate this we glean as follows: “Everywhere we look, from our companies, to our institutions and governments I see a leadership gap, a gap between what is needed and what is provided. Instead of getting what we need we seem to have to put up with the opposite. Again and again we are confronted with stories of leaders who have lined their own pockets or whose private lives expose a wide, hypocritical gap with their public persona and stated positions (Grahame, 2016:2).” The leadership lacuna that exists in several economies in Africa and Nigeria to be exact is what responsible leadership and accountability will cushion if properly fostered and consolidated. Unfortunately, there is the problem of responsible leadership and accountability in virtually all sectors of this country. This implies that the country will continue to soar in underdevelopment.

Accountability in leadership is vital for the overall achievement of responsible leaders. Available literature on responsible leadership suggests that, “People make better choices and perform at a higher level when they know they are being watched by others. The reasoning is simple – when you are held accountable for your actions, you will work harder (developgoodhabits.com).” However, when there are no watchdogs, decrease in service delivery/productivity thus becomes the implication of responsible leadership and accountability problem in public administration process of a sustainable development based polity.

Being a responsible leader has a correlation with accountability and accountability compels responsible leaders to closely examine and re-examine each stated objective of the corporate body/polity. Through this, the best course of action with regard to such objective is guaranteed. When this is done, the drive towards a better public administration and sustainable development is birthed and well groomed to meet up with the leadership task. In Nigeria, the reverse appears to be the gargantuan issue facing development.

Accountability ensures commitment. During gubernatorial or presidential campaigns, candidates often come up with good and sustainable development blueprints, but rarely do that good development blueprints in form of party manifesto last beyond post election days or a year in office. Such candidate usually gets sidetracked as he basks in the euphoria of being in control of state apparatus and quickly forgets about continuing with the stated will/goal of the state, which is more often than not a development strategy. With regard to public administration and sustainable development, accountability “…forces you to follow through on commitments (developgoodhabits.com).” In the same vein, Voegtlin, Patzer, and Scherer (2012:6) contend that, responsible leadership can motivate and promote employees’ to organizational commitment.

At this point, the nexus between responsible leadership and unethical behavior(s). To start with, Kaptein (2008:978) argues that, “Unethical behaviors usually refer to some behaviors which can't be recognized and accepted by the public." It becomes vital to aver that responsible leadership greatly reduces unethical behaviours and its attendant challenges in government bureaucracies. However, where this is lacking it portends serious threats to public administration and sustainable development. Specifically, the implication of responsible leadership and accountability challenge in Nigeria is the increase in unacceptable organizational behaviours.

**Conclusion**

The study has shown the prerequisites for responsible leadership and sustainable development in Nigeria. With regard to responsible leadership and accountability, the study has also established the implications for public administration and sustainable development. As a concluding remark, it should be noted that responsible leadership and accountability challenge in the public administration of Nigeria's economy/polity grossly affects sustainable development. Hence, there is need for the application of the remedial measures below and utter renaissance of the country's bureaucratic and political terrains. In order to ensure political participation and accountability; this study therefore recommends periodic briefing of the electorate with regard to the functionalities of government and its agencies. This would make these terrains to have public accountability alignment.

The findings of the study have far reaching implications on the stakeholders at all levels of government in Nigeria. The implication of this study/finding is hinged upon the fact that; in spite of the myriad of existing development policies, human and material resources, Nigeria is yet socio-economically underdeveloped and does not at the moment show any tangible trappings of sustainable development. The reason for this anomaly could be attributed to lack of responsible leadership that is accountable to the electorate. Meanwhile, if Nigeria remains socio-economically underdeveloped, how can we talk about sustainable development? Truly, it becomes imperative to state that one cannot talk about sustainable development in such situation; because there is little or virtually nothing to sustain. Hence, despite the many years of independence Nigeria is still in the league of underdeveloped countries. Thus; these obstacle need to be addressed from a glocalised approach.

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# THE NEXUS BETWEEN REVENUES, REAL FOREIGN EXCHANGE RATES AND AUTOMOTIVE INDUSTRY EXPORTS: THE CASE OF TURKEY, MEXICO, AND GERMANY

İbrahim Huseyni[1], Ali Kemal Çelik[2], Miraç Eren[3]

**ABSTRACT**

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of importing country's revenue (GDP per capita) and the relative exchange rate between the importing country and the exporting country on the automotive exports of Turkey, Mexico and Germany. For this purpose, three separate models were fitted for each country and the empirical results reveal that the impact of revenue and real exchange rates on the amount of automotive exports were not statistically significant for Mexico. For Turkey, it has been determined that the revenue of the importing country has a positive effect on Turkey's automotive exports, on the other hand, exchange rates have a negative effect as expected. For Germany, the revenues variable had a statistically significant positive impact, whereas the impact of real exchange rates was statistically significant and negative. Depending on this result, it can be stated that an increase in the incomes of the importing countries will positively affect the automotive exports of Turkey and Germany. On the other hand, it can be stated that a competitive exchange rate is important for the automotive exports of these countries.

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**Keywords**: Automotive Industry, Exports, Panel Data Analysis, Real Foreign Exchange Rates, Revenues.



## 1. Introduction

There are still some debates on the implementation of further policies to increase the amount of GDP for sustainable economic growth, though many economists widely adopt that the amount of exports is one of the most crucial indicators of economic growth in the existing literature. Specifically, many prior research (Agrawal, 2015; Ajmi, Aye, Balcilar, & Gupta, 2015; Balassa, 1978; Emery, 1967; Kalaitzi & Cleeve, 2018; Mahmoodi & Mahmoodi, 2016; Medina-Smith, 2001; Michaely, 1977; Sunde, 2017) puts forward that the amount of exports has a statistically significant impact on economic growth of selected countries. On the one hand, the amount of exports is considered to the level of production by increasing a country's demand on products. On the other hand, the amount of exports provides a potential increase on the amount of total productivity with a transition is achieved from import substitution sectors, where production factors are not efficiently used, to export industries where production factors are intensively used (Tsen, 2010).

Earlier studies that concentrate on determining factors influencing the amount of exports appear to be limited. Particularly, Sharma (2000) investigates potential determinants of exports in India during the sample period 1970-1998 using time series analysis. In the underlying study, export capacity index was selected as the dependent variable, while GDP, relative export price index, and real foreign exchange rate of India were considered as independent variables. As expected, a 10% increase on real exchange rate was found to have a 3.6% increase on export volume index whereas a 10% increase on export prices of India was found to have an almost 11% decrease on export volume index. The impact of GDP on export volume index was not found as statistically significant. On the other hand, Majeed, Ahmad, and Khawaja (2006) have carried out a comprehensive panel data analysis on 75 developing countries during the sample period 1970-2004 to determine potential factors affecting exports. Their results indicate that GDP and real foreign exchange rate have a statistically significant positive impact on the amount of exports. A similar research on 24 developing countries was conducted by Mehrara, Seijani, and Karsalari (2017) for the sample period 1996-2013 using panel data analyzes. Their results reveal that corporate structure and human capital have a statistically significant increasing impact on advanced technology exports. However, foreign exchange rates, population, foreign direct investments, and inflation rate were not found to have a statistically significant impact on exports.

Foreign exchange rates and revenues are two prominent factors that may possibly influence the amount of exports. Particularly, an increase in foreign exchange rates for a country principally leads to reduce the amount of imports for that country. Similarly, an increase in income levels for an importer country may lead to an increase on consumption levels. The increasing amount of consumption is usually compensated from both domestic products and foreign products with respect to the marginal import propensity. In this circumstance, the amount of exports tends to increase for the exporter country. It is also crucial for exporter countries to concentrate on most appropriate industries in order to boost their amount of exports. Along with the wave of globalization, many multinational companies have transferred several phases of their production process into developing countries due to a variety of reasons including relatively low wages of labor force and less rigorous environmental standards. This situation enables both the transfer of advanced technology and an increase on production and employment levels by the courtesy of increasing investments for developing countries (Alfaro et al. 2004; Durham, 2004; Iamsiraroj, 2016; Sothan, 2017). The transfer of production process to developing countries is also frequently experienced in the automotive industry that provides multinational companies several advantages such as reduced costs and efficient production close to the market.

The transfer of production process makes a significant contribution to developing economies. Not surprisingly, the relatively high demand in the automotive industry provides to increase in the amount of exports and industrial products usually dominate the export structure. Additionally, these investments in developing countries facilitate to allocate financial support to import their investment goods. Turkey and Mexico are considered as two important developing countries in terms of automotive industry as they are considered as crucial production points for international automotive companies which purpose to establish exports to European and the North American markets. However, both countries use relatively high amount of imported inputs despite their successes on export performance in the automotive industry. Among others, Germany plays a crucial role in the automotive industry using less amount of imported inputs. In that sense, any future attempt to examine German economy along with Turkish and Mexican counterparts would also provide to seek the impact of imported inputs. Therefore, the present study examines the impact of revenues and foreign exchange rates of importer countries on the exports of automotive industry is separately investigated for Turkish, Mexican, and German economies.

## 2. The current situation of Turkey, Mexico, and Germany in the automotive industry

The automotive industry has an important place for foreign trade and Germany comes into prominence as a leading country in the underlying industry with the highest numbers of both production and exports though the transfer of a variety of production process into developing countries. Particularly, Germany's exports in the automotive industry have reached to more than $250 billion in 2017, nearly doubles the automotive industry exports of second-placed country, Japan. Mexico takes the fourth place among the exporter countries in the automotive industry with more than $100 billion, while Turkey takes the 13th place with $23 billion (United Nations, 2019).

The 1996 Customs Union Agreement with the European Union was considered to have a significant impact on the Turkish exports in the automotive industry. The Turkish exports in the automotive industry have an increasing trend especially since 2000 until the 2008 Global Economic Crisis. Particularly, the Turkish economy has experienced the unfavorable effects of significant decline on automotive industry exports until 2016 since Turkish exports in the automotive industry are mainly made to the European Union member states. Along with the Customs Union Agreement, many international companies have transferred their production process to the Turkish market in order to take the advantages of extended European market and lower wages in Turkey that makes the country as one of the most important production centers for the European market (Akbulut, 2007; Hüseyni et al. 2017)

Mexico has been emerged as one of the most important production points for the North American market as well where the number of Mexican exports in the automotive industry have a steadily increasing trend. The automotive industry exports in Mexico have recorded a significant increase especially since 1990s and a stronger increasing trend was achieved after 2000s. However, the Mexican economy has also suffered from the 2008 Global Economic Crisis, while the Mexican economy has rapidly recovered the significant decline in 2009 and the automotive industry exports in 2010 have even exceeded the number of exports in 2008. Not surprisingly, North and South American countries appear to be the most important importers of the Mexican economy in the automotive industry and the country is also considered as a crucial production center for sales in the North and South America for many international companies (United Nations, 2019).

Germany has reached to more than $250 billion of automotive industry exports in the late of 2017 which even exceeds the total exports of many countries. The amount of exports in the automotive industry has an increasing trend since 1990 for Germany until a slight decline in 1993. However, the exports in the automotive industry for Germany have also been suffered from the negative effects of the 2008 Global Economic Crisis, where the underlying exports have dramatically fallen from $230 billion to $155 billion between 2008 and 2009. The recovery period has started since 2011 and the exports in the automotive industry for Germany have successfully caught the numbers of pre-crisis period. However, a stable period has been experienced between 2011 and 2017 in terms of exports in the automotive industry. Apart from Turkish and Mexican exports, there is no clear regional cluster for German exports in the automotive industry.

## 3. The data and econometric model

This study aims to investigate the impact of foreign exchange rate and importer country revenues on the amount of exports in the automotive industry of Turkey, Mexico, and Germany separately for the sample period 1996-2016. For this purpose, the fitted model can be defined as the following by taking the natural logarithms of all variables:

$$EXV_{it} = GDP_{it} + REER_{it} + u_{it} \tag{1}$$

In Equation (1), $EXV_{it}$ denotes the amount of exports in the automotive industry for selected countries to country i in time period t; $GDP_{it}$ denotes the amount of GDP per capita in current US dollars for importer country i in time period t; and finally $REER_{it}$ denotes the ratio of real foreign exchange rates for selected importer and exporter countries.

The amount of exports in the automotive industry was considered as the dependent variable separately for Turkey, Mexico, and Germany. This variable comprises all countries within the availability of the data between 1996 and 2016. In Equation (1), GDP variable is expected to have a positive sign since an increase on the amount of GDP for country i leads to an increase on purchasing power and consequently an increase on the amount of imports from the exporter country. On the other hand, a potential increase on nominal foreign exchange rate in a country leads to an increase on prices of imported goods and the amount of imports tends to decrease for the corresponding country. Consequently, in case of utilizing from nominal foreign exchange rate, the sign of this variable is expected to be negative. However, if the inflation rate increase exceeds the increase on nominal foreign exchange rate for a country, the increase on the prices of domestic goods exceeds the prices of imported goods. In that case, the amount of imports in the corresponding country tends to increase and the amount of exports for selected exporter countries also tends to increase. Due to the aforementioned deficiency, the use of nominal foreign exchange rate may lead to obtain unexpected sign. Therefore, the use of real foreign exchange rate may provide to overcome such an issue as real foreign exchange rate calculation also considers the inflation rates. When the real foreign exchange rate index increases, the prices of imported goods decrease and this variable is expected to have a positive sign. The use of only opponent country's real foreign exchange rate may pose some deficiencies. When the real foreign exchange rate in a country increases (i.e. the import cheapens), this country tends to increase its imports. However, if the currency in an exporter country appreciates (decline of nominal exchange rates), exporters tend to increase their prices in foreign currency. In such a situation, the products purchased from exporter country will be relatively expensive. Consequently, the use of only opponent country's real foreign exchange rate may avoid to determine the actual impact of the real foreign exchange rate. In this study, the exporter country's (i.e. Mexico, Turkey, and Germany) real foreign exchange rate was divided by importer country's real foreign exchange rate and incorporated in the fitted models in order to overcome such deficiencies. This variable is expected to have a negative sign. Except for the real foreign exchange rate for Turkey, all data were drawn from The World Bank (2018) and the real foreign exchange

rate for Turkey is drawn from Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis (2018).
In panel data analysis, it is crucial to ensure the stationary condition of variables as spurious regression issue may arise for fitted models with nonstationary variables. The relevant stationary tests are commonly determined with respect to cross section dependence condition of selected variables. Specifically, first generation unit root tests such as Im, Pesaran, and Shin (2003), Levin, Lin, and Chu (2002) are generally used when there is no serious cross section dependence in panel data. However, the evidence gathered from first generation unit root tests may be biased in the presence of cross-sectional dependence. In such a situation, second generation unit root tests such as Hadri and Kurozumi (2012) and Pesaran (2007) are frequently recommended. In order to observe cross section dependence in panel data, the $LM$ test, proposed by Breusch and Pagan (1980), can be used. However, the $LM$ test may produce biased results when cross section dimension (N) is greater than time dimension (T) of the panel (N > T). Pesaran, Ullah, and Yamagata (2008) proposed an adjusted $CDLM_{adj}$ test statistic by adding the variance and the mean to the standard $LM$ test statistic. The standard $LM$ test statistic can be defined as

$$LM = T\sum_{i=j}^{n-1}\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}\hat{\rho}_{ij}^{2} \tag{2}$$

where $\hat{\rho}_{ij}^{2}$ denotes bilateral correlation among error series such like

$$\hat{\rho}_{ij} = \hat{\rho}_{ji} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} e_{it}e_{jt}}{\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} e_{it}^{2}\right)^{1/2}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{T} e_{jt}^{2}\right)^{1/2}} \tag{3}$$

In Equation (3), $e_{it}$ denotes error series obtained from each unit by ordinary least squares for T observations and $i = 1, ..., N$. Furthermore, the bias-adjusted $LM$ test statistic, proposed by Pesaran, et al. (2008), by adding the mean $\mu_{Tij}$ and variance $u_{Tij}$ of the units, is described as the following:

$$LM_{adj} = NLM^{**} = \sqrt{\frac{2T}{N(N-1)}} \left( \sum_{i=j}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \frac{(T-K)\hat{\rho}_{ij}^{2} - \mu_{Tij}}{u_{Tij}} \right)$$

(4)

The test statistics obtained from Equation (4) shows normal distribution asymptotically and the alternative hypothesis proposes the presence of the cross-section dependence among units. When the probability value gathered from the underlying test is less than 0.05 at 5% significance level, the alternative hypothesis is not rejected that implies the presence of cross section dependence among series (Pesaran, et al., 2008).

## 4. Empirical findings

In this study, the presence of cross section dependence among variables and cointegration equations are examined using bias-adjusted $LM$ test. Table 1 presents cross section dependence test results. For brevity, the presence of cross section dependence is simultaneously presented with estimation results.

Table 1. Cross section dependence test results bias-adjusted $LM$

| Variable | Turkey | | Mexico | | Germany | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Statistic Value | Prob. | Statistic Value | Prob. | Statistic Value | Prob. |
| EXV | 159,38 | 0.000 | 145,85 | 0.000 | 240,58 | 0.000 |
| GDP | 201,58 | 0.000 | 120,53 | 0.000 | 345,51 | 0.000 |
| REER | 53,18 | 0.000 | 220,6 | 0.000 | 245,21 | 0.000 |

As shown in Table 1, the probability values of selected variables for all three countries are less than 0.05 at 5% significance level that implies the presence of cross section dependence among variables. Therefore, the stationarity conditions of variables were investigated using CADF unit root test, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. CADF unit root test results

| | | Level | | | First Difference | | | Critical Value 1% | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Variable | Trend | Lag | Statistic | Trend | Lag | Statistic | | |
| Turkey | EXV | 1 | 5 | -2,76 | 1 | 4 | -3,35 | Only intercept | -2,25 |
| | GDP | 1 | 3 | -2,51 | 1 | 3 | -2,85 | | |
| | REER | 0 | 5 | -1,91 | 0 | 5 | -2,73 | Intercept & Trend | -2,76 |
| Mexico | EXV | 1 | 4 | -2,15 | 1 | 4 | -3,41 | Only intercept | -2,32 |
| | GDP | 1 | 4 | -2,12 | 1 | 4 | -2,93 | | |
| | REER | 0 | 4 | -1,5 | 0 | 4 | -2,56 | Intercept & Trend | -2,83 |
| Germany | EXV | 1 | 1 | -2,35 | 1 | 1 | -3,02 | Only intercept | -2,20 |
| | GDP | 1 | 2 | -2,42 | 1 | 2 | -2,96 | | |
| | REER | 0 | 4 | -1,82 | 0 | 4 | -2,49 | Intercept & Trend | -2,72 |

In CADF unit root test, calculated test statistics are compared with critical values by considering both time and cross section dimensions. When absolute values of calculated test statistics are greater than one can argue that selected variables are stationary. As shown in Table 2, calculated test statistics for all variables are less than critical values implying that these variables are not stationary at their levels. On the other hand, all variables were found as stationary at the first difference. After ensuring the stationarity of variables at the first difference level, cointegration conditions of selected variables are sought and long-term coefficients were calculated using CCEMG estimator (Westerlund, 2008).

Table 3. Estimation results

| Dependent Variable: EXV | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mexico | | Turkey | | Germany | |
| | I | II | III | IV | V | VI |
| GDP | 0.42 (1.15) | 0.74 (1.77) | 1.15** (0.34) | 2.91** (1.15) | 1.06** (0.30) | 2.18** (0.41) |
| REER | | 0.46 (6.89) | | -3.91* (2.93) | | -2.60** (0.95) |
| $LM_{adj}$ | 47.66 [0.000] | 26.79 [0.000] | 156.27 [0.000] | 88.76 [0.000] | 47.06 [0.000] | 223.36 [0.000] |

() denotes standard error; [ ] denotes probability; *statistically significant at 10% significance level **statistically significant at 1% significance level

As seen in Table 3, revenues were not found as a statistically significant variable on the automotive industry exports of Mexico in Model I. When the foreign exchange rate variable was included in Model II, none of revenues and foreign exchange rate variables were found as statistically significant. This evidence can be explained by the dominancy of automotive industry exports for Mexico to the US, while three quarters of Mexican automotive industry exports are made to the US. Whilst these models were estimated using the datasets of 33 countries, the actual impact of other importer countries was not observed. The empirical evidence of Model III for Turkey revealed that revenues have a statistically significant positive impact on Turkish automotive industry exports implying that when revenues of importer countries increase, the amount of automotive industry exports to the underlying countries tend to increase in line with economic theory. When the real foreign exchange rate variable was included in Model IV, both GDP and real foreign exchange rate were found as statistically significant with expected signs. The empirical evidence gathered from Model V and Model VI for Germany indicates that both GDP and foreign exchange rate variables were statistically significant with expected signs. Particularly, when revenues of importer countries increase, the amount of German automotive industry exports to the underlying countries tend to increase. On the other hand, in case of a relatively decrease on real foreign exchange rate of Germany, the amount of automotive industry exports tends to increase.

When all empirical evidence of this study is simultaneously considered, GDP of opponent country has a statistically significant impact on automotive industry exports for selected countries. The impact of foreign exchange rate was found as insignificant for Mexico, while this impact was significant but weak for Turkey. This evidence can be associated with the imported inputs as both Turkey and Mexico are highly dependent on imported inputs in the production process. Though an increase on foreign exchange rates may also expected to an increase on the competitive power of exporters, foreign exchange rate increases lead to increasing production costs. The empirical evidence gathered from German case may in line with this interpretation. In German case, the imported inputs are relatively low than Mexico and Turkey and thus, the impact of real foreign exchange rate was found as statistically significant.

## 5. Conclusion

The welfare level increase is considered as one of the most important goals of underdeveloped and developing countries. The underlying countries especially concentrate on relevant policies that facilitate to increase their GDP levels. Particularly, the amount of exports is commonly adopted as a crucial determinant to contribute to increasing GDP. On the other hand, countries should emphasize on proper industries to boost their amount of exports. Along with rapid developments in transportation and communication technologies, many countries are able to transfer their production process into different countries in the automotive industry especially after 1980s. Under the great export potential of automotive industry, production process transfer facilitates a significant change on the structure of exports and foreign exchange reserves for many developing countries. By courtesy of production transfer, these developing countries have the opportunity to import more investment goods and a more sustainable economic growth. In that sense, any attempt that concentrate to examine potential determinants of automotive industry exports provide valuable information for future economic policies.

This study investigates the impact of GDP and foreign exchange rates on the amount of automotive industry exports for three selected countries, namely, Turkey, Mexico, and Germany using panel data models. The empirical evidence of this study revealed that GDP and foreign exchange rates were not statistically significant on the amount of automotive industry exports for Mexican case. In German and Turkish cases, both GDP and foreign exchange rates were found to have a statistically significant impact on the amount of automotive exports, though the impact of foreign exchange rate was relatively weak for Turkish case. This evidence is in line with some previous research (Balcilar, Bal, Algan, & Demiral, 2014) in the existing literature, whereas contradicts with some others (Sharma, 2000). The impact of real foreign exchange rate was found to have a statistically significant impact on the amount of automotive industry exports for both Germany and Turkey, but this impact was relatively weak for Turkey. So, the impact of foreign exchange rate on the amount of automotive industry exports deserves further investigation. In that context, this result shows contradiction with previous research (Balcilar, et al., 2014).

The impact of GDP on the amount of automotive industry exports for Germany can be associated with the widespread structure of automotive industry exports of Germany. In fact, the automotive industry exports in Germany are not clustered in a certain country group. The crucial role of imported inputs for Turkish and Mexican cases can be considered as the reason of not reflecting the actual impact of real foreign exchange rates on the amount of automotive industry exports for such cases. By courtesy of relatively low dependency on imported inputs for German case, the impact of real foreign exchange rate was found to be statistically significant variable on the amount of automotive industry exports. Developing countries like Turkey and Mexico should concentrate on further policies that encourage the differentiation of exporting countries to increase their automotive industry exports caused by GDP increases. Additionally, foreign exchange rates are important policy instruments on the balance of payments. In case of any deficit, central banks may encourage to increase real foreign exchange rates to overcome such deficits. However, further policies should also pay special attention on decreasing the dependency of imported inputs especially in automotive industry in order to sustain the efficiency of foreign exchange rate policies.

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# UNDERSTANDING THE COLONIAL POLICY AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS OF THE INDIGO REBELLION'S PEASANT

Niazul Islam[1]

**Abstract**

This study investigates some social factors that instigated Bengal's peasants to revolt against the British colonial raj repeatedly. The majority of peasant rebellions of Bengal have been examined from the view of political economy, where the general perspective is that peasants revolted because of economic exploitations by planters, landlords, and other classes. However, this study argues for extending beyond the political-economic view, and for the importance of also bringing in overall social conditions in examination of peasant rebellions. This study finds that colonial policy and institutional arrangement created conditions to exploit the peasants' labor and wealth. The first significant change brought in Bengal by colonial power was the change in land ownership. Because of the Permanent Settlement Act, land became a product of money-making in the colonial state. The second significant effect of colonial rule is the change of agricultural mode of production. The study also shows the commercialization of agriculture that transformed the traditional method of agriculture, shifted the entire 'production risk' on the peasants' shoulders, and created insecurity of peasants' subsistence. Thus, this study indicates that Bengal's peasants repeatedly revolted because of colonial institutional arrangements and extractive land, and socio-economic policies.

**Keywords**: Peasant rebellion, Colonialism, Imperialism, Commercialization of Agriculture, Indigo rebellion, Bengal Peasant rebellion, British Colonialism, Indian Peasant uprising.

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## Introduction

“Not a chest of indigo reached England without being stained with human blood… and such a system carrying on indigo, I consider to be a system of bloodshed” _ E W L Tower1

Few people of today’s world are aware that indigo was once produced from plants. Thousands of peasants died in cultivation, and millions suffered to produce this color from plants. In the 16th to late 19th century, indigo dye was a global trade item. In Bengal in the 19th century, peasants were tortured, beaten, kidnapped, raped, flogged, and killed to feed the imperial appetite of indigo dye (Darrac & Schendel, 2006, p. 3). In 1859, Bengal's peasants refused to cultivate indigo and revolted against the indigo planters2. The rebellion was so intense that the British colonial regime felt it would lose its grip on Bengal (Kling, 1966, p. 169).

Peasant rebellions were a regular phenomenon in the British Colonial rule of India. According to Gough, around 77 peasants’ rebellions occurred in 190 years of colonial power (Gough, 1976, p. 1391). In the peasant rebellion, several theories are prevalent to explain the reasons behind the revolts focusing on exploitation, global capitalism, and trade, moral, economic factors, the role of education, and institutional perspectives. Various historians and political scientists have contributed to understanding the role of these factors (and others) for why indigo cultivating peasants revolted in Bengal. For Suprokash Roy, peasants revolted because of exploitation, coercive production system, and economic loss (Roy,1966). Tirthankar Roy analyzed the rebellion from the commercial law and institutional perspectives. He argues that the weakness of the contract between planters and peasants resulted as an uprising (Roy, 2010). Van Schendel linked the indigo rebellion with global capitalism and trade. He also examines Indigo as a global trade item for what colonial powers were contesting to take control of the global market (Darrac & Schendel, 2006, p. 3). Sanjoy Ghildiyal examines the indigo rebellion with James Scott’s moral economy theory. He proposed that peasants revolted because the planters threatened their subsistence

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[1] He was a district magistrate of Bengal, testified the quoted lines Infront of the Indigo Commission of 1860.

[2] Indigo factory owners introduced themselves as planters. Most of them are Europeans.

security (Ghildiyal, 2010). Kling's who wrote details on the indigo rebellion, argues that land policy, labor exploitation, and coercive method of the production system instigated the peasants to revolt (Kling, 1966). In his seminal paper, Guha writes on the role of the educated class in the rebellion (Guha, 1974). There are significant quantities of writing on historical explanations and from a political economy approach to understanding the indigo rebellion (Gough, 1976, Gupta, 1974, Bhattacharya, 1977,1978). Several of these studies have in common that they emphasise the connection between colonial extractive policy and peasant rebellion. This is also the focus of this study, which is a case study of the indigo rebellion in Bengal that started in 1859.

**Aim**

The aim of the study is to analyse and understand what factors contributed to the indigo rebellion in Bengal during the period 1859-1860. To understand the indigo revolt broadly, this study seeks to find some social factors resulting from colonial policy and institutional arrangements which instigated the peasants to revolt. This study hypothesis is that colonial policy brought socio-economic and institutional changes in colonial Bengal. Therefore, peasants revolted one after another against the 'outsiders. This study thus departs from the dominant political economy approach of peasant rebellion. The following research questions are investigated:

1. What were the principal social conditions leading indigo peasants to revolt?
2. To what extent and how did colonial socio-economic policy and institutional arrangements induce peasants to revolt?

**Theoretical perspectives**

Twentieth Century is marked as the century of peasant rebellion by Eric R. Wolf (1999). At that time, many empires were falling by the roar of the peasantry. From Russia to Cuba, Algeria to India, we observed the uprising of the peasant society. Later scholars and academics attempted to understand why peasants revolted so vehemently at that period. On the ground of this, various theories and thoughts emerged from different schools of thought. It has created a scholarly contended situation and, in some cases, over generalization in the peasant theory. Wolf asserts that there is a risk in the overgeneralization of peasantry. One such example of generalization in the theory of peasant rebellion is the lack of a precise definition of a peasant. Blaut et al. (1977) points out

“The term ‘peasant’ itself is an important example of ambiguous usage. At times it may be restricted to the very narrow meaning of land-owning family farmers; at other times, it may comprehend all categories of rural workers, including plantation workers and migrant farm workers. The crucial point is the need for semantic clarity" (Blaut et al., 1977, p. 126). Therefore, in the first part of the theory section, I have presented several definitions of Peasant.

It is hard to understand peasant rebellion and the rebellious role of the peasants with a single theory. It is also difficult to apply a theory to a vast category of peasants as there is distinctiveness among peasant society in the world. However, for this study, commercialization of agriculture, peasant class conflict, and moral economy theories have been briefly discussed.

**Definition of peasant**

In general discussion, often, the rural population is regarded as a peasant. This definition includes people like fishermen, artisan, landowners, cultivators, and sharecroppers.

Peasant is a rural cultivator is another accepted definition of the peasantry. Considering this definition, Kurtz describes three major attributes of a peasant. According to him, a peasant is someone who,

I. owns or manages a piece of land that they cultivate,
II. is subordinate to a rural dominant class,
III. belongs to a distinctive community cultural practice

Based on these characteristics of a peasant he identified five categories of definitions of the peasantry. According to him, the Weberian defines a peasant as a rural cultivator who has land, is ruled by another class in the society, and has a distinctive culture. The Marxian tradition consider land ownership and subordination as important elements of peasantry. The anthropological school emphasizes the cultural distinctiveness of the peasants. Moral economy theory acknowledges the peasant community's social subordination and subsistence ethics (Kurtz, 2000, P, 94).

According to definition of anthropologist Wolf: "Peasants as a population that are existentially involved in cultivation and make

autonomous decisions regarding the processes of cultivation" (Wolf, 1999, p. xiii-xiv).
We can also look at some dictionary definitions of Peasant. For instance, according to the definition of the Cambridge dictionary, Peasant is,

"a person who owns or rents a small piece of land and grows crops, keeps animals, etc. on it, especially one who has a low income, very little education, and a low social position. This is usually used of someone who lived in the past or of someone in a poor country, a member of a low social class of farmworkers and owners of small farms." (Cambridge dictionary, 2021)

Oxford learner's dictionary defines Peasant as

a) Especially in the past, or in poorer countries) a farmer who owns or rents a small piece of land.
b) (informal) (disapproving) a rude person, behaves badly, or has little education.
(Oxford learner's dictionary, 2021)

In the definition of Shanin, a peasant is that person who, with the help of simple tools and family labors, produces mainly for his consumption and shares a part of his production with the landlord or the state. Shanin explored that in all over the world, there are some similarities in peasant society. He has especially identified four essential elements to define a peasant: farm, family, class, and community tradition. Firstly, a peasant will earn his livelihood and surplus production from his family farm. Secondly, family has an important role in the peasant society as it supports in the agricultural production, maintaining social network and status in the society. In addition, class is also an important element because peasants as a class are subordinate to the state or higher political and economic power. Finally, peasants live in the rural area by maintaining their community tradition.

At the end of this discussion, it is essential to note that peasants vary in class, social structure, places, land ownership, etc. Some dimensions and variations are very important when studying peasant society and culture (Alavi,1965, p. 241). In the analysis section, and in the final discussion I will use these definitions of the peasantry to examine and discuss how the indigo planters have threatened the Peasant's common rights, tradition, and values.

**Commercialization of agriculture and capitalism**

Expansion of capitalism and market economy are two significant factors behind twentieth-century peasants' rebellion, according to Wolf (1999, p. 276). He came to this conclusion based on the analysis of peasant rebellions of Mexico, Russia, China, Viet Nam, Algeria, and Cuba. To him, especially 'North Atlantic capitalism' is a new cultural phenomenon in the traditional peasant society. The expansion of capitalism destroyed the traditional system of agricultural production and traditional norms. Wolf further describes how the market redistributes the organization of the labor system in rural areas. The organization of labor is the foundation of peasantry life. In the traditional society, change in the labor system means also change in the organization of the society. The invasion of the market economy transforms the rural economy and threatens the economic security of the agrarian community. As 'land' is valued as a 'product' in the market, it is vital to destroy the traditional view of the land where land is not a commodity but part of nature and property of commoners. Capitalism uses force to evict the peasantry from their land rights and through the colonization of new land. Thus, as Wolf puts it, "Capitalism necessarily produces a revolution of its own" (Wolf, 1999, p. 278).

Predatory character is inherent in capitalism. Before the expansion of capitalism, a portion of Peasant's surplus production was transferred to the state or landlord. They did not revolt against this system until it was in an equilibrium relation. The state also provided minimum security to peasants, such as access to common land, plow land, grassland, and forest. This worked as economic security for the Peasant. However, capitalism changed this balanced relationship by taking away these rights and transforming the Peasant as an economic actor. In this regard, Wolf noted that "They had to learn how to maximize returns and minimize expenditures to buy cheap and sell dear, regardless of social obligations and social costs." Moreover, Wolf explains, "where previously market behavior had been subsidiary to the existential problems of subsistence, now existence and its problems became subsidiary to marketing behavior" (wolf, 1999, p. 279).

Thus, the market destroys the traditional natural way of life, and everything became a product in the market system. This massive commercialization of common property also created an ecological crisis and food insecurity. Wolf describes how this happened, and the consequences, "Outright seizures of land by foreign colonists and enterprises drove the peasants back upon a land area no longer sufficient for their needs" (wolf,1999. p 281).

The market system changed the relation between production and producer. Wolf closely examines this phenomenon. Wolf asserts that capitalism 'liberated' men, but it depends on the accumulation of human suffering. With reference to Karl Marx's term, he describes this process as 'alienation'. He explains, "The alienation of men from the process of production which had previously guaranteed their existence, their alienation from the product of their work which disappeared into the market only to return to them in the form of money, their alienation from their fellow men who had become actual or potential competitors in the market, these are not only philosophical concepts; they depict real tendencies in the growth and spread of capitalism. They were most starkly in evidence at work everywhere in the new colonies, regarded by the colonists as outright supply depots for the metropolitan market. There the racial and cultural prejudices of the new conquerors allowed them latitude in treating the native population as 'pure' which they had not enjoyed in the home country" (Wolf, 1999, p. 280).

Another side effect of capitalism is the massive population growth. The peasants have to take the challenges of production for this growing population with limited resources. It was an imbalanced situation. Wolf opines that in such a situation, the risk of the peasants has multiplied, such imbalance and insecurity could not endure in the long run. In the end, peasants tried to demolish this imbalanced social condition (wolf,1999. p 281). He further argues that "Paradoxically, the very spread of the capitalist market principle also forced men to seek defenses against it" (Wolf, 1999. P. 282).

Wolf studied how capitalism changed the power structure of the rural area and created a new power structure in the society. He asserts, in this system, the peasant, tribal chief, landed nobleman lost their social respect, and new social groups gain respect. In the market system, the landlord's wealth depends on the market's fluctuations, which threatened their social status in the community. Wolf points out "many of their inherited titles end up on the auction block" (wolf, 1999. P. 283). The invisible hand of the market cannot control the inner contradiction of capitalism. In such a situation, the actions of the economic mediator create a condition for conflict. Wolf describes the role as "The economic mediators are bearers of the process of monetization and the agents of social dissolution; at the same time, their obedience to the market demands that they maximize returns, regardless of the immediate consequences of their actions" (Wolf, 1999, p. 286). The money collectors administrate the commercialization of agriculture; however, they have less control of their consequences. Wolf asserts, the expansion of the capitalist market has its own inner conflict. It forced men to fight against it. Though land and labor are an important factor in the life of peasants but not only a factor for rebellion. The market expansion tore up the social relationships of peasants.

Industrialization and new communication create a new social class and change the social structure where the peasant searches for his positions. In this scenario, peasants have two ways to deal with it. First, they can destroy their traditional social form and institution or search for a new social structure. Thus, the society became a hot pan of rebellion, so when peasants touched the uprising, the entire society put more fuel on the fire (wolf, 1999, p 293-295).

Scott is known for applying moral economy theory to understand peasant uprising with a market economy. Scott mentions that in the preindustrial society, the commercialization of agriculture instigated the peasant to revolt as it creates threats to the livelihood of the farmers (Scott, 1977, p 269). He notes that "the growth of the colonial state and the commercialization of agriculture exposed an ever-widening sector of the peasantry to new market-based insecurities which increased the variability of their income above and beyond the traditional risk in yield fluctuations." Later he comments that the expansion of the market and modernization of agriculture may increase the income of the peasantry, however, it destroys the food security and the morality of subsistence. This creates a situation of rebellion (Kurtz, 2000, P, 103).

Jerkins views the market and excessive exploitation of the landlord as essential factors behind the peasant uprising. Jerkins explains Stinchcombe's (1961) explanations of peasant rebellion. He writes, according to Stinchcombe, a commercial tenancy is an explosive system of land tenure. In this system, the conflict between landlords and the interest of peasants is visible. Landlords try to exploit peasants as much as possible to reduce their economic insecurity, while in the production system, their contribution is zero. In this system, peasants gain nothing. The interest of the landlords is evident. The tenants view the landlords as their exploiters and eliminating them will increase their agricultural production share.

Moreover, the landlords are absent in the village. Therefore, they have weak control over the tenants, whereas tenants live in a homogeneous village with solidarity and a social network. In addition, Jenkins opines that "commercial tenancy tends to give rise to a class of independent smallholders who, despite being outside the tenancy system, view the landowners as an obstacle to their upward mobility and therefore serve as instigators of rebellion" (Jenkins, 1992, p 488).

Paige examines the relations between the commercialization of the market and its effect on agricultural society. In his perspective, agriculture commercialization is the only source of political change in rural areas. He said commercialization of agriculture expanded primarily in so-called underdeveloped countries based on some tropical products. The agricultural commodity market develops a new kind of agricultural production system, repeated in many parts of the world. In the plantation system, public land was owned by an entrepreneur who had substantial capital. The production system was based on industrial processing. The labor force is wage laborers and residents on the estate. Agriculture farming is labor-intensive work, a large number of people are generally involved in agriculture activity. Therefore, agricultural exports affect a large number of people. Paige distinguishes that commercial agriculture does not spread all over the rural population, only concentrated in distinct commercial enclaves. He analyzes this situation as, "The effects, however, are not spread evenly over the entire rural population, but instead tend to be concentrated in distinct commercial enclaves. These enclave economics are particularly likely if the export sector has been controlled by foreign corporations or colonial settlers" (Paige, 1978, P. 2).

Paige also analyzed how market economics changed the communal structure of the peasant society. He says agriculture exports bring significant social and economic change in rural areas as they connect the market with the rural population. The agriculture export economy qualitatively changes the traditional agricultural production system. In the agriculture export economy, labor, capital, technology is imported from outside of the community. The result is, as he describes, "The new forms of export agriculture organization created new social classes and destroyed old ones and introduced new patterns of class conflict" (Paige, 1978, P. 3).

The growth of the market and the rise of industrialization threaten the peasant's economic security, Shanin claims. He argues that an analysis of economic surplus will help to understand this process. Furthermore, he opens that, though agriculture is the foundation of industrialization, the peasant remains outside the new social framework. Shahin describes three impacts of industrialization in the agricultural sector. The first one is the commercialization of agriculture. He writes, "The competition of large-scale, capital intensive, mechanized agriculture gradually destroys the small farms." Land ownerships concentrate in the hands of commercial producers in the second characteristic of commercial agriculture. The third characteristics are, agricultural production is ruled by the industrial mode of production, which he describes as 'merely a branch of industry" (Shanin,1966, p.12-13).

Moral economy

Moral Economy theory is another well-recognized theory of Peasant rebellion. E. P Thompson and Scott are two great pioneer academicians of the moral economy theory of peasant rebellion. In the perspective of this theory, peasants produce mainly for their family and for ‘part of larger society that makes claims upon him.’ According to Scott, peasant always likes to secure their livings and do not like to take risk as they live at the merging of the economic security. One-season harvest loss can be devasting for them. Therefore, to find an opportunity to earn more, they have to take a risk. In such a situation, peasants avoid taking the risk, ensure secure income from their land production. This behavior of peasants Scott defines as subsistence ethic or safety-first principle. But for the industrialist and entrepreneurs, this behavior of peasants is backward. The market economy cannot expand in such conditions. On the other hand, peasant-like to keep their traditional norms and culture. This is a conflicting situation.

Scott argues that the dense network of personal relations in the peasant community creates a format of rights, obligations, and norms that are outside the realm of written law and contract. It is not simply a matter of difference; it is a matter of resistance as well. Violation of these rights makes peasants unhappy (Scott, 1977, p. 274). Scott examines the role of the landlord as the only tax collector. He noted that landlords play no managerial or marketing role in the production system, providing no or little cash; as a result, in the absence of landlords in the peasant society, the peasantry will be benefited by paying no tax or rent to the landlord (Scott, 1977, p. 276). Moreover, he adds that peasants had customary rights in the local common land, forest, pasture, and water and used these natural resources as a shared resource. According to him, taking off these rights from the peasantry in southeast Asia can turn them into a rebellious group (Scott,1977. P. 278).

Moreover, Scott noted that tax increase aggravated many rebellions as peasantry viewed that as a threat to their subsistence. He argues that the resistant capacity of peasants is not only a class conflict; rather, it depends on the cultural and geographical distance from the hegemonic institution of the center. Peasantries have their social norms and social networks that help them develop as a distinctive class that creates a boundary from the organizational and cultural life of the center (Scott, 1977, p. 280-289).

**Land ownership, political power, and intelligentsia**

Many scholars also discussed several other reasons for peasant rebellion.

Wolf and Paige agreed that the aim of the peasant is simple. Peasants struggled to remove the yoke imposed on them by the planters in the form of exploitations. The relation between land and peasants is straightforward. Peasant lives on the land and does agricultural activities. Therefore, any change that creates insecurity in their livelihood makes them worry. Peasants never think of ruling the state, their demand is to free their land from tax collectors, landowners, and officials, and they never wish to lead the complex state machinery as they view it as a ‘cold monster’ (Wolf, 1999, P.294).

Hobsbawm thinks similarly and notes that peasants are quite aware of their local political map; however, it is hard for them to see the broader politics of the state (Hobsbawm, 1973, p. 13).

From the seminar of Clark University, it was accepted that the nature of land expropriating has a significant impact on the peasant societies, and agriculture export business has a similar effect on the peasantry (Blaut et al., 1977, p. 125).

Wolf asserts that in the process of industrialization of the society, a new intellectual class is born, and they are educated from the unique cultural system of the market economy. This new educated class observes the ill symptoms of the crisis and has empathy for the people's sufferings. But because of their social position, they cannot do much. Wolf puts it as, “In all of our six cases, we witness such a fusion between the ‘rootless’ intellectuals and their rural supporters” (Wolf, 1999, p.289).

Table 1. Summary of theories and factors of significance for understanding peasant rebellion to be used in the analysis

| Author | Theory | Summary of arguments and factors |
|---|---|---|
| Wolf | Capitalism and commercialization of agriculture | Capitalism brings a significant change in the traditional peasants' society. It evicts peasants from land, land became a market commodity, agriculture production became market-oriented, new power structure and new social class emerged, market-oriented agriculture production. Thus, capitalism bears its own conflict. In this process traditional peasant society became rebellious in such a situation. |
| Jerkins | Class conflict | Conflict arises between landlords and the peasant class; landlords always try to exploit peasants, and market expansion worsens the situation. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Paige | Marxist | In the beginning commercialization of agriculture expanded mainly in tropical countries, class conflict between producer and non-producer in the market economy system, landholding peasants are less likely to revolt, wage labor and landless labor have the potential to revolt. |
| Shanin | Market and land tenure | Commercialization of agriculture destroy traditional small farming, land ownership transfer to the commercial producer, industrial mode of agriculture production. |
| Scott | Moral Economy | The traditional mode of production allows a certain level of surplus extraction, penetration of market or state changed the surplus extraction level, result in threaten their subsistence ethic. Peasant revolt is likely. |

In the empirical analysis and the discussion, I will use this analytical framework. I will see how these theories and factors can explain my case of the indigo rebellion. Commercialization of agriculture and capitalism theory will be used to examine peasants' economic threats, exploitations, and change in the traditional society. The moral economy will guide how peasants' subsistence security had been threatened. Land tenure and class conflict will use as lenses to analyze planters and peasants' relations, production methods, and extraction of surplus labor.

Method

This study is a reflective qualitative study in nature. According to Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992), there are various definitions of 'reflexivity.' Some researchers acknowledge the researcher's engagement with the study, how they influenced the projects, and how the researcher's perspectives, own experience, and knowledge impacted the study (Given, 2008, p. 748). Lewis et al. argue that the researcher is part of the social world; therefore, it is impossible to get a "view from nowhere" (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004, P 934). This study implies qualitative case study research method to amass and analyze data. This study has attempted to deeply understand a single case which is 'Indigo revolt in Bengal'. In the case study research method, we investigate on single or multiple event/s, complex social phenomenon or a case with an in-depth understating. In this method, emphasis has been given on understanding the event deeply rather than broadly. Generally, in the case study research approach theory helped the research design to generate some perspectives. A theoretical proposition directs the case study method in its analysis and guides the research to find a relationship between the cause and effects. According to Yin, "the simple goal is to have a sufficient blueprint" for the study which helps to understand '...why acts, events, structure, and thoughts occur" (Yin, 2012, p. 38). For the theoretical proposition, I have read the texts against the theory of peasant rebellion, commercialization of agriculture, peasant class conflict, and moral economy of peasant rebellion.

**Data sources**

To find the answers to the research questions, this study has used colonial documents, different scholarly books, Indigo commission reports, various texts, songs, stories, newspaper reports, and archival data. The study has used both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources are the indigo commission report, newspapers, colonial office's documents, and archival data. These documents are very close to the event, and secondary data is mainly works of the historians and scholarly writings on the Indigo rebellion (Thies, 2002, p 356). The project is interdisciplinary in this scope and approach since it studies various texts, i.e., stories, poems, local history, Indigo commission reports, drama, advertisements, local newspapers, biography, etc.

**Data analysis**

The purpose of qualitative data analysis is to deeply understand different situations and different people's understanding of the world (Bold, 2012, p, 122). To analyze the data, I read the texts against the

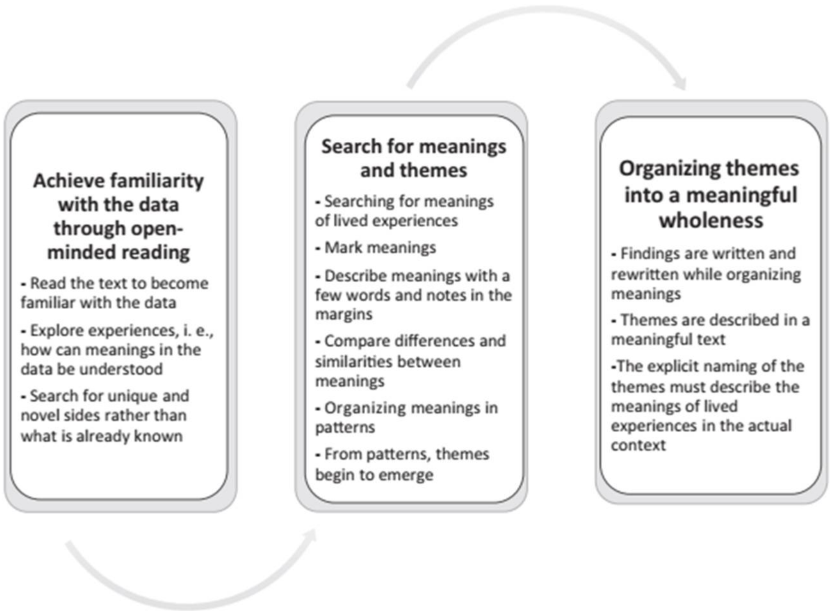



Figure 1. Process of thematic analys. Source: Sundler et al., 2019, p. 736.

theories mentioned above and applied thematic narrative analysis. In the view of Yin, the theoretical proposition supports the entire analysis process of the research method and helps to find out the contextual explanation of the event (Yin, 2012, p, 136). Keeping this explanation in mind I have followed the aspects outlined in Figure 1.

## Empirical analysis

### Financial bleeding

Emirate professor Utsa Patanik' calculated that the British had plundered 45 trillion dollars from India between 1765 to 1938. This cumulative calculation is based on India's 24 % GDP of 1700 with a 6 % depreciation. Polya underlines that India's industrial output in the global market declined from 25 % in 1750 to 2 % in 1900 (Polya, 2019). Similarly, Shashi Tharoor, in his book 'Inglorious Empire' asserted that, under the British regime, the literacy rate was 16 percent, and the average life expectancy was 27 years. The exploitation hindered domestic industries' development. When the British left India in 1947, 90 % of the people lived under the poverty line (ibid, 2019). This robbing of India's wealth had a significant impact on the peasant's society.

After the battle of Plassey in 1757, the East India Company (EIC)1 won the war and took control of Bengal. They set up their local collaborator in the Bengal throne as a puppet king. The puppet kings followed the orders of the ECI. The company granted all English men to do business without paying any tax. Consequently, this permission evicts the local businessman from their business. Mukerjee explains, "Bengal's towns began to empty, bankrupt local merchants moved to other Indian cities, and shopkeepers took to downing their shutters and running when British traders and their soldiers approached" (Mukerjee, 2010, p.11).

The following list presents a microscope picture of the plunder of India's wealth. Here is a list of the puppet kings' paid amounts to EIC from 1757 to 1765.

| | |
|---|---|
| Mir Jafar | 3.4 million pounds |
| Mir Qasim | .2 million pounds |
| Mir Jafar | .5 million pounds |
| Jafar's son | 2.3 million pounds |

Only the installed kings paid personally 6.4 million pounds to the EIC as donations in just eight years. Because of EIC's excessive draining of wealth to England, Bengal transformed from the most prosperous province to the poorest province of India. At that same time, the company tactfully took over Bengal's tax collection rights from the weak Mughal emperor. Later the tax money was used in war and trade expansion. Clive calculated that EIC would profit 1.5 million pounds per year.

In contrast, they have to pay only .272 million to the Mughal administration. In addition, Five years later, EIC had paid annually 400000 pounds to His majesty's government as their profit was so

[1] British East India Company had a royal charter to pursue business in many parts of the world. The company represented Britain in India and had the right to keep its own army.

high. Land tax was the primary source of revenue. Peasants were compelled to pay tax in silver or grains; even they failed a crop. The tax collection was so successful for the EIC that in Bihar, the amount of revenue collection increased from 200000 to 680000 pounds in a year. The heavy burden of taxation was on the shoulders of the farmers.

Farmers had to bear the indescribable hardships and pains of paying this over-tax. A cloth merchant of that time wrote, "necessitated to sell their children to pay their rents, or otherwise obliged to fly the country" (Mukerjee, 2010, p 12). Thus, EIC shipped the wealth of Bengal to England, which led to the boom of industrialization in England and the destruction of the local industries of Bengal. Moreover, the collected tax was again reinvested to buy silks, muslins, and cotton cloths. Mukerjee writes, "Between 1766 and 1768, Bengal imported £624,375 worth of goods and cash and exported £6,311,250—the amount going out ten times greater than what came in. Such an economic drain could not go on forever. By 1769, Bengal had no gold, silver, or other valuables left" (ibid, p 12).
American historian Brooks Adams commented, 1760 can be defined as the beginning of the industrial revolution. The capital from India, which was a third of the total savings of England in the 18th century, ensured the smooth growth of industrial development in England. Though India supplied enormous raw materials, capital, and labor for England's industrial revolution, the new cotton machinery of England was banned in India. If machines were permitted, then a high tax was imposed on them. For instance, the British paid only 3. 5 % tax on cotton goods in India, whereas the Indians have to pay more than 17. 5 % tax. As a result, in 1813, Calcutta exported 2 million pounds of cotton goods to England, the same amount of goods India imported in 1830. Thus, Indian industries and economy were devastated by the British policy and act. Moreover, many cottage industries were shut down in rural areas as markets flooded with British cotton products (Ibid, P. 80-84).

The entire cotton industries of England were highly dependent on Indian agricultural raw materials. This is crucial as it had created massive pressure on the peasants to cultivate raw materials for British companies. Mukerjee underlines, “By the mid-nineteenth century, half of the United Kingdom's exports came from cotton manufactures and virtually all of India's from its field” (Ibid, p. 81). As the local factories were closed, the agriculture sector had to take the burden of the administration cost of the British colonial empire. Mukerjee explained, "The paucity of manufactures also meant that agricultural exports had to bear almost the entire burden of India's permanent financial obligation to the United Kingdom" (Ibid, p. 82). It means the agriculture sector and peasants had to take the burden of the salaries of the British Indian soldiers, their pension, administration cost, war expenses, rebellion charges, and infrastructure costs such as railway construction costs. Even at the end of the Victorian era per year, India had to pay 20 million pounds to Her Majesty's government. This mountain of wealth had been taken from rural India. Romesh Chunder Dutt asserted that to meet the demand of the British Indian government, India had to export tea, jute, cotton, rice, wheats, indigo, opium, and other agricultural products. He calculated that every year India exported grains for around 25 million people. This load of the big-budget was on the shoulder of the peasants. After paying tax, producing commercial products for the market, and sharing a significant portion of their staple grains with the landlords, there was nothing left on the plate of the poor peasants (Ibid, p. 82).

Amartya Sen writes, "while most of the loot from the financial bleeding accrued to British company officials in Bengal, there was widespread participation by the political and business leadership in Britain" (Sen, 2021). He said a fourth of the total members of the parliament had owned stocks in the EIC. Thus, the wealth of Bengal ended in the British establishment.

**Famine and the death of 1. 6 trillion**

British economic exploitation of Indian society is visible in the dreadful death toll from famine. Emeritus professor Utsa Patnaik estimated under the British regime, about 1. 6 trillion people had died. This estimation had taken account of the various social shocks caused by poverty, deprivation, and famine. Polya, in his analysis, writes, “Despite a very high birth rate, the Indian population did not increase between 1860 (292 million) and 1934 (292 million). This is indicative of massive avoidable deaths from imposed deprivation that can be estimated as 745 million (1860-1934) or an average of about 10 million Indian avoidable deaths from deprivation per year” (Polya, 2019).

Because of exploitative policy and administrative structure, famine became a regular phenomenon of India in the British regime. Great Historian S Roy wrote, in Bengal, the great gift of the British was 'Famine.' He continued, before the British raj famine was limited in some local regions. In addition, at the time of famine, local food banks and social security supported the peasants. However, the British destroyed the social security of Bengal. (Roy, 1966, p. 178-179)

In the famine year of 1770, due to drought, the peasants lost their entire crops. In such a bad condition of grain shortage, the British transported 5000 tons of rice from Bengal to Behar for soldiers' food storage. In addition, the British officers and their agents started a monopoly business on grains, as they oversaw the price of rice rise. In this famine, 10 million people, who were one-third population of Bengal, died. In the writings of Hunter, the horror description of this famine is vivid, he writes, "The husbandmen sold their cattle; they sold their implements of agriculture; they devoured their seed-grain; they sold their sons and daughters, till at length no buyer of children could be found; they ate the leaves of trees and the grass of the field" (Mukerjee, 2010, p 14). Capitalizing on famine, the British officials earned huge money. For example, a company clerk who could not save more than 200 pounds in a year, even so, in the famine year of 1770, he sent 60000 pounds in England. That year EIC 'generously' spent 9000 pounds for famine reliefs, though, the same year, they collected 1.8-million-pound revenue from Bengal and Behar (Mukerjee, 2010, p 14). In 1772 the Governor-General Warren Hastings, in a letter written to the directors of the company, "Withstanding the loss of at least one-third of the inhabitants of the province, and the consequent decrease of cultivation, the net collections of the year 1771 exceeded even those of 1768" (Hunter, 1868, p. 381). This clearly shows that even in acute famine, the company is happy to collect excessive revenue from the poor peasants.

S Roy asserted two reasons for famine: a) Railway Road construction and b) the destruction of the irrigation system. The statistics proved the claim is valid. From 1852 to 1854, there were 13 major famines where approximately 5 million people died. After the railroad construction in India, from 1860 to 1879, in just 20 years, there were 16 famines where 12 million people died (Roy, 1966, p.178-179). Because of the newly built railroad, it was easy to buy grains from the local markets; moreover, often Europeans pressured the peasants to sell their grains to them. This monopoly business created a vacuum in the local market of Bengal. In 1869, after the opening of the Suez Canal and the expansion of the railroad in India, it was easy to transport goods from India to England. One year later, in the 1870 famine, millions of people died because of food storage. Hence, that same year India exported seven times more grains than the previous three decades. India’s wheat was exported at such a low rate that it determines the wheat’s price of the overall global market (Mukerjee, 2010, p. 83).

Nobel laureate economist Amartya Sen highlights that the British's incredible performance is not the end of the famine, nor they improved the health condition of Indians. Instead, when they left India, the average life expectancy was 32. The British started the regime with the 1770 famine, and they left India with the great famine of 1943 (Sen, 2021). In the 1943 famine of Bengal, the official records tell that 1.5 million people died, whereas other records estimated 3 million people. Surprisingly, after India's independence in 1947, there was no famine in India (Mukerjee, 2010, p. 13, Sen, 2021).

**Land reformation: Peasants lost their rights on land**

In 1700, peasants owned the land. Even if their harvest was lost, they were not evicted from the land. Land revenue was used for public facilities, such as building schools or maintaining irrigation systems. Bengal seventh-century king Alivardi wrote, "The money in the hands of the people of the country is my wealth which I have consigned to their purses". Moreover, he advised his grandson, the last king of Bengal Siraj-ud-daula, not to exploit the commoners by saying, 'let them grow rich and the state will develop rich (Mukerjee, 2010, p. 9). In the Mughal era, the revenue was collected through Zamindars and Mughal officials. However, on land, peasants had rights. They have greater control over their land, pasturage, and forest (Umar, 2013, page 11). The scenario changed at the time of colonial administration.
Lord Cornwallis, in 1793 reformed the land revenue system of Bengal. The aim was to collect a steadfast amount of tax from Bengal. In this system, Zamindars and middlemen were responsible for managing revenue from several villages under their control (see Figure 2). The company fixed the amount of revenue from a

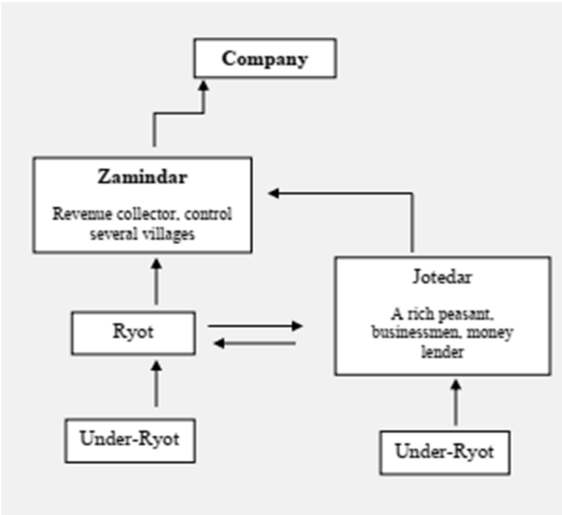
Zamindary state. Zamindars were expected to pay their rent regularly, at a pre-scheduled time of the year. If they failed to pay the rent at the pre-scheduled time, their estate was auctioned. This resulted, 75 % of zamindars changed their hands of their state. This new contract was named the ‘Permanent settlement’ act. The permanent settlement act changed the land tenure system entirely. Under this contract, Zamindar had absolute rights on the land. They became the owner of common land, pond, forest, grazing land, pasters, and water bodies. They can buy and sell land or distribute their lands to anyone they like. As a result, the peasantry had lost their generations of rights on the land. (Umar, 2013, p. 13-14, Mukerjee, 2010, p. 17 NCTR,2021).

In addition, this system increased the torture of the peasants. Even in a lean year peasants had to pay a high amount of tax. In the Mughal time, peasants were allowed to pay with the variation of yield. But in the British rule in the time of bad harvest years, sometimes peasants had to mortgage their future crops, later their land and thus they became landless and poor, turned into day labor. Mukerjee writes, "In the past, a peasant's land was secure even if he could not pay taxes. But British law in India invariably upheld the rights of creditors, who became critical cogs in the machinery of revenue extraction" (Mukerjee, 2010, p 14).

**Destructive result of permanent settlement act**

Administratively as zamindars were only responsible for collecting rent, they did not think of the peasants' welfare and irrigation system, and colonial rulers took no responsibility for developing the rural area.
Many Zamindars were oppressive. They punished peasants when collecting the revenue. Even in a lean year, they claimed tax as their wish. There were no regulations.
A certain amount of tax was imposed on Zamindar's estate without considering the quality of the soil, land, irrigation system, flood, drought, and rainfall. So, the Zamindars also pressured peasants for tax.
Politically, the British considered the Zamindars as their loyal collaborators. Most of the Zamindars were in support of colonial rule.
This system created a new parasite middlemen class who collected rent on the Zamindars' behalf and oversaw the estate. In the name of collecting tax, they regularly inhumanly tortured peasants.

In 1772 the total Zamindars were around 100. However, in 1872 the number of Zamindary increased dramatically to 150,000! From this account, one can assume the Zamindars and intermediaries' torture of peasants increased (Bhattacharjee, 2020, Umar, 2013, p 16-21).




- Zamindars' responsibility
  a. Collecting revenue from peasants and paying a certain amount of revenue to the company
  b. Distributing tax in several villages
- Jotedar is a

Figure 2. A general power structure of the indigo cultivation villages of Bengal

**Land use in the production of Indigo**

Understanding the production system of the Indigo is vital to understand the indigo rebellion. Indigo was generally cultivated under the Nij (own) and Ryoti (tenant) systems (Figure 3). In the nij system, the planters produce their Indigo with waged labor. In this system, planters bought the land or rented it from local Zamindars. In the nij system, the planters had to invest in bullocks, ploughs, labor, land, seed, processing, production, cutting the plants, fertilizers, and overall maintenance. In addition, planters had to take the risk of production loss because of bad weather.
Whereas in the Ryoti (tenant) system, the planters make a contract with the peasants. In this system, planters gave some advance money and indigo seeds to peasants. Nevertheless, the rest of the production work was on peasants. In the ryoti system, the peasants had to cultivate Indigo on their lands, with their family labor and

bullocks, plough the land, show the seed, weed clearing, irrigation, harvest it, and finally transport it to the factory. Moreover, all the risks and labor were on peasants. So, if the harvest was lost in a lean year, the peasant had to pay and retake a loan from the planters. Subsequently, he fell into the debt trap of the planters.

There are two categories of the ryoti system: be-ilaka and ilaka. In the be-ilaka system, planters lack land rights or any direct control over peasants. Peasants were under the supervision of a local zamindar. However, in the liaka system, planters had rights over the land and peasants were under his command. At the time of indigo rebellion, most of the cultivation was under liaka system. (Gupta, 1992, p 173-178, Punekar et al., 1988, p. 12-16, Kling, 1960, p. 52-53).

In 1837, the planter's position dramatically improved after passing the law that any crown subject can hold any amount of land for any length of time. This opens the gate for the planters to do more cultivation on the likha system. Hereafter, planters spent much of their resources in buying Zamindary. Kling writes, "by the time of the indigo disturbances, most of the cultivation in the large concerns of Lower Bengal was ilaka, in which the concern was the landlord" (Kling, 1966, p. 53). For example, the Bengal Indigo company holds 75000 bighas of land, whereas only 17000 were be-ilaka. In James Hill's concerns, out of 67000 bigahs, only 14000 bigahs were be-ilaka. (Ibid, p 54). When the holdings of planters increased on Lilkha land, the peasants couldn't escape from the grip of the planters. Finding no alternatives, they have to stay in the villages under the coercive system of indigo cultivation. The entire indigo production system rested based on oppression and intimidation.

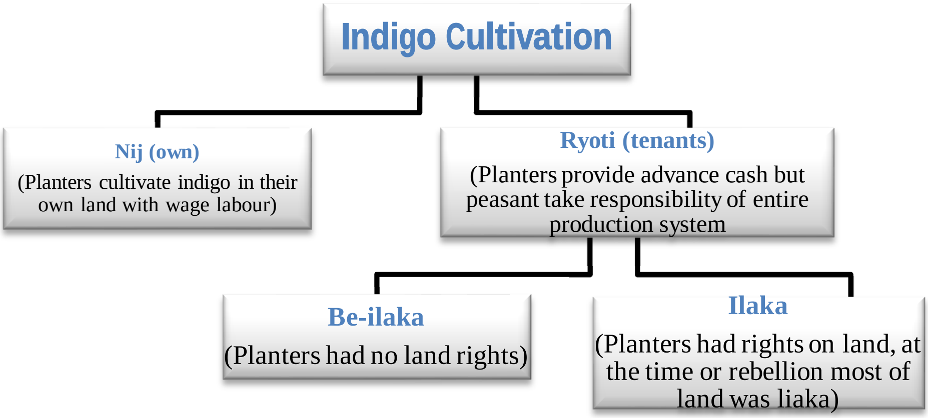



Figure 3. Land use system of Indigo cultivation

Demerits of the ryotei system

All risk of production was on the shoulder of the peasant.
Peasants were in the cycle of the debt trap of the planters.
The planters took the best fertile land, reduced the cultivation of rice and food grains.
It was not economically beneficial for the peasants.
Indigo cultivation was labor-intensive and needed constant monitoring, but it was not remunerative for peasants; moreover, it threatened their food security.
Cultivation needed high supervision; for instance, after the spring rain, the seed was required to sow immediately before the soil's moisture evaporated and directly transferred to the factories after harvesting.

**Exploitative nature of the plantation**

The second lieutenant General of Bengal wrote his observation on planters' exploitations. He said that the root of the whole question is "the struggle to make rayats grow the indigo plant, without paying them the price of it (Kling, 1966, p 142).

The planters earned 12 rupees per bigha land of indigo production whereas the ryot gets only 2 rupees 8 annas. King writes, "in 1860, the Lieutenant Governor of Bengal calculated that the ryot lost 7 rupees per bigha when he cultivated indigo in place of another crop" (Kling, 1966, p 36). Ryot not only lost 7 rupees moreover he had to pay brides to different officials of the factory.

As aforementioned in the ryoti system of indigo cultivation, the peasant entered a contract with the planters. Once the peasant entered the contract, there was no easy escape from the agreement. Generally, 1 to 20 years was the length of the contract. Sometimes planters pressured the peasant to take the advance. Moreover, 'under ryot' did not get the money of the contract if the contract was with the head ryot. Even if the peasant wishes to repay the money, the planters did not accept it. Kling underlines, "It matters little whether the ryot took his original advances with reluctance or cheerfulness, the result, in either case, is the same; he is never afterward a free man" (Kling, 1966, p 142). The giving advance intended to keep peasants in constant threats. Kling talks, "The planter's object in maintaining the debt was to use it as a threat to force the ryot to cultivate indigo" (Kling,1966, p 37).

The indigo commission asked Ashley Eden if the ryots enter into a contract, then why it will be a problem? Eden replied that in six years of his experience, no ryots entered into a legal agreement without force (Commission, 1860, p. 16).

Here some of the clause that shows the evil motive of the contract:

Servants of the factory measure the land of the peasant.

Peasants will plough the ground that the planters had measured.

Peasants will buy the seeds from the planters.

They will cultivate, weeding the ground, cut the harvest and transfer it to the factory at their own cost (Kling, 1966, p. 127)

The indigo commission and Evidence of Violence

When the rebellion was on a high, to investigate the matter, the British raj established a commission to mitigate the angriness of the peasant. The aim was to set up an image of a 'just' and 'neutral' government in the mind of the peasants. After examining the indigo commission members, Kling wisely commented, "To all appearances, the Commission was dominated by men sympathetic to the planting interest (Kling, 1966, p.139). Before the indigo commission, British officials, planters, Zamindars, and peasants testified. The reports provide information on violence in indigo cultivation.

The report shows that regular violence was part of the strategy of indigo cultivation. The planters use exemplary violence to exhibit their power and control the peasant. Ashley Eden1 Testified, "In the district of Rajshaye, in the concern of Messrs. J. and R. Watson and Co, in which three villages were gutted, three cultivators killed, and six wounded, would be enough to strike terror into the hearts of the ryots, ...and it is only when the ryots have forgotten such acts as these, that any fresh violence of this sort is necessary" (Commission, 1860, p. 10). The system is such that it requires coercive actions to produce Indigo. Using whiplash to torture peasants was also common among European planters. In the Commission, the following conversation provide evidence,

"Baboo C. M, Chatterjee (Bengali landlord and commission member): Do you know that a kind of leather strap is kept in the factories for beating ryots?
Ashley Eden: I have heard from ryots that there is a stick with leather attached to it, called
"Sham Chand" or "Ram Kant2," but this I merely heard from the Kishnaghur ryots."

In addition, Eden said, ".... without which (violence) in my opinion, the cultivation of Indigo could not be carried on for one day" (Ibid, p. 10). The peasant did not want to make any objection against the planters because they had to suffer consequences if they did so. Sometimes They file a case in another district to escape the torture of planters. Eden shared many horror stories of violence from his personal experience. He told the Commission that one peasant was kidnapped from Rajshahi district, confined in the godown, where he died in confinement, later his body was thrown in the water body. In another case, the servants of Hobra factory ploughed up about 125 beegahs of the ryot's land without his permission, though the peasant

[1] Ashley Eden was a district magistrate of the British raj. He worked in the Indigo district for some time

[2] Name of the whiplashes. * Shamchand and Ram kant are lashes made of leather. The Planters used those to beat the ryots.

did not commit any offense to the planter. In both cases, there was no serious ruling for the offenders (Ibid, p. 3). If any peasants file a lawsuit or go against the will of the planters, the typical punishment was to carry off their livestock which was vital for the cultivation. From one indigo factory Eden released two to three hundred cattle that belonged to the farmers. However, the peasants did not come to claim the cattle in fear of the planters for several days. (Ibid, p. 4).

The indigo planters compelled peasants to cultivate Indigo. Eden argued that peasants should make decisions about what they like to grow. According to him, "I can conceive no principle upon which it can be argued that it is justifiable for a third party to come in and insist upon a ryot sowing that to which he objects" (Commission, 1860. P. 15). Peasants had no free agency to farm whatever they liked in their land. He said that indigo cultivation was unprofitable for the peasants; therefore, no ryots willingly would take such personal loss. The planters used violence visible in the Criminal records of Bengal (Ibid, p 2). From the criminal record, Eden presented that, "I beg to hand in an abstract of forty-nine serious cases of murder, homicide, riot, arson, dacoity, blunder, and kidnapping, which have occurred from the year 1830 to 1859, some of which I have taken from records which came before me during my incumbency... and all from authenticated papers." (Ibid, p. 2-3). However, this record was only the tip of the iceberg. In the period, the number of cases recorded against the planters was very low. He mentioned to the Commission that he believed that "These cases do not in any way represent the total amount of such outrageous that have committed during the period embraced...My own opinion is that not one tithe of the offenses committed ever came before any court at all" ibid, p. 9). Even European conceals their offense, even the murder of the ryot. Mr. Parick Smith of Dulleemulla factory saves a servant of his factory who was alleged of two murders. (Ibid, p. 6). The figure 4 is a snapshot of the overall oppression what was imposed on the peasants.

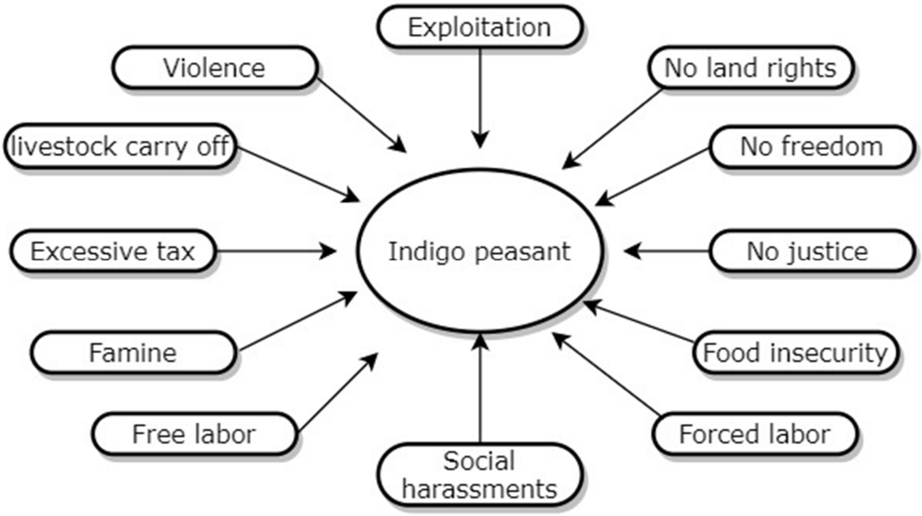



Figure 4. A snapshot of overall oppression on the peasants of Bengal

Various sources give an idea of the kind of oppression that was inflicted on the farmers. Kidnapping, carrying off cattle, destroying the farmland, torture by detaining peasants in the storage room, killing, sowing Indigo's seed in the head with mud, flogging, sexually harassing, dishonor, sexually harass peasant's women, beating with shoes are some of the common practices of the planters (Kling, 1966, p. 142).

**The drama Neel Dorpon**

The political drama Neel darpan (The indigo planting mirror) by Dinbondhu Mitra was published in Dhaka in 1860. The pages of the drama showcase the horror, exploitation, and violence of the planters. After the publication, the British raj immediately banned the drama and its stage performance. The colonial office filed litigation against the theater. The drama played a critical role in getting the support of the educated Bengaliee class of that time and created awareness among the Europeans on the oppression of indigo workers under British rule (Shapland, 2020).

The violence of the system was so severe that peasants had to leave the villages. The intrusion of the indigo planters in the village threatened the peasant's life security. Sadhu weeps in the drama,

“Sadhu: Master, I told you then we cannot live anymore in this country. You did not hear me. However, A poor man’s word bears fruit after the lapse of years (act 1, scene 1, Mitra, 1966, p. 5)
The peasants were losing their lands, property and leaving villages. Indigo cultivation is threatening their security to subsistence.
Sadhu. Now it is no more a place of happiness; your garden is already gone, and your holdings are well nigh gone. Ah ! it is not yet three years since the Saheb took a lease of this place, and he has already ruined the whole village (act 1, scene 1, Mitra, 1861, p. 3)
Peasants were even ready to work as labor only for food. Scott's moral economy suggested that peasants' first concern is to secure food for the family. But the planters did not allow this proposal.
Nobin. I said. “Saheb, as you engage all our men, our ploughs, and our kine, everything in the indigo field, only give us every year through, our food. We don’t want to hire. (act 1, scene 1, Mitra, 1861, p. 5)

As Shanin and Scott argue for the peasant’s protection of their family is very important. Women's honor and safety are vital for the peasant community. The planters had also destroyed this core moral value. Taking their tools and dishonor peasant family members was a common practice among planters.
Amin. (To himself, observing khetromany) this young woman is not bad looking; if our younger saheb can get her, he will, with his whole heart, take her.
Wood. I have scourged those wicked people, taken away their kine, and kept their wives in confinement which is a very severe punishment for them. (Act 1, scene2, Mitra, 1861, p. 10).

The Nil Darpan is a landmark political drama in the history of the Indigo rebellion. Though it upholds the peasants' poor conditions, it did not mention colonialism and imperial enterprises.

## The political conditions

Contemporary political events and rebellions had impacted peasants' minds (Kling, 1966, p. 78, Roy, 1966). For instance, Barasat was a district close to Calcutta, was the center of the Farazi movement. Eden said the peasants of that district were politically sophisticated and organized. Jute production and railroad, Military station of Dum Dum enabled this district more turbulent than other indigo districts (Commission, 1860, P. 23).

Farazi movement started around 1830 to reform the Muslims' values. Later the movement shifted its focus to protect the poor peasant from the tyranny of the zamindars and landlords. The leader of this movement regarded the British as injurious to the Muslims and peasants. Farazi movements were popular in some indigo districts like Dhaka, Mymensingh, Faridpur, Chittagong, and Cumilla. The movement trained the peasants to organize and fight against oppressive landlords. This movement has a significant influence on the indigo rebellion (Banglapedia, 2021, Kling, 1966, p. 61))

From 1850-1857 the indigenous Santal group revolted against the oppression of the British, local money lenders and zamindars, and later indigo planters. Though the Santal indigenous community was peace-loving, they were highly organized at the time of the rebellion, and they fought against the British army with their traditional tools. The place of the Santal rebellion was just near the indigo districts. This incident stirred the minds of the peasants of Bengal (Islam, 2021).

The 1857 independence movement of India (known to the British as Mutiny) was also shaking the society's foundation. Though the rebellion was far from Bengal, many soldiers were from the peasant society; therefore, it also influenced the peasants' minds (Kling, 1966, p. 61).

It can be said that Bengal's political condition was hot. Peasants' societies were dissatisfied with colonial raj. They steadfastly struggled for a dignified life, also set up as the founding stone for India's independence movement. It is also noted that most of the educated classes were in favor of the colonial government.

## Justice and favoritism

The Colonial ruler was always boasted of their law system. However, in colonial India, the entire justice system of the British raj was inclined to the planters, full of nepotism and in favor of colonial exploitation. European planters never received punishment for their vicious acts. Biasness and favoritism were standard practices in the colonial government.

Ashly Eden asserted that “There certainly was a failure of justice which, in my opinion, may, to a certain extent, be attributed to the strong bias which the Governor and many of the officers of government have always displayed in favor of those engaged in this particular cultivation” (Commission, 1960, p. 5).

Furthermore, in thirty years out of 49 cases (these cases were against planters), not a single European/British had been accused or put behind the bar. Even if the European were accused, they did not receive any punishment because of their connection in the court and with the local authority. (Commission, 1860, p. 5). Eden commented, “Supreme Court and to a great extent the bias in favor of the planters, which has been too frequently displayed by men in all positions from the highest officers of the Government down to the lowest” (Commission, 1860, p. 11). In addition, he commented that “I have frequently had to find fault with the police for displaying an unjustifiable bias in favor of the planter (Ibid, p. 17).

Mr. Furgusson, a commission member from the planters’ association, asked Eden, “Then do you consider that the Government officials have sacrificed justice to favor the planters?
Ashley replied, “I consider that it has frequently been the case, and I have stated so in official reports. I will go further and say that as a young assistant, I confess I have favored my own countrymen in several instances” (Ibid, p.12)
The peasant did not believe in the justice system. From their experience, they learned that if they filed a case against planters, they faced more problems than solutions. The police harassed them in many ways.
Planters 'influence over the justice system was immense. For instance, Moulvee Abdool Latief, a British official, had been removed from his duty as he tried to protect the rights of the peasants while

the planters forcefully tried to enter peasant's land (Commission, 1860, p. 14).

Even Ashley himself faced trouble from the planters when he told the ryots that cultivation of Indio was not compulsory. The planters file a petition in the Calcutta court for his removal. He said, "I had considerable difficulty in defending my own position and upholding my independence as a magistrate" (Ibid, p. 14-15)

The planters compelled the peasants to cultivate Indigo instead of rice. As it was not beneficial or profitable, instead peasants lost a tremendous amount of money. It was labor-intensive. In addition, by the cultivation of the Indigo, the food security was of peasants was under threat. The famine and death of millions showed that already the condition of the villages was in miserable conditions.

Land transformation and destroying the local industries closed the door of alternative income. Moreover, the local zamindars were not in favor of the peasant. The permanent settlement act stripped the land rights of the peasants. A new middlemen class, moneylenders were as oppressive as the planters.

In "1859, twenty-nine European planters and one Indian zamindar were appointed honorary magistrates" (Kling, 1966, p.66). The indigo planters generally use their power to abuse the peasant and poor villagers. Further, this appointment of the planters as magistrates destroyed the life of the peasants as hell. The oppressor became their protector! Peasants were utterly helpless at this incident, they expressed their helplessness by saying, "the man appointed out protector is our devourer". There was no place remain for them to seek justice. The only option open for them is to rebellion and break the evil chain of the British regime.

Colonial enterprises were destroying the lives of millions and plundering the wealth of Bengal at a sheer speed. Bengal. Indigo was a cash cow for the planters as well as the British raj. After the abolition of the slave trade in 1853 in the USA, the EIC saw the opportunity to promote similar exploitation of labor in the large labor force of Bengal. They used this opportunity to profit and fortune by stealing the natural resource, exploiting the peasants, plundering the raw materials, and extorting the peasant labor force.

In the indigo revolt, missionaries, government officials, Bengali merchants, intelligentsia, local zamindars have supported the event.

Discussion

Let me discuss and elaborate further on these results. Because of the colonial policy and administrative mechanism, the British appropriated the economic surplus and wealth of Bengal, which this study makes clear directly lead to peasants suffering. Extraction of wealth from Bengal and India helped Europe to flourish and be industrialized. However, this also led to the deindustrialization of Bengal.

To my knowledge, this is one of the first attempts to understand indigo rebellion with the overall social conditions of the peasant society. This study finds, the indigo rebellion did not only arise from economic exploitation, but the entire peasant society was suffering from famine, loss of land rights, destruction of local industries, commercialization of agriculture, coercive production system, economic loss, food insecurity, and inhuman torture of the planters.

From the beginning of the colonial regime, the massive looting of Bengal's wealth emptied the villages. The peasants relentlessly supplied various raw materials in the mouth of the omnivorous hungriness of the British empire and its industries. The mammoth cost of war, industrial supply, production of foods, and pension of the officials was on the shoulders of the peasants. Because of excessive bleeding of wealth, the local industries were closed, which was an alternative source of income for the peasant community. Because of excessive draining of wealth, rural Bengal was empty. Therefore, at the time of the famine and oppression, peasants were helpless to defend themselves.

Peasants were working as slaves in the indigo plantation. They were paying land tax to the company. The tax was reinvested in trades like indigo plantations and other purposes. Peasants paid two ways to the company; direct tax and their labor plus productions for free (Patnaik, 2021). Though on the surface, it may be seen as two different actors are controlling the peasants, however Patnaik (2021) shows how these two different actors are same. The Figure 5 may make it clear:

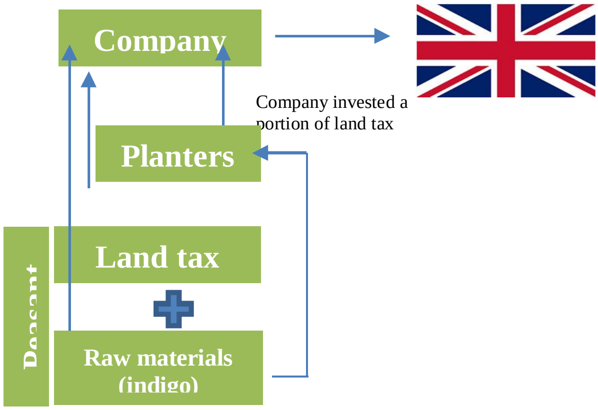



Figure 5. Tax and raw materials were gathering in the hand of company

According to Patnaik, “This direct linking of the fiscal system with the trading system is the essence of the drain in colonies where the producers were not slaves but nominally free petty producers, namely tax-paying peasants and artisans” (Ibid, 2021). A tropical country like Bengal, blessed with rivers and fertile land, was like a gold mine to the British. Bengal supplied an enormous amount of wealth in the industrial period. Patnaik writes, “…gold seams might eventually run out, but the surplus-producing and taxable capacity of the peasants and artisans would not, as long as they were not entirely annihilated through overexploitation” (Ibid, 2021).

Land tax was a significant source of Income in the British colonial power. Land tax and agro-raw materials had been transferred to Britain. Colonial regimes always needed to establish a form of property rights over local communities. This is a necessary condition for surplus extraction (Ibid,2021). In Bengal, it happened in the name of The Permanent Settlement Act. The permanent settlement act denied peasants’ rights on common land, meadows, ponds, pastures, and forests. These are essential for the peasant economy (Alavi, 1965, p 246).

The indigo plantations system destroyed the principles of the peasant society and violated the primary definition of peasants. Peasants had no right to decide on what to cultivate on their land, and food security was threatened. From Scott’s moral economy theory, subsistence security was impossible in the plantation system (Scott, 1977). Shanin said peasants mainly produce for their families and share a portion with the state and community (Shanin, 1966). However, this study shows the entire production was only for the benefit of planters. Furthermore, peasants' family members were insecure. With the lens of any peasant definition, it is visible that Bengal's peasants lost their peasant agency in the indigo plantation system.

The most crucial factor is that the entire risk of production was on the shoulders of the peasants because of institutional arrangement of the production. Peasants invested capital, labor, land, bullocks, fertilizer, and other necessary elements in the production process. If the harvest was lost, peasants took the burden, but in return, they gained nothing. Moreover, the peasants had to pay excessive land tax. Contrary, the planters who were non-cultivator only supervise the production system and devour the entire profits of the indigo production.

More importantly, the commercialization of agriculture and production for the benefits of the industry was standing on peasants' exploitation. The commercial cultivation of indigo was a great success in Bengal. As we have seen, indigo cultivation was labor-intensive. Therefore, the only way to make a high profit was to exploit labor and produce high indigo. The more one enterprise used peasant labor; the more profit is gained. That is why it was highly profitable in Bengal as in the production, 10 million peasants were engaged. Millions of peasant life were devastated to meet the imperial appetite for indigo. Wolf describes this as an 'accumulation of human sufferings' by which capitalism thrives (Wolf 1999, Darrac & Schendel, 2006). Bengal peasant's thousands of years of knowledge of cultivation was also important to consider. Moreover, their skill to manage the entire farming in an organized way helped flourish the indigo production.

Europe being in the north, changes in the geopolitics, loss of colonies in other parts of the world, the demand of the European textile industries created conditions to search alternative place for indigo cultivation. Thus, the large peasant class, and best grade indigo of Bengal made Bengal the center of indigo production. The production system completely changed the traditional method of cultivation. The land became a tool for money-making instead of the production of foods. Therefore, when millions of people were dying in Bengal in starvation, the production of indigo did not stop for a single day. Traditionally, Bengal farmers mainly produced rice, jute, and other crops that secured their food and were economically beneficial.

Scott claims that a section of the Intelligentsia support peasants' movement and play an active role. Indigo rebellion was able to gain support outside of the peasant community. In the indigo revolution, a good number of the local Intelligentsia showed their empathy to the peasants while not being against the colonial regime. This phenomenon is significant as it later influenced the national movement of India. Newspapers like Tattwabodhini Patrika, Hindu Patriot, playwriter Dinbondhu Mitra, and others paid attention to peasants' rights. Scott moreover asserted that in most peasant rebellions, 'a handful of outsiders' led the movement, but in the case of the indigo rebellion, this was not the case (Scott, 1977). Peasants of all classes joined in the indigo rebellion. The leaders and organizers were from the peasants' society.

The local Zamindars were against the planters and were aligned with peasants' interests because of their personal interest. The Zamindars opposed the planters as their social power and respect were threatened by the increasing influence of planters. In the ilka system, planters were acquiring most of the lands of Bengal, which was a direct threat to Zamindars. Because of permanent settlement, many Zamindars were also losing their possession of the land, which also shifted in the power relations of villages.

The first independence movement of 1857 in India, the Santal rebellion of 1855, the Farazi rebellion of 1838-1857, and other contemporary uprisings significantly influenced the indigo rebellion. But indigo rebellion had one unique characteristic. The rebellious peasants did not want to take direct control of the state. Instead, their interest was mainly confined to get rid of the oppression of the planters.

Railroad construction road construction helped develop the trade routes, which had two significant implications in the peasant society. First, it was easy for the British traders to transport the raw materials from the villages. Second, it set up links with nearby villages, towns, and different parts of the Bengal. Therefore, peasants were able to receive others peasant uprising news as well. Eden testified that

Barashat district's peasants were more rebellious than other districts as the district was close to the centre (commission, 1860).
The peasant leads the path towards the independence movement. It was clear that great political power was laid in the pleasant rebellion. In the freedom movement of India the peasants class played a glorious role and sacrificed the most.

## Conclusion

Initially, this study sets out to understand what contributed to the indigo rebellion in Bengal, focusing on two research questions concerning the extent to which colonial socio-economic policy and institutional arrangements induced peasants to revolt and the principal social conditions leading peasants to revolt.

This study shows that the planters' economic exploitation of indigo farmers was not the single reason for indigo rebellion. Major socio-economic and institutional changes by the British raj made Bengal peasants rebellious. First, various colonial policies and institutional arrangements of the colonial raj made the lives of the peasants miserable. Peasants suffered from famine, oppression, the deindustrialization of cottage industries, food insecurity, violence, economic and labor exploitation. In indigo cultivation, peasants were like a slave. Second, colonial policy evicted peasants from the land, as it was necessary for colonial economic interest. This and the commercialization of agriculture changed the traditional mode of production, which threatened the subsistence security of the peasants. Third, all the risks of indigo production were on the shoulders of the farmers, and therefore in lean years, peasants had to take the extra burden. Forth, from the judiciary to market policy, land rights to land rent were designed to benefit colonial administrations and entrepreneurs. Together, all these factors instigated peasants to revolt. Therefore, to understand the peasant revolt in Bengal in detail, the overall social condition of peasants need to consider.

One of the latent effects of the colonial extractive policy was to create a new money lender intermediaries' class at the village level. These groups also exploited the peasant society and continued in post-colonial Bangladesh in various forms. This point is something I consider worth exploring in future research to investigate to what extent and how this new class has a role in the exploitation of the peasantry in today's Bangladesh.

This brings me over to discuss these results and the implications of the indigo rebellion case for knowledge in general about understanding why peasants revolt. Most of the aforementioned theories discussed the commercialization of agriculture, class conflict, the market economy, colonialism, and capitalism as primary instigators for peasant rebellion. As noted above, results in this case emphasise the importance of including overall social conditions in examining peasant rebellions and not only their exploitation by farmers. Moreover, this study also adds the 'risk of the production' as an essential factor in peasant rebellion. This is a factor that could be important for understanding peasant rebellion also in other cases with similar conditions as in the Indigo rebellion case. At the time of the indigo rebellion, most of the land was in the control of the planters and the entire production risk, and most of the production investment was on the shoulder of the peasants. So, if the harvest was lost for any reason, peasants had to bear the entire loss. That means they have to take the cost of their labor, food, bullocks, land engagement, seeds, in a single word, everything. This method of working conditions and cultivation does not sustain for an extended period. In addition, they did not have any 'free agency' to choose what to cultivate in their land. This is also another vital factor for a peasant-entity which was violated in the indigo production system.
I would finally like to end this study by returning to the huge impact the Peasant movement had in the political history of the Indian anti-colonial movement. The revolt awakened the national sentiment of the country. Peasants revolted against the colonial ruler one after another like sea waves. Their movements and tremendous sacrifices contributed to bringing independence to the Indian subcontinent.

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# FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE EMPLOYEE TURNOVER OF DOCTORS AND NURSES IN AN EMERGING ECONOMY: EVIDENCE FROM SOUTH AFRICA

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**Abstract**
Although employee turnover has been widely researched in business circles, most researchers focused on the causes of employee turnover in various sectors but little work has been conducted regarding the sources of employee turnover in health sector specifically paying attention to doctors and nurses. The health sector institutions continue to lose health professionals on a regular basis resulting in compromised service delivery of the patients' health. Employee turnover is expensive, disruptive and damaging to organisational success. Hence, the purpose of this paper was to examine the factors affecting employee turnover of doctors and professional nurses. A qualitative case-study design was adopted in which semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the sampled participants. The key findings revealed that lack of training, staff shortage, meagre salary, poor conditions of work, inadequate medical support, poor management, long supply chain management and poor promotional opportunities were the major extrinsic factors influencing employee turnover. The external work environment was the only extrinsic factor that influence the employee turnover. The importance of retaining healthcare professionals in public healthcare facilities cannot be over-emphasised. The paper suggests that

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managers need to acknowledge the factors when addressing the issues of employee voluntary turnover and turnover intentions.

**Key words:** employee turnover, employee retention, brain drain, doctors, nurses.

## Introduction

Employee turnover has taken the health sector by a storm. The exiting of doctors and nurses has become a major challenge that needs to be addressed as a matter of urgency in developing economies. In South Africa, the Department of Public Administration (DPSA), through the Public Service Co-ordinating Bargaining Chamber (PSCBC), introduced a new salary dispensation called the Occupational Specific Dispensation (OSD) with the intention to recruit and retain doctors within public sector institutions in 2007 (South African Government, 2007: 1). The introduction of this package, effective from the 1st of July 2007, proves to be a failure in the entire public service sector, as doctors and nurses continue to resign and left public sector institutions thus causing excessive shortages in this category of employees. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 stipulates that all the people living in South Africa have the right to life (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996: 1). For this objective to be accomplished, South Africa needs doctors, nurses and other related healthcare practitioners. The public sector institutions are losing many healthcare professionals on a regular basis (Zanoni, Sibaya, Cairns & Haberer, 2019: 957). Thus, healthcare service delivery is compromised. When patients visit public sector healthcare facilities, they expect to be treated by doctors and nurses. In the end, the government of the day is to blame for the lack of provision of professional healthcare services to its communities (Alam & Asim, 2019: 163). It would be interesting to interrogate the underlying factors influencing doctors and professional nurses to leave these rural-urban institutions. Currently, when the authority to fill a critical clinical post has been obtained, the post is advertised, only to find that there are sometimes no applicants. Sometimes the post will be re-advertised, and the suitable candidate fills the post (Tiwari, Mash, Karangwa & Chikte, 2021:88). Thus, the situation needs to be attended urgently, as it is crippling the smooth provision of healthcare services.

Both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that cause doctors and nurses to leave are interrogated in this paper. Ultimately, the researcher makes some conclusions in terms of the possible solutions that may be employed to address the challenge in question. Staff turnover is a major problem in South Africa, but the rate could be reduced if the factors influencing doctors and professional nurses to leave an organisation are investigated. South African healthcare hospitals are adversely affected by the high turnover, and it became difficult for the healthcare facilities to operate effectively and efficiently (Zihindula, Andrew-John, Gumede & Richard-Gavin, 2019:16). According to Ayodele, Chang-Richards & Gonzalez (2020:3), the human resources department is one of the key elements of ensuring the smooth running of any institution. There could be no hospitals or clinics without doctors and nurses. The wide assumption for their leaving is that they emigrate due to better opportunities abroad or simply switch to private sector healthcare facilities within the Republic of South Africa. This is what this study sought to interrogate further to draw a conclusion. An in-depth investigation into intrinsic and extrinsic factors around the issue of doctors and nurses leaving the South African hospitals is required. Therefore, the objectives of the study were to: to determine the intrinsic factors influencing the turnover rate of doctors and professional nurses; and to assess the extrinsic factors influencing the turnover rates of doctors and professional nurses.

## Literature review

According to Dwesini (2019:1), employee turnover rate as the term used to describe the percentage of workers that leave a company and need to be replaced within a certain period. This supports forecasting the future human resource planning and utilisation for the sustenance of service delivery. People join and leave organisations. This is not a foreign occurrence. Vacancies always open and the process of advertising such vacancies would commence (Zimmerman, Swider & Boswell, 2019: 99). People join and leave organisations which is not something new. There are many reasons why someone would leave an organisation. Some reasons are nothing to be concerned about, as they are unavoidable. High employee turnover is taxing. Stamolampros, Korfiatis, Chalvatzis and Buhalis (2019:130) state that it costs precious time and money, and can result in the loss of staff morale. Some employee turnover is inevitable. For instance, retirement, relocation and leaving for schooling cannot be avoided. Li, Lourie, Nekrasov and Shevlin (2022:667) identify the following as the main causes of employee turnover, namely a lack of growth and progression, being overworked, a lack of feedback and recognition, little hope for decision-making and poor employee selection. From the aforementioned factors, one may realise the importance of recognising the work performance of employees. Employees need to be involved in some matters of decision-making in order for them to inform decisions of the management.

Due to the shortage of staff, nurses often end up working long hours under very stressful conditions which can result in fatigue, injury and job dissatisfaction (Tiwari et al., 2021). Nurses suffering in these environments are more prone to making mistakes and medical errors. The factors contributing to the nursing shortage are multifaceted. The biggest challenges facing healthcare are demographic changes that are pushing the expansion of the workforce and the time that it takes to educate and train the new healthcare workers to fill those needs (Ramlawati, Trisnawati, Yasin & Kurniawaty, 2021:511). If an employee is being bullied or harassed by someone at work, they may quit the job as they cannot afford to continue work in an unpleasant environment (Salleh, Omar, Aburumman, Mat & Almhairat, 2020:218). Some factors are unavoidable. However, if workers exit the system because of unhappiness at the workplace and employers constantly fire underperforming employees it becomes a matter for concern (Oruh, Mordi, Ajonbadi, Mojeed-Sanni, Nwagbara & Rahman, 2020:52). High employee turnover is taxing and expensive. It is expensive because organisations find themselves paying huge sums of money to the exiting staff. This includes some pertinent benefits attached to exits and embarking on an immediate process of recruitment and selection. According to Haldorai, Kim, Pillai, Park and Balasubramanian (2019:46), recruitment is a long, tedious and draining exercise which involves high costs, inter alia, time to advertise, the advertisement of a post or posts, inviting candidates from afar and providing them with comfortable accommodation and flights. It costs precious time and money and could result in a loss of staff morale which leaves the workforce demotivated. In some cases, employee turnover is inevitable. For instance, retirement and relocation cannot be avoided.

**Factors affecting the employee turnover**

Engelbrecht and Samuel (2019:1) state that workplace turnover is increasing, and that the employee-driven marketplace demands managers to concentrate more on employee retention. They need to take employee turnover seriously, as it does affect the organisation negatively but also detrimental to the economy of the country. The consequences of the turnover are very serious. According to Work institute (2018:1), about 42 million employees left their jobs in the year 2018. Management must first understand and comprehend the root causes of the high turnover as the first step (Tamengkel & Rumawas, 2020:32). Reports offer insights to assist employers to understand how to curb the retention within their organisations going forward. While Kim (2005:137) reports that most employees exit their current jobs for better paying job opportunities, Frian and Mulyani (2018:55) indicate that career development opportunities, a better work-life balance and poor management are consistently the real issues that spur employees to leave their jobs. Some industries and businesses seem to naturally have a higher turnover rate than others. The following are identified as key factors of high turnover rate of employees.

Lack of growth and progression: The opportunity for growth and development is very important for retaining efficient employees within an organisation (Tews, Michel & Stafford, 2019:413). If an employee feels trapped in a dead-end position, they are likely to look towards different organisations for the chance to improve their status and income. Most nurses remain in the same lower medical and nursing post for a long time. They do not progress in terms of rank promotion or the compensation of employees. They become demotivated and resistant to management decisions. They suffer from burnouts which result in quitting, hence service delivery suffers. Sometimes succession planning is non-existent, therefore, employees decide to exit the system to look for ‘greener pastures’ elsewhere (Tamengkel & Rumawas, 2020:32).

Being overworked: It might seem natural that, in periods of economic pressure, staff is asked to take on extra responsibilities (Al-Suraihi, Samikon, Al-Suraihi & Ibrahim, 2021:1). Staff might need to be let go and the remaining employees would have to ‘pick up the slack’ by working longer hours, over weekends or overtime. However, providing workers options to choose between their work life and personal life can never sit well with them. Instead, it may contribute to a higher turnover as employees grow frustrated. Generally, Ratnasari and Lestari (2020:201) state that when employees leave the organisation for whatever reason, the workload increases. The increased workload should then be performed and executed by the few remaining employees. This becomes a burden and the employees become overloaded and overworked. They are sometimes forced by circumstances to compromise their leave days and lunch times. According to Stritch, Molina and Favero (2020: 272), the reason for this is to compensate for the employees who have left the service for various reasons. An employee would find himself or herself compelled to perform the work that was supposed to be executed by two or three people. This is carried out in the interest of service delivery by management. Employees would become frustrated and dehumanised in rendering the services to the community hence permanently leave the organisation (Jaharuddin and Zainol, 2019:7).

Lack of feedback and recognition: If feedback is not given, employees become discouraged. According to Paul and Kee (2020:23), feedback is the first step to ensuring that employees succeed, thus avoiding this process can be detrimental to said success. If an employee is struggling, honest feedback can help them to manage their workload and refocus. Ignoring the opportunity for feedback, or providing unhelpful feedback, will leave employees floundering which disheartens them as they struggle. This can cause them to eventually give up. Generally, the tool of assessing the work performance of public servants is called the employee performance management development system (EPMDS). If there is no work performance management system in an organisation, employees will become demotivated, frustrated and unhappy (Zafar, Abid, Rehmat, Ali, Hassan & Asif, 2022:614). At the beginning of the financial year, the employer and employee enter into a performance agreement which is signed by both parties. It is measured on a regular basis, usually on a quarterly basis. It is when the employer gives feedback to every employee in terms of how they were performing their normal day-to-day duties. When an employee gets three points, he or she automatically qualifies for a pay progression. To the employees already on maximum salary notches, they do not benefit in terms of monetary compensation. They become less productive and frustrated in the following years. They then leave the public service because there is no grade progression (Li, Sawhney & Tortorella, 2019:1).

Poor employee selection: Finding the perfect employee is difficult but forcing a match with an employee is clearly not right for the company's culture or values will never end well (Shahzad, Shah, Waseem & Bilal, 2020: 781). Even though an organisation may be desperate to fill a position, picking a poorly matched, incompatible employee is detrimental for both the company or organisation and the employee. No one does their best work when they are unhappy, and an incompatible employee is unlikely to be content with their new position. If the recruitment and selection process is not followed and adhered to, one might end up with the wrong employee or candidate (Tews, Michel & Stafford, 2019:413). This could be because of employing 'cronies' or applying nepotism to the selection process.

Poor Management: Full-time employees spend the majority of their working hours at work.  They want and deserve to feel safe, secure and respected in their position (Dwesini, 2019:1). This is impossible when poor management is in place. According to Zimmerman et al. (2019:99), 'poor management' can mean a lot of things, from illegal activities to maddening issues like micromanagement. Managing managers becomes increasingly challenging the larger a company is which is why it is important to bring in third party consultants to ensure that the company's managerial techniques are suitable and effective (Stamolampros et al., 2019:130).

Employees want their work to make a difference: Increasingly, younger workers want more than just a job (Al-Suraihi, 2021:1). They want a job and a career that they are proud of and that makes a difference. Younger workers see their workmates as a second family. They are frustrated with a corporate culture filled with non-stop meetings that leave them feeling like they are not making a difference in the world. Some may call it idealism, but if an employer does not offer a more holistic job opportunity that clearly shows workers how their daily activities are making a difference, they may look elsewhere (Stritch et al., 2020:272). Fortunately, this is a relatively easy fix that is completely within the employer's control. Ensuring that employees feel heard and are part of decision-making processes, and that the work culture encourages positive relationships are critical. Offer ways for employees to connect, both within the business and the community, to satisfy their need to give back and feel part of the world (Ratnasari and Lestari, 2020:201).

## Theoretical framework

This study is guided by Hertzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory. This theory reveals that there are two sets of factors in organisations: those that contribute to job satisfaction, also known as 'motivation factors or motivators', and those that contribute to job dissatisfaction, the 'hygiene factors' (Mehrad, 2020:157). Motivation factors include experience achievement, recognition, interesting work, increased responsibility, advancement and learning. The hygiene factors include unfair company policies, incompetent or unfair supervisors, unpleasant working conditions, unfair salaries, threats and job insecurity (Bhatt, Chitranshi & Mehta, 2022: 231). The two-factor theory claims that motivation and hygiene factors are not simply opposites of each other. This suggests that doctors and nurses who are dissatisfied because of unpleasant working conditions will not necessarily become satisfied if their working conditions suddenly become pleasant. According to this theory, doctors and nurses start to respond to their turnover intention appeals when the factors that are contributing to their overall satisfaction begin to become negatively affected. Therefore, retention strategies should seek to optimise motivation factors in order to inhibit employees' turnover intentions and actual turnover of doctors and professional nurses.

## Methodology

In this study, the target population comprised of the Head of Departments of Medicine, doctors and professional nurses at King Edward VIII and Prince Mshiyeni Memorial hospitals. The researcher chose to apply the qualitative method when embarking on the study in question. The target population of doctors and professional nurses in the eThekwini health district equals one thousand and six hundred. The researcher focused on the doctors and professional nurses working at King Edward VIII and Prince Mshiyeni Memorial hospitals under the eThekwini health district. There were five doctors and ten professional nurses interviewed on different dates. Therefore, the total number of participants will be 15 healthcare practitioners in the eThekwini health district. The rationale behind being to find out the factors that cause doctors and professional nurses to leave. In other words, the study is trying to assess the factors casing doctors and nurses to leave the eThekwini health district. In this research, purposive or judgemental sampling was used which is a non-probability sampling technique in which, according to Zhang (2022:51), a researcher chooses participants for their unique characteristics, experiences, attitudes or perceptions. Bairagi and Munot (2019:34) state the strength of the purposive sampling technique to its ability to enable the researcher to select cases that are most suited to answer the research questions. Al-Ababneh (2020:75) argues that purposive sampling addresses the real purpose of objectives of discovering and gaining insight and understanding into a phenomenon. Eligible for this research were the doctors and professional nurses working at King Edward VIII and Prince Mshiyeni Memorial hospitals under the eThekwini health district. For qualitative research, trustworthiness and credibility are observed. Qualitative data was gathered using the structured interview schedule that was analysed through thematic content analysis. The researcher informed the participants that audio tape would be used for the interviews to be able to focus on the interview without taking notes.

## Results

The responses from the structured interview questions were cited verbatim. This means that they were crafted as such without any alterations of the original statements from the participants. They were written in italics to avoid plagiarism. Concordant and corresponding material or responses have been consolidated and then analysed. Patel and Patel (2019:45) posit that it is difficult to interpret data until the data is organised as well. Part of the data organisation process is to synthesise contradictory and dissimilar information into their different themes. The process of coding assists to clearly highlight or identify themes that emanate from the responses. In this study, the gathered extracts from the respondents' responses were collated and analysed. The themes arose from the thematic analysis which include staff shortage, incentives, poor infrastructure, poor personal growth, poor management and supervision, meagre salary, no medical equipment, long supply chain management, lack of training, lack of promotion opportunities and negative external publicity about the work environment.

In terms of staff shortage, the results indicated that both the doctors and professional nurses complained about the staff shortages. The hospital management and head office were blamed for their lack of support and the introduction of a moratorium on the filling of vacant posts. The attrition rate was high and people leaving were never replaced because of the inadequate budget by the Department of Health. All the participants felt they did not receive full support from either hospital management or head office. The non-replacement of people leaving was cited as the most extrinsic factor influencing the turnover rate of doctors and professional nurses. Some doctors and professional nurses would resort to exiting the public sector system to look for better opportunities elsewhere. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *the moratorium on the filling of posts is a challenge to nursing staff because they end up being depressed, overworked and experiencing burnouts, no adequate medical equipment, financeé department would always tell us about the supply chain management processes that are long, you have medical problem now but one can's fix it now because of the SCM procedures, lack of modern infrastructure etc*

In line with incentives, the results indicated that few participants attribute the high turnover rate of doctors and professional nurses to the lack of job satisfaction. There are no incentives to recruit and retain the new staff. In other words, they felt that there were no recruitment and retention strategies even though they knew they were on paper. That was one of the intrinsic factors influencing the high turnover rate of doctors and professional nurses in the eThekwini health district. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *poor salaries, working under difficult working conditions, no incentives paid to the hardworking staff, everybody is just treated the same come pay progression system effective from 1st July of each, loafers also get the average scoring, that demotivates the hard working class, working conditions appalling, nurses' salaries are low and that is why nursing leave, posts are not filled which results in the remaining staff be overworked, etc.*

In terms of the negative external publicity about the work environment, The participants indicated that work environment cause them to leave the organisation. The doctors do not want to be associated with the place labelled bad by the community. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *Communities complain every day, there is negative publicity in most of the newspapers about the healthcare falling down in the public hospitals, number of litigation cases begin to increase, the department of health budget skewed further making difficult for the healthcare facilities to* *function, nursing profession is tarnished, communities lose confidence and trust on public sector institutions.*

In terms of poor infrastructure, the participants blamed the high turnover rate of doctors and nurses on the poor infrastructure indicating that it was too old to attract and keep them within the system. This is why some of them exited the system. The buildings needed to be revamped or modernised to cater for modern patients or society. The buildings were too old to work in. *no medical equipment, staff shortages, poor infrastructure, no career path, favouritism when promoting staff, supply chain management processes are frustrating to procure a medical equipment.*

In line with poor personal growth, poor management and supervision, the participants attributed the high turnover to personal growth and career progression or pathing saying that one becomes a professional nurse until retirement and that there was no personal growth. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *personal development, poor salaries are a problem, the price of commodities grow up all the time and the cost of living is not consistent with the cost of living, I don't feel motivated to pursue my nursing profession in the light of the poor working conditions we work under, poor management, one tries to report to management and management fails to reason with the nursing staff.*

On the issue of meagre salary, the participants attributed the turnover rate to meagre salaries being paid to them by the government despite the introduction of the occupation specific dispensation (OSD) introduced in 2007. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *Poor salaries that are not attractive, conditions of service were not of the expected quality like the one in the private sector hospitals, there is always shortage of staff, no adequate incentives, overworked which kills the morale and oomph to commitment to work.*

Another issue is of medical equipment, the respondents indicate that the unavailability of medical equipment as a major setback and turnover extrinsic factor influencing doctors and professional nurses to leave the public service. They mentioned that it was very challenging and demeaning to find that there was no medical equipment to execute particular medical treatments. It was frustrating to borrow the medical equipment from neighbouring health facilities.

This was blamed on management. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *no adequate medical equipment, every time we are told by management there is no money, it is boring to hear that story year after year's like a buzzword now to say no budget for training or to do this or that in the department of health, supply management processes leave much to be desired, political decisions that makes life difficult to work, etc.*

In terms of long supply chain management, the respondents attributed the supply chain management processes as too tedious and cumbersome to procure medical resources. Doctors and nurses got frustrated and leave the work. One participant waited for a long time to procure medical equipment which was frustrating for doctors and nurses alike. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *supply chain management processes make it hard to procure medical equipment or resources, one would wait for a long time for a medical instrument to arrive, infrastructural problems, working conditions not appeasing, high risk or danger allowance not paid to nurses etc.*

Of concern again is the issue of poor training, The results indicated that participants indicated that the turnover rate of doctors and nurses is caused by lack of training. Every time they applied to attend workshops or courses, they were told that there was not a skills development budget. This forced some doctors and professional nurses to exit the system. Some provinces were encouraging their staff to attend courses or workshop related to their professions, but KwaZulu-Natal had no skills development budget to do that according to the participants or respondents. This was frustrating for nurses and doctors alike. The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *it is boring to hear that story year after year's like a buzzword now to say no budget for training or to do this or that in the department of health, supply management processes leave much to be desired, political decisions that makes life difficult to work, etc.*

Another issue needs attention is lack of promotion opportunities, the respondents indicated a lack of promotion opportunities as the cause for the turnover of some doctors and professional nurses in the public service. They stated that when posts are advertised, they are 'earmarked' for certain individuals. The process is followed but it is just a formality. Some staff, when they notice this kind of practice, are demotivated and demoralised and decide to leave the public service.

The most noticed response was quoted verbatim as follows: *scarce promotion opportunities, limited career path, salaries are not attractive to recruit and retain more staff, working conditions are appalling, no enough budget all the time, performance appraisal fails to retain nurses to stay within the public service, not enough incentives, poor management because they fail to understand what happens in the coalface of things, the future of the public service is bleak regarding the nursing profession, etc.*

## Discussion

The intrinsic factors emerged from this study includes lack of training, staff shortage, meagre salary, poor conditions of work, inadequate medical support, poor management, long supply chain management and poor promotional opportunities. Only work environment emerged as an extrinsic factor influencing the employee turnover in this study.

Lack of training -A lack of training and development for doctors and professional nurses was indicated as one of the causes for the high turnover rate. There is no skills development budget for the healthcare institutions to train and develop their staff. When staff applies to attend courses or workshops elsewhere, their application is not supported or approved because of the lack of a skills budget which destroys staff morale and they, in turn, leave the service. Thus, crippling service delivery and increasing the high turnover rate. The results of this study align to Kim (2012) who studied the impact of human resource management on state government IT employee turnover intentions and the results of showed that training and development, supervisory communications and family-friendly policies were significant variables influencing turnover intentions.

Staff shortage -Due to the shortage of medical or clinical staff, they ended up making mistakes when performing their duties which resulted in litigation or medico-legal costs. They are sued by the affected families and the department loses money in medico-legal cases since they lose the cases in court. Doctors become discouraged and leave the public service. Thus, causing the high turnover rate amongst doctors and professional nurses. Medico-legal costs are counted in billions paid by the Department of Health. A study carried out by Qiu, Haobin-Ye, Hung and York (2015) on antecedents of employee turnover intention–Evidence of China's hotel industry found that community fit is a new category for explaining the turnover intention employees.

Meagre salary - Some doctors and nurses express their concern regarding the meagre salaries that they were earning despite the long hours of work. The non-payment of pay progression bonuses to employees after being assessed on their work performance in the Department of Health was identified as one of the causes of the high turnover rate of doctors and nurses. This happens despite the legal provision or authority to pay performance bonuses to employees that would have performed their duties outstandingly. The findings of this study concur with Shatila and Alozian (2019) who studied the factors affecting employee turnover found that absence of motivation and compensation benefits were some of the strategies which led to a high turnover rate. The findings of this study also aligns with Kariuki (2015) who studied factors affecting employee turnover in the banking industry in Kenya and found that both salaries and bonuses had an influence on employee turnover.

No medical equipment- Some doctors and nurses are frustrated by inadequate medical equipment for them to execute or their responsibilities hence they leave. It takes too long to procure the medical equipment because of tedious and cumbersome chain management processes. The system is frustrating. The results aligned to Ronra and Chaisawat (2010) conducted a study on factors affecting employee turnover and job satisfaction and found that the highest influencing factor affecting employees' turnover was the insufficient tools and resources to perform the job.

Poor management – The findings indicated that poor management was one of the causes of the staff turnover rate increase. Some managers did not have a clue of how to manage people in terms of the allocation of staff, especially the nursing personnel. The results are in connection with Mosadeghrad (2013) who studied quality of working life - an antecedent to employee turnover intention in Iran and found that most important predictor of employee turnover was management support.

Long supply chain management -The results indicated that long supply chain management processes as too tedious and cumbersome to procure medical resources. This causes frustrations for doctors and nurses, hence they eventually leave. The budget by head office is not allocated according to the needs of each healthcare facility as laid out in the strategic plans. The results Sajjad (2014) studied the factors affecting employee turnover in an organization and found that the financial crises, job security and retirement benefits have a significant impact on the employee turnover.

Lack of promotion opportunities - The findings indicated a lack of promotion opportunities as the cause for the turnover of some doctors and professional nurses in the public service. The results showed that all the stipulated processes are not being followed. The participants stated that when posts are advertised, they are ‘earmarked’ for certain individuals. Sattar and Ahmed (2014) studied factors effecting employee turnover in banking sector and found that career growth and compensation have less influence on employees turnover. However, a study conducted by Kim (2005) on factors affecting state government information technology employee turnover intentions using quantitative research approach revealed that advancement opportunities as key variable affecting turnover.

Poor work environment- The findings indicated that health organisation situated in a bad environment cause doctors and nurses to leave. The doctors and nurses do not want to be associated with the place in the community labelled bad. The results are aligned with Zeffane (1994) who carried a study on understanding employee turnover and found that voluntary employee turnover is contingent on the amount of fit or misfit between employee and the environment of the organisation. The results of this study are in congruent with a study conducted by Hossain, Roy and Das (2017) on factors affecting employee's turnover Intention in Banking Sector of Bangladesh revealed that the working environment factor and career development factor have a significant impact on employee turnover intention.

**Implications of the study**

For managers to reduce the employee turnover and increase retention, they should consider offering more competitive salaries and benefit packages. The managers should offer promotional opportunities to doctors and nurses inside the organisation not hiring considers outsiders. The managers should ensure that a positive work environment is created by being open and transparent to every employee about the current situation of the organisation. The managers must ensure that adequate medical equipment is made available to all the doctors and nurses to avoid any potential stress that may arise as a result of unavailability of materials to discharge their duties. Regular training and development should be provided to doctors and nurses to ensure that they keep abreast with new knowledge in the health industry. There is a need for retention strategies to be developed in order to address the contemporary impasse of the scarcity of the doctors and nurses in South Africa.

## Contribution of the study

The study uncovered factors that influence the doctors and professional nurses to leave the organisation. The findings provide the developing or improving the retention policies or strategies in the department that ensure that doctors and nurses remain within the public sector for a very long time or until their retirement. The research might develop better skills development policies complemented by sound monetary incentives to help retain skilled employees. The findings of this study might be implemented by the relevant department and be a future reference to academics. The findings of this study are of great value to the community at large, as students aspiring to become doctors and nurses will have access to the research report. The researcher contributed immensely towards community development.

## Conclusion

From the employees' perspective, it can be concluded that employee turnover is not a natural phenomenon. There are reasons which lead to the increase in attrition. It is observed that both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors are responsible for employee turnover. The intrinsic factors emerged from this study includes lack of training, staff shortage, meagre salary, poor conditions of work, inadequate medical support, poor management, long supply chain management and poor promotional opportunities. The work environment is the only external factor influence the employee retention. From management's perspective, it can be concluded that the factors that lead to an increase in employee turnover are mainly in the intrinsic factors of the organisation. Although the external factor also influence, management does not have any control over them, and can only focus on modifying the internal factors to enhance the retention of the employees in the organisation. The findings contribute to the body of knowledge in the resource planning literature on employee retention programmes and educate health employers on the organisational benefits associated with a loyal, committed workforce. The high turnover rate of healthcare professionals might be reduced, and thus productivity improved.

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# THE POTENTIAL OF ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE FIELD OF ECONOMICS OF GREEN ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

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**Abstract**

The development of science and technology is an inevitable product of the era of artificial intelligence, and the continuous development of green environmental design[4] is determined by the high-quality needs of human beings, as well as high-tech, eco-friendly, and sustainable design concepts that are determined by the passage of time. The business strategy of "Green Business" is one that is based on profitability through environmentally friendly operational processes. In modern business, with the help of artificial intelligence and its techniques, green thinking can permeate the entire product life cycle, from manufacturing plants, production lines, machines, products, to supply chains. It is well-known that the world is grappling with the challenges of climate change and the need to reduce carbon dioxide emissions. Artificial intelligence has proven to be a powerful tool that can help optimize energy consumption, reduce waste, and promote the use of renewable energy sources. This article examines the impact of artificial intelligence on green economic growth and its mechanism. Thanks to artificial intelligence, it is possible to optimize energy consumption in factories, buildings, and cities. Tools such as predictive maintenance and optimized consumption planning can

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[4] Green environmental design involves various stages, including project planning, site inspection, data collection, information organization, and scheme selection, all within a continuous process of seeking solutions.

reduce energy consumption, minimizing its harmful impact on the environment. Therefore, according to the latest research focusing on the green industry, this paper aims to bring a new development perspective, including artificial intelligence.



**Keywords:** green production in agriculture, artificial intelligence, and green economic growth and environment.

## 1. Introduction

At the beginning of the third millennium, the ancient question of the relationship between humans and nature, society, and the environment has once again come to the forefront. The emergence of the digital economy and digital technologies such as artificial intelligence have provided new opportunities for the green development of businesses. Now is the era of artificial intelligence when technology has the potential to fundamentally change the nature of production and its business operations. Artificial intelligence can be used to address various future problems related to the environment, including climate change and predicting natural disasters. Many hazardous tasks, such as the collection of radioactive waste, will be taken over by artificial intelligence tools in the future. For this reason, it is essential for all companies to establish a technology-driven strategy. These strategies should never remain stagnant but should be dynamic and capable of adapting quickly to changes with the emergence of new technologies. Green artificial intelligence represents a new technology that makes the development of artificial intelligence more sustainable and offers possible solutions to the algorithms necessary for obtaining energy[5].

Artificial intelligence, deep learning, neural networks, synthetic data, machine learning - all these technologies have tremendous potential to revolutionize everyday processes and industries, including agriculture and society, leading humanity into an era of greater self-sufficiency and productivity. Green artificial intelligence is a subset of

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[5] According to Sergey Vilov's work: "Recognizing Speech Language on Mozilla Common Voice Audio Transformations," Green Artificial Intelligence will require data not only from computer scientists and mathematicians but also from cognitive science, cognitive psychology, neuroscience, cultural psychology, and many other diverse fields.https://towardsdatascience.com/what-would-a-green-ai-look-like-28d91aaff3be

artificial intelligence that is also focused on the environment. Green artificial intelligence requires specialized expertise in both artificial intelligence and environmental science. Its goal is to achieve sustainability through ecologically stable artificial intelligence models with lower computational costs and reduced carbon emissions. Societies worldwide must quickly recognize the value of green artificial intelligence in combating the growing environmental damage caused by current technology.

The central idea presented in this work reflects a significant area of application for artificial intelligence and the possibilities it offers for environmental protection, nature preservation, and the fight against climate change. Green artificial intelligence pertains to the use of artificial intelligence technology to reduce the impact of human activities on the environment. The environment is at the forefront of many companies' concerns, leading to a high demand for "green technology". Using artificial intelligence to manage the environment also raises ethical questions. In the long term, artificial intelligence will play a more substantial role in promoting green economic growth. Green artificial intelligence demonstrates its advantages that can significantly aid in mitigating climate change and promoting sustainability.

Green artificial intelligence must be effective for all relevant stakeholders in the economy, rather than being an abstract concept for most technical experts. The concepts of green artificial intelligence are expected to grow and become more democratic. AI-based systems can improve crop yields, reduce water consumption, and optimize the use of fertilizers and pesticides. This is crucial for reducing the environmental impact of agriculture and promoting sustainable agricultural practices.
The latest developments in artificial intelligence have begun with the launch of generative tools[6] and artificial intelligence technologies[7]. The climate crisis has become a defining factor, thanks to the selective use of scientific input, redirecting markets and economies

[6] Generative artificial intelligence is a new generation that has its roots in traditional artificial intelligence and machine learning.
[7] Debrah, C. , Chan, APC and Darko, A. (2022). Artificial intelligence in green building Automation in Construction, *137*, [104192]. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.autcon.2022.104192

toward green production and consumption to reduce carbon emissions.



**2. Green production in agriculture**

Agriculture is the primary occupation in many countries around the world, and with an increasing global population projected to grow from 7.5 billion to 9.7 billion by 2050[8], there will be greater pressure on land resources. By 2050, there will be only an additional 4% of land available for cultivation. AI-based systems can improve crop yields, reduce water consumption, and optimize fertilizer use. This is crucial for reducing the environmental impact of agriculture and promoting fairly sustainable agricultural practices. Artificial intelligence is rapidly changing the way we interact with the environment and manage agriculture. The solutions addressing these issues are powered by artificial intelligence, which will enable farmers to enhance efficiency and improve the quantity, quality, and faster market availability of crops.

Agricultural production generates thousands of data points related to temperature, soil, water usage, weather conditions, and more. With the help of artificial intelligence and machine learning models, these data are leveraged in real-time to gain valuable insights such as choosing the right time for seed planting, determining crop selection, selecting hybrid seeds for higher yields, and more. Regenerative agriculture is rapidly transforming agricultural production due to numerous ecological benefits and productivity-related advantages.

Agricultural production is characterized as a labour-intensive activity. However, it is evident that there are fewer workers involved in it. Labor shortages, increased consumer demand, and high production costs are some of the key factors that have accelerated the use of robotics in this sector, aiming to reduce costs and optimize production. This has been the driving force behind the application of robotics in agriculture, which has significantly advanced over the last five years.

The goal of agricultural robotics is to enhance the efficiency and profitability of processes within the sector. In other words, mobile robotics work in the agricultural sector to improve productivity, specialization, and ecological sustainability. Agricultural robotics, for example, can precisely apply pesticides only to plants that need them. This is just one example of how very tangible benefits can be

[8] Quoted from the source: https://www.un.org/en/sections/issues-depth/population/

seen in sectors that traditionally were not highly automated[9]. Agricultural robots can harvest apples, pick strawberries, harvest lettuce, and weed crops. Additionally, in agriculture, dynamic work cells are being introduced where a single human worker is assisted by several robots equipped with artificial intelligence algorithms and intelligent sensors in various stages of fruit production.

Drones[10] powered by artificial intelligence are used for weed control, as they can detect and spray only the weeds, ensuring the protection of crops from chemicals. This offers farmers a cost-effective way to incorporate technology into crop maintenance while increasing the efficiency of weed control methods. Additionally, drones capture aerial images that help farmers quickly assess the health of their crops. Furthermore, by using cameras and AI-powered drones, it is possible to monitor and manage wild animal populations more effectively. Aerial images can save farmers a lot of time by providing them with a bird’s-eye view of their crops. This allows them to quickly assess vegetation health, insect issues, irrigation schedules, and weed growth.

Modern research has discovered the potential of using drones and cameras to achieve the concept of green production, which involves numerous climate variables such as temperature, wind speed, and relative humidity. A new formula called the Osama formula[11], has been developed for evaluating soil thermal resistance and overall heat loss, taking environmental changes into account. Moreover, modern machinery uses sensor fusion, machine vision, and artificial intelligence models to identify fruit locations for harvesting and assist in selecting high-quality produce. Artificial intelligence can enable farmers to reduce the use of fertilizers and pesticides, resulting in healthier crops and less environmental pollution. Additionally, AI-driven forest management can ensure sustainable forestry with minimal impact on the surrounding ecosystem.

Since artificial intelligence holds strategically important data about the environment and agriculture, it is crucial that these data are protected from unauthorized access and theft. Governments and

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[9] From: https://robotnik-eu.translate.goog/robotics-applications-in-agriculture/?

[10] Precision AI's current effort is to bridge two emerging technologies, drone technology, and green technology, which are yet to become popular in Canada.

[11] The invention and formula (Osama formula) provide a method for evaluating R-values (thermal resistance) that prescribe an optimal energy system for constructing agricultural buildings.

organizations need to implement robust security measures to safeguard this data and maintain public trust.

**3. The impact of artificial intelligence on the environment**

The question arises: can artificial intelligence help in protecting the environment and combating climate change? The impact of artificial intelligence on the environment is a crucial factor, whether it is positive or negative, that must be considered. The most significant advantage of artificial intelligence is its ability to optimize energy consumption and reduce waste. Within the field of artificial intelligence, specifically machine learning[12], data from smart grids can be analysed to optimize energy consumption in real-time, reducing the need for energy production based on fossil fuels. This can lead to a reduction in greenhouse gas emissions and contribute to mitigating the effects of climate change. However, the application of artificial intelligence also raises two sets of issues when considering climate change: the potential exacerbation of social and ethical challenges already associated with artificial intelligence and the contribution to climate change through greenhouse gas emissions from computationally intensive AI systems[13]. Green artificial intelligence represents an approach to continuous improvement aimed at reducing the impact of digital technologies on the environment, society, and the economy. To continue with the digital transformation of societies, it is increasingly important to think about a more sober, fair, and efficient approach to digital usage to minimize its environmental impact.

In transportation, artificial intelligence can determine route optimization and reduce fuel consumption, leading to lower carbon emissions and improved air quality in the environment. Furthermore, in terms of environmental management, artificial intelligence can design new materials with specific technical properties, such as increased strength or reduced weight, which can be applied in various technical systems, from construction to aviation. These materials can be produced from renewable sources, reducing

[12] Machine Learning (ML): Artificial General Intelligence is based on advanced machine learning techniques that enable machines to acquire knowledge, adapt, and improve their performance.

[13] Artificial intelligence offers many opportunities to address a wide range of challenges related to climate change, but it also has an impact on climate change itself. Artificial intelligence emits $CO_2$, and it is also part of the solution to the climate crisis.

reliance on fossil fuels and minimizing the environmental impact of production and transportation. Technical improvements such as increased energy efficiency and reduced material usage alone will not be sufficient, and consideration must also be given to the consumption of digital technology. This means that developing artificial intelligence for the benefit of the environment is not the same as establishing environmentally and socially conscious AI systems.

Finally, there is concern about the ethical implications of using artificial intelligence for environmental management. Artificial intelligence algorithms are only as good as the data they are based on, and biases in that data can lead to biased decision-making. For example, if an AI algorithm is trained on data that prioritizes economic growth over environmental protection, it may make decisions that prioritize short-term economic gain over long-term environmental sustainability.

Artificial intelligence can be categorized into different types, primarily based on its capabilities and functional basis. There are generally two main divisions:

- Narrow or Weak Artificial Intelligence: This refers to AI systems designed for specific tasks or domains. These systems excel at performing a particular task, but their capabilities are limited to that task. They do not possess general intelligence or consciousness.
- General or Strong Artificial Intelligence: This is a theoretical form of AI that has the ability to understand, learn, and apply knowledge across a wide range of tasks, similar to human intelligence. General AI does not currently exist and is a subject of ongoing research and speculation.
- Super Artificial Intelligence: This is an even more advanced and theoretical form of AI that surpasses human intelligence in all aspects. It is capable of performing tasks that are currently inconceivable for humans[14].

The types of artificial intelligence reveal more about the future development of this technology. These types serve as a foundation for visualizing what the future of artificial intelligence might look like, as AI is crucial for understanding how it will progress in the future. Different types of artificial intelligence work in different ways, which means it is necessary to understand these different types to see how

[14]Based on: Đorđe Nadrljanski, Mila Nadrljanski, Mira Pavlinović: Digital Maritime Business, College of Inspection and Personnel Management, Redak, Split 2021.

they differ from each other. To distinguish the extent to which AI applications can perform tasks, they are generally categorized into three types based on their capabilities, which are rooted in the ability to mimic human thinking. These types differ from each other and demonstrate a natural progression towards today's AI systems.
The rapidly evolving nature of artificial intelligence has resulted in numerous terms for different forms of AI that have been achieved so far and those that are being pursued. Additionally, not everyone agrees on what these terms refer to, which contributes to difficulties in understanding what artificial intelligence can and cannot do. It is crucial to have the ability to think ahead because the future of artificial intelligence is predetermined, primarily in its types that have been scientifically described up to today.

## 4. Artificial Narrow Intelligence

The idea behind Artificial Narrow Intelligence (ANI)[15] is based on the belief that the functioning of the human brain, by creating the right connections, can be imitated using silicon and conductors (wires) as neurons and dendrites.
The human brain consists of 86 billion nerve cells called neurons. These neurons are connected to each other through thousands of axons. Inputs from the external environment or sensory organs are received by dendrites. These inputs generate electrical impulses that quickly travel through the neural network. Neurons can then send a message to another neuron to solve a problem or not send it forward.
Artificial Narrow Intelligence (ANI), also known as Weak Artificial Intelligence or Narrow AI, is the only type of artificial intelligence that has been successfully realized to date. The name comes from the fact that such AI systems are explicitly designed for a single task. Narrow AI is goal-oriented and designed to perform specific tasks.

## 5. Conclusion

Artificial intelligence has the potential to offer solutions for recognizing and monitoring sources of $CO_2$, emissions, such as transportation, industrial production, and agricultural activities. Artificial intelligence provides significant opportunities for environmental protection, mitigating climate change, and preserving resources and biodiversity. There are many opportunities for artificial intelligence to help various fields of science and the economy, some

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[15] Artificial Narrow Intelligence (ANI)

of which are focused on the ability of AI algorithms to recognize and identify objects using cameras and other sensors.

While there is enormous potential for artificial intelligence to be a "driver" for positive change, it also raises questions about fairness, interpretability, privacy, and security in all systems. Climate change is very real, and if action is not taken now, it may be too late to correct its effects. Innovations based on artificial intelligence can promote sustainable consumption, accelerate the spread of renewable energy sources, detect marine plastic waste, or facilitate the transition to sustainable transportation.

Green technology, as environmental technology, encompasses technologies designed to reduce human impact on the environment and promote sustainability. It covers a wide range of industries and products, including renewable energy sources such as solar energy, wind, and hydro energy, green building materials and practices, and waste reduction technologies such as recycling and composting systems.

Although the potential of artificial intelligence is undeniable, it must be managed and adapted to global climate efforts. By applying artificial intelligence to renewable energy sources, food sustainability, forest management, agriculture, and biodiversity conservation, it becomes a key player in the common quest for a sustainable future. The significance of rising global temperatures is evident as forest fires become more frequent, large forest areas are reduced, which has a degrading impact on wildlife, and leads to an increase in $CO_2$ levels in the atmosphere.

In conclusion, the potential impact of artificial intelligence on the environment is significant, both positive and negative. Artificial intelligence can enable companies to identify and reduce inefficiencies, optimize supply chains, and achieve sustainability goals. The perspective of artificial intelligence and green technology is a developmental perspective because it offers a way to address urgent environmental challenges while improving productivity, efficiency, and sustainability. Artificial intelligence has the potential to promote energy efficiency, waste reduction, and the enhancement of sustainable practices. However, it also has the potential to contribute to environmental degradation and the depletion of natural resources. It is crucial to take steps to mitigate the potential negative impacts of artificial intelligence on the environment and promote responsible and sustainable use. By doing so, it can be argued that artificial intelligence contributes to a more sustainable and environmentally friendly future.

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# THE IMPACT OF SMALL MEDIUM ENTERPRISE (SME) OF BRAC ON WOMEN EMPOWERMENT: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY AT REMOTE AREAS IN BANGLADESH

**Md. Abul Hasam[1], Dr. Nasrin Akhter[2]**

**Abstract**
Women empowerment is a vital concern in contemporary era. To promote the women emopwement, different institutions and organization takes various initiatives especially in rural Bangladesh.The study tries to know whether the small medium enterprise of well-known BRAC impacts on empowering the rural women in Bangladesh. In this work, women empowerment refers to six dimensions like taking decision and about family matters and its evaluation, participation in economic activities and its evaluation, participation in social activities and its evaluation, participation in political activities and its evaluation, reproduction control and taking health care. The small medium enterprise of BRAC refers to micro financial support to rural women. In this study, quantative method using descriptive research design was applied.Data is collected through interview schedule and the collected data is analysed by SPSS. At first the data are presented as frequency and percentage. Then, multiple linear regression models were applied to measure the impacts of small medium enterprise on women empowerment.The findings shows that the small medium enterprise of BRAC plays the vital impact on the all dimensions of women empowerment at remote areas in Bangladesh. The results may help the policy makers and organizations to take further more initiative to improve the women empowerment in Bangladesh.

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**Keywords:** Small Medium Enterprise (SME), BRAC, Women Empowerment, Bangladesh.

## 1. Introduction

The small medium enterprise i.e. micro-credit finance plays the vital contribution in development process. Through micro-credit, poverty mitizes and women become empowering. Generally, micro-credit program has been launced, historically, through women and non-government organization so that rural poor women become economicllay well-off resulting theire empowerment is increasing. Small medium enterprise / micro-credit works as the indicators of loan opportunity and savings. The programs of micro-credit are spreading worldwide for combating the poverty in modern era. Half of the total population of Bangladesh is women who are contributing to the development of national economy. In Bangladesh, ministry of women is launched in 1978. Government of Bangladesh makes policies for the development of women. Although theses policies are taken by the government but most of the women could not be empowered in the sphere of social, poticial, cultural, economical and family issues. Gender discrimatin spreads in all sectors of the country. Constitutions, government policies and programs, non-government organization and other institutions could not fulfil the demand of empowerment of the especially rural women in Bangladesh.Women seems to be incapable to find the institutional loan. In this situation, small medium enterprise finds the scope to give micro-credit among the women (Abed, 2000). Through minimizing the poverty, lack of education and training, health, violence and conflict, women are becoming empowered in power, decision making and equal access to all of facilities. Because women development as social issue is the pre-requisite of development which is possible by women empowerment. Recently, the concept ‘empowerment’ is used in different women related national and international issues. At the same time, the concept ‘empowerment’ is used frequently in development issues in Bangladesh. In this regard, after worldwar II, different NGOs take initiatives to ensure the women empowerment as BRAC, ASA, Grameen Bank, BRAC and FIVD and so on. The Bangladesh Liberation War in 1971 served as the foundation for BRAC. The economy and the populace were destroyed after the nation gained independence from Pakistan. In order to help refugees coming from India, Fazle Hasan Abed, and a former executive with Shell Oil formed BRAC in 1972. .As a continuous function, BRAC does impact to increase women empowerment through its Small Medium Enterpries i.e. microcredit program in the country, then, it starts its functions in many countries in the world.

## 1.1 Literature Review

### BRAC and its History

The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee, known by the acronym BRAC, is one of the world's largest development NGOs headquartered in Dhaka, Bangladesh. Founded in 1972, the company employs over 100,000 people, most of them women, and in Asia and Africa he serves over 100 million people.BRAC he originated in the 1971 Bangladesh Liberation War. After the country gained independence from Pakistan, its economy and people were devastated. In 1972, Fazle Hasan Abed, a retired Shell Oil director, founded his BRAC to help refugees returning from India. In its first year, BRAC focused on emergency rehabilitation, building housing, boats, and medical centers, but then turned to long-term poverty reduction strategies focused primarily on women. BRAC's first loan program was launched in 1974 to assist poor and hardcore poor women through microfinance enterprise so that they can achieve economical capability.

BRAC is an international development organization based in Bangladesh. BRAC was subsequently registered with the NGO Secretariat of the Bangladesh Government to receive foreign donations. BRAC is the world's largest non-governmental development organization based on employee numbers as of September 2016.Founded in his 1972 by Lord Fazl Hassan Abed after Bangladesh's independence, BRAC has a presence in all of his 64 districts of Bangladesh, as well as in his 11 other countries. Asia, Africa, Americas.BRAC employs over 90,000 people, approximately 70% of whom are women, and its services he reaches over 126 million people. The organisation is partly self-funded through a number of social enterprises that include a dairy and food project, a chain of retail handicraft stores called Aarong, seed and Agro [and chicken. BRAC has operations in 13 countries of the world (BRAC Annual Report, 2022).

Known formerly as the Bangladesh Rehabilitation Assistance Committee, then as the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee, and later as Building Resources across Communities, BRAC was initiated in 1972 by Sir Fazlé Hasan Abed at Shallah Upazillah in the district of Sunamganj as a small-scale relief and rehabilitation project to help returning war refugees after the Bangladesh Liberation War of 1971. 14 thousand homes had to be rebuilt as part of the relief effort, as well as several hundred fishing boats; BRAC claims to have done this within nine months, as well as opening medical centres and providing other essential services.

Until the mid-1970s, BRAC concentrated on community development through village development programmes that included agriculture, fisheries, cooperatives, rural crafts, adult literacy, health and family planning,vocational training for women and construction of community centres. A Research and Evaluation Unit (RED) was established to assess and set direction for its activities, and in 1977 BRAC was established as a village organization for the landless, small farmers, artisans and vulnerable women. With the formation of (VO), we began to take a more focused approach. in order to help. That same year, BRAC established a commercial printing company to fund its activities. The arts and crafts retail chain Aaron was founded the following year (Rogers, Kate; OFarrell, Sue Ellen, 2008)

Diarrhea was the leading cause of infant mortality in Bangladesh in the late 1970s. In February 1979, BRAC began a field trial of a diarrhea control campaign in his two villages, then Surratana. The following year, they expanded the operation and called it the Oral Therapy Extension Program (OTEP). We taught rural mothers how to make an oral rehydration solution (ORS) at home from readily available materials and how to use it to treat diarrhea. The training was reinforced with posters and radio and television spots. In this 10-year program, her 12 million households across her 75,000 villages across Bangladesh were educated, except in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (where civil unrest made work unsafe) increase. After 15 years of her education, most mothers were still able to prepare her ORS safely and effectively. When OTEP was launched, the treatment was largely unknown in Bangladesh, but 15 years later it was used in rural households for severe diarrhea in more than 80% of her cases, Rice field. Non-formal primary education was started in 1985 by BRAC. In 1986 BRAC started a rural development program. The program consisted of four main activities: institution building, including functional education and training, credit operations, income and job generation, and a support services program (BRAC Annual Report). 2014).

**Women Empowerment**

Sarumathi & Mohon (2011) conducted an analysis of the effects of microcredit on women's emancipation. They discovered that one of the key components to ending poverty and enhancing the capacity of rural women was microfinance. They also sensitively, financially, and socially explored the empowerment of women. Their research revealed that among rural women there was a persistent increase in all three characteristics. Rural women who engage in microfinance show a noticeable improvement in their mental health and sense of civicempowerment. Camille (2011) discovered a deep connection between microfinance and empowerment, while it quickly increased women's empowerment. He demonstrated how women are becoming more developed in terms of expanding economic resources. The study's findings made clear that microfinance has an effect on women's perceived empowerment in both positive and negative ways. The purpose of Parveen & Chaudhury's 2009 study was to examine how microcredit programs led to the financial empowerment of rural women. In general, women's advancement depends on three economic factors: income, savings, and assets. By utilizing those resources, women's advancements, such as eradicating gender discrimination, reducing poverty, exercising family power, and fostering self-reliance, have steadily improved. The beneficial effects of microfinance on the expansion of women's empowerment were examined by Noreen (2011). She looked at five factors connected to child health, education, choosing a partner for children, buying necessities, and decision-making in order to examine women's empowerment. In this study, the author suggested that in order to advance women's emancipation, educational services, family awareness, the strengthening of governmental and nonprofit institutions, and their cooperation were crucial. Nessa et al. (2012) talked about the various facets of microcredit. They found that microfinance not only increased the sources of income for rural and disadvantaged women, but also improved decision-making skills, options, and self-determination. Decision-making involved five different factors, including the following: household, economic, movement, property, political, and social.

They found that each dimension increased significantly due to the effects of microfinance. Garikipati (2010) investigated women's empowerment at the family level. Loans are a household benefit, but they don't necessarily affect women's empowerment. Women, in particular, can disempower the process because loans are invested in home ownership. This is because women do not have sharing rights. Creative good luck in the house. Women's shared right to household wealth has proven to be fundamental to women's empowerment, if the diversion of credit by households cannot be restricted. Loro (2013) evaluated his research on sexism in third world countries. He has shown that the status and dominance of women has increased significantly since the start of his NGO work in developing countries. But microfinance her loans are empowering women, boosting their self-esteem and self-esteem. Nevertheless, loans are often economically advantageous and promote a higher social status for women. Pit etc. (2006) found that credit granted to women had statistically significant effects, with women being better positioned in household decision-making and having better access to financial and economic resources. It’s said to show Greater social networks, greater bargaining power over husbands, and greater mobility. They also analyzed that women's participation in small business loans had an encouraging effect on fertility rates.

In developing countries, women face social, economic and political discrimination. Their status in family and home activities may have reached a low level. In general, empowerment refers to the process by which women expand their options to control and own their lives (Kabeer, 2001). Whenever women are given the freedom to shape their lives and assets, this is called female empowerment. Baltiwala (1995) defines empowerment as the management of material assets, economic resources and ideologies. Bennett (2002) describes empowerment as ``enhancing the assets and capacities of diverse individuals and groups to engage, influence, and hold to account the institutions they influence'', and Mbwewe and Keller (2002). 1991) described women's empowerment as "a process by enabling". Women need to increase their own autonomy, assert their independent right to make decisions, and organize to control resources that help challenge and eliminate their subordination. The empowerment of women is also recognized as an important prerequisite for reducing poverty and respecting human rights and basic needs, especially at the individual level, as it helps build a foundation for social mobility (DFID, 2006).

While women's empowerment is commonly used to improve the condition of women, it can actually be applied to disadvantaged sections of society to elevate women to the same level of advanced sections. Simply put, empowerment is the process of redistributing power from the powerful to the powerless. In the context of Bangladesh, women's empowerment means that women should be given freedom of choice for achievement and self-expression, as well as equal access to resources, opportunities and power in the home and community means (Kumar et al., 2013). She has two measures to realize women's empowerment. The first is social mobilization, Poor women lack the skills and self-confidence needed to counter and challenge existing inequalities and barriers. Modifiers are often needed to consciously catalyze social mobilization. Second, the process of social mobilization must be accompanied and complemented by economic stability. As long as disadvantaged people suffer from economic hardship and precarious livelihoods, they cannot be mobilized (UNDP, 2001). Almost all definitions of women's empowerment include references to greater choice and freedom to take the decisions and actions necessary to shape life outcomes (Malhotra and Schular, 2005). In conclusion, we can easily say that women's empowerment is defined as human beings when they achieve basic and fundamental rights such as: Food, protection, healthcare, education and entertainment. Increase financial capacity and eliminate all violence and discrimination against families, including decision-making activities (from family to state).

**1.2 Objectives of the Study:** The main objective of the study is to know whether small medium enterprise of well-known BRAC impacts on women empowerment. This objective is specified into six categories like;to know whether give importance to women’s decision about family matters, women participation in economic ,social and political activities and it’s evaluation, opinion to reproduction control and taking decision about health care after receiving microcredit from BRAC.

## 1.3 Conceptual Framework

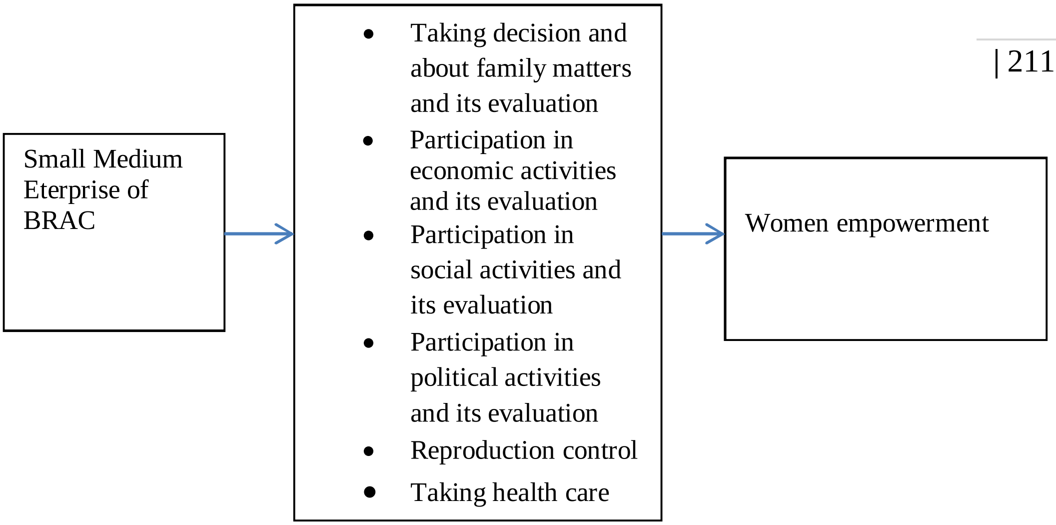


Figure-01: Conceptual framework on small medium enterprise and women empowerment

## 1.4 Operational Definition of the Concepts

**Small Medium Enterprise:** In the study, small medium enterprise refers to a certain amount of finance which is given by BRAC among troublesome and poor women so that they can create self-employment which makes way for achieving money resulting they become empowering in various sectors.. In general, BRAC provides Tk.25000-30000 initially which gradually increases.

**Women:** In the study, women mean 18 or more year old, unmarried, married and divorced females who live in the village and have taken microcredit from the said bank. But the study selected only the married women having children purposively.

**Women Empowerment:** It is measured by six dimensions; (I).Decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness. This dimension is measured by five indicators as women opinion to daily necessary family goods purchasing and its effectiveness, expenditure for child education , expenditure for child marriage, land purchasing-selling and purchasing cloths for own and other family members. (II).Participation in economic activities and its evaluation. This dimension is measured by four indicators such as women contributions to and their evaluation in taking care of children, cooking food and disks cleaning, cloths drying and owner of assets. (III).Participation in social activities and its evaluation. This dimension is measured by two indicators as women eagerness to participate in rural shalish (Shalish is a Bengali Word which refers to settlement any problem within two persons or groups) and freedom to move in the society. (IV).Participation in political activities and its evaluation. This dimension is measured by two indicators such as women freedom to vote a choiceful candidate and eagerness to participate in local government. (V).Reproduction control. This dimension is measured by three indicators as  effectiveness of women opinion about when they will borne child, how many children they will borne and using contraception method /hygienic products (VI).Health care taking. This dimension is measured by two indicators such taking treatment from proper channel and taking choiceful food for sickness.

## 2. Methodology

**2.1 Research Design and Method:** In the present study, descriptive research design is applied by which it's easy to conduct a survey and to explore the effect of an event. In addition it helps to describe the circumstances of existing different cases easily. The study also followed quantitative method to conduct the survey through which a statistical analysis of collected data is done.

**2.2 Research Zone and Its Importance:** Charperborti village of Companygonjr Thana in Noakhali district is selected as a research area. The village is densely populated area amounting around twelve thousand residents like other villages of Bangladesh as a low income country. A local office of BRAC is placed in the village from which most of the poor and hardcore poor women receive microfinance to change their life standard. Therefore, aiming to realize the study objectives, the village is considered as a study zone.

**2.3 Population and Sampling:** The women who have received microcredit from the said bank are considered as research population and each of them is identified as a unit of analysis. Total population is 620 which gathered from adjunct office of the said bank. The sample size is 83 found by using simple random sampling and by the following formula;

Formula $n = \dfrac{\dfrac{t^2 pq}{d^2}}{1+\dfrac{1}{N}\left(\dfrac{t^2 pq}{d^2}-1\right)}$ (Source: Cochran, 1977:75)

**2.4 Variables of the Study:** The independent variables of the study are amount of microcredit, frequency of received microcredit and duration of loan received. On the contrary, the dependent variable is the women empowerment. It is measured by six dimensions; (I).Decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness. (II).Participation in economic activities and its evaluation. (III).Participation in social activities and its evaluation. (IV).Participation in political activities and its evaluation. (V).Reproduction control. (VI).Health care taking.

**2.5 Data Collection and Analysis Technique:** Data is collected through interview schedule and the collected data is analysed by SPSS. At first the data are presented as frequency and percentage. Then multiple linear regression models are applied to measure the effects of microcredit on women empowerment.

## 3. Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Univariate Analysis

**Table-01: Basis Information of the Respondents**

| V | F | % | V | F | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1.Age of respondents** | | | **5. Main earning person of the family** | | |
| 18-25 | 20 | 24.1 | Husband | 38 | 45.8 |
| 26-30 | 31 | 37.3 | Son | 18 | 21.7 |
| 31-35 | 19 | 22.9 | Loan receiver | 27 | 32.5 |
| 36 or more | 13 | 15.7 | Total | 83 | 100 |
| Total | 83 | 100 | **6.Monthly family income** | | |
| **2.Marital status** | | | Tk. 5000-10000 | 39 | 46.99 |
| Married | 57 | 68.7 | Tk.11000-15000 | 29 | 34.94 |
| Unmarried | 17 | 20.5 | Tk. 16000-20000 | 9 | 10.84 |
| Widow | 9 | 10.8 | More than Tk. 20000 | 6 | 7.23 |
| Total | 83 | 100 | Total | 83 | 100 |

| 3.Educational qualification | | | 7.Monthly family expenditure | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | 30 | 36.1 | Tk. 5000-10000 | 41 | 49.40 |
| Secondary | 26 | 31.3 | Tk.11000-15000 | 27 | 32.53 |
| Higher secondary | 9 | 10.8 | Tk. 16000-20000 | 11 | 13.25 |
| Non-educated | 18 | 21.7 | More than Tk. 20000 | 4 | 4.82 |
| Total | 83 | 100 | Total | 83 | 100 |
| **4. Member of the family** | | | **8.Type of family** | | |
| 1-3 | 27 | 32.53 | Single family | 53 | 63.7 |
| 4-6 | 42 | 50.60 | Joint family | 26 | 31.3 |
| 7 or more | 14 | 16.86 | Extended family | 4 | 4.8 |
| Total | 83 | 100 | Total | 83 | 100 |

The above table shows that the women aged 26-30(37.3%) year received more loans and 36 years women (15.7%) received fewer loans. The marrid women (68.7%) received more loan and widowed (10.8%) take less loan. Most of the loan recipient women's educational qualification is primary (36.1%) and the lowest number of loan recipient women's eduational qualification is higher secondary (10.8%). As highest,the number of family members of loan recipient women ( 50.60%/) is from 4-6 persons and as lowest, 60.02% loan recipient women's family members are 7 or more persons. As highest, 45.8% loan recipient women's main earning person is her husband and as lowest, 21.7% is son. As highest, 46.99% women's monthly family income Tk.5000-10000 and as lowest, 7.23% women; s monthly family income Tk.20000 or more. As highest, 49.40% women's monthly family income Tk.5000-10000 and as lowest, 4.82% women;s monthly family income Tk.20000 or more. As highest, 63.7% women come from single family and as lowest, 4.8% from extended family. So, we can say that, generally, micro credit organizations encourage disbursing the loan among those women who are from single family to avoid defaulter.

**Table-02: Receive and Investment Status of Microcredit**

| V | F | % | V | F | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1.Amount of microcredit** | | | **3.Duration of loan receive** | | |
| Tk. 25000-30000 | 34 | 40.96 | 1-3 year | 49 | 59.04 |
| Tk.31000-35000 | 32 | 38.55 | 4-6year | 24 | 28.92 |
| Tk.35000-40000 | 10 | 12.05 | 7-9year | 8 | 9.64 |
| More than Tk.40000 | 7 | 8.44 | More than 9year | 2 | 2.41 |
| Total | 83 | 100 | Total | 83 | 100 |
| **2.Frequency of received microcredit** | | | **4.Investment field of credit** | | |
| 1-2time | 39 | 46.99 | Agricultural activities | 19 | 22.9 |
| 3-4time | 37 | 44.58 | Trade | 14 | 16.9 |
| 5-6time | 4 | 4.82 | Personal activities | 16 | 19.3 |
| 7-8time | 2 | 2.41 | Family activities | 31 | 37.3 |
| 9 or more | 1 | 1.20 | Other sectors | 3 | 3.6 |
| **Total** | 83 | 100 | Total | 83 | 100 |

From the above table, we can say that as highest 40.96% women received loan from Tk. 25000-3000 and as lowest, 7% women received Tk. 40000 or more. As highest 46.99% women takes the loan for 1-2times and as lowest, 1.20% women takes the loan for 9 or more times. As highest, 59.04% women take the loan for 1-3 year as duration and as lowest 2.41% women take the loan for more than 9year. Out of 83, as highest 37.3% women invest their loan in family activities and on the other hand, as lowest 3.6% invest in other purposes.

**Table-03: Women Empowerment Before and After Loan Receive**

| V | Before loan receive | | | | | | After loan receive | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Yes | | No | | Total | | Yes | | No | | Total | |
| | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| **1.Evaluation of women decision about purchasing necessary family goods** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 27 | 32.53 | 56 | 67.87 | 83 | 100 | 28 | 33.7 | 55 | 66.3 | 83 | 100 |
| **2. Evaluation of women opinion to child education expenditure** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 28 | 33.73 | 55 | 66.27 | 83 | 100 | 30 | 36.14 | 53 | 63.86 | 83 | 100 |
| **3.Evaluation of women opinion to child marriage expenditure** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 35 | 42.17 | 48 | 57.83 | 83 | 100 | 44 | 53.01 | 39 | 46.99 | 83 | 100 |
| **4.Evaluation of women opinion about land purchasing-selling** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 25 | 30.12 | 58 | 69.88 | 83 | 100 | 31 | 37.35 | 52 | 62.65 | 83 | 100 |
| **5.Evaluation of women opinion to purchase cloths for themselves and family** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 15 | 18.07 | 68 | 81.93 | 83 | 100 | 25 | 30.12 | 58 | 69.88 | 83 | 100 |
| **6.Evaluation of women' economical contributions by taking their child caring** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 28 | 33.7 | 55 | 66.3 | 83 | 100 | 35 | 42.2 | 48 | 57.4 | 83 | 100 |
| **7.Evaluation of women' economical contributions in food cooking, disks cleaning and cloths drying** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 26 | 31.3 | 57 | 64.7 | 83 | 100 | 36 | 43.4 | 47 | 56.6 | 83 | 100 |
| **8. Become owner of assets (whereabouts, land and jewellery)** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 39 | 46.99 | 44 | 53.01 | 83 | 100 | 49 | 59.04 | 34 | 40.96 | 83 | 100 |
| **9. Willing expression to participate in rural Shalish** | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 23 | 27.71 | 60 | 72.29 | 83 | 100 | 25 | 30.12 | 58 | 69.88 | 83 | 100 |
| **10. If yes, then have faced any obstacles** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 19 | 82.60 | 4 | 17.39 | 23 | 100 | 14 | 55 | 9 | 36 | 25 | 100 |
| **11.Freedom to move in the society** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 19 | 22.89 | 64 | 77.11 | 83 | 100 | 25 | 30.12 | 58 | 69.88 | 83 | 100 |
| **12.Freedom to vote a choiceful candidate** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 62 | 74.7 | 21 | 25.3 | 83 | 100 | 69 | 83.10 | 14 | 16.9 | 83 | 100 |
| **13.Willing expression of women to participate in local government** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 12 | 14.46 | 71 | 85.54 | 83 | 100 | 17 | 20.48 | 66 | 79.52 | 83 | 100 |
| **14. If yes, then have faced any obstacles** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 9 | 75 | 3 | 25 | 12 | 100 | 6 | 35.29 | 11 | 64.71 | 17 | 100 |
| **15.Evaluation of women opinion to when and how many children they will borne and opinion on using contraception method/hygienic products** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 19 | 22.9 | 64 | 77.1 | 83 | 100 | 31 | 37.3 | 52 | 62.7 | 83 | 100 |
| **16.Evaluation of women' taking decision to receive treatment from where or whose(Upazila health complex, rural practitioner )** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 34 | 40.96 | 49 | 59.04 | 83 | 100 | 41 | 49.40 | 42 | 50.60 | 83 | 100 |
| **17.Taking choiceful food for sickness** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 27 | 32.5 | 56 | 67.5 | 83 | 100 | 35 | 42.2 | 48 | 57.8 | 83 | 100 |

The above table shows that all of the indicators is increased after receiving the microfinance than that of before receiving the loan as below;

Before receiving the loan, 32% women said that their decision about purchasing necessary family goods would have evaluated but it has increased by 33.7% after receiving the loan.

Similarly before receiving the loan, 33.73% women said that their opinion to child education expenditure would have evaluated but it has increased by 36.6% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 42.7% women said that their opinion to child marriage expenditure would have evaluated but it has increased by53.01% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 30.12% women said that their opinion about land purchasing-selling would have evaluated but it has increased by 36.6% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 18.07% women said that their opinion to purchase cloths for themselves and family would have evaluated but it has increased by 36.6% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 33.7% women said that their economical contributions by taking our child caring would have evaluated but it has increased by 42.2% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 31.3% women said that their economical contributions in food cooking, disks cleaning and cloths drying would have evaluated but it has increased by 43.4% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 46.99% women said that they would have become owner assets such whereabouts, land and jewellery but it has increased by 59.04% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 27.71% women would have expression their willing to participate in rural shalish but it has increased by 30.12% after receiving the loan. In this regard, before taking the loan, 82.60% women would have faced social obstacles but the situation is decreased (55%) after receing the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 22.89% women said that they would have freedom to move in the society but it has increased by 30.12% after receiving the loan. Like this, 74.7 % women would have freedom to vote a choiceful candidate but it has incrased by83.10% after receiving the loan.

Before receiving the loan, 14.46% women would have expression their willing to participate in local government but it has increased by 20.48% after receiving the loan. In this regard, before taking the

loan, 75% said that they would have faced social obstacles but it is decreased (35.29%) after receiving the loan.
Before receiving the loan, 22.9% women said that their opinion to when and how many children they will borne and opinion on using contraception method/hygienic products would have evaluated but it has increased by 37.3% after receiving the loan.
Before receiving the loan, 40.96%% women said that their decision to receive treatment from where or whose (Upazila health complex, rural practitioner) would have evaluated but it has increased by 49.40% after receiving the loan. In this regard, before receiving the loan, 32.5% women said that they would have taken choiceful food for sickness but it has increased by 42.2% after receiving the loan.

From above statistics we see that the small medium enterprise of BRAC is positively correlated to women empowerment because all of the dimensions of the empowerment are increased after taking the financial supports from BRAC. BRAC not only giving the financial support but also giving training on how to utilize the finance and making awareness among the women toward every sphere of their life.

### 3.2 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

**Table-04: The Multiple Linear Regression Coefficients Indicated the Effects of Small Medium Enterprise of BRAC on Women Empowerment**

| Independent variables | Decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness | Participation in economic activities and its evaluation | Participation in social activities and its evaluation | Participation in political activities and its evaluation. | Reproduction control | Health care taking | Aggregate women empowerment |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Constant | 0.988 | 0.768 | 0.891 | 0.888 | 0.677 | 0.678 | 0.978 |
| Amount of microcredit | 0.749 | 0.762 | 0.669 | 0.577 | 0.789 | 0.767 | 0.689 |
| Frequency of received microcredit | 0.133 | 0.118 | 0.172 | 0.109 | 0.139 | 0.169 | 0.125 |
| Duration of loan receive | 0.789 | 0.654 | 0.543 | .0654 | 0.379 | 0.239 | 0.674 |

The table is rearranged from SPSS given table.

The table-04 shows that the factors are positively related to dimensions of women empowerment as well as aggregate women empowerment as the following;

If there is no amount of microcredit, frequency of received microcredit and duration of loan receive,then the decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness will be 0.988, participation in economic activities and its evaluation will be 0.768, participation in social activities and its evaluation will 0.891, participation in political activities and its evaluation will be 0.888,reproduction control will be 0.677, health care taking will be 0.678 and aggregate women empowerment will be 0.978.

One unit increase in amount of microcredit, the decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness will increase by 0.749, participation in economic activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.762, participation in social activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.669, participation in political activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.577,reproduction control will increase by 0.789, health care taking will increase by 0.767 and aggregate women empowerment will increase by 0.689.

One unit increase in frequency of received microcredit, the decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness will increase by 0.133, participation in economic activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.118, participation in social activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.172, participation in political activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.109,reproduction control will increase by 0.139, health care taking will increase by 0.169 and aggregate women empowerment will increase by 0.125.

One unit increase in duration of loan receive, the decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness will increase by 0.789, participation in economic activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.654, participation in social activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.543, participation in political activities and its evaluation will increase by 0.654,reproduction control will increase by 0.379, health care taking will increase by 0.239 and aggregate women empowerment will increase by 0.674.

Therefore, we can conclude that small medium enterprise of BRAC is positively related to all dimensions of women empowerment.

## 4. Conclusion

Women's empowerment can be defined in many ways, including embracing women's perspectives, striving for women's perspectives, and empowering women through education, awareness, literacy and training. Women's empowerment empowers and enables them to make life-changing decisions through a range of social issues. They can have the opportunity to redefine their gender and similar roles, giving them more freedom to pursue their desired goals. In such these cases, small medium enterprise, as one of the various initiatives, plays vital contribution to the increase of women empowerment in its different dimensions which is showen in the present study. The present study shows that small medium enterprise i.e. amount of microcredit received from BRAC, its frequency and duration are positively related to the decision taking about family matters and its effectiveness, participation in economic activities and its evaluation, participation in social activities and its evaluation, participation in political activities and its evaluation, reproduction control, health care taking and overall aggregate women empowerment. Therefore, the small medium enterprise of BRAC have a strong positive impact on all dimensions of women's empowerment, and overall on women's empowerment.

**4.1 Policy Brief**

To ensure the women empowerment, it may take the following policies;

Women empowerment should not be limited only in disbursing the micro-credit; it should provide the training by the micro credit organizations among the beneficiaries so that they can utilize the provided finance properly.

The government should take the proper initiative to remove the exploitation on women by the microcredit organizations. For instance, installment should be monthly and interest rate should not be more than 10 percent. With savings amount, the credit organization should give extra benefits to women so that they can find out the extra income sources.

The micro credit organization should register the name of father, brother or husband as guardian of the women, so that, not only women but also men will be accountable to pay installments of the micro credit resulting women will be free from extra stress.

Not only non-government organizations but also government organizations be supposed to take the responsibilities for women empowerment through micro credit programs.

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**Appendix-1: Abbreviation**

BRAC- Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
BIDS-Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies
DPHE-Department of Public Health Engineering
CDL-Capital and Development Limited
DFID-Department of International Development

# MEDIA AND COMMUNICATION ETHICS



Mila Nadrljanski[1], Mira Pavlinović[2]

**Abstract**

The paper deals with media and communication ethics. The paper presents contemporary concepts of communication and media ethics. Communication ethics has historical roots in rhetoric and argumentation analysis, while Media ethics is a branch of ethics that deals with moral issues related to the collection, preparation, storage, presentation, dissemination, and reception of information through mass media. Ethical issues faced by media practitioners are becoming increasingly important. It can only follow that ethical expectations and practices for the media will vary from country to country in accordance with differences in media laws. Media ethical standards also differ depending on cultural expectations and assumptions. Mass media includes print media (newspapers, magazines, and books), recordings, films, and electronic media (radio, television, and computers). The goals in rhetoric as traditionally understood lay the foundation for what later developed as communication ethics. Given the persuasive nature of rhetoric, ethical inquiry outlines the parameters of persuasion. The question arises as to what the moral limits of persuasion are.

**Keywords**: ethics, media, communication, media ethics

## Introduction

When discussing communication ethics, it is important to understand what is meant by “ethics”. Sometimes people confuse ethics with behaviour in accordance with social conventions, religious beliefs, and the law. And sometimes the terms ethics and morality are used interchangeably because both are clearly related to “right” and

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"wrong" behaviour. However, they are not the same thing at all. Communication ethics is therefore an offshoot of the emphasis on rhetorical studies and the relationship between rhetoric and ethics. The pace of change in today's media means that when ethical issues arise, not even an editor may be sure what to do. Every professional creates their own credibility, and the credibility of each individual is crucial for establishing the credibility of the media as a whole. For example, when journalists "dig" into someone's life, their decision to publish, often uncomfortable details, is often justified by the "right of the people to know." The problem with this kind of justification is that it does not answer the question of exactly what the people have a right to know, and above all, why people have a right to know such information. So, there is a great opportunity for the media to contribute to advancing peace, prosperity, and progress. Media ethics seeks to assist media practitioners in addressing various moral issues that arise in all areas of media communication: journalism, advertising, public relations, and entertainment. The media strongly and complexly influence the public's perception and understanding of the world, and, consequently, the formation of the personality of each individual and the interaction among individuals.

Certainly, the question of ethics arises. Ethics is a branch of philosophy that seeks to address questions of human morality by defining concepts such as good and evil, right, or wrong, etc. Today's impact of technology, media, and ethics places an emphasis on the fundamental values of ethics in the new digital world, on the media, and their impact on society because when it comes to technological development, these factors in economic, social, and educational terms affect our daily lives. Ethics is not just a matter of a code of conduct (plus or minus sanctions), and it is not just a matter of rules to follow. It relates more to principles that concern the right and wrong of human behaviour, principles that have some reasonable theoretical basis and are therefore applied objectively and impartially.

## Contemporary Society and Media Ethics

The discussion on media ethics has intensified in recent years, mainly driven by the standards of journalistic and media practice. The role of practitioners has taken a central place in determining what constitutes ethical and socially acceptable practices and behaviours, both for the public and for practitioners and intellectuals. The discursive relationship between the production and consumption of information is a central discussion on moral behaviour, especially in the context of media commercialization. Since media institutions operate in an environment of intense competition, the value of information and its appropriate quality has started to be critically evaluated in terms of ethical understanding.

Media ethics is a branch of ethics that deals with moral issues arising in connection with the acquisition, preparation, storage, presentation, dissemination, and reception of information through mass media. Scientific media ethics aims to assist media practitioners in addressing various moral issues that arise in all areas of media communications, including journalism, advertising, public relations, and entertainment. The media strongly and intricately influence the public's perception and understanding of the world, and, consequently, the shaping of each individual's personality and interactions between individuals. News and reports, advertisements, soap operas, and movies all have more or less subtle long-term impacts on people's attitudes, choices, and behaviours.

The field of international media ethics is not easy to define, in part because of the practical and philosophical relationships between law and ethics, differences in cultural expectations of ethical behaviour, etiquette, morality, taste, and aesthetics, and each country's or region's stance on the appropriate role of the press.

New forms of communication are reshaping the practice of the once-local, regional, or national craft of journalism. Today, news media use communication technology to collect text, videos, and images from around the world at an unprecedented speed and with varying levels of editorial control. This same technology allows media to disseminate this information to audiences scattered across the globe.

News media serve a radically pluralistic global community, where the impact of their reports can have far-reaching effects, both positive and negative. News, via satellites or the internet, reaches people around the world and influences the actions of governments, military, humanitarian agencies, and warring ethnic groups. Responsible global ethics are needed in a world where news media bring together a multitude of different religions, traditions, and ethnic groups.
The scope and role of ethical codes

In spite of these global trends, most ethical codes contain standards for news organizations or associations in specific countries.

International journalist associations exist, and some have developed declarations of principles. However, most major journalist associations and news organizations have not adopted a global code. Before posting on any social media platform, it is essential to carefully consider personal comments to ensure they align with the Code of Ethics. The most professional and collegial approach is to refrain from derogatory comments. If you are concerned that you or your colleague may have crossed the line in using social media, even if it may not lead to a violation of the Code, there are several practical options to consider. While the law is often based on accepted moral rules of behaviour, the focus of media ethics differs from media law. Laws establish rules of conduct that must be followed under the threat of state or civil sanctions or shame. Ethics limits or inspires behaviour by establishing principles and standards that should be adhered to because it is the right thing to do. Media laws vary greatly from country to country, and when the boundaries of media law differ, the boundaries of media ethics also differ. For example, behaviour or practice that might be legally regulated in one country might remain legally unregulated in another country and therefore becomes solely an ethical issue. Journalists, like doctors, sometimes cross ethical boundaries. Similarly, journalists who learn research, analysis, and communication skills can use them to hold people accountable, but also to expose the lives of innocent individuals and subject them to public ridicule. Expanding the ethical question for some would be whether the codes, formal and informal, emerging from the culture, are strong enough to subject those who violate them to punishment for breaching professional standards. Such an attitude was, if the literature of the time is to be believed, the favourite way to make journalism one of the professions, bringing prestige and avoiding restrictive laws by legislators frustrated with journalistic excesses.

**Serving the public**

Applied ethics, or applied moral philosophy, deals with specific areas of human concern and activity that pose their own specific ethical and moral dilemmas. Examples of applied ethics include business ethics, medical ethics, environmental ethics, sexual ethics, computer ethics, as well as legal, political, military, media ethics, and bioethics. Interestingly, the “just war theory” falls into the category of applied ethics. However, it is argued that the transformation of war in the 20th century and the way it affects human existence is so dramatic and profound that the decision of when and under what conditions participation in war is justified belongs to the realm of theoretical

philosophy and is not just an application of a particular set of moral principles.
Global journalism ethics can, therefore, be seen as an extension of journalism ethics - that the journalistic "public" is considered citizens of the world, and that ethical principles of objectivity, balance, and independence are interpreted internationally. Journalism ethics becomes more "cosmopolitan" in tone and perspective.
In the context of journalism, "ethics" can be described as a set of moral principles or values that guide the behaviour of journalists. Ethics is essentially self-restraint that journalists must practice voluntarily to preserve and promote the trust of the people and maintain their own credibility. Freedom, democracy, truth, objectivity, fairness, and privacy – these five criteria represent the basis of every ethical system, including that of professional journalists.

The primary loyalty of a global journalist is to the information needs of the world's citizens. Journalists should refrain from defining themselves primarily as loyal to factions, regions, or even countries. Serving the public means serving more than just local readership or one's country's audience. A consistent theme throughout this principle is that journalists can practice ethical journalism by ensuring the information they report is accurate and true. They can do this by using original sources when available and fact-checking information in the process. Furthermore, journalists should never engage in plagiarism but always attribute their sources.

**Passive and active public**

Media literacy is one of the most important projects of the international community aimed at educating citizens about both traditional media and the new digital age. The issue of media literacy is considered a key problem in the development of a democratic society and social equality. The goal of media literacy is to transform passive audiences into active citizens. Media literacy depends on the media and cultural policies of each country, as well as the responsibility of civil society to take responsibility for an equal relationship with the media. Another aspect of media literacy concerns the protection of citizens from harmful media content, such as violence, excessive and unethical advertising, and the stereotyping of social relationships, which can have adverse effects on minors and children. International regulatory bodies and communication experts agree that civil society should monitor the work of the media, while the media resist such oversight.

**Dependency is our fault**

New technologies are changing, or better said, decentralizing society. Everything is accessible to everyone, and it is possible to handle information in whatever way someone wants. It is essential to know that this handling must be ethical and moral, especially in the journalism profession, which aims to report faithful reproductions of events truthfully and fairly. In line with these changes, the question arises: does this ethics change in parallel with changing technologies and media? Theoretically, no, but in practice, it is a slightly different story. Information and computer ethics rely on a broad range of values, in addition to freedom as a value. Approaches related to theories of the good life require a value-oriented integration of IT into society and an individual's life. The ease of manipulation on the internet, social media, and forums is one of the reasons why theory is not used in practice. Of course, that is not an excuse because every person carries that ethical norm within them, which does not allow the use of any medium for unethical purposes. "In any case, technology - new media - is not to blame for various excesses. Most decisions are the result of an individual's previous communication practices, beliefs, and the use of e-communication for certain purposes. If individuals see e-communication as a playground for expressing their views towards other people, it will sooner or later reflect in their communication," emphasizes Danijel Labaš in his work "Interpersonal Communication, New Media, and Ethics. "This means we are responsible for what we say and do on the internet. Dependency is also our fault because social media does not force us to log in and comment on someone's posts. Starting from there, ethics must remain the primary and unquestionable item in new media because that is the only way we can live well and use the information provided. The need to be constantly online and inform friends about what is happening (or not happening) while sitting at the computer is what leads us to addiction problems and issues that arise when we need interpersonal communication instead of using the computer. The internet is good as long as we do not become dependent on it, just like anything else. It is essential to know that nothing can replace face-to-face communication, and ethics must not be compromised by anything, not even the drastic changes that await us in the future. (Ana Milas, 2013.)[3]

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[3] Milas

## Conclusion

Moral questions relate to the essence of what someone could, can, and should do to achieve a specific goal. Like most human actions and behaviours, ethical acts involve a subject or agent who decides to do something in a certain way to achieve a specific goal. There is an agent, a way of doing something, and there is a goal. Some moral theories have focused on the moral agent or actor because they assume that the how and the goal are not essential to the overall moral character of the act. The media has a significant impact on society and greatly contributes to connecting different parts of the world. Thanks to technological advancements in recent decades, news is transmitted more easily and quickly, allowing easier access to desired information. New technologies like the internet do not bring changes to fundamental ethical questions, which are encountered in other media besides the internet, even before the internet existed.

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