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Assessing Sustainability of a Comprehensive Community Initiative: Insights from Zimbabwe

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Abstract

Program sustainability remains a key concern for communities, governments, development practitioners, academics, and funding agencies. The failure of development interventions to survive beyond donor funding remains unexplored empirically in African development contexts, yet such knowledge is fundamental in driving a sustainable community development agenda. This study explored program sustainability issues for the Mhakwe Comprehensive Community Initiative (CCI) in Zimbabwe, a social experiment that was funded by the WK Kellogg Foundation between the periods 2004-2010. The key question addressed is; what key factors affect sustainability of CCIs? A mixed methods research methodological approach was applied. It combined experiential knowledge from action research, quantitative surveys, focus group discussions and key informant interviews. Qualitative data were analysed using thematic reviews while quantitative data were analysed using binomial logistical regressions for evaluating factors affecting sustainability and chi square tests of independence for association among variables. The study concludes that fundamental factors that significantly impact on sustainability of CCIs are; approaches adopted in defining project boundaries; strategies for beneficiary selection ; accountability of community coordinating institutions; mental models within the community on the role of funding agencies; perceptions on project ownership; local power dynamics; inter Non Governmental Organisation (NGO) relations at the local level; over expectations by communities; CCI lifespan; and CCI focus versus community expectations. The study concludes that these factors should be incorporated during the planning and learning phases of CCIs.

Key Words: Program Sustainability; Comprehensive Community Initiative; Mhakwe; Zimbabwe

1. Introduction

The concept of sustainability has become a ‘buzz’ word in the community development discourse. The concept has diverse arrays or genres of applications, ranging from program sustainability, sustainable development, and sustainable livelihoods, among others. Within the evaluation enterprise, emphasis has been placed on program and impact sustainability. The former is concerned with, why most programs collapse at the end of funding periods and how programs can continue with activities and or upscale beyond donor funding periods. The latter is based on the need for impacts that improve development without eroding the resource base for future generations. In simple terms, this interrogates how impacts are socially, economically and environmentally friendly. This paper is concerned with program sustainability. It is a common concern for community development practitioners, funding agencies and communities. Formative and summative evaluation by most development agencies and Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) fall short in fully addressing program sustainability.

There has been talk on the demise of some once successful projects and programs towards “white elephants” within the development discourse in Zimbabwe. This phenomenon has mostly referred to projects (mostly infrastructural) that become dysfunctional after donor funding elapses and what remains are just un-utilized physical structures. Empirical research on these aspects is scarce in Zimbabwe although there are speculative discourses on the causes of such a phenomenon. These discourses among development practitioners normally points at issues around lack of ownership, poor community consultation, not paying attention to priority community needs, poor participation, the need for bottom up approaches, and increasing donor dependency by communities. How true are such assertions? This paper offers empirical evidence on this subject.

According to Mancini and Marek (2004) the lack of empirical research on program sustainability forms a huge gap in understanding processes and programming of community development projects. Understanding program sustainability normally goes beyond typical evaluation practice. Chelimsky, 2014 succinctly summarises the challenges through the following quotation:

“....Not only have intervention failures over time been difficult to predict, but the question of sustainability itself tends to fall outside current evaluation thinking, timing and functions....” (Chelimsky, 2014:527)

The issue of program sustainability is at the core of this paper. The key research question addressed is; what factors affect sustainability of the Mhakwe Comprehensive Community Initiative? The Mhakwe Comprehensive Community Initiative is used as a case study and is described in the proceeding sections.

2. Exploring the concept of program sustainability

The concept of sustainability is viewed differently in various disciplines and dimensions. This makes it necessary to explore some of the labels attached to it in different disciplines before focusing on program sustainability. For example, in Biology it is viewed as, avoiding extinction and living to survive and reproduce (Costanza and Pattern, 1995:193) and in Economics it is concerned with avoiding disruptions and collapses, hedging against

instabilities and discontinuities (Nkala, 2012). In recent years, in the corporate sector there has been an upsurge on the need for sustainability reporting where social and environmental concerns are incorporated into company accounts and audits since traditional financial accounting, auditing and reporting do not incorporate them (Farneti and Guthrie, 2009). In the human development discourse, the concept of sustainability as an organising theme for development stemmed from the 1987 United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). Within this framework, sustainable development is defined as development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Berke and Conroy, 2000).

Chelimsky (2014: 527) defines program sustainability as, the continued use of components and activities for the achievement of desired programme outcomes. Within this definition, Chelimsky further identifies three important factors when considering evaluations, these are; the extent to which interventions tackle priority problems; continuity over time and whether changes in community priorities contribute to success or failure. Mancini and Marek (2004: 562-563) identify seven critical elements of Program Sustainability. These include; leadership competence, effective collaboration, understanding the community, demonstrating program results, strategic funding, staff involvement and integration, and program responsiveness. Leadership competence focuses on the ability of leaders to establish goals and develop clear plans which they implement and evaluate. Effective collaboration pertains to the identification of relevant stakeholders who understand and support program goals, have clear roles and responsibilities, and are actively involved in the program.

Understanding of community implies having knowledge of community needs and resources, having respect for community members, and involving key community members in programs. Demonstration of results involves applying appropriate evaluation tools that express valid outcomes and impacts while strategic funding entails funding mechanisms that empower the community and reduce external dependence. There is need for inclusion of committed, qualified staff throughout the project cycle. Responsivity is the ability of a project to adapt programming to meet changing community needs. The definition in this paper is adopted in the context of continued use beyond external program funding. These factors are in line with Scheirer (2005) who identified three critical factors in measuring or determining program sustainability; continued program activities; continued measured benefits and maintained community capacity. In this paper, the factors considered for sustainability are drawn from community perceptions on what the community consider as critical in enhancing sustainability of the Mhakwe Comprehensive Community Initiative in Zimbabwe.

3. The Mhakwe Comprehensive Community Initiative

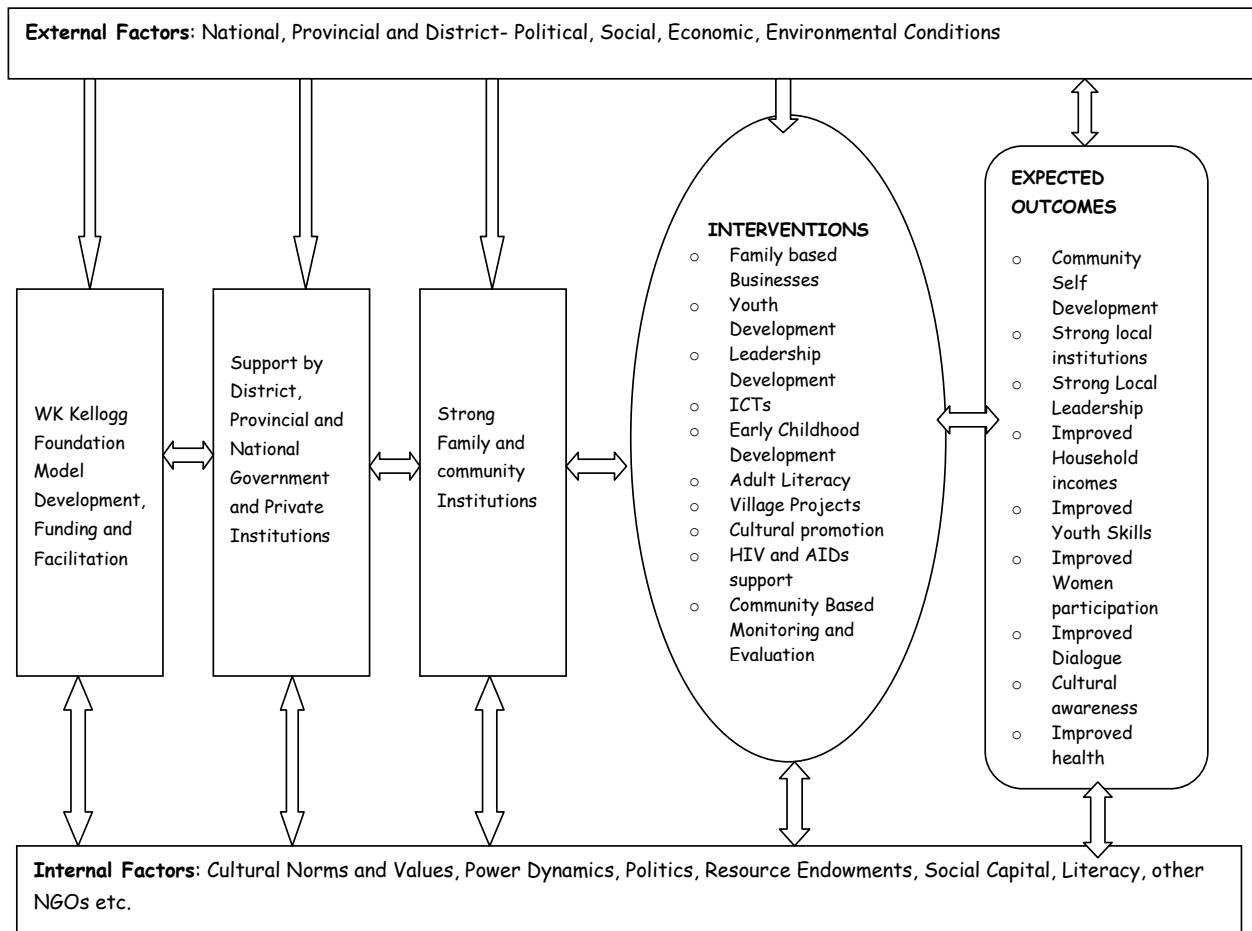
Comprehensive Community initiatives (CCIs) present a shift from project specific interventions towards a multi-faceted approach that aims at community wide socio-economic transformation. They cover multiple development sectors (health, social services, leadership development, information communication technologies, youth development, institutional strengthening, women empowerment, and entrepreneurial development). CCIs engage multiple stakeholders including government departments, community based organisations, private sector companies, research and academic institutions. They are shift from developmental approaches that view communities as recipients of aid and empower communities through decision making and financial control. Communities are viewed as partners in developing community led local development solutions. They encourage local

solutions for local development through utilisation of local resources, indigenous knowledge and community strengths. They are viewed as an emancipatory approach that develop capacity for self development within communities and reduces dependency on external assistance. They assume that communities have latent knowledge and competencies, which when activated, can solve most local developmental challenges. Although the origins of CCI date back to the war on poverty in United States of America in the 1950s they gained prominence in the 1990s due to the realisation of the multi-dimensional nature of poverty which needs holistic approaches for interventions.

Mhakwe Ward is located in the Eastern Highlands of Zimbabwe (See Map 1). The Mhakwe CCI was funded by the WK Kellogg Foundation from 2004-2010. It was viewed as an empowerment approach that built community competencies for self-drive. These competencies included capacities to; envision a better future; plan; self correct; create strategic alliances; manage own resources; implement programs *etc.* Such an approach was deemed sustainable due to its empowerment agenda that would reduce perpetual dependence on foreign aid towards self driven community development. The CCI focused on a number of sectors including; leadership development; strengthening of local development institutions; Information Communication Technologies (ICTs); resuscitating dialogue for development; entrepreneurial development. The theory of change for the Mhakwe CCI is outlined in Figure 1. The program assumed that strengthening institutions (from the family, village and ward) would enhance community self-drive. Strengthening of these institutions was driven by strategic investments in family, village and ward projects. The whole process was driven by interventions that promoted transformational local leadership. Traditional leadership, elected leadership, youths and women leaders were taken through periodic leadership development training programs throughout the lifespan of the project.

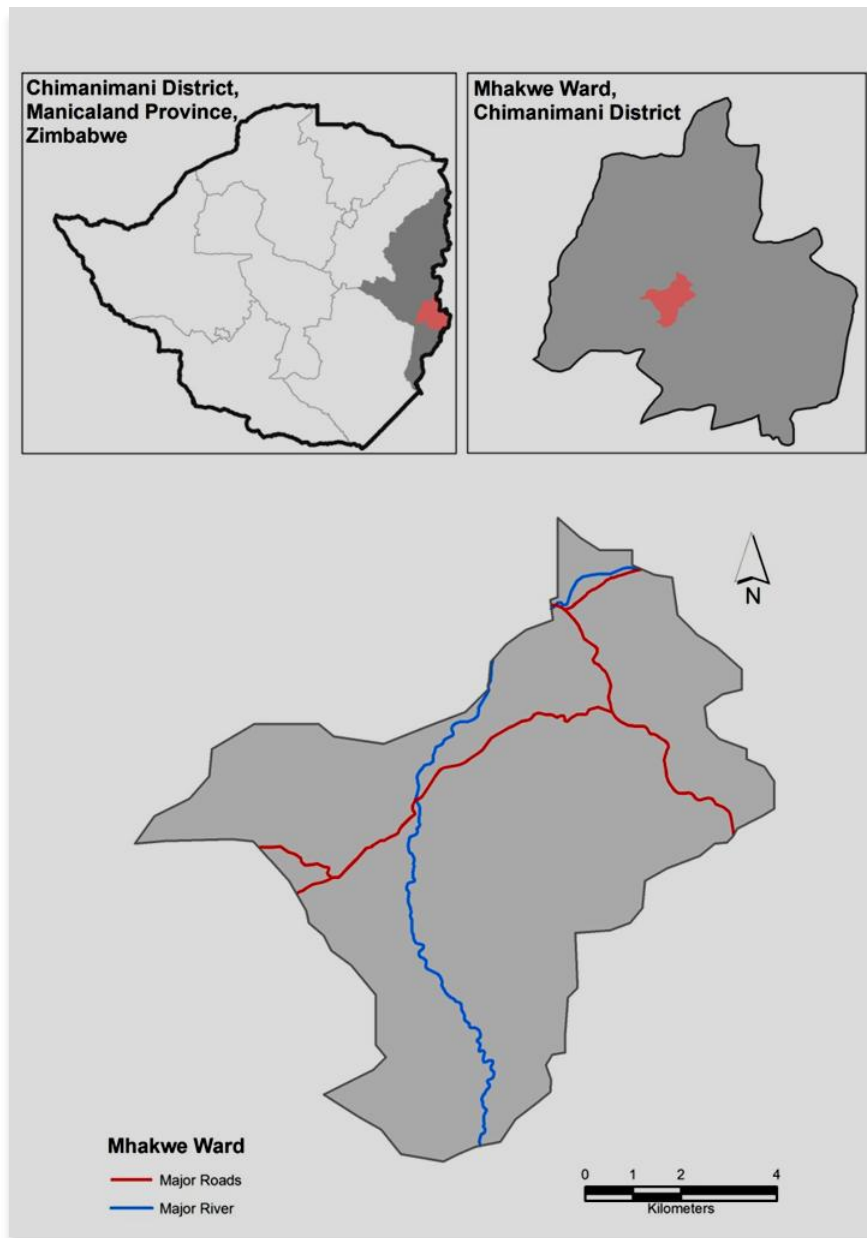
Towards the end of the funding period in 2010, The WK Kellogg foundation commissioned a summative evaluation. There was evidence of project impacts that included; transformed local leadership capacities; improved incomes from family based business enterprises; active involvement of youths and women in mainstream community development and renewed belief in local solutions to development (Tirivanhu *et al.*, 2015). However, an analysis of the sustainability of these impacts was beyond the scope of the evaluation. This forms the basis of this study and our aim is to assess factors that impact on sustainability of the Mhakwe CCI.

Figure 1: The Mhakwe CCI Theory of Change



Source: Tirivanhu *et al.*, (2015)

Map 1: Location of Mhakwe Ward in Chimanimani District of Zimbabwe



Source: Michela du Sart

4. Methodological issues

This paper utilised a mixed methods research approach. Qualitative data were collected from two processes. Firstly, through an Action Research process where the main author was engaged with the Mhakwe community from 2004-2010 as a Development Facilitator. Action Research included cycles of planning, action, reflection and learning. Data was consolidated from field notes, informational interactions, minutes of community meetings, community recordings (Video and audio); participation in community events (cultural festivals; community gatherings); interactions with representatives of various NGOs working in Mhakwe; community newsletters and participation in village and ward development committee meetings. Secondly Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and Key Informant Interviews (KII) were conducted in August 2013. A total of four (4) FGDs were conducted

with representatives of youths, women, opinion leaders and traditional leaders. Quantitative data were collected using a structured questionnaire using random clustered sampling. The community was clustered into twenty eight (28) socio- economic clusters representing development sectors. Samples were then randomly selected from the clusters. A total of sixty five households (n=65) were randomly selected from a sampling frame of 117 households. Qualitative data were analysed using thematic reviews. Quantitative data were analysed using binomial logistic regression models in assessing factors that significantly affected selected social phenomenon and chi-square tests of independence utilised to assess association among variables.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Defining Project Boundaries

The issues of boundaries for CCIs are important in defining what is taken to be pertinent interventions. Midgley (2000) and Checkland (2009) tackle the importance of boundaries in detail. The decision about what is brought in and what is left out with regards to interventions does have impacts on program sustainability. In the Mhakwe CCI, although the design followed a highly consultative process with the community, some sections of the community felt that the design and the prioritisation of interventions were flawed. The following selected quotation from a KII with a school leader expresses some of the concerns.

“...the program was suppose to start with bread and butter issues and life changing projects like micro-irrigation and gardens or drilling boreholes...this would have addressed health and well being issues...”

Results from the interviews (n=65) indicate that there was a significant association between the perceptions on whether or not priority issues were addressed and the belief that the projects should not continue and community should focus on folding up activities. ($X^2_1=7.1042$; $P = 0.008$). Such a scenario indicates possible lack of willingness to sustain the project since there is belief of its irrelevance in addressing priority community issues.

5.2 Community Perceptions on Program Sustainability of the Mhakwe CCI

A Binomial Logistic Regression with Dummy variables (1=Sustainable and 0=Not Sustainable) was run to determine factors that significantly affect individual perceptions of community members on program sustainability (n=65). The factors are shown in Table 1 with two factors; beneficiary status and perceptions on the role of NGOs being statistically significant ($P<0.05$). Other factors include; leadership position within the community, perceptions on whether or not project objectives were attained; village of residence; gender, age, and highest level of education.

Table 1: Binomial Logistic Regression Results for community perceptions on Sustainability of the Mhakwe CCI

Perceptions on Program Sustainability	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Leadership Position	0.153071	0.8650628	0.18	0.86	-1.54242	1.848563
Beneficiary Status	1.997013	0.8996974	2.22	0.026	0.233639	3.760388
Perceptions on achievements of objectives	-1.150898	0.850299	-1.35	0.176	-2.81745	0.515657
Village	0.2171921	0.2173045	1	0.318	-0.20872	0.643101
Gender	-1.36745	0.7906536	-1.73	0.084	-2.9171	0.182203
Age	-0.1282697	0.4191043	-0.31	0.76	-0.9497	0.69316
Highest Education Level	-0.443642	0.4198346	-1.06	0.291	-1.2665	0.379219
NGO Perceptions	0.6619359	0.2199784	3.01	0.003	0.230786	1.093086
_cons	0.6497679	3.027468	0.21	0.83	-5.28396	6.583496

Log likelihood = -28.130115; Prob > χ^2 = 0.0005; Pseudo R^2 = 0.3329

Experiences from action research in Mhakwe and expressions from FGDs indicate that selection of beneficiaries was a thorny issue in the Mhakwe CCI. Although a community targeting process was utilised for beneficiary selection where the community developed the criteria and conducted their own selection process, there were high levels of resentment from non beneficiaries. In fact most of them felt that the program benefited the wrong group of people. The following selected quotations from FGDs with youths held on 28 August 2013 at Mhakwe Primary School illustrates the point:

“...there are some people who were left out in the program but they were the real people. The disabled in particular and yet Kellogg Foundation came to work with the poorest of the community....”

“...the same people, especially the Village Heads were involved in training, leaving behind the rest of the people. The program gave priority to local leadership at the expense of general community members...”

Such concerns have impact on sustainability. For example survey results show a significant association between participation in community dialogue and beneficiary status ($\chi^2_3 = 9.4121$; $P = 0.024$). Most non beneficiaries isolated themselves from the program. Such a scenario has serious consequences towards program sustainability since some of those individuals were influential community members including retired civil servants who would normally offer technical assistance to traditional leaders. The significance of perceptions on roles of NGOs, in the context of the Mhakwe CCI is described with the issue of Mental Models. These are deeply rooted beliefs around phenomena. Survey results indicate that 24% associated NGOs with free money; 20% with agricultural input provision; 15% with unsustainable projects 10% with helping during disasters and the remaining associating NGOS with politics, helping governments and provision of training. There seem to be a belief that NGOS offer temporary assistance and thus communities will likely think beyond sustaining NGO activities.

5.3 Institutional arrangements and program sustainability

In the Mhakwe CCI, NGO operations were highly fragmented during the conceptual phases. Due to the comprehensive nature of the CCI approach which entailed integrating all community sectors there was need for rationalising their work as the program progressed. This resulted in ‘swallowing’ some ongoing projects within diverse sectors that were already being run by other NGOs. Such an approach encroached into investments by other NGOs. Although the Chimanimani District Council had an NGO entry and operational policy, coordination of NGO activities on the ground was poor. There was fighting for space and recognition. Some NGOs started creating parallel “community facilitation structures” and these were getting labels in line with the specific programs that they served. Most of these labels were not approved by the community. Such dynamics brought confusion and defeated the purpose of the Mhakwe CCI which aimed at bringing systemic community transformation through strengthening existing local institutions. Although an NGO coordination forum was established at a later stage during the CCI implementation process, such an arrangement could not be sustained since it required operational costs. In addition NGO projects have different life spans with some creating new structures and departing within a year.

Focus Group Discussions with Opinion leaders held in August 2013 brought another dimension. The community felt that the CCI failed to institutionalise community human capital development. This was identified as a key loophole to ensuring program sustainability. This is echoed in the following selected quotation:

“...the program was supposed to be run by dedicated members of the communities, not salaried of course. The community was supposed to have competent human resources who were suppose to be trained to run the program with development partners. Failure to have local human resources gave a vacuum during the absence of development partners making the program a flop...”

5.4 Program Ownership

There is a belief that ownership of development programs strengthens responsibility for performance and sustainability (Bennett *et al.*, 1996:273). Although a majority of respondents from the questionnaire survey (91%) indicated that they felt the program served the interests of the community, there were mixed feelings regarding program ownership. While a majority (60%) felt that the community owned the program, 15% felt it was owned by traditional leaders, 10% by the Mhakwe development Trust, and 15% felt it was owned by the WK Kellogg Foundation. Community dialogue sessions and reflection meetings pointed some issues that affected perceptions on ownership. Firstly there was focus by the program on strengthening local leadership through experiential learning where Village heads were given funds to initiate village level projects. This process was introduced midway the project and community members felt the decision was imposed on them. Such a scenario brings to the fore, this risks of deviating in decision making by development facilitators from community based decision making towards what facilitators might feel as strategic interventions to drive the CCI agenda. Secondly although the CCI focussed on community wide transformation, community members who were not benefiting directly from project financing were isolated from some community meetings. Such members felt they didn’t own the program. Such scenarios, according to some community members would likely affect sustainability since some of the isolated members were strategic in the community.

5.5 Accountability of Community Coordinating Institutions and Local Power Dynamics

The Mhakwe CCI was coordinated at the community level by the Mhakwe Development Trust. Prior to the implementation of the CCI, the Trust acted as a technical committee that provided advice to traditional leaders. The CCI model empowered the Trust to become the conduit for all community funds. This created power imbalances since some traditional leaders felt the Trust was now losing accountability to them and the community. The Trust was now making some autonomous business decisions without the consent of some traditional leaders. This, according to some community members created divisions within the community which not only affected the sustainability of the Mhakwe CCI but relations were strained to the extent of affecting future programs.

5.6 Over expectations by communities, CCI lifespan and shifting focus of NGOs

The Action research process revealed some weaknesses on the part of funding agencies and NGOs with regards to raising expectations and not fulfilling plans. An example was given that the WK Kellogg Foundation for example had made various investment promises in infrastructure development such as bridges which were never fulfilled. Instead, it kept redesigning its programs every three years and changing focus. Such situations were taken to lead to lack of trust and commitment by some sections of the community. This was said to erode efforts by the community to plan or invest in program sustainability plans and strategies since in the past some projects were ended abruptly before their planned life cycle elapsed.

6. Conclusion and lessons for the CCI Enterprise

This paper explored factors affecting program sustainability for the Mhakwe Comprehensive Community Initiative in Zimbabwe. Findings from the study revealed that such factors include; defining of project boundaries; institutional arrangements for NGOs and other local support institutions; community ownership; accountability of coordinating institutions; over expectations by communities; CCI lifespan and CCI focus versus community expectations. Factors that were found to significantly affect community Perceptions on program sustainability included beneficiary status and perceptions on the role of NGOs. This paper concluded that these factors should be taken into account during the whole project implementation and learning cycles for CCIs. Evaluations should factor such factors in their designs, this will help improve rural development practice, elevate impacts of CCIs and allow a more sustainable social transformation process.

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ASSESSING THE IMPACT
OF
CITIZEN LED ASSESSMENTS

Citizens led assessment, started in India, in 2005, has been recognized as an important instrument to bring children's learning to the forefront. It is acknowledged as an effective model to measure learning outcomes of children and initiate citizen led action. This paper aims to analyze the impact of citizen led assessments, using the case of a citizen led assessment in India, the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER).

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Sunday morning, two young men, drive through the highway, lost midway, meander through the roads, and reach a small village on the outskirts of Lucknow, India. The mangoes up on the trees, sour and small, look hardly appealing. As curious onlookers surround them, they explain the purpose of their visit. An educational survey to test the learning outcomes of the children of the village. They finally reach the last house, folded the assessment tool and begin assessing the only child of the house, watched by a curious mother, trying to understand, if her young child, can actually read basic sentences or do basic math. The surveyor looks up as he records the level of the boy, a standard V child incapable of solving a basic subtraction. The mother realizes that despite five years in school, her child is unable to solve a simple math problem, and is way below his required grade level and with her, so did the rest of the country.

Was this story only in India? Was only the largest democracy in world unable to provide quality to its children or were children across the world, were in school, but NOT learning well?

The Millennium Development Goals (MDG's), framed in 2000, aimed that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.¹ As the world adopted the MDG's, countries across the world made advancements in enrollment. Higher enrollments were cheered and more and more children across the world had access to a school. But somewhere, this goal, focused on achieving universal enrollment, equated access to learning, assuming that if children were going to school, they would naturally be learning.

When the ASER model first crossed the Indian border with, ASER Pakistan in 2008; the sentiments echoed in both the countries were same, that of declining learning levels. As the survey travelled from the subcontinent to countries such as Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Mali, Senegal, Mexico and most recently Nigeria, the story more or less remained the same, that access alone cannot guarantee learning. Ordinary citizens, across continents, countries and villages, year after year, have informed us, that children despite being in school were not learning well.

Over the last 10 years, coinciding with the time frame of the implementation of the MDG's, starting with ASER India, ordinary citizen, armed with a simple tool have taken cognizance of the learning crisis. The ASER model, now PAL (People's Assessment for Learning), reaching out to over one million children across 9 countries, spread over 3 continents, home to some of the poorest people on the planet, has been at the forefront of generating hardcore evidence of lower learning levels.

INTRODUCTION: WHAT, HOW AND WHY of CITIZEN LED ASSESSMENTS

CHALLENGE

School enrollment is rising in countries across South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. In some countries like India, over 96 percent of children are in school. Universal schooling is a goal that is accepted by global bodies, national governments and local communities. Every country has a strategy to ensure that all children are enrolled in school; families and communities, and schools have been working toward universal enrollment.

Now the critical question facing us: Are children learning?

APPROACH

To answer this question, an innovative approach to learning assessment has been implemented in several Asian and African countries. Using basic reading and arithmetic tasks, these countries have begun to assess for themselves what their children are able to do. The model began in India in 2005 and has been adapted for use in Pakistan (since 2008), Tanzania, Kenya and Uganda (2009), Mali (2011), Senegal (2012), Mexico (2014) and recently initiated in Nigeria.

Citizen led assessment of basic learning have three primary objectives:

- To put children learning at the center of debates and discussions on education in their own countries
- To engage citizens in understanding their own situation and strengthening accountability
- To promote government, parent and citizen action to improve children's learning.

Table1: Citizen Led Assessments across the world

2005	2008	2009	2011	2012	2014	2015
Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) launched in India	Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) launched in Pakistan	Uwezo launched in Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda	Beekunko launched in Mali	Janagdoos launched in Senegal	Medicion Independiente de Aprendizajes (MIA) launched in Mexico	LEARNigeria launched in Nigeria

THEORY OF CHANGE

The core theory of change being brought to focus by these efforts is that by generating new data around (the lack of) student learning, the public will increase its demands for educational reforms, and policy makers and service providers will be compelled to respond to those demands through increased investments in and smarter design around key educational programs.

MODEL OF CITIZEN LED ASSESSMENTS

The assessments use rigorous sampling methodologies and generate representative sample of children at national and sub-national level. The assessment tools are designed to be simple so that parents, teachers, schools, communities and ordinary people understand the findings and can conduct assessment themselves. Together, these efforts provide large scale, annual, easily understandable indicators of children's ability to read simple text and do basic arithmetic operations.

Unlike other large scale learning assessments, this approach is led by citizen groups and has emerged from the global South. Interestingly, these initiatives are independent; there is no international coordinating body. They have evolved organically and the groups have come together voluntarily. The model was transplanted from one country to another and adapted to suit each country's context.

The roll out of a citizen led assessment, starts with a parent organization, supported by local partners, training volunteers to conduct the two day assessment. The preparation of initiating a citizen led assessment is done months in advance, and checks and balances to improve the data quality process are implemented and executed during the roll out phase of each of the processes of the survey design. These include pre-screening of the master trainers, monitoring and re-check of the surveyed villages and an external recheck to ensure data quality. Additionally, villages are resurveyed or dropped from the data set in case they do not meet quality standards.

In each surveyed village, ASER is conducted over two days. The first day is usually a school day (preferably Saturday) and the second day is a holiday (preferably a Sunday). A team of 2 people surveys the village assigned to them. Surveyors are provided with a village pack containing all the tools, formats, instructions, and communications materials to be used in the village. Prior to beginning the survey, all surveyors are trained on these processes and materials during the district level training workshop.

Every year, ASER procedures to ensure data quality are reviewed and strengthened. Three key elements are involved: training of field teams, monitoring of the survey while it is in the field,

and recheck of data already collected. In recent years more than 40% of all sampled villages have been monitored, rechecked or both. Additionally, ASER has a 3 tier training process at national, state and district level. During survey, monitoring of villages is carried out by Master Trainers and representatives from the ASER team. Subsequently, rechecks are carried out via phone, field and an external auditing process, known as the external recheck.

A data entry process is designed, tested several times using dummy variables, to ensure its functionality. Data entry operators are trained either on site or telephonically on how to enter the survey data. Certain manual checks are also put in place; for example, every 5th household (4 households from each village) is cross-checked. If five or more mistakes are found in this checking then all households in the village are rechecked.

DISSEMINATING RESULTS

Dissemination is carried out at national, state and local level. Results from citizen led assessments are widely quoted in policy documents, both nationally and internationally. Additionally, dissemination is also carried via reports in print and electronic media. National and local newspapers are distributed the findings of the assessment and reports and questions are often raised about low learning outcomes. Moreover, to engage politicians and bureaucrats, reports and findings are shared via distributing the copies of the report, sharing leaflets and summary findings. Internationally, Citizen Led Assessments have indeed played a role in shifting global and system-level conversations on education to include a greater focus on quality and have been widely quoted in international reports by think tanks and multi-lateral organizations.

In Pakistan, the dissemination strategy has been innovative and intuitive and policy makers and politicians have actually joined hands as champions of citizen led assessments. Ahsan Iqbal, member of the National Assembly in Pakistan and the former minister of Education, identified himself as a champion of the ASER Survey 2012 data collection activity in Narowal District, Punjab. Moreover, the ASER 2013 Advocacy campaign started off with the release of Report at national level (16th January) at the Planning Commission of Pakistan, Islamabad followed by provincial launches at provincial capitals and district launches at selected districts

In the East Africa model, collectively done for Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, the results of the CLA are disseminated by initially sharing data with the government, followed by extensive dissemination at the state and community level.

Though, citizen led assessments are popular in the policy circuit, a general disconnect between field and policy can be observed. Considering the scale of the data collection exercise, dissemination activities are at a macro-level and rarely renew citizen engagement while disseminating the findings. Though, some innovative methods such as community meeting,

community radio, postcards have been experimented with, their reach remains limited and narrow. Teachers and community heads are not involved in communicating the findings of the survey. Additionally, the data is only representative of national and sub-national level, therefore, disseminating results at local and sub-local level does not provide reliable estimates. Moreover, additional cost and scale allow limited scope for dissemination at a local level.

ASSESSING IMPACT

GLOBAL LEVEL

CLAs have indeed played a role in shifting global and system-level conversations on education to include a greater focus on quality. The recently adopted SDG's have made a shift from access to learning. The Sustainable Development Goal number 4 aims to ensure inclusive and equitable *quality education* and promote *lifelong learning opportunities for all*. Additionally, many think tanks and multi-lateral organizations have acknowledged the role and importance of citizen led assessments in acknowledging learning is at the center-stage.

The World Bank, in its report on Student Learning in South Asia, the first comprehensive review of how education is performing and the causes and correlates of education quality in South Asia., highlights that the rapid gains in enrollment have not been accompanied by commensurate in learning levels, with the average level of skill acquisition in South Asia being low by national and international standards. A major reason for that is that throughout the 2000s, most South Asian countries focused on (a) achieving universal access to primary education and (b) sustained investments in better-quality school inputs to improve the quality of primary and secondary education. The focus was not explicitly on learning outcomes; the implicit assumption was that more inputs would translate into better outcomes. It quotes data from CLAs such as ASER in India and Pakistan, to highlight low student achievement, 43 percent of grade 8 students could not solve a simple division problem. Even recognition of two-digit numbers, supposed to be taught in grade 2, tends to be achieved only by grade 4 or 5 (ASER-India 2011). Additionally, comparison between ASER data in Pakistan and India has been used as part of the report to highlight changes in achievement and declining learning levels over time.

The global monitoring report echoes the same sentiment of acknowledging the importance of citizen led assessments. Developed by an independent team and published by UNESCO, the EFA Global Monitoring Report is a reference that aims to sustain commitment towards *Education for All*. The Education for All Global Monitoring Report is the prime instrument to assess progress towards achieving the six 'Dakar' EFA goals to which over 160 countries committed themselves in 2000. It tracks progress, identifies policy reforms and best

practices in all areas relating to EFA, draws attention to emerging challenges and promotes international cooperation in favor of education.

The publication is targeted at decision-makers at the national and international level, and more broadly, at all those engaged in promoting the right to quality education – teachers, civil society groups, NGOs, researchers and the international community. The 2013/4 EFA Global Monitoring Report states that some civil society organizations have drawn government attention to the need for reforms and supported local communities in their demands for better learning outcomes in schools. In India, for example, the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) produced by Pratham, an NGO has been influential in shaping policy and planning to improve education quality.

Additionally, USAID, in its 2011 Education Strategy Reference Material, has acknowledged the ASER and EGRA tools as the best known oral assessments, providing validity to assessing tool used in citizen led assessments.

ASSESSING NATIONAL LEVEL IMPACT

CASE: ANNUAL STATUS OF EDUCATION REPORT (INDIA)

The widespread dissemination of ASER results at the national, state, and local level has helped to focus government attention on the issue of poor learning in schools. ASER findings have been quoted and discussed in various policy documents in India. In the approach to the 11th Five year plan, developed, executed and monitored by the Planning Commission, the problem of learning was acknowledged, stating “The most difficult task is to ensure good quality of instruction.” A recent study has found that 38% of the children who have completed four years of schooling cannot read a small paragraph with short sentences meant to be read by a student of Class II. About 55% of such children cannot divide a three digit number by a one digit number. These are indicators of serious learning problems which must be addressed.”²

In the 12th Five year plan, the Planning Commission echoed the sentiments of the learning crisis. The approach paper to the 12th five year plan mentioned the following. “Despite improvements in access and retention, the learning outcomes for a majority of children continue to be an area of serious concern. Several studies suggest that nearly half the children in grade 5 are unable to read a grade 2 text. Thus, quality issues and determinants thereof such as ensuring availability of

² Approach Paper to 11th Five Year Plan, 4.3.7, Page 61

trained teachers, good curriculum and innovative pedagogy that impact upon learning outcomes of the children must be addressed on priority basis.”³

The 12th 5 year plan, coinciding with the 8th, 9th and 10th ASER reports, ensured a focus on “Improving learning outcomes is crucial for inclusive growth and, therefore, a major focus of the Twelfth Plan will be on measuring and improving learning outcomes for all children, with a clear recognition that increasing inputs (number of schools, classrooms, teachers and so on) will by themselves not be enough to ensure quality education for all children.”, ⁴quoting the ASER report and emphasizing the importance of learning outcomes in the chapter on education and skill development.

The Economic Survey of India, a flagship annual document of the Ministry of Finance, Government of India, reviewing the developments in the Indian economy over the previous 12 months, summarizing the performance on major development programs, and highlighting the policy initiatives of the government and the prospects of the economy in the short to medium term, has repeatedly quoted ASER, since 2010 as a source to “to turn the focus on the poor levels of learning outcomes achieved by children who complete five years of primary schooling.”⁵

The current economic survey in its chapter on social infrastructure, employment and human development citing ASER highlights that despite 10 years of public spending, “learning levels across the country, whether in public or private school, have not improved” ⁶

With the new government at center and the thought of a new and resurgent India, learning outcomes continue to pose a major challenge. The current Finance Minister, Mr. Arun Jaitley, on February 28, 2015 in his maiden budget speech to the Parliament, emphasized “Educating and skilling our youth to enable them to get employment is the altar before which we must all bow. To ensure that there is a senior secondary school within 5 km reach of each child, we need to upgrade over 80,000 secondary schools and add or upgrade 75,000 junior/middle, to the senior secondary level. We also have to ensure that education improves in terms of quality and learning outcomes.”⁷

Additionally, many members of parliament have raised questions on the declining learning levels across the country. Surprisingly, some of these have also been by people, who themselves have been former ministers of education. Shashi Tharoor, former Minister of State for Education, Government of India, in a question posed to Ms. Smriti Zubin Irani, Union Minister of Education, Government of India, quoting “whether as per findings of Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) brought out by a non-government organization (NGO), the reading as well as

³ Approach Paper to 12th Five Year Plan, Education and Skill Development, 10.4

⁴ Approach Paper to 12th Five Year Plan, Education and Skill Development, 10.4

⁵ Economic Survey of India (2010-11)

⁶ Economic Survey of India (2014-15)

⁷ Mr. Arun Jaitley, Minister of Finance, Budget Speech, February 28, 2015

basic arithmetic ability level of primary school students has declined in the country;”. Though, the acceptance of the findings have largely been denied by either governments in power, ASER Reports have been quoted in various parliament questions on learning outcomes, acknowledging the growing influence of citizen led assessments in the policy circuit and counted as issues of national importance.

At State level, many state level assessments have been carried to assess the learning outcome across schools. These have also been coupled with capacity building and resource sharing, largely due to the efforts of the State government. For instance in the state of Bihar, a large scale assessment exercise was carried out by Bihar Government, ASER Centre and Pratham, to improve teaching practices and learning outcomes. Throughout, this exercise there was a conscious attempt to integrate capacity building about some of the basic concept of assessments.

In conclusion, it is fair to point, that 10 years of a citizen led assessments, via the ASER model, have generated the need to focus on quality learning.

FIELD: MISSING IN ACTION?

Though, the results of citizen led assessments, have been quoted in various planning documents and policy circuits, action on improving learning outcomes has largely been exempt from the field. Though, recent documents by the Ministry of Education, focusing on the New Education Policy in India, have focused the attention on improving learning outcomes in India. The new education policy, currently under development, is following a bottom’s up approach, probably resonating with the theme of a citizen led policy outcome. In the 13 themes and questions for policy consultation on school education, ensuring learning outcomes in elementary education, continues to be a major concern. The opening paragraph clearly states, “In elementary education, despite improvements in access and retention, the learning outcomesⁱ for a majority of children continue to be an area of serious concern. Studies are showing that children are not learning the basic skills during their schooling. Many children who reach grade V cannot read simple texts and cannot do simple arithmetic calculations.”⁸

But, the question remains, does the onus of improving learning outcomes, lie solely with the government? A 2014 RCT impact assessment of ‘Uwezo’ in Kenya concluded the program had no discernible impact on either private or collective action. Moreover, data trends have shown that learning levels continue to decline and improvement in learning outcomes remains abysmally low. According to the author, Jonathan Fox, in his report on *Social Accountability: What Does Evidence Really Say* the evidence shows that multi-pronged strategies that encourage

⁸ Themes and questions for policy consultation on School Education, I.Ensuring Learning Outcomes in Elementary Education, Page 3

enabling environments for collective actions and bolster state capacity to actually respond to citizen voice offer more promising results than tactical interventions that rely on optimistic assumptions about the power of information alone to motivate collective action and influence public sector performance.

The translation of citizen led measurement into action, remains missing from the field. According to the *Results for Development Report*, there is little evidence of sustained changes at other levels. Of particular concern is the report's finding of no apparent impact on quality or learning levels. The model of citizen led assessments does not include initiating action as an intervention tool and remains solely focused on data collection and disseminating results. Moreover, relying solely on volunteer base as a way to initiate intervention often leads much to be desired and executed. Additionally, utilizing the findings of a large scale assessment survey to examine the reasons for declining learning outcomes, seem like shooting an arrow in the dark, since there could be many lurking variables, affecting learning outcomes, often contextual in nature and difficult to analyze via a citizen led assessment model.

ASSESSMENT TO ACTION: CONNECTING THE DOTS

The question remains, have citizen led assessments failed to create an impact to improve equitable learning opportunities for all. Improving learning outcomes for than a million children across 9 countries and 3 continents, is a mammoth exercise and cannot be fulfilled by the mandate of citizen led assessments alone. CLAs in their objective have only aimed to promote government, parent and citizen action to improve children's learning. Therefore, to improve learning outcomes, it requires involvement of all stakeholders and an impact oriented planning flow from national, state to the local level with support and direct involvement of the community. The onus solely cannot lie either on a citizen led assessment or on the government alone.

Additionally, the problem of declining learning levels is much deeper and cannot be solved in a day. Governments given their limited resources and capacity are incapable of initiating action alone and should harness upon the techniques developed by non-profit organization such as teaching at the right level (TARL), combined activities for maximized learning (CaMaL) etc. This should ideally be supported by community level monitoring to ensure that the system remains accountable. Special emphasis on building capacity for teachers and school administrators, along with involving the community should be at the forefront of the agenda to improve learning outcomes.

The CLAs have instrumental in bringing learning to the forefront, but they cannot be used as the magic wand to solve the learning crisis. Participation in the survey creates awareness among the community, which may or may not stimulate action. Though, recently some citizen led initiatives

to stimulate action towards improved learning outcomes such as Pratham's "Lakhon Mein Ek Campaign" or the "Shiksha Ka Sawaal" campaign, launched in partnership with 100 civil society organizations in Rajasthan, aim to fill this deficit, by channelizing collective citizen action but does these represent a bottom up mirage or the next big innovation in citizen assessment to action, remains to be seen.

In the current scenario, signs of partnership between civil society and government are being observed, based on the urgent need to improve learning outcomes. Civil society engagements can be an effective tool towards bringing the issue to light, but sustained action requires government support and long term planning. Unless the partnership is materialized, learning may continue to remain a challenge. Therefore, combining government resources and active citizen action, may be the way forward, in achieving the sustainable development goal to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

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Back to Village? Women and vocational education for rural development¹

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Abstract

This paper presents the changes in the livelihood of the rural poor in Bangladesh from 1991-2015. The preliminary findings of a field study suggest that the benefits of agro-based development strategy and women's role in the process are huge. During the last three decades, there has been an increase in rural household incomes. The rice harvest more than trebled. In giving women better health and more autonomy, family planning was one of a number of factors that did much to reduce poverty. The spread of primary education is outstanding and the proportion of girls has increased much more than that of boys. The boom in the textile industry and microcredit have put money into women's pocket. They spend on health, education and better food. Migrant workers, mostly unskilled, send their remittances back to family members in villages. And much can be achieved if the rural women are provided with skills. This would require vocational training, and a creative system of education to create skilled workers. There is a relative abundance of labour force, which provides Bangladesh with a comparative advantage in production of labour intensive goods. Technical/vocational education will make it easier both for skilled and semi-skilled workers to find a job or to start on their own, both at home and abroad. The paper concludes with the assumption that, rural people need to acquire skills in order to come out of poverty.

Key words: Bangladesh; Poverty; Rural development; Skills; Vocational education

¹ In a previous paper, TPO Rural Development Conference 2015, I have presented the achievements of Bangladesh during last three decades. This paper presents some of the challenges for Bangladesh.

Introduction

Bangladesh has been among the most difficult countries to get development projects going which really promote developmental goals. Development policies during the first two decades in post-independent Bangladesh (1971-1990), aimed at economic growth, relied on large-scale industrialization. Unlike Newly Industrialised Countries (the NICS) and the emerging economies, Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (BRICS), urban based industrialization in Bangladesh showed little success. Macro-economic policies in fact resulted in misallocation of resources, waste, policy errors (industrial policy, education policy, shortage of skilled manpower etc.). Whatever industrialization has taken place was concentrated in and around two major cities, Dhaka and Chittagong.² Rural people migrated, and are migrating to these two mega cities in search for job and ways of living. Especially readymade garment industry attracted rural women. (Rahman 2014). Enterprises, both private and state-owned showed deficit in their balance sheet. There was, and still is, growing disparity in income distribution. According to BBS data, 2015, the top 5% of the population controlled 29.62% of income compared to 18.30% in 1983-84, and 18.85% in 1991-92. The income of the top 10% is now 34.68%. The disparity is coupled by increased inequality in terms of access to job market, credit market, health services, education etc.

The development experience of Bangladesh during the last three decades, meanwhile, is, on balance, a good one. On socio-economic performances, its achievements are outstanding, and better than its neighboring countries. Its annual growth rate is lower than India, yet, it has been surprisingly good at improving the lives of the rural poor. However, its political culture seemingly appears to be a dysfunctional democracy.

In an earlier paper (Rahman 2015), I addressed the obvious question, despite a comparatively lower annual growth rate, and dysfunctional democracy, how the so called “development basket case” has managed a disproportionate poverty reduction for its amount of growth?³ Interpreting the findings of a number of studies, I have related such a development with the social organization of the economy with a strong rural connection on two major dimensions: a. increased agricultural production; and b. small-scale business activities. The combined effects of both these rural economic activities are the increased

² Major industries are medium size readymade garments, leather processing, a few pharmaceutical and chemical industries.

³ The Economist raised this question. The Economist 3rd November, 2012.

income of rural household, increased enrolment in educational institutions of the rural poor, female students in particular empowering women. In the same issue, *The Economist* further asserts that Bangladesh has become a standard for others to live upto. This paper addresses this issue.⁴ The strategy involves, first, a brief presentation of the achievements of Bangladesh during the last three decades and then some major challenges for Bangladesh. The paper concludes with a critical review of the main stream development theories and arguments for agro-based small-scale development policy.

Development in Post-independent Bangladesh: A brief review

Right after its inception as an independent state in 1971 many doubted the potential of Bangladesh. Its economic growth throughout 1970s and 1980 has been very poor, due to its devastated infrastructure, poor natural resources, and wretched politics. It became heavily dependent on external assistance for reconstructing its devastated infrastructures and its economy. In order to stimulate economic growth, both the donor organizations and the Government of Bangladesh opted for large-scale industrialization. Generous loans and credits were made available for the potential investors, who, instead of productive investments diverted loans and credits towards luxury consumption and real estate investments (Rahman 2000). Development fund went into pockets of the political and bureaucratic elite who were in charge of disbursing aid money. Bangladesh was termed as the “bottomless basket” in the 1970s. Many doubted the new nation’s potential.

During 1981-1990 there was an annual average growth of GDP of 3.7% (World Bank 1990a). Economic growth barely kept with population, which increased at an average 2.8% over the same period. In 1985-86, 51% of rural population and 65% of urban population were below poverty line. As late as 1990, Bangladesh was among the five poorest countries in the world (The World Development Report 1990). According to the 1991 Human Development

⁴ In an effort to restudy the rural development, a team of three researchers, conducted an intensive field study during December, 2015 and January 2016. The development in the mentioned areas are recognized. However, we observed some unintended outcomes, which pose challenge for agriculture sector and for the role of women in small-scale rural economic activities.

Report GNP per capital was 170 US dollars, infant mortality was 116/1000 live birth, adult literacy was 68%, life expectancy was 52 years. 84% of the population lived in rural areas, their predominant economic activity was agriculture; 60% landless depended primarily on the sale of their labor for survival. A restrictive gender division of labor limited, the ideal of female dependence on male provision limited women's room for maneuver.

In 1991, a gradual democratization process had impacts on economic growth and social development. And during the following two decades, Bangladesh has made some of the biggest gains in the basic conditions of lives of the common people "ever seen anywhere" (The Economist February 2013). The major indicators of achievements are income per person, life expectancy, education and health, especially for girls. Enrolment of girls in primary schools is than 90% (doubled in less than 10 years). Women can expect living longer than men, and remarkably, life expectancy has been as much among the poor as the rich.

The achievements in education, health, women empowerment are not a simple result of increased income or GDP per capita. The annual growth rate in Bangladesh is lower than India (about 8% yearly during the same period) but the gains of Bangladesh is greater than India. The GDP growth of post-independent Bangladesh during the first two decades (1971-1991) was 2% a year. During 1991 -2011 the rate increased to 5% a year.

Both observation and research findings show that rural households in Bangladesh have undergone major socio-economic and demographic changes. In Bangladesh, during 1970s, more than 80% of rural people lived below the poverty level. Today, it is a third of the population. A recent survey of 62 villages (Funded by Research and Evaluation Division of BRAC found the average size of rural household 4.93 in 2008 which contrasts 5.32 in 2004, 5.67 in 2000 and 6.15 in 1988. This decline is partly due to migration, partly to a fall in the ratio of children in the total population etc.⁵ As I look at it, the most significant factor is the possibility of women to make decision by their own, when to get married, when to have children and how many. Furthermore, the proportion of people aged 65+ had been on a rise- implying longer life expectancy. Presently, for the first time history the life expectancy for women is higher than that of men. In 1975 the total fertility rate 6.3. In 1993 it was 3.4, and 2010 it was 2.1. Rural women now have better health, more autonomy.

The state promoted the campaign that they had to restrain further population growth (China's one-child policy and India's forced sterilisation both date from roughly the same

⁵ The Economist, February, 2013.

time). Fortunately, Bangladesh' government lacked the power to be coercive. Instead, birth control was made free and government workers and volunteers fanned out across the country to distribute pills and advice. In 1975, 8% of women of childbearing age were using contraception (or had partners who were); in 2010 the number was over 60%.⁶

In 1975 the total fertility rate (the average number of children a woman can expect to have during her lifetime) was 6.3. In 1993 it was 3.4. After stalling, it resumed its fall in 2000. After one of the steepest declines in history the fertility rate is now just 2.3, slightly above the “replacement level” at which the population stabilises in the long term. When Bangladesh and Pakistan split in 1971, they each had a population of 65m or so. Bangladesh's is now around 160m; Pakistan's is almost 200m. Because of this Bangladesh is about to reap a “demographic dividend”; the number of people entering adulthood will handsomely exceed the number of children being born, increasing the share of the total population that works.

In giving women better health and more autonomy, family planning was one of a number of factors that improved their lot, and by so doing did much to reduce poverty. Small loans, microcredit, and small scale agricultural cultivations contributed to the welfare of the poorest of the poor, the rural women, through providing possible means by which they gained control of their economic life. This achievement, in turn, exerted pressure for social change that included child education, women's participation in the economy and politics. They now decide when to marry and to give birth and how many. The spread of primary education was one of the others (the government has been better than many at helping women this way); the proportion of girls who get schooled has increased much more than the proportion of boys. And both the boom in the textile industry and the arrival of microcredit have, over the past 20 years, put money into women's pockets.

Women became earning members in the family. Access to micro credit opened new avenues for women for earning, including new form of cultivation, a new method of agricultural production. All these have their share in increased rural household incomes. They now can spend on health, education and better food.

What impacts such changes at individual status did have for the community? In addressing this question I allow myself to present the findings of an impressive study by Dr.Eirik Jansen. Jansen observed changes that have taken place in a village near Dhaka. During 1976-1980 Jansen participated in a large poverty study carried out by the Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies in a village near Dhaka. During his recent revisit to the

⁶ The Economist, February 2013.

village he found “it was not the tractors, scooters, taxis and motorbikes that characterized the changes in the village”, but he saw “no more houses with straw on the roofs”. All the houses have corrugated iron sheets on the roofs, the walls are built with bricks and on solid elevated concrete foundations. Almost all the 100 families in the village are provided with electricity, 40 of them have their own television. Other visible improvements were access to education, clean water, sanitation system etc. The primary school is refurbished. Many families have their own water pumps in the courtyard and toilets. Microcredit and different types of training gave women the opportunity for earning and thus becoming more independent and confident (Jansen, 2010). Bangladesh shows that the benefits of making women central to development are huge.

The share of agricultural output and small scale business in terms of GDP has declined in most countries. The picture is different in Bangladesh. During last three decades, 1991-2011, rice harvest more than trebled, though the area under cultivation increased by less than 10%. In 1914, the country once supposedly doomed to dependence on food aid became a small exporter of rice. Agricultural products now have enormous economic significance. Not only employment in agricultural activities and small business provided the livelihoods for the majority of the rural families, the rural economy added more to the GDP of Bangladesh. The Economist (February 2013) claims the path through the field and microcredit. Most studies also confirm the claim.

Experiments with new varieties of vegetable, fruit show the innovative nature of the rural peasants. Floating vegetable cultivation is one example of innovation in agricultural development. In the rainy season, most lower areas become flooded, due to rain and water coming down from the Himalaya. Due to siltation and continued erosion, these mighty rivers become overflowed and most low-lying areas go under water contributing to shrinkage of arable land. There also are some fallow ditches all over the country. Those become filled-up with water. The peasants make use of those ditches for floating cultivation. After cultivation of vegetable, the peasants are using decomposed floating bed as organic fertilizers, producing seedlings of different crops on floating bed and they are minimizing cropping season in the rainy season when the main land goes under water. This new method has contributed to increased food intake of poor people, ensured them nutrition security, as well as provided the poor a new source of income.

A burgeoning consumer base was created over the last three decades, which helped to develop, and sustain a small-scale industry sector and retailing. Standard of hygiene and

health care facilities in rural areas, and in the country in general, has improved. Migration added more to the purchasing power of the rural house holding. More than 39 million migrant workers in different parts of the world remitting billions of dollars every year. The foreign exchange reserve now more than 27 billion US Dollars.

Meanwhile, the way ahead for Bangladesh seemingly appears to be slippery. Its agriculture sector is facing challenges. The production is amazing. Peasants are not getting right price. Too much dependency on migrant workers makes rural house holding as well as the Bangladesh economy vulnerable. The role of micro credit faces macro challenges. Child labour still is a social problem and drop-out rate at primary schools though reduced yet quite high. These are the challenges for Bangladesh today.

Challenges: Unintended consequences

The economic policy and industrial policy resulted in centralization of economic, academic, administrative and commercial activities. Bangladesh is urbanizing fast. The old interaction between man and nature is disrupted, which has brought a different suite of problems. The pervasive effects of urbanisation can be observed in building boom, traffic congestion, air pollution, bad sanitation, energy crisis, shortage of pure water etc. Dhaka, the capital of Bangladesh and the major commercial and industrial hub, became not only dirty, but a dying city, the most unlivable city in the world. Thousands of villages, due to massive migration, the traditional rural handicraft industries like weaving, pottery, metalworking etc., have been decimated. Those still living there, the poor peasants, meanwhile, found new ways of earning (Rahman 2014).

Agriculture has always been the major way of living for the vast majority of the rural poor. Prices of rice, lentil, oil seed etc fluctuate due to seasonal deficits that grip the countryside every year, some parts more severely than others. It is due to economic activities in rural Bangladesh that revolve around agricultural circles. There are two major periods of seasonal deficits; one from September to October and the other from March to May (Jansen 1990; Hossain 1996; Rahman 2000; Rahman 2011). December-January is the harvest season and prices of crops usually are low. A dearth may arise during lean season. Flood or drought may cause bad harvests followed by a further deficit in supply of staples and price hike in the lean season. Shortage in supply is one reason, the other is hoarding (Boyce 1983; Ravalion 1990). Traders hoard crops with the expectation of selling those later at a higher price during the lean season. Very few rural house holdings produce crops that can meet their demand for

the whole year. The lean season does not cause problems for a land owning rich family because of a surplus, or at least they have a stock necessary until the next harvest. Most poor households have to establish credit relationship with the few surplus households in order to cover the gap between the harvest season and lean season, between their income and expenditure (Jansen 1990:94). Migration, both to the urban areas and outside Bangladesh, caused increased cost of daily labour. The production cost of rice has increased but the price of rice remains low, during harvest. The outcome may be drastic since peasants now find investing in rice cultivation is very hard. The selling price varies between 30 taka and 40 take depending on the quality of rice, almost same price as it used to be 10 years ago, while the cost of production increased three fold.

Ownership of land and the right to cultivate land is based upon an arrangement of share-cropping system. The arrangement allows the land owner take 50% of the harvest. A land owner, let us say, owns 20 acres of land, which he leases out to 10 peasant households. If the yield per acre is 500 kilo grams of rice, as land owner his share is 5,000 kilogram of rice. A peasant, cultivating 2 acres of land, with his 50% gets only 500 kilograms of rice. He sells a part of his share to cover the expenses of maintaining cows, purchase of fertilizers etc. The rest he keeps for the sustenance of his family members. With the lean season approaching in September, the peasant, in acute need, borrows BDT 1000 ((equivalent to U.S.D 15, present exchange rate) from the land owner or a money lender. This amount is used for purchasing 25 kilo gram of rice. He promises to repay the amount in the coming harvest season. The price of rice may be as low as BDT 25 a kilo gram. He will have to sell 40 kilogram rice to repay 1000 Taka. He may also buy 2 kilogram rice, at BDT 40 per kilogram, from a grocery store in the locality on credit. He will require 3.5 kilogram of rice to sell in order to make the payment.

Bangladesh now has the reputation of being the pioneer and the home of largest and most efficient microcredit institutions in the world. Microcredit came to be the most favored aid policy in last three decades (Navajas, Schreiner, Meyer, Gonzales-Vega and Rodriguez Meza 2000). Microcredit, especially after Yunus was awarded Nobel prize was “branded as something that was good for the people” (Carine Roenen, 2008). However, recently, microcredit came under critical scrutiny. Many raise a question whether it is the best way to help the poorest (Buckley,1997;Rogaly,1996). They claim that the fervor for microcredit may have siphon funds from other projects that might help the poor more.

There happened some untoward incidents in India. Furthermore, a documentary by a Danish journalist questioned the efficacy of micro credit while accusing Professor Yunus

brought many people to join the bandwagon to challenge the very purpose of microcredit, including the Government of Bangladesh.

The success of microcredit, the Grameen Bank and BRAC in particular, and the program's popularity caused a tremendous increase in number of NGOs and profit making companies that entered into this business. The market became over-saturated and borrowers over-extended. There was competition among lenders. All these and a weak global economy have strained borrowers that put microcredit under microscope.

Relations between the state and microcredit organizations, in fact with NGOs in general, are contradictory. While the government proclaims its support for the NGOs, in practice those find it very difficult to get government approval for their programs. The approval procedure itself is laborious, the application forms are formulated intentionally vague, however, one can overcome all those by bribing.

In Bangladesh, there is also love and hate relationship between, the Nobel Prize winner, Grameen Bank and other NGOs. This is partly due to the Grameen's practice of moving into new arena where other organizations were working and becoming a competitor. In this regard, the NGOs run by religious organizations are the strongest opponents to the Grameen, BRAC, and other major NGOs working with education for girls, women empowerment etc. NGOs working with *madrasah* and mosques provide free accommodation, food, cloth and some stipends to those attending madrasah. The Islamic banks on the other hand give loans without interest. The NGOs with a religious purpose pose a challenge to other NGOs working with gender issues, promoting education for girls and democratization.

Finally, and most importantly, the power structure of elite networks controlling internal and external resources. Microcredit programs, to a certain extent, have dismantled the dependency of the rural poor and those have taken the larger share of development aid.

Discussion

A positive development is often attributed to good governance. Bangladesh is not an example of good governance. Bangladesh has a mixed record of Governance. In the most recent governance data (World Bank Institute) for 2005, Bangladesh scores poorly on all six indicators; political stability, regulatory quality, control of corruption, government effectiveness, and accountability. And its performance has worsened on all six indicators between 1998 and 2005. Despite poor governance, Bangladesh enjoyed relatively strong

economic outcomes. Expansion of garment industry, increased productivity in agriculture sector contributed significantly to such changes. NGOs engaged in microcredit have their shares, both for a vibrant private sector and for the state's partnership with NGOs in delivering social services and in managing natural disasters. More importantly, microcredit has been appreciated for its contribution in breaking the cycle of poverty (Catherine H. Lovel:1992), for the growth of self-confidence among women in rural Bangladesh, for taking financial services to the doorsteps of the poorest of the poor, which were beyond the practices of the traditional larger credit institutions.

The absence of good governance due mainly to the networks of power relations, which are the most effective means by which the elite of various kinds, or the patrons, maintained, and maintaining, their control over internal resources and the inflow of external resources, a major source is the aid money. The elite power networks also decide which development projects would be included in development programs, product suppliers, import agents, consultants, contractors in the process of policy making- and implementation of projects.

The Food for Work Programme (FWP) during 1975-1981) was designed to build roads and assist the landless labourers in rural Bangladesh. A CARE study showed an average of 19 percent over-reporting of the amount of work done on projects and an average of 9 percent underpayment of workers. A World Food Program study revealed a 22 percent over-reporting of work done, and a study done by the BIDS showed that workers were paid an average of 26 percent less than their entitlement. Overall, these studies reported a misappropriation rate of 30 to 40 percent. Government emergency food relief programmes had an even more abysmal record. The donors had to increase expensive monitoring of Food for Work Projects.

For the government in Bangladesh, it was not before 1985, it included the tasks of identifying the needs of the rural poor. One major strategy of its Third Five Year Plan (1985-1990) was facilitating provision of a range of financial services to rural poor through commercial banks. The most distinguishing feature of this strategy was to approach the rural employment from a close proximity at the micro-level (Hye 1996). The strategy included the policy of giving the poor access to small loans, paving the path of partnership between the state and the NGOs.

There is a new concern about what microcredit can do for the poor, for women in particular, and for the macro economy in general. Many economists and researchers have pointed out that women are easy prey for microcredit organizations. They are particularly

vulnerable to the brutal loan-collection system of microcredit institutions. Economists are also skeptic to collective liability. Susan F. Feiner, Director of Women and Gender Studies at the University of Southern Maine, points out that the ‘communal nature’ of the microcredit creates the problem of collective liability, where one women’s failure to repay her loans will result in collective punishment for the whole group. Some other found microcredit institutions using methods of collecting money that include assault and threats from the local money-collectors in the community and thus degrading women. They claim the methods add more layers of oppression to the world’s most destitute population. In my survey I found three defaulters. They diverted borrowed money to nonproductive purposes. They told, pressure came from the *samity*, the group, and from the bank. But they were never been assaulted or threatened by any bank staff. There were other sources around them. They took more loans from them but, instead of repaying the first loan, they rather used new loans for purchasing T.V, cell phone etc. Interests increased, which forced them to borrow from a third source. They became over-indebted. In one case, the borrower thought of her political connections, which she used in forgiving the debt, at least for the time being.

Concluding remarks with some theoretical reflection

The liberal model of development puts economic growth as the goal. The model recommends policy regime that includes the promotion of capital-intensive large-scale industrialization. The newly industrialized countries, the NICs, and the emerging economies, the so called BRICS countries, followed such a model and achieved tremendous economic growth. The urban biased large-scale industrialization policy is also prevalent in very many developing countries. Poorer developing societies are step by step pushed into adoption of the economic policy characterized by “Bigness” involving urbanization, heavy capital investments for mass production, centralized development planning, encouraging initiatives to self-sustaining small scale entrepreneurship in rural areas. Bigness, meanwhile, resulted in concentration of resources in the hands of a small power elite, thus widening the gap between the rich and the poor, and too little investment in rural development. The skewed resource allocation is linked to a prevailing disposition towards urban bias among decision makers and persons of influence. They make inequitable resource allocation in favour of urban areas. (Hulme and Turner, 1990: 61). Rural people are migrating to the big cities in search of job or a way of

living. The urban biased industrialization undermined the efficient peasants' role in rural developing (Lipton, 1997).

The counterpoint to the notion of Big is better, is Small is Beautiful. The contention is that small is free, efficient, creative, enduring. This school of development thinking embraces small-scale handicraft, village life-styles. It is a wisdom gathered from historical experiences. Given the problems of promoting industrialisation and urbanisation, the emphasis of this paper is on rural economy. Its focus is on agriculture and small scale entrepreneurial activities in Bangladesh.

The findings of this study further accord the assumption, of the new economic paradigm that emphasizes the idea of social business, that the only way out of poverty for the poor-particularly for the women, who strain under the yoke of unpaid domestic labour- to work and earn their own. Some academic would claim this complements the supposition of the neoliberal economics, others would claim its association with the new institutionalism. I think, the rural development model is a combination of both these perspectives. Microcredit and building social business imply, in Dr.Yunus's words, a new kind of capitalism that is meant to serve humanities most pressing needs (Interview with Dr.Yunus, Lofoten, September 2008). The microcredit sector further offers an instructive context for exploring the different programmatic implications of liberal (Putnam) and Marxian (Bourdieu) theories of social capital. Paradoxically, both perspectives find expression within the dominant "Grameen model" (double meaning implying both rural model and the Grameen model) now endorsed by most of the mainstream development agencies.

Employment in rural areas reduces the pressure on the urban areas. This resembles Gandhis idea "Back to the Village". Successful small-scale entrepreneurship shows positive, egalitarian network influence on economic and social development- Small is Beautiful.

Bangladesh is still poor and crowded. With the lowest labour costs in the world (textile

workers make about \$35 a month) it should be growing faster than China, not more slowly than India. It is badly governed, stifled by red tape and faces severe environmental problems. But in terms of the success of its grass-roots development, it has lessons for the world. But it would require a rural agro-based economy that can provide employment and hence additional income in rural areas where poverty and outmigration are common. Rural agro-economy is

simple, labour-intensive, small-scale, based on traditional technology and interaction between human beings and their social and natural environment. Poor peasants compete for scarce resources. But, when needs around they cooperate and find a solution without disrupting the interacting relationship. They adjust to the changed environment and find new ways to survive.

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Development of a theoretical model to study LGBT people living in rural areas in the United States of America

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There is no national databank regarding residential patterns of LGBT individuals in rural areas of the USA but researchers have reported some trends. Although some LGBT individuals leave rural areas for social, economic, and cultural opportunities in urban areas, some LGBT individuals prefer to live in rural communities. However, this may lead to minority stress where the stigma of being a minority in a community leads to unique stressors. In this study, sexual and gender minorities are likely to experience stress due to cultural and social attitudes in rural populations. In general, outcomes of minority stress among sexual and gender minorities include internalized homophobia, mood disorders, anxiety, low self-esteem, comorbidity, and poor body image. This appears to be exacerbated when considered the rural element where LGBT individuals living in rural areas report higher instances of smoking and substance abuse, lower self-esteem, and higher poverty than heterosexual people and/or LGBT people living in non-rural areas. This may be due to environmental circumstances in rural areas where there discrimination, lack of a LGBT community, and a lack of resources and services geared towards LGBT people. This presentations reports on the literature and a preliminary model to guide future research.

Driving Urban-Rural migration through investment in water resource management in subsistence farming

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Rural communities of South Africa are amongst the poorest communities globally. Numerous researches, strategies and initiatives have been initiated as a means to addressing the cyclical poverty amongst these communities. However, despite the concerted efforts made by government at the national and grassroots level, rural communities such as the Gunjaneni area still wallow in abject poverty. The populace of Gunjaneni often relies on subsistence farming and government grants as a means of livelihood. However, the grants are insufficient to cater for their basic needs, coupled with the impact of climate change which has adversely impacted on subsistence farming. This paucity has driven the youthful rural populace to urban centres as a means of securing a better livelihood. This mass migration has exacerbated the unemployment levels in metropolitans, resulted to an over stretch of infrastructures; hindered quality of service delivery amongst several other challenges.

In consonance to this afore pertinent concerns, this research aims to provide alternative strategies to mitigating the cyclical poverty and revamping the subsistence farming in Gunjaneni. To achieve this aim, both elements of quantitative (questionnaires) as well as qualitative (interviews) were utilised to obtain pertinent facts and statistics. A key finding in the study was the negative correlation between water shortages and subsistence farming. Additionally, the difficulties experienced by the populace of Gunjaneni are synonymous to several rural communities of South Africa who have not fully benefitted from the transformation in the post-apartheid South Africa.

As an agendum to creating a viable farming community in Gunjaneni, the study recommended the reallocation of the local municipalities surplus budget to the investment of water resource management as a strategy to transforming the subsistence farming into commercial farming, thereby creating employment opportunities for the unemployed rural as well as urban dwellers; and reducing poverty to a reasonable extent.

Keywords: *investment in water resource management, subsistence farming, urban-rural migration, rural redress.*

Improving Market Access for Smallholder Rice Producers in the Philippines

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Linking Smallholder Rice Producers to Markets

Efforts to link smallholder farm households to markets and thereby improving their market access have been a crucial part of many rural development strategies of the past decade. Functioning and accessible markets, particularly for agricultural commodities, are vital for agricultural growth to unfold its potential as a powerful driver of rural poverty reduction.

Smallholder farm households access markets as producers selling their agricultural products but also as consumers satisfying their immediate consumption needs. These markets are characterized by limited information flows, high transaction costs and power imbalances leading to limited choices and constrained bargaining power for farm households consequently depressing farm gate prices and distorting production incentives. Hence, improving market access is critical to enable farm households to enhance their food security and increase their incomes.

In the Philippines rice is one of the main agricultural commodities which not only supports the livelihoods of around 45 % of farm households but also serves as the main staple food of the country. Thus, political efforts are split between securing remunerative farm gate prices and affordable consumer prices at the same time. However, comparatively high production costs and inefficient rice marketing render this a difficult task. Consequently, improving market access for smallholder farmers in the Philippines is assumed to bridge the gap between affordable consumer prices for food security and remunerative farm gate prices for poverty reduction.

Therefore, the study sets out to analyze market access constraints of smallholder rice farmers in the Philippines in order to identify entry points and to develop specific recommendations. The latter are directed at the Better Rice Initiative Asia (BRIA) to implement its 'Better Market Linkages'-component in the Philippines. It aims at promoting market-oriented rice production and entrepreneurship, particularly in Iloilo Province.

Research Framework

In order to deliver such outputs, the study used a multi-dimensional definition of market access determinants including physical, economic and social aspects. To cover this diversity, a partial value chain and livelihoods analysis was conducted. While the value chain analysis focused on the actors, service providers and their linkages, the livelihoods analysis looked at the heterogeneous asset based of farm households and the resulting marketing strategies. Thereby, the study identified market access constraints stemming from the value chain but also from farm households' assets and capacities. Focusing on communal and municipal levels in Iloilo Province, data was collected, analyzed and validated using mainly qualitative methods.

Rice marketing in Iloilo Province involves numerous actors, such as farm households, traders, millers, wholesalers and retailers. They differ significantly regarding the handled volume and the assumed functions. While some specialize in one activity, such as aggregation or processing, others are vertically integrated exercising multiple functions along the value chain. Apart from actors directly involved in handling the product, public and private service providers offer production- and marketing-oriented support as well as financial services. Services, however, are not always sufficient or equally accessible to all to the extent that, for example, agricultural extension neglects marketing aspects and that formal financial services are rarely accessed. Farmer organizations assume a double function, on the one hand they take part in processing and marketing and on the other hand they provide valuable services to their members. Farmer organizations are recipients of government support for post-harvest facilities and service provision. Yet, farmer organizations are constrained by low capital stocks and weak governance, thus weakening the impact of such support programs.

Rice Marketing in the Iloilo Province

By analyzing the relationship amongst the rice value chain actors, four market linkages were identified. They cover (1) transactions directly with farm households (harvest linkage), (2) the aggregation of unmilled rice (aggregation linkage), (3) the selling of milled rice by processors (processing linkage) and (4) the distribution to the final consumer (distribution linkage). It became apparent that a variety of farm-to-table marketing channels exist which differ with regard to the number of actors involved and the geographic reach. While some channels are rather short, relying on a few intermediaries, others include agents brokering transactions and small-scale traders aggregating unmilled rice from various sources before selling it to processors. Identified consumer markets mainly comprise municipal markets and small retail outlets in city or village centers. Public distribution channels are known but play an insignificant role for the marketing strategies of farm households. Generally speaking, most marketing channels and their arrangements are based on long-established personal relationships, often linked to tied output-credit relationships. This inflexibility of marketing arrangements is further amplified as unreliability and misconduct among trading partners increases the importance of trusted relationships in an environment of weak contract enforceability.

While Iloilo's rice value chain provides multiple opportunities to farm households, neither the variety of marketing channels nor the marketing-related support services are equally accessible to all farm households. This is linked to the varying asset endowment and resulting marketing strategies of smallholder farm households, as shown by the livelihoods analysis. Therefore, the study developed a smallholder typology based on a qualitative assessment of smallholders' market access. It uses the marketable surplus, time of transaction, the number of accessed marketing outlets and the freedom to choose their trading party to differentiate smallholder farm households. This revealed a continuum ranging from farm households with no market orientation (group 0) over farm households with severely constrained (group 1) and limited marketing options (group 2) to farm households with marketing options (group 3). A farm gate price analysis showed that there is a correlation between the applied qualitative market access indicators and obtained prices.

The analysis of the livelihood assets revealed important inter-group similarities and differences. With regard to the similarities, farm households across all groups rely heavily on hired labour for rice production, access informal information channels, place a high importance on their social networks, have multiple income sources and engage in rice processing steps for own consumption purposes. However, it is the differences between the groups that are of importance to identify bottlenecks and respective entry points for interventions. Most profound differences were identified with regard to market-related knowledge, dependencies, the type of production financing, and access to post-harvest facilities and farm machinery. The differences in turn shape the marketing strategy of the respective farm household. While farm households with no market orientation produce rice solely for home consumption, those belonging to the other three groups access markets to sell a share of their harvest to repay debts and land rental fees as well as for income generation. Thus, three distinct marketing strategies were identified:

- Farm households with severely constrained marketing options are obliged to sell immediately after harvest often to a predetermined buyer due to cash constraints and their production-financing agreements which often come in the form of tied output-credit relationships.
- Farm households with limited marketing options are able to choose a buyer based on price considerations and some add further value to their produce by drying it. Relying on other income sources and savings for production-financing increases their freedom of choice and control over the time of transaction.
- Farm households with marketing options store dried unmilled rice and wait for higher prices during lean season. Sometimes, they even engage in further processing steps and sell milled rice. Business orientation and capital stocks enable them to take control over their marketing.

In accordance with the identified marketing strategies, improving market access means to empower smallholder farm households to take control over their own rice marketing practice by increasing their ability to freely choose from the existing range of marketing opportunities and to freely decide upon the time of transaction. Therefore, they need access to financial capital, post-harvest facilities and information as well as favourable market linkages and access to adequate infrastructure. These market-related needs are based on group-specific and cross-cutting challenges, which hinder farm households to improve their marketing strategy. Main bottlenecks for improving market access of farm households are the reliance on loan-based production financing through informal moneylenders, the limited availability of drying and storage facilities particularly at harvest time, low bargaining power and the difficulty to find new business partners due to insufficient information. Poor rural road infrastructure and insufficient water supply affect farm households of all groups.

Intervention Areas to Improve Market Access

Potential development interventions targeting market access of smallholder farm households, therefore, have to address one or more of the market-related needs and the identified bottlenecks. Five intervention areas have been identified:

- **Increase access to financial capital.** This can be achieved by improving the financial inclusion through needs-oriented financial product development and capacity building strengthening the bankability of smallholder farm households. Another option is to promote on- and off-farm diversification by implementing integrated farming and livelihood diversification programmes. A third possibility is to decrease production costs through the promotion of labor-saving technology adoption or low external input farming practices.
- **Expand access to post-harvest facilities.** In order to do so, their availability needs to be improved through a mobilization of public and private investment. Farmer organizations have to be strengthened to make better use of public subsidies for post-harvest facility investments. Further, smallholder farm households' accessibility is to be strengthened by developing quota and incentive schemes as well as by modifying usage fees and quantity requirements to smallholder farm households' realities.
- **Improve market linkages of smallholder farm households.** It requires strengthening existing market linkages by enhancing bargaining power, supporting collective action and facilitating intra-value chain coordination. Possible activities include the provision of quality infrastructure to establish fair price building mechanisms, capacity building for farmer organizations and the development of a code of conduct by all value chain actors. Market linkages can also be improved by promoting access to and use of additional market opportunities, such as niche markets and the valorisation of rice by-products.
- **Enhance access to market information.** In order to so, timely and accurate market information, including prices, demand and weather forecasts, need to be distributed by independent sources. Further, knowledge exchange among farm households on marketing- and farming-related topics has to be facilitated with the help of external support. In addition, agricultural extension services have to enhance the incorporation of management and business skills into trainings.
- **Strengthen physical infrastructure** through improving public transport infrastructure and enforcing construction of new and rehabilitation of existing irrigation facilities. Investments into infrastructure should be made based on a close consultation with local authorities to achieve the best impact.

Project-specific Recommendations for Action

Taking BRIA's 'Better Market Linkages'-component's objective, the remaining project duration and its level of operation into account, feasible and promising recommendations have been developed based on the identified intervention areas. In order to achieve the objective to promote market-oriented rice production, entrepreneurship and market linkages, the study team recommends implementing activities targeting the following outputs:

- **Enable farmers to pro-actively improve their marketing.** Here, it is advisable that BRIA targets the availability and access to information, the capacity to make informed decisions and the ability to address product requirements that are market channel specific. It is expected that through the improved availability and access to market information as well as a better capacity to make use of such information, market incentives work more efficiently, thus improving market orientation. It is recommended to:
 - Establish peer-learning platforms for smallholder rice farmers on local level to initiate knowledge-sharing on existing marketing opportunities and their potential;
 - Review existing Training-of-Trainers modules to systematically incorporate marketing-related topics and services;
 - Organize networking events to facilitate the establishment of personal relationships among possible new trading partners.
- **Strengthen farmer organizations as favorable market linkage** for smallholders. Here, it is recommended that BRIA focus on farmer organizations' internal management structures, their rice marketing practices and their accountability to smallholder farm households' needs. It is expected that better-managed farmer organizations, that are able to improve their rice marketing and, at the same time, consider all their members' needs, serve as favourable market linkage for smallholder farm households. It is recommended to:
 - Support stakeholders delivering management trainings to farmer organizations to improve their internal governance structures;
 - Establish good practice learning platforms among farmer organizations to showcase benefits of well-managed organizations;
 - Develop an incentive system to have farmer organizations improve their service delivery to smallholder rice farmers.
- **Enhance collaborative action within the rice value chain** to seize existing potentials. Here, it is advisable that BRIA initiates intra-value chain exchange platforms. It is expected that improved intra-value chain exchange increases coordination and collaboration among actors resulting in efficiency gains, higher resilience towards challenges and new product development which also benefits smallholder farm households. It is recommended to:
 - Engage in a participatory value chain development process bringing different value chain actors together in a series of workshops to support locally grown solutions;
 - Use agricultural fairs to facilitate personal business relationships and initiate product development.

It is considered most effective that the three intervention areas are addressed at the same time, promoting improved market linkages for individual farmers, facilitating new marketing arrangements for farmer organizations and contributing to additional value-generation for the rice value chain and intra-value chain exchange.

This summary is based on a GIZ/BEAF funded study conducted by the Center for Rural Development. For the full publication please refer to <https://www.sle-berlin.de/index.php/en/sle-studies/publications>.

“Kafr Wahb” Village as A Case of Social Innovation Social Innovation in Rural Community Development in Egypt

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Abstract

As a fact, rural Egypt has been struggling with many challenges varying from social, economic, ecological levels. Traditional approaches of rural community development focuses on only agricultural, as the economic base to enhance living conditions in such areas.

Social innovation as an alternative approach in development attracts many researchers, since by its nature is a multi-disciplinary. – It cuts across many sectors and diverse fields of action. The research aims at identifying social innovation as an alternative approach in rural community development, Identifying its contribution, actors and processes. In addition to its limitations and constraints in both internal and external environment. By using a case study approach, the research investigates the social innovation approach in “Kafr Wahb” - the Egyptian satellite village in Delta Egypt, which was promoted recently as a successful model for self-help development.

The study suggests that adopting social innovation approach in development of rural areas is crucially needed and provides the potential of sustaining the process of development. Building on social capital and social structure of rural areas enhancing the chances of wide spreading this approach within support of new policies and programmes that embedded social innovation.

However, the study conducted here is for one village proves success of local community and grassroots in developing innovative ways of service provision and generates new ideas of projects in particular yet it remains on a small scale. The research revealed multiple constraints to generalize that’s why its relevant to encourage more exploratory researches on both theoretical and practical analysis for further understanding and for more deep analysis to investigate both possibilities and limitations of scaling up. To identify how Egypt can take advantage from open and cooperative networks of, active citizens and communities. The research findings recommend that Social innovation needed to be developed more in coherent strategies for more proactively environment where social innovation operates regarding encouraging entrepreneurship programmes and building capacities in non-profit sector.

In the meantime, the research also recommends that conducting social innovation contribution in rural areas research is highly needed to develop social innovation interpretations into more practices in real context for further understanding.

Keywords: Social innovation, Rural Community development in Egypt, “Kaf Wahb” Case of social innovation

¹ This paper presented is based on thesis research conducted to receive master degree of Integrated Urbanism and Sustainable Design, IUSD, a double degree master programm between Ain Shams, University in Cairo & Stuttgart University in Germany.

Introduction

The rallies of 25th January 2011 in Egypt to demand for bread, freedom and social justice "عيش.حرية.عدالة اجتماعية" developed from a long decade and intensive accumulative movements to overcome the corrupted system on so many levels along the Egyptian country after the defeat of traditional leadership style, centralization and loose organisational structure to achieve better future and quality of life. Rural areas in Egypt is no exception. Rural areas in Egypt lack main services or in some areas, the main services are provided yet it is not sufficient or in poor conditions. The main services vary from main infrastructure, accessibility to clean Water, Energy, and Sewage system and recently in terms of environmental aspects and the encroachment over the agricultural land. This paper sets out to understand the concept of social innovation, its notion and interpretation in the rural context of Egypt and how it is contributing to current conditions. Exploring the current conditions of rural Egypt indicates that, notwithstanding the considerable improvements in the various aspects of the rural environment, there is still a very vulnerable condition with the noticeable deprivation of main services. Today with the accordance of municipal practice, there is the term of social innovation, from the approach of self –help and community involvement for provision of services aiming at better quality of living. The paper hypothesis is to examine the positive impact, effective and sustainable way of encouraging and adopting social innovation as an alternative approach in rural community development in Egypt.

Rural Community Development

According to UNDP (1998), ‘community development’ is a community practice that aims to enhance and improve the quality of living among individuals through creating new perceptions and practices that leads to improving living standards (Christopher R. Larrison 1999). Rural community development, accordingly, could be understood as community development in a rural context. According to (Elmenofi et al. 2014) the notion of rural development is defined as an integral planned change process that occurs across all life aspects (economic, social and cultural) in participation of the local community in a democratic manner, coupled with governmental assistance. In another definition, “rural development is the participation of people in a mutual learning experience involving themselves, their local resources, external change agents, and outside resources” (Sonne, 2010). According to (France 1999), there are two key features of rural disadvantaged communities. On the one hand, it involves increased rural depopulation and an outflow of community leaders due to restructuring of rural services and deregulation. In addition, traditional agriculture no longer provides the level of work opportunities it did in the past due to mechanisation and changing market conditions ; and accordingly, rural communities are likely to have limited access to information, services and/or resources from the government.

On the other hand, four principal global challenges in rural areas have been addressed ; namely globalisation, competitive international labour markets, international development policies and climate change (Poole, 2006) & (Kelles-Viitanen 2005). Similarly, Egyptian national rural development deals with multi-sectorial issues, such as infrastructure, health care and hygiene, education, environment and governance as well as local income generation (JICA Research Institute 1996). Therefore and due to the fact that there is a huge gap between national rural development challenges and global challenges in rural areas, it’s crucially needed to explore contribution of new approaches in rural community development.

Introducing Social Innovation, SI as an Alternative Approach to Rural community Development

According to the aforementioned conditions of and challenges to rural areas, the need for an alternative approach to rural development is essential to shift the focus from agriculture

development per se to a wider scope (France 1999) & (Sonne 2010). According to (Bruin & Stangl 2013), the definition of ‘social innovation’ (SI) is often linked to process and outcome. Process and outcome may be illustrated in terms of a problem-solving matrix. In a different definition, (Hubert 2011) argues that ‘innovation’ refers to the capacity to create and implement novel ideas which are proven to deliver value. ‘Social’ refers to the kind of value that innovation is expected to deliver. A value that is less concerned with profit and more with issues such as quality of life, solidarity and well-being. In this sense, SI is adding an extra dimension, which also implies multiple dimensions of output measurement about developing innovative solutions and new forms of organisation and interactions to tackle social issues (Hubert 2011). To understand the driving forces of social innovation, Mulgan et al. (2007) states that, incremental interest of innovations occur when there are incremental unsolved problems and failure of the system to meet what is needed. The other driver of innovation is the ‘awareness of a gap’ between what there is and what there ought to be, between what people need and what they are offered by governments, private firms and NGOs, supported by (Hubert, 2010). Existing literature identifies various SI typologies, with the aim of further understanding the notion and how it fits into key community aspects, Caulier-Grice. et.al (2012) presents different typologies of social innovation. Accordingly, SI can be five types : technological, economic, regulative, normative and cultural.

Caulier-Grice. et.al (2012), presents alternative concepts to SI as follows:

- The process of social change
- The process of organisational restructuring
- Social enterprises
- A model of governance

Butkevi (2009) introduced four aspects to analyse social innovation. First, the process of innovation, namely, the steps through which an innovation is developed, diffused and adopted. Second, the content of innovation, which could be of a technical or a social nature. Third, The context of innovation, which refers to the environment in which the innovation emerges and develops. Finally, according to the impact of innovation, which refers to social or technological change that result from innovation. Therefore, we can conclude that there are different indicators for defining SI, configured in different typologies, such as transformation in civil society organisations, as a model of organisational management and/or as a governmental model. At all levels, their different typology is a way of establishing new values or coming up with new interpretations. In attempt to identify **actors of social innovation**, Butkevi (2009) indicated to three main actors to SI, as follows:

- *External actors* who facilitate the development of SI (top-down approach).
- *Local actors* who develop SI (bottom-up approach).
- External actors who facilitate a local institutional capacity to be able to mobilize internal resources and develop SI (top-down initiatives to facilitate bottom- up activity) cited from (Putnam, 2000).

Similarly, Savage et al. (2010) believes that there are two Innovation actors in delivering public services:

- Local innovation brokers, who bridge the gap between public services and communities. They may be individuals or groups, paid or unpaid, but are always skilled in making connections – navigating both the formal internal structures as well as the complex networks of community infrastructure and entrepreneurial capital.

- Thinkers, experts or innovators in residence, are commonly found in the private sector and academia.

In conclusion, it is possible to identify actors of SI in rural development in terms of a combination of different levels along internal and external actors. The dominant role evolves from local community members themselves, according to their social capital and structure, connections and networks with formal organisation and or governmental bodies, all of which has a great influence on development progression. From the literature review, Social innovation could be found across different sectors. According to (Caulier-Grice. et.al 2012), SI can take place along four main sectors, Public, private, Non-profit and informal sector.

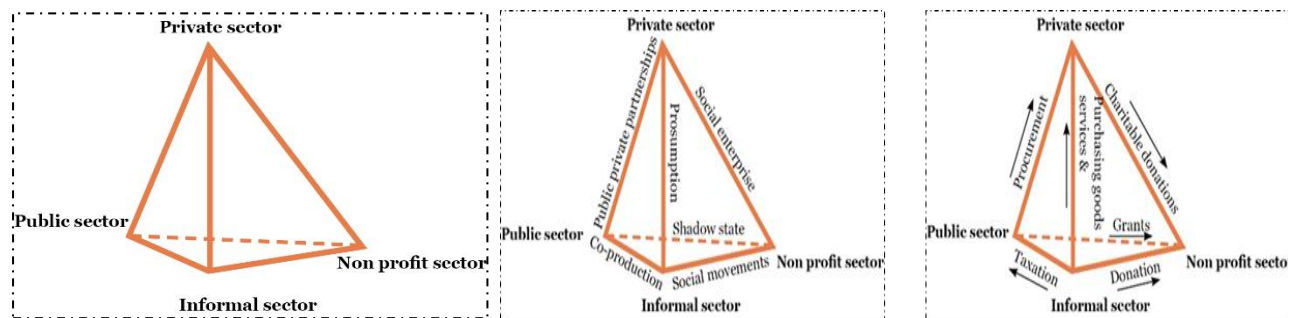


Table 1, SI among sectors and interrelations in between, Source: Caulier- Grice. et.al (2012)

Social innovation in public sector are focusing on policy and services models and innovation that is usually so embedded in its programmes, Private sector plays a great role in social innovation since business has a big impact on social change, in terms of providing business opportunities. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and community investment. Non-profit sector is a sector that is concerned with providing unmet needs that the public and/or private sector could not fulfil. Informal sector where individuals, families and/or community groups undertake activities that are not taken by the public, private and non-profit sectors, to meet social needs.

In support for the role of the informal sector, (Hubert 2011) indicates to the role of SI in the informal sector by stating that, the informal economy (individuals, families, informal groups, associations and networks) has been an under-recognised source of SI. It plays a critical role in developing new practices in fields such as the environment and public health. Obtaining resources and access is a big issue of linking the four sectors that, in many cases, overlap all together to achieve SI as shown in table (1).

The process of SI is presented in different stages as shown in fig (1), as argued in academic research by Mulgan et al. (2007), (Hubert 2011), (Neumeier 2012) and (Caulier-Grice. et.al 2012), where they all agreed on the first three stages of the SI process, which includes the following:

- Identifying problems or challenges that result from collective steps of local awareness and personal motivations from people to solve their own problems.
- Generating ideas and taking them into immediate implementation through capitalizing on people’s networks, negotiations and coordination that encompasses high level of commitment.
- The third stage occurs when SI is sustainable and proves success. At that point, it would be ready for replicability and scaling up.

In an attempt to provide a more accurate overview of the performance pattern of the SI process, Both Hubert (2011) and Caulier-Grice. et.al (2012) added three more stages to the process to

enable sustainability and scaling up. This was done through identifying legal forms and income streams to ensure the long-term sustainability of the social enterprise, NGO, charity or community that will carry the innovation forward. The fifth stage concerns the spreading of the SI with documented results to the sixth and last stage where entirely new ways of thinking and doing are put in place that is meant to adopt new ways of doing things to generate a systematic change. It usually involves many elements (social movements, business models, laws and regulations, data, research and infrastructures) and actors from all sectors (public, private, profit making, non-profit and informal).

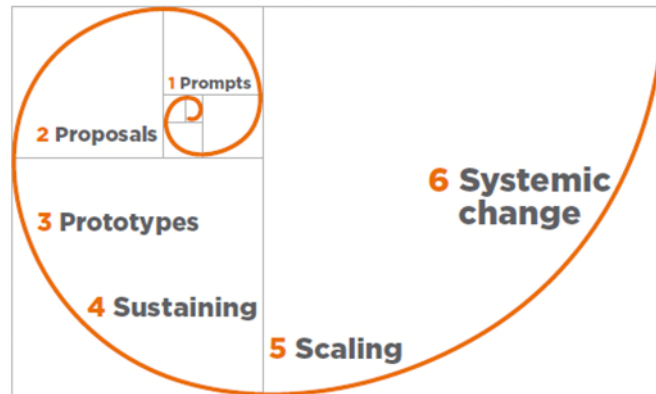


Figure 1, the process of SI, Source: Caulier- Grice. et.al (2012)

SI in Rural Communities Development Methodology

Poole (2006) stated that innovation and rural development processes are complex by nature: they result from the interaction of many diversified and complementary actions, coordinated by different actors. Moreover, he argues that decision-making processes are the result of power, knowledge and information relationships.

According to (Butkevi 2009), the SI process in rural development is a collective effort between local community residents, institutional governmental organisations and external agencies.

(Cajaiba-Santana 2014) refers to two approaches that structured the research on SI in rural areas development. One approach is based on an individualistic perspective that maximize the role of social movements of individuals in social change, stated by (Mulgan et al. 2007) in which enterprise and organisations of charity in rural areas take advance. (Lettice & Parekh 2010) referred to other approach, which follows a structural perspective that implies more about the structure and context in which the process of SI took place. However, Cajaiba-Santana (2014) highlights the need for an integrated perspective for both approaches to identify SI in a holistic view in relation to its context. Looking deeply in academic research and as summarized from Hubert (2011) and (Lettice & Parekh 2010), SI constraints are seen as both external and internal. The external are more embedded in the system of the state that include, financing and scaling up, governance and coordination, legal and cultural constarints especially in the informal and the non-profit sector (Caulier-Grice. et.al 2012). In addition to the Skills, education and training level as well as the lack of data and evaluation, clear assessment criteria due to the ununified definition for SI. The internal limitations to SI, as stated by Mulgan et al. (2007) included efficiency between what is palnned and implementation, conflict between different types of people’s interest, change in mind-set and relationship and networking as most of the SI happened

in rural areas are based only on a personal strong network and relationships. Scaling up in development theories can be both, vertical and horizontal. Vertical in terms of that the community itself would benefit directly from the development process, while horizontal through widely spreading the experience on the national level and adopting the approach in policy and governmental plans. Since practicing of SI in rural areas are usually on small scale, governments should invest to promote rural innovation. Investments should be geared towards exploiting rural-urban linkages. Investment priorities should be determined across the region, and thus, the role of national actors is to facilitate informed strategic investment decisions within coherent regional development strategies (Wakeford & Clark 2006).

As a conclusion, Most of the literature refers to SI as a collective theme from both bottom-up and top-down approaches that are meant to achieve systematic change. Stimulated from the local community and driven by their recognition of their local resources, local awareness and existing networks to identify new solutions for problems and unmet needs.

Dimensions of Evaluating SI in Rural Development

The need for evaluating SI in general and evaluating its contribution in rural development in particular is of a high concern. We may refer to the Maslow pyramid as a reference for basic human needs. According to Maslow's pyramid, safety access to resources comes in the second level, as shown in figure (2). This means that the community demands must be fulfilled with complete satisfaction while in the middle comes the self-esteem and on the top of the pyramid is the self-actualization to find self-fulfilment. The term 'improving quality of life' is commonly used in different definitions for SI based on different aspects, sectors and actors (Valencia 2012). Understanding the interrelationship between SI and quality of life (QL), in both objective and subjective indicators that measures improvement in wellbeing and access to resources that lead to improving the quality of life of individuals and communities by addressing the following:



Figure 2. Maslow pyramid for human needs, source: (Finkelstein 2006)

- Social demands which are not traditionally addressed by the market or existing institutions and are directed towards vulnerable groups in societies.
- Societal challenges in which the boundary between 'social' and 'economic' is blurred and directed towards society as a whole.

Butkevi (2009) cited from (Haussermann & Longo, 2005) highlights three core dimensions for evaluating SI in rural areas as follows:

- The satisfaction of human needs (content/ product dimension).
- Changes in social relationships, especially with the government. The role of local community members here is to organise and participate (process dimension).
- Increasing the socio-political capabilities and access to resources (empowerment dimension).

Profiling the village of “Kafr Wahb”

The village of “Kafr Wahb” is a small satellite village under the province of Quesna city in Almenofeya governorate and follows the municipality of Arab Alraml the mother village as the nearest administrative authority geography (GOPP 2015). It is located at the West of the Cairo-Alexandria agricultural road. It is a 13.82 Feddan (58.04 Km²) area. The village is surrounded from the East by the village of “Kafr Abdou. Accordingly, both villages share borders from the North –East to South- West that include the urban expansions over the farmlands. The village has 1483 inhabitants yet when applying the rate of population growth 1.6 (WB, 2013), the population of the village could be 2372 inhabitants.

Identifying Social Innovation in the case of “Kafr Wahb”

Understanding SI in “Kafr Wahb” is a goal itself in this research and in-order to achieve that, investigating, process of service provision, actors, types of challenges and how “Kafr Wahb” demonstrated a highly recognition of building on human assets and resources are guiding the research here. A survey on a wide sample as a tool for assessment, measurement of contribution and evaluating SI in “Kafr Wahb” was conducted to identify data occurring as well as conducting both formal and informal interviews with the local residents inside the village.

The findings highlight aspects of interventions that is concerned with the following:

- Provision of missing main services such as connecting the village to the main drinking water network, pavement of internal and external roads.
- Improving existing services such as change electricity networks into more savings ones, establishment of water bureafication station, waste collection system and greenery inside the village.
- The establishment of the CBO, the health centre and the office mail inside the village and privitization a premissis for them for socio economic and public health improvement.

These projects indicate to different types, forms, actors and process of social innovation.

Tracing development projects in “Kafr Wahb” demonstrates a high level of local participation. The approach that could explain how “Kafr Wahb” develops and maintains access to services and more to establish new way of activities, it could be seen as a collective of two patterns of approaches conducted earlier in literature review. On one hand, the first pattern that maximizes the role of individuals especially in early generation. Mayor, (Omdah), elite families and well educated ones play a dominant role, that meets and supports (Mulgan,et.al, 2007) of which the local residents take responsibility to meet certain needs. On the other hand, the second pattern is reforming new structures of organisational form when they (local leaders and elite families) established the CBO to receive funds, regulate donations as well as accept financial support from governmental bodies and representatives, that meets literature from (Savage et al. 2010). This approach meets the same of (Tapsel& Wood, 2010) & (Cajaiba, Santan, 2014). Reflecting the impact of interventions in both micro and macro level to identify change of living conditions inside the village as well as changing in personal behaviours and attitudes. The results show that the interventions have a dominant indirect impact on “Kafr Wahb” of a percentage 43.9%, which recognized in service provision and/ or improving existing ones and/ or raising awareness towards a problem by changing attitudes. While 29.3% of the sample indicates to direct impact of interventions identified in provision of missing services and / or enhancing economic level by securing income and provide jobs. 26.3% show that interventions had both direct and indirect impact on the village of “Kafr Wahb”. Investigating main actors of intervention and projects provided in “Kafr Wahb”, by analysing the results, actors of SI in “Kafr Wahb” came as combination efforts from both internal actors and external. The internal actors include the

dominant role of individuals, elite families, The CBO of “Kafr Wabh while the external actor are representative from governmental bodies to facilitate process of changes and supporting interventions.

The approach used to understand SI process in “Kafr Wabh”, developed around the idea of understanding steps and stages of interventions from realizing the missing needs, generating ideas until take it into implementation supported from several authors such as Mulgan.et.al (2007), Hupert (2011) as well as Caulier-Grice, et.al(2012). It was found from the survey conducted that process of any intervention demonstrates a high motivation from the local residents to meet missing needs and their high level of awareness. “Kafr Wabh” went through the stages of generating ideas includes pilot projects, develop those ideas by practice and when it proves success it grows as well by wider support from government. They realized the need to a legal form to ensure long-term sustainability of projects by the establishment of the CBO. The phase of spreading by documenting their experience by different means (written reports and social media). Process of SI is “Kafr Wabh” village is illustrated in Fig (3). Exploring constraints faced “Kafr Wabh” experience, the results show generally many constraints vary from internal challenges to external ones in the system itself. The results highlight the negative competition between groups and community members especially in the beginning as well as lack of funding which affirms literature from Hupert (2011) and Lettice& Parekh (2010). In addition to absence of awareness especially in the beginning, bureaucracy and lack of coordination between different governmental bodies which meets Mulgan, (2007) and in order to overcome bureaucracy and centralized budgeting, they depend always on enterprise and charity to prove their readiness for taking responsibility of any projects as part of their high sense of social responsibility. The study findings showed that the case of Kafr Wabh is in the phase of sustianing and its hard to predict whether its going to deteriorate or to wide spread as its only based on local community efforts and limited capacity.

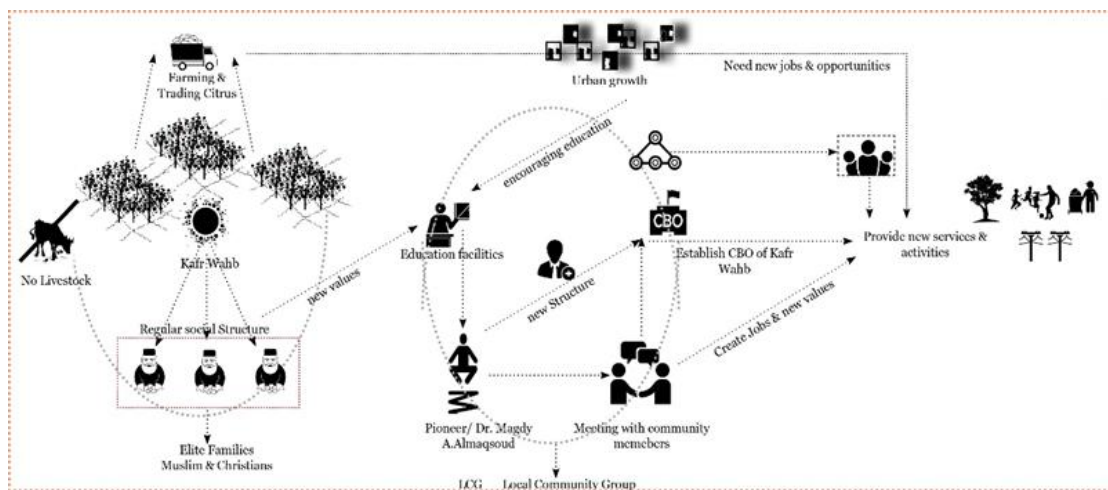


Figure 3, Process of SI in “Kafr Wabh”, Source: Author

The need to prove that encouraging SI as a competitive approach for rural community development is underlined in this study in different ways. The findings identified extreme change occurred in “Kafr Wabh” started in 1975 and till now. These changes in practices and attitudes were a combination of accomplishment of collective circumstances and conditions characterized in both factors related to the village of “Kafr Wabh” identified in both socio economic and spatial factors. As well as factors that are related to SI scale, type and process.

As a conclusion, “Kafr Wabh” repointed high level of awareness of environmental aspects in most of the projects and service provision. It was led by values and believes of strong social ties and high motivation supported by a strong network and the good leadership style from externals

(Governors and representatives from governmental bodies) to facilitate decision-making in the centralized system of the state and support funding for their projects.

What might be innovative from the case of “Kafr Wahb” , that it’s a role model for (Active village) that commit to bring quality of life that was recognized in physical, socioeconomic and environmental aspects.

Conclusion & recommendation

The main objective from this paper is to understand social innovation contribution in rural community deveopment, process, actors, limitations and constraints as well as to explore factors of successful practices and possibilities of scaling up and replicability in rural areas in Egypt. The case study that was presented here and the litterrature review reveal the meaning of the notion of social innovation in practice. It has to be stressed that opportunities for scaling up based on one case of SI is difficult since SI is dependently of context, yet possibilities of encouraging research more on social innovation contribution in rural areas is encouraged and rethinking structural reform in institutional, legal and organisational as well as policy level as is highly urgent and recommended. What was clear from the case study findings here is the achievements encompasses collective efforts from local residents with their endless efforts and the process of learning they went through when trying new ideas of projects that did not work out for them. Factors that may contribute to successful rural community development such as the personal external networks and the ability of a community to commit and organise themselves for a long-term achievement needs further research.

However the new trend of social innovation, yet the practice of social innovation in rural community development embedded participation and self-help development which is not new as most of the rural areas used to act positively to have access to missing needs, the aim is to enable SI to reach systematic change to happen in a wider perspective. Hence, there is a reason to assume a general positive perspective for supporting social innovation and encouraging its contribution in rural areas development. The existing of practices of participatory approaches in rural development might give the opportunity for exploring scaling up practices of social innovation yet there is the limitations of a methodological framework, capacity building and awareness in small groups or communities within the centralized system of Egyptian government that put many limitations and constraints. The need to train both local leaders from the community and local government to new skills to facilitate creating climate of social innovation. This would not happen with outstanding contribution from both government and communicating local community as well as ensure a good and trustful representative from both levels.

The benefit of encouraging social innovation in rural development as a win-win strategy. As the government would have resources free and would get more outcomes more cheaply based on building on the local community relationship strength gives them confidence to wide their knowledge and impact for reaching other groups or communities. Longer-term vision is needed to widen the impact of social innovation in regional context therefore its essential role of government to establish a mechanism of transferring the knowledge of best practices to encourage and to learn from. Moreover, it’s recommended to tackle the handicapped system in

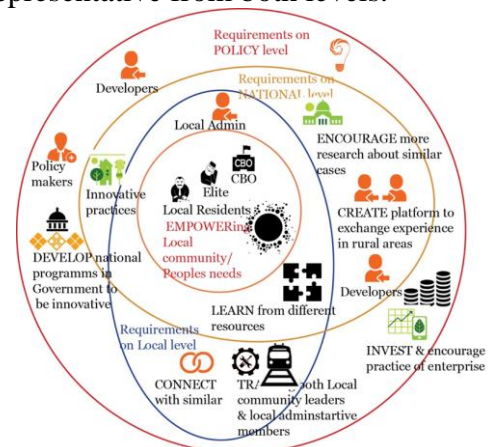


Figure 4 Recommendation on Local, National, Organisational and Policy level, Source: Author

Egyptian government that kept community development from bottom up approaches limited and to encourage social innovation to take place the centralized system that is rooted by major obstacles. Therefore, it's of an urgent need to the Egyptian government itself to be innovative in order to unlock the productivity and progress of similar actions that is taken from random bottom up approach for more organised and systematic ones.

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Land Policy and Administrations in Iraq: administrative experience

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Abstract

Iraq is a Middle Eastern country with especial conditions. As a multi-cultural society and post war country, administration of Land Tenure security (LTS) in Iraq has suffered a vital impact under influence of the state insecurity and inter-communal violence leading it to lack of institutional planning. The main aim of this article is motivated from this fact to explore the effectiveness and the sustainable institutional aspects of the LTS administration as the key principal mechanism in the Iraqi Land Authorities (ILAs). To achieve this aim, the article looks into insights at ILAs organisational levels through which LTS in the Iraqi national strategy can be sought. This article also describes the Qualitative method of data collection and its analyses. The exploration, which involved semi-structured interviews in 5 organisations involved in 16 samples in ILAs at both national and local levels, are discussed together and interpreted. The results emphasised the need to promptly develop the specific elements which are lacking in LTS administration and to improve the ones which were ineffective.

Keywords: Administrative experience, Land Tenure Security, Iraq, factors, Urban Areas.

1. Introduction

According to USAID (2007); Land tenure is the institutional (political, economic, social, and legal) structure that determines how individuals and groups secure access to land and all resources contained on it. Furthermore, Security of tenure is a critical factor contributing toward people's housing processes around the world (Amey, 2009; Dorothy L. Hodgson, 2011). In fact, impacts of political-social and economic changes, influence of the state insecurity and inter-communal violence ,unplanned urban growth, poor planning and absence of monitoring systems have significantly increased the frequencies and impacts of tenure insecurity across the world (Payne, 2003;Derick and Ronald, 2009). The need for more effective management and monitoring systems has become highly important (Hulchanski, 2002). These problems emphasises the effective triangular relationship of People, the legislative capability and institutional frameworks adopted by the government that are the main steps for effective LTS (URBAN21, 2000; Payne, 2001; UN-Habitat, 2003a; Ward, 2012). Therefore, the governance of tenure is a way of enhancing the people rights in land and property. And so, it is integral measurement instruments that control and manage the land policy, thus it is crucially influenced by consequences of state insecurity and inter-communal violence. Therefore, the roles of legislative capability and institutional frameworks to enhancing, managing and monitoring the people rights in land and property are also believed to be a contributing factor in LTS. This paper therefore is targeting the legislative capability and institutional frameworks as key stakeholders involved in the Iraqi land tenure administrations, at both the national /local urban planning sectors to review related issues affecting land tenure policies in Iraq.

The paper is trying to guide its strategy by generating the depth of understanding required to appreciate the realities of the management and monitoring of LTS in Iraq. In order to achieve that, this part of the study deals with the Iraqi land authorities and institutional aspect, which plan and manage the land acquisition policies as well as the effective administration of LTS.

2. The Iraqi Land Authorities (ILAs)

Iraq is a Middle Eastern country with especial conditions as a multi-cultural society and post war country. The land administration system in Iraq can be aptly described as a multiple system. It has been formed and governed by compound laws, code of practice, and standards over long different periods. It is imperative that Government and the whole system in Iraq have been influenced under massive impacts from conflicted policies (Al Rashid, 2005; Shaikley, 2013). Recently, the chaos of looting, multiple ownership claims and destruction of public records (in Iraq) have increased (UN-Habitat report, 2012), causing more influence on land tenure administration and its security. In this context, the current situation in Iraq motivated the assigned objective of this paper. In fact, continue instable periods, state insecurity and inter-communal violence consequences can contribute to land tenure insecurity. Evidently, after the fall of the Ba'athist regime in 2003, there was a period of conflicting state policies. Many reports indicate that an estimated 4 million Iraqis have fled their homes and 57% of the urban population currently lives in slum-like conditions (Al Rashid, 2005 ;Stigall, 2008; Rochelle and Abbie, 2012; Iraqi Ministry of Planning,2015). With this in mind, it can pose the problem of how the ILAAs work to promote tenure security to ensure that individual and community rights are documented and protected officially.

Land institutional hierarchies in Iraq can be listed as groups of institutions working within the federal-level authority (James, 2006). The Iraqi Land Authorities (ILAs) ,which are targeted in this article, are whose have the official roles to manage and regulate land acquisition policies. Thus, the ILAs responsibility is to plan and achieve the effective management and monitoring of LTS in Iraq. In general, the ILA's Structure and hierarchies can be defined by a series of overlapping hierarchies. For example, at a major scale, ILA's hierarchies can be listed as groups of institutions working within the federal-level authority (Shaikley, 2013). In practice, Iraqi land and housing authority's policy are devoted to land delivery, property, finance, building materials and standards; as regards policy reform and capacity building (Stigall, 2008). Accordingly, the Iraq Ministry of Planning (2015) stated that ILA's Structure reflects the capacity to encounter the challenges in line with the new economic orientations of the country.

Therefore, the essential feature of the ILA's Structure, roles and hierarchies

will help the researcher to understand the responsibilities of central authorities and the related local governments to shape and implement the land planning aspects.

More so, the institutional framework for ILAs shows dual levels and functions. Legitimately, there are currently three (3) ministries, and 2 independent agencies playing various roles in the Iraqi urban land sector (Ministry of Planning, 2015). The three ministries are: the Iraqi Ministry of Housing and Construction (IMoHC), the Iraqi Ministry of Planning (IMoP) and the Iraqi Ministry of Municipalities (IMoM) are all appointed in this paper representing the ILAs linked to the national urban planning sectors to review related issues affecting land and housing policies in Iraq. In that way, at the city councils level, the Physical Planning Committee (PPC) and Municipal Offices (MOs), and also embeds both land authority's councils views. In practice, the role of ILAAs can be divided into two main levels; The National level: where policies are made, and at the local level where policies are implicated practically on the ground. Additionally, according to the Iraqi Ministry of Planning (2015); ILAAs are combined conventionally from groups of interconnected organisations which can be justified into two levels ; at the National level, there are 3 organisations which are the Iraqi Ministry of Planning (IMoP), The Iraqi Ministry of Municipalities (IMoM), and the Iraqi Ministry of Housing and Construction (IMoHC) , (in Baghdad the capital). At the Iraqi local level; there are the Physical Planning Committee (PPC), and Municipalities' Offices (MOs). In figure 1; the institutional framework of ILAAs is captured graphically. It is seen that the national assembly's such as IMoP, MoHC and the IMoM are main units of the ILA's Structure since the PPC and MOs are lower and under them responsibility. In addition, it is also to indicate that the IMoP, IMoHC, and IMoM are the main units in ILA's strategic monitoring while the implementation is the local assemblies mission. Briefly, the institutional framework of ILAs is working within two levels and its Efficiency can be a fundamental driver of land tenure arrangements offering significant levels of support to land user's rights. In practice, the role of ILAs can be divided into two main levels;

- *The National level:* there are 3 organisations which are the Iraqi Ministry of Planning (IMoP), The Iraqi Ministry of Municipalities (IMoM), and the Iraqi Ministry of Housing and Construction (IMoHC);
- *The local level:* there are the Physical Planning Committee (PPC), and Municipalities' Offices (MOs).

3. Qualitative Data Analysis

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this section is to explore the factors that contribute to the effectiveness and the sustainable institutional aspects of the land tenure administration as the principal mechanism to promote effective Land Tenure Security (LTS) in Iraqi Land Administrative Authorities (ILAs). To achieve this aim, the chapter looks into insights at organisational level of these land Administrative Units through which LTS in Iraq can be sought. This chapter also describes the Qualitative method of data collection and its analyses. In this paper, the analysed data was targeting to obtaining the decision-making perspectives in relation to land tenure policies and highlights the most important areas requiring action and suggests corresponding efficiency and administrative Barriers. The following list of factors resulting from the analysed data is gathering evidence on:

- a. The profile of ILAs and their current administrative efficiency, roles and responsibilities;
- b. The ILAs procedures of LTS implementation and their administrative efficiency;
- c. Indicators for success the Management and Monitoring LTS regarding Administrative experience of ILAs;
- d. Influences of current instable situations on LTS implementation and the corresponding efficiency of ILAs;
- e. Administrative Barriers and difficulties of LTS implementation and the current efficiency of ILAs.

Finally, the conclusions drawn from the interviews responses were summarised and the need to assess their level of importance was justified. The following section describes the interviews structure.

3.2 The selected samples

In this research, a number of Iraqi key stakeholders involved in 5 Organisations of ILAAs (IMoP, IMoHC, IMoM, PPC, and MO) were interviewed in order to enhance the level of effective administration of LTS. In order to explore the current administration of LTS implementation and its efficiency, collected views and experience from ILAAs at both national and local levels were analysed. In this line,

the choice of organisations is based on:

- Presentative sampling in which the selected organisations share administrative responsibilities of ILAs in LTS implementation, which are vital assessing to the LTS in Iraq;
- Presentative sampling which have been involved in national and local levels in ILAAs;
- Presentative Keys, (TSMs), having a clear participation and responsibility involved in LTS administrations in ILAs.

3.3 Semi-structured Interview

As mentioned above, the semi-structured interviews in 5 organisations with Top Senior Managers (TSMs) involved in 16 samples in ILAs at both national and local levels, are discussed together and interpreted. Semi-structured interview profile was designed with a mixture of open-ended and closed questions asked. A number of questions that dealt with various subjects have adopted: general assessment of the current experience, the policies achievements and barriers and drawbacks. Also, the interview questions aim to identify the impact level of the current insecurity situation and the level of weakness of the government's role on the LTS implementation. According to the interview's set of questions, the administrative prospective of the presentative samples of TSMs involved in ILAs were investigated.

Therefore, the interview consisted of the following four sections:

- 1) SECTION I– PROFILE OF INTERVIEWEES: Questions were asked in order to provide brief information on the organisations and the participants' profile;
- 2) SECTION ii–HOW ILAs ORGANISATIONS ARE SHAPING LTS STRATEGIES: This section tries to enhance current mechanisms working to emphasise the LTS implementation. Questions were asked on how the LTS policies are implemented in ILAs regarding their current administrative efficiency;
- 3) SECTION iii–CURRENT FACTORS CONTROLLING THE SUCCESS OF THE LTS IMPLEMENTATION: This section goes to identify whether the LTS implementations are faced by any administrative factors that guide gaining the wanted benefits. Questions were asked on how the effective LTS is implemented, and how these factors are affecting its success;

- 4) SECTION iv–BARRIERS AND DIFFICULTIES: Participants in ILAs organisations were asked to assess how the current difficulties of the instable situations in Iraq influence on LTS implementation.

3.4 Profile of Interviewees

Data for this research were collected through a structured survey in the 5 participating organisations in ILAs. Potential participants were asked whether they were willing to participate in this study. The TSMs in each organisation of ILAs at both of council's levels were interviewed and arranged a face to face meeting with them. Before carrying out interviews in these organisations, letters were sent to these organizations in which the research was introduced, its goal explained and permission for its execution asked. For each organisation, head managers of Directorates that fit research criteria were attempted to be included. However, in case the targeted participant was absent, presentative candidates from ILAs were interviewed. During that, Interviews sites were either taken inside in office or outside according to the favourite of the participant. In addition, for safety reasons no surveys were performed out the organisations sites. According to security rules inside the offices of these organisations all interviews were not recorded and all obtained answers were written during each meeting. During that, Data were collected over 2 different waves, the first in July 2015 (for IMoP,IMoHC, and IMoM) while the second was held in August 2015 (for PPC and MO).

As mentioned, 16 semi-structured interviews have been conducted with TSMs in 5 organisations of ILAs at both levels. Selected representatives of TSMs were based on their administrative representation as decision-makers in each level of the ILAs, and to their availability. Although the lack availability of the top administrative representation which was the main reason for the selection, all 16 participants were suitable targets for the interviews and they were involved in ILAs and shared many projects and dealt with various types of land policies.

However, there were only (14) senior staffs and (2) Managers were approached agreed to participate and attended these interviews, but it is also important to note that there is not General directors and they were unable to attend this interview due to time constraints, lack of interests or other reasons.

This may explain the difficulties to attend this interview that General Directors in ILAs have. And so, each interviewee has been given the code “C” in addition to a numeric serial number. Following the coding principles, the textual data in each interviewee was broken into main subject categories by the research. The aim was to capture common characteristics and to explore possible relationships, which formed a base for the findings interpretations. The methods of data collection were described in detail in Chapter (4), while the coding and description of the Interviewees were outlined in Table (5.1).

Table 5.1 : The Coding and Description of the interviewees (Author).

ILAs	Description	Current Job Title	*Directorate	**levels	Code
• IMoP	• Iraqi Ministry of Planning.	• Manager	General directorate of Urban Planning:	National	C1
		• Senior staff	Manager and Specialist consultancy staff. Both from General directorate of Urban Planning in IMoP.		C2
• IMoHC	• Iraqi Ministry of Housing & Construction.	• Senior staff	General directorate of Urban Planning & Regional Development: Senior staffs from General directorate of Urban Planning & Regional Development in IMoHC.	National	C3
		• Senior staff			C4
• IMoM	• Iraqi Ministry of Municipalities.	• Senior staff	General directorate of Urban Planning & Physical Planning: Urban Planning consultant, from General directorate of Urban Planning & Physical Planning in IMoM.	National	C5
		• Senior staff			C6
• PPC	• Physical Planning Committee.	• Manager	PPC’s Director.	Local	C7
		• Senior staff	Department of urban planning:		C8
		• Senior staff	4Senior staffs from Department of urban planning in PPC in Al-Nassiriya city.		C9
		• Senior staff			C10
		• Senior staff			C11

• MO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Municipality Office • (Al-Nassiriya city). 	• Senior staff	Department of Urban Planning: 5 Senior staffs all from Department of Urban Planning in MO in Al-Nassiriya city.	Local	C12
		• Senior staff			C13
		• Senior staff			C14
		• Senior staff			C16
<p>* Directorates as they were detailed in chapter 3.</p> <p>** Levels: National levels as in Ministries in Baghdad, Province committees as in local levels in al-Nassiriya city.</p>					

The table 5.1 shows that the organisations of ILAs were chosen in order to understand the Iraqi phenomena of LTS from participant’s viewpoints based on their attitudes and background experiences. To achieve this objective, the ILA’s Interviewees were the Top Senior’s Managers (TSM). Selected representatives of TSMs were based on their administrative representation as decision-makers in each level of the ILAs, and to their availability.

4. Results and Analysis

The aim of this section is to bring together data obtained from the 16 semi-structured interviewees that have been conducted with TSMs in 5 organisations of ILAs at both national and local levels, which were categorised under 4 sections.

5.3.1 SECTION ii–HOW ILAs ORGANISATIONS ARE SHAPING LTS STRATEGIES:

Regarding roles and administrative responsibilities of ILAs organisations in implementation an effective LTS, Interviewees were asked: ***Can you explain your organisation’s roles and responsibilities in implementation effective management and monitoring to LTS?***

Inspection of answers shows that the interviewee’s response to this question was varied according to the organisation’s level. The interviewees said that the land tenure and property right policy is within their organisations strategies. In light of the administrative relationship among these organisations, the essential feature of ILA’s institutional hierarchies is built officially on national and province levels. At the national level, C1 stated that “ILA’s policies involved in the LTS implementation is

divided into two main steps; policies planning; and monitoring processes that securing and govern these managements in relation to national development strategies”. The C2 answers about that by saying that his organisation’s responsibilities are targeting to establishing a good relationship with people and an effective response to their requests in relation to land administrations. The interviewee from C3 emphasis that by saying his organisation’s role is covering the planning process by adding housing strategies and supervising the projects implementation process, and then it is working to sharing these strategies with other organisations in ILAs. In the same organisation, C3 and C4 stated that land tenure administration in this organisation is held originally by state institution’s rules; since “much of these policies are now under the control of the state and arranged as government strategies”, and these policies are still hold by “special systems of authorities within the Iraqi land institutional structures “. In this attitude, C5 also echoed that showing that National strategies in relation to land tenure security and user’s rights were established as “a responsible for all users of lands and properties in Iraq”, and came up directly with “the responsibility of National government toward its people”. However, C6, the interviewees of National councils, showed that authorities in his organisation have covered the community affairs as “proposals about how to use public resources have been considered, adjusted, adopted within clear systems” and thus “these formal systems can work as a protection to tenure rights against the multiple ownership claims regarding the land” and that helped to “protect the community and the person receiving the rights”. However, C1, C2 and C3 in national councils stress that their organisations are planning toward decentralization authorities in “the new Iraq” which can be linked effectively with the local authorities. C1 explained that “for achieving their roles directly without need to the current central control from the national authority in Baghdad...and then the Ministry will rationalize its portfolio by consolidating it with other organisations and even the private entitiesand orienting them towards production of effective administration cooperation”.

As local councils, all interviewees claim they don’t have private authority to plan and produce this policy, and then they depend on the national organisations to provide the monitoring policy and they rely directly on it. Interviewees emphasized that their institutional responsibilities were consistently limited and thus their roles are not involved precisely in decision-making processes. For example, the C7 interviewee states that “the local councils demand on the national councils strategies to plan and shaping local council strategies”, and that can be explained by “the centralising policy from the national authorities”. According to interviewees C7 there is an urgent need to

“Separation of authorities for implementation and control land administration”. Although C1, C3 and C5 were stated that their national administration was “beneficial relationship” by financing and supporting local policies nevertheless this beneficial and cooperative relationship ,according to C7 view, was “in most time working to hindering the local councils planes” as they “spent long time within a complex and rigid routine and usually cannot be supplemented”. In this sense, interviewee (C7) had further commented on the current mechanism on all levels of the ILAs organisations “as local councils, our focus now is to build a collaborative relationship with the national governments... In terms of efficiency in the future we see ILAs collaborative policies as important serving the local idea of effective administration to LTS”.

However, the effective Cooperation among these organisations was emphasis by all interviewees. For example C8 and C9 state that their organisation’s policies are going to be “converted from the central authorities in Baghdad to local authorities at districts levels” and that also echoed by C10 by adding that “this decentralisation policy can help to establishing a new administrative hierarchy to use it with others organisations And the implementation process is in progress during this period”. That was repeated by the interviewee (C11) that “...Collaborative policies have to be done and especially within this period and we as a local council must have the ability to use it with others organisations in our local projects”. In addition to what they (C12, C14, C15 and C16) called “the adaptation collaborative policy” from the national authorities to the locals within the future plans. This is further corroborated by all interviewees who emphasis that the Iraq current problems of Land policy should be placed highly on the government’s agenda. Therefore, the main conclusion of this short review is that the interviewees of National councils showed that the LTS implementation is involved in their organisations agenda which is based essentially as the national strategies, whereas the local councils emphasis on decentralization of power and then empower to subnational governments, along with a strengthening of their administrative capacity in all decision-making processes.

Regarding administrative responsibilities of these organisations, this should be guided by an effective management and monitoring process among all these organisations in both levels of councils. That national agenda can indicate that the ILAs organisations are concerned with the establishment of viable and participatory government in the new Iraq. In all cases, the interviewees emphasised that the solution is to develop a comprehensive relationship in all decision-making processes, and to adopt Separation of authorities for implementation and control land administration among all these organisations. In other words, to creation appropriate legal structures

on all levels of government councils in order to decentralising policy in ILAs in all decision-making processes.

However, the obtained results reveal that the local councils were inactively involved in the mainly steps of the planning process where policies are usually made in national councils. Therefore, the success of collaborative administration among all organisations of the ILAs should be shared during the collaborative decision-making level as well as the policy implementation, and that indicates the importance of the next questions.

5.3.2 SECTION iii–CURRENT FACTORS CONTROLLING THE SUCCESS OF THE LTS IMPLEMENTATION: This section goes to identify current factors controlling the success of the LTS implementation under the mechanism of ILAs. Interviewees were asked:

i. Are you satisfied with the current mechanism of your organisation policies?

Majority of interviewees who answered this question emphasis that there are wide ranges of the Iraqi rules and regulations that govern and protect the land user's rights. They claimed that they were satisfied with the current mechanism and the decision-making level that their organisations are taking, and they have an affective policy for LTS implementation. Although local organisations said they do not launch private policy, they also emphasis that they have a mechanism for assessing the policy through feedback processes with the national levels to carry out LTS implementation. And about national mechanism in developing the land tenure and property rights in Iraq, the interviewee emphasized that all organisations in ILAs must have the ability to guide their policies within both levels. For example, interviewees (C1, C4 and C6) emphasized that they have prospective "Collaborative policies in order to strengthen organisations responsibility at the local levels" in a way that might "encourage more effective use of decision". In such partnerships, local council such as C7 explained that Collaborative mechanism according to the land administration system by saying that "...the national councils will provide the plans, and will bring skill and financing, while the local councils will provide off-site monitoring, as required". However, these Collaborative policies will be tested and monitored in "pilot projects in the initial phase of policy implementation". Therefore, the essential feature of the institutional hierarchies is built officially on national and province levels of Collaborative policies. In practice, ILA's policies involvement in the LTS implementation is divided into two

main steps; planning and financing policies; and these dependent monitoring processes that securing and governs these managements.

II. Do your organisation policies work better than previously?

The interviewees answered this question by saying that there organisations are working under massive challenges. The majority of the interviewees agreed that their organisations are dealing with abnormal and new crisis of tenure such as interim refugee's issues, land dispute resolution, multiple ownership claims and informal occupation against the public and even government land/properties. In fact, in motivating the organisations to addressing the Iraq land system shortage; most of the interviewees shed light on the vast influence of the current instable political situation and its interventions.

One of the key question asked was what percentage of refugee's issues has achieved?. It was found that in national organisations "...up to 46% of the refugee's lands disputes were failed to provide the full benefits nationally projected , while in local organisations a higher failure rate of 60% was stated " according to C1. Interviewee such as C2 and C3 emphasized that "there are administrative barriers in the current policies" and their policies were limited due to "the current lack of the national finical support" and therefore "...effective legal policies should be adopted collaboratively by the government at the national and local levels". Furthermore, under the current administrative systems, the answers by interviewees (C4, C5 and C6) indicate an inadequate distribution of resources or prioritising of resources for those organisations. The majority of the interviewees highlighted the need to progress the employee's efficiency identifying that current resources are reasonably inadequate and there is an urgent need to develop prioritising for increasing the administrative efficiency.

In this point, local level organisations (C7, C8, C11 and C12) responded to this question by stating that the current performance is affected seriously by recent instable situations in Iraqi, and C7 explained that as "the available data on land ownership usually is incomplete, and out of date", and C8 pointed that "there is an urgent need to updating the current information system and to using advanced approaches". Also, C13, C14 and C15 highlighted that "...the current lack of equipment and the general disruption of bureaucratic services" have compounded the problem further. However, C7 emphasised that "focusing on technology" and how it can benefit their administrative performance.

However, this situation can be a result of focusing on a lack of financial support from national authorities. However, C15 and C16 claimed that that in meeting the requirements of land inventory & registration.

It can be, therefore, concluded that there is an administrative awareness between the ILAAs about the current instable political situation and how it can work as administrative barriers against the existing policies of LTS. However, many political system shortage and human variables are involved in the Iraq challenges in ILAs. Answers to the above-mentioned question indicate that if the ILAs are achieving their land administrative policies less than previously, that claim should be temporally acceptable during this conflicted period. Therefore, that administrative weakness should be changeable if those instable situations were removed in the coming days. And that indicates the importance of the next questions by asking; *why there policies were more efficient or more useful than currently?*

When the interviewees were asked that question, it was observed that the influence as explained varied. For example, national councils such as C1, C3, and C5 pointed out that vital influence lies directly in monitoring authorities by current weakness of central governments and that their authorities were strongly deteriorated after the fall of the regime in 2003, and the post-war situation has serious influence on the land tenure management and there is a need for “new legal policies” to be adopted by the government at the national and local levels. While the local councils such as C7, C8 and C9 pointed out that they need more “administrative decentralisation” and more “administrative roles” to achieve their local managements efficiently.

In this direction , C1 claimed that legal managements is not yet sufficient at federal level to do that step, while C3 and C5 state that for having an effective land tenure management, ILAs should fill the current gaps of “the refuge’s land dispute resolution, land allocation”, and “Determine clear expropriation and compensation regulations”. Also C11 and C13 emphasis on the improvement of the information systems, and this should involve providing “surveys, mapping, cadastre, real property registries”, as well as “sector monitoring” as stresses C15. Due to serious influences of the post-war situation there was indication that current systems were insufficient, this evidence of showed that lack an instable political and social situation, bureaucratic services, and almost absence of financing support have compounded the problem further.

In general, these interviewees of both levels explained the deteriorated situation by saying that the current influence of the instable situations in Iraq has massive negative impacts on their policy, and then that impact can either be depending on the appropriate future situation in Iraqi state or to engaging an urgent administrative reform focusing on technological process and the urgent need to progress the employee's efficiency. It has to be pointed out that the successful implementation of new policies depends on the flexibility of bureaucratic procedures and be adequate with modern systems. And that indicates the importance of the next questions by asking; *do you think there is a need for new legal policies to be adopted by the government for the vulnerable group's requirements?*

As expected, the interviewees reply to this question showing that the majority believe that there is a high effective group of laws in relation to administration and protection of user's rights, and the existing problem is linked directly with the monitoring process of these rights.

Interviewees referred to the current administrative problem of refuge's crisis and the land multiple ownership claims, C1 stated that as "...Violation onto public land occupied by Landless people and illegally built houses for themselves", and this situation is usually followed by illegal documentations, C1 explained that as "Forgery of title deed documents is highly crisis ...landless occupy lands or public buildings claiming that they do that just to repossession their old properties that were given illegally by the former regime to other Iraqi citizens", and that crisis forced new form of monitoring process. At the local councils views , C7 emphasis the administrative deficiency as "the main problem of the Iraqi land rights is emerged as result of the massive damage or absence of registration records in the Iraqi land-registration offices during and after the war or that damage in public facilities after looting events in 2003" .

In general, Iraqi land user's rights has to be offered as security process of ownership transferring but due to the widespread occurrence of forged documents after the 2003 events, the legal sell-buy process is no longer accepted as guarantee. In addition it is suffering of a dearth of reliable information following three decades of shifting and incoherent land policy, internal conflict, and more recently the chaos of looting and destruction of public records.

This question shows that these responses can be interpreted as a need to adopt good monitoring authorities that deal with the current problems, and due to the deep rooted

of land administrative laws in Iraq; there is no necessity to adopt new laws. In addition to the majority of TSMs in Iraqi councils believe that there is a high effective influence on their institutional policy from the weakness of governments within this period in Iraq.

To determine this, next question is asked to confirm the influence of the instable social situation in Iraq; *How do you describe the influence of the Iraqi social and Tribal traditional rules on user's rights managements?*

The pattern of responses from national councils (C1, C 2, C 3, C 4 and C5) agreed that before the Iraqi event that followed the fall of the regime in 2003, there was very rare influences related to tribal rules in their plans, but they emphasised that “influences of Tribal rules in ownership and gender regulations have increased sharply during current period” and they explained the reason as “...a result to instable situations in Iraq and weakness of national authority in general” due to people were forced to back to their family and tribes power as “an alternative backbone authority” in order to protect their property ownership. However, this influence of traditional authorities has increased in Iraq recently starting from 2003 and fall of state and its influence is still till this date.

It has raised the question that if the current policy of ILAs are under influence of old systems such as these old and rigid traditional forms of ownerships that may mean that gender , indigenous and minority rights are in crisis in current Iraqi. In other words, elements of modern land management & administration reform should fill the current gaps. More importantly, this question and the answer have helped to identify how the instable political situation reactivates the social old regulations to be effective on the land user's rights in the current Iraq. It can be observed from the interviewees that the need for an effective authority should be adopted by the ILAs at the national and local councils in order to stop the current negative influence of the social and traditional regulations of ownerships.

For more precisely evidences, next question was asked to confirm the influence of the current religious regulations in Iraqi. This statement then identifies the importance of the next question. *How do you describe the influence of the Islamic rules of ownership on your policy planning?*

Interviewee C1, for example, reflects his organisation view about the massive influence of Islamic rules on the Iraqi institutions policy by saying that “the Iraqi legitimate characteristics of land tenure established its own land laws based

essentially on Islamic regulations of ownership”. With regards to this question, all interviewees from both levels of councils explained that there is a significant role and influence to religious regulations especially the Islamic laws on previous and current systems in Iraq.

However, this statement may also reflect the previous indication that current systems were insufficient and under influence of old systems which may be inadequate with gender, indigenous and minority requirements. Based on the Islamic rules of ownership, the current administration in the ILAs should ensure the variety of Iraqi local communities’ requirements that may be inadequate with Islamic rules of ownership.

5.3.3 SECTION V - BARRIERS AND DIFFICULTIES: Participants in ILAs organisations were asked to assess how the current difficulties that influence on their policies to LTS implementation in Iraq.

The interviewees revealed a number of barriers that are said to prevent effective Administration in ILAs organisations, namely: Inter-communal violence and War/Post-war environment, Livelihoods deprivation, which can lead to Weak governance and deficiency of law applications, the refugee’s relocation problems and lack of rights awareness and other legal issues , missing indigenous rights ,Data on land ownership inappropriateness due to imbalance of documentation, hardware/software and technical barriers with misdirected policy and poor executions, and empowered informal settlements or illegal occupation situations. However, the difficulties are found to be varied. This was followed by asking participants to specify other barriers. The interviewees repeatedly voiced concerns relating to administrative reasons that can be due to different periods of misunderstanding /conflicted bureaucratic procedures in addition to lack of system performance, and to rigid/ complex and ethnic/ religious old rules and regulations. Consequently, a large amount of weight was also placed on the difficulties associated with financial issues such as lack of central government’s financial support, or on local deficiency as poorly performing of land markets and Lack of land availability and Bureaucratic corruptions.

5. SUMMARY AND MAIN FINDINGS

This section has presented results of the main findings from the interviewees' answers. The interviewees' responses from the ILAs used to highlight the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of LTS management in Iraq. The conclusions drawn from the analysis of the interviewees are summarised below:

- 1) There is a real will to implement an effective cooperative policy moving forward towards institutional reform within the legal framework proposed in the ILAs to encounter the challenges of LTS reality in Iraq; however its implementation in ground is driven by the Iraqi land governance at the transparency level and deficiency of legal framework;
- 2) The ILAs administrative policy of land and property rights has suffered a vital impact under influence of the inter-communal violence, also the Iraqi state insecurity situation was another negative factors and widespread the administrative problem hence it triggered administrative problems such as the refugee relocation problems and the inside displacement crises and influenced directly on the user's rights managements;
- 3) Due to serious influences of the post-war situation in Iraq, there was indication that current systems of LTS were insufficient; this evidence showed that instable political situation, the lack of equipment and the general disruption of bureaucratic services have compounded the administrative problem further;
- 4) The interviewee's responses showed that land rights in Iraqi laws are a real personal right supported by various forms of regulations, and significant number of which are a result of complex morals/rules of social, religious and political conflicts;
- 5) As observed in responses, the ILAs administrative policies are varied within wide range of regulations and forms. This overlapping can be used as an advantage leap, but in the same time it can work as an additional barrier regarded to rigid/ complex and old laws and applications and often unfair rights in ownership and benefits involved in the Iraqi social-traditional regulation;
- 6) Therefore, ineffective regulatory and Complexity of Bureaucratic Procedures and Deeply inequitable and often unfair rights in ownership and benefits; all should be avoided and removed by the government;
- 7) The interviewee's responses showed that the Iraqi triangular relationship of Land, People and Policies impacts on user's rights are often severe when they

occurred on a society scale or when not prepared for. This triangular relationship therefore is viewed as a complex set of community factors that governs end-users and their rights in land/property ownership in Iraq;

- 8) There are varied influences which are believed to be the fundamental considerations when these factors work for implementation the land user's rights in Iraq. It should be acknowledged that Islamic land laws (Shari'a) and social traditional regulations of ownership have a vital dynamic existing with active systematic evolution in deep background with Islamic/social ownership's concepts;
- 9) The interviewee's responses emphasised that influences of Tribal rules in ownership and gender regulations have increased sharply during current period as a result to instable situations in Iraq and weakness of national authority in general;
- 10) That significant role and influence of the old systems can reflect the fact that the Iraqi legitimate characteristics of land tenure established its own laws based essentially on religious/traditional regulations of ownership. However, this statement may also reflect the fact that there is an indication that current systems of ownership were insufficient under influence of old systems (Islamic/tribal rules of inheritance) which may be inadequate with some issues related to gender, indigenous and minority requirements. In the actual sense, elements of modern land administration reform should fill the current gaps in order to obtain commitment and consistency;
- 11) The interviewee's responses showed that the ILAs organisations are concerned with the establishment of viable and participatory government in the new Iraq. In all cases, the interviewees emphasised that the administrative solution is to develop a comprehensive relationship in all decision-making processes, and to adopt Separation of authorities for implementation and control land administration among all these organisations.

5.1 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

There is however a number of factors (external and internal) that affect the flow of land ownership rights in Iraq. The findings described in this chapter suggest that one

of the most dominant factors influencing the Iraqi development of land user's rights is stable governance and efficiency of law management and monitoring availability. It is important to note that, the Iraqi land tenure reforms and local regulations have had to cope with a long history of instable and deficiency of local governance and law scarcity. Instable and deficiency of recent weak governance and attempts by local traditional regulations to monopolize land rights have put unrelenting pressure on the current administrative policies of ILAs. Also, this chapter showed that these factors have been a major constraint to the promotion of delaying work in general and the initiation of land rights projects in particular. Nevertheless, a future detailed characterises and elements to implement such a disruptive innovation will require number of questions to be answered including:

- According to the end-users (People); what are the main factors which affect the Iraqi institutional government performance in executing the effective administration to land tenure rights?
- How they see the complexity the current administrative process of these institutes is?
- How satisfied are the Iraqi end-users with current procedures of the land registration system?
- What their suggestions for administrative improvement are?
- What are the weaknesses and strengths in the Iraqi institutional overall practices and current performance according to end-user's view?

However, quantitative data and field survey may suggest otherwise, primary data will be benefit to confirm some of the participant's answers to these questions by using the tools of the questionnaire data collection for further efficiency to these aspects. The answer to these questions will be the clue for the development and successful findings. The researcher is intended to answer these questions in following publications.

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Linking community-based researches to ecological insect pest management towards sustainable upland rice-based farming systems

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Community-based participatory action researches (CBPAR) is now being practiced in the Philippines particularly in marginalized upland rice-based farming communities in Mindanao. Farmers' field school (FFS) were modified to complement traditional upland rice farming systems and boost organic rice production. Upland rice farmers have developed innovative techniques to improve their cropping systems to cope with ever changing weather patterns and pressing agricultural production constraints. Results of CBPAR and FFS in selected organic upland rice farming communities in North Cotabato show that ecological insect pest control such as sesame-rice-“tahuri”-rice-sesame strip planting was effective in enhancing natural enemies abundance and species diversity. Sesame and “tahuri” provide refuge for rice-associated arthropods, which make insect pests vulnerable to predators and parasitoids. Such biotic interactions help regulate population build-up of phytophagous insect pests resulting to quality harvests not only for rice but also for sesame and “tahuri”. Interestingly, local farmers still follow the rituals and adhere on cultural beliefs associated to pest control from breeding to seed selection and from planting to harvesting as stipulated in their biodynamic calendar. Assessment reports revealed that CBPAF has significant role in bridging gaps between research-generated information and indigenous knowledge on insect pest management in traditional upland rice farming systems. The data gathered can serve as baseline reference for local government agricultural workers and concerned agencies to promote region-specific insect pest control strategies towards sustainable production of organic traditional upland rice in Mindanao, Philippines.

Keywords: Community-based participatory action research, traditional upland rice; organic rice production; ecological rice insect pest control, biodynamic calendar

Preliminary assessment of rice production and agricultural extension in Thailand during 1961- 2014

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Abstract

Agricultural extension for rice production in Thailand has been mainly worked out by Department of Agricultural Extension (DOAE) since 1967. While Thailand has been keeping the top rice exporter in the world, its rice yield (ca. 3 t/ha) is lower than the world average (ca. 4.5 t/ha). Our study aimed to assess roles of technology dissemination by DOAE for rice production in Thailand from the analysis of statistical data and government's reports. We found that change in new varieties, irrigation, inorganic fertilizers and change in cropping system were identified and considered as contribution by the DOAE have increased production and yield of rice in Thailand. In northeast region, a major rice production area under rainfed ecosystem, yield increase is also recognized from 1960's but its extent is smaller, indicating limited achievements of DOAE in this region. Along with the restructure of government in late 2000's that limited the roles of DOAE from technology dissemination to agricultural services such as farmer registration, dissemination of technology for rice has become expected more from researchers (e.g., in Rice Department). For the advancement of farm level technologies, relationship between rice researchers and farmers along with building capacity of farmers needs to be further investigated.

Introduction

Agricultural extension is advisory services that support and facilitate people engaged in agricultural production to solve problems and to obtain information, skills, and technologies to improve their livelihoods and well-being (IFPRI 2006). Contribution of agricultural extension has been shown throughout the world as an interface between research sector and farmer which made farmers know about modern technologies such as achievements in productivity increase from famous Asian green revolution, nurtured the skill of farmer's along with conservation of environment via IPM farmer field school, etc.

Thailand has been well-known as a top rice exporting country, however, its rice yield (ca. 3 t/ha) is lower than the world average (ca. 4.5 t/ha) and other countries in Asia (Figure 1, Data source: FAO stat) even though Thailand has gone through the green revolution which brought modern technologies consisting of high yielding rice varieties (HYVs), chemical input, mechanization in to agriculture leading to change in cropping system around the world. Our study aimed to make preliminary assessment of roles of agricultural extension in Thailand from the analysis of statistical data and government's reports.

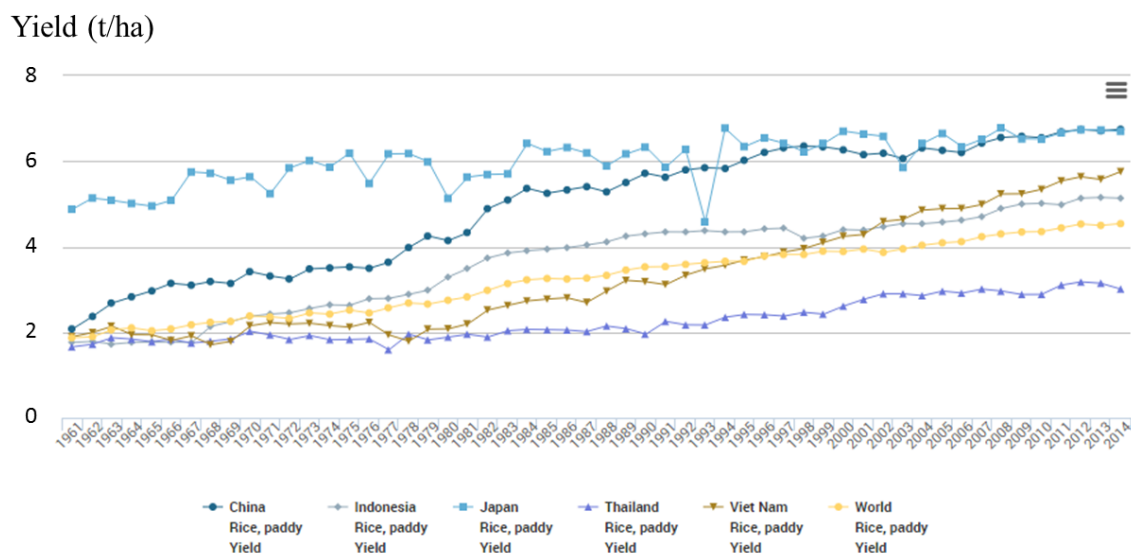


Figure 1 Rice yield change from 1961 to 2014 in Thailand, Asian countries and world average. From FAOSTAT2014.

Methods

Statistical data for rice production, harvested area, and yield were analyzed from FAOSTAT. Annual growth rate of production, harvested area, yield were calculated from 1961 to 1990 and from 1991 to 2010, as well as from 1961 to 2010 by least squares method from FAOSTAT. Country and regional wet season and dry season rice statistical records from 1974 to 2014 (OAE, 1979, 1980a, 1984, 1986, 1995, 2014, 2015a) were calculated and modified. Pearson's linear correlation analysis was imposed between rice varieties from 1989 to 2013 (OAE, 2015a) and yield (OAE, 2014), percentage of dry season rice productions which calculated from dry rice production from 1977 to 2014 (OAE, 1986, 1995, 2014, 2015a) and total rice production (OAE 1986, 1995, 2014, 2015a), irrigation data from 1961 to 2011 (RID, n.p.) and yield (OAE, 1986, 1995, 2015a), and inorganic fertilizer data from 1961- 2014 (Rice Research Institute, 2002; OAE, 2015b) and yield (FAOSTAT2014; OAE, 2014) were calculated by Pearson's correlation analysis via Microsoft excel software.

Literatures and government documents and reports during 1960's to 2010's were reviewed and assessed (Ocharoen and Panichayothai, 1998; DOAE, 1993, 1996, 2011, 2002). Preliminary interviews from the following key informant officers were conducted in March 2015, January and February 2016 as reference information for this rice extension assessment;

1. Rice researcher from Ubonratchathani Rice Research Center, Rice Department
2. Bureau of Rice Production Extension, Rice Research Center, Rice Department
3. Agricultural Extension Research and Development Division, DOAE
4. Northeast region's local agricultural officer, DOAE
5. Central region's local agricultural officer, DOAE.

Results

Increase of rice production

It has been found that since 1960's, rice production and yield has been increased significantly. In 1961, total rice production was only ca. 10 million tons, while it became ca.15 million tons during 1980's and reached over 35 million tons in 2010 (Figure 2). Annual growth rate of production was contributed by the growth rates of both area harvested and yield (Figure 3a). By 1990 the increase of production was raised by the expansion of harvested area (Figure 3b), while after 1991 increase of yield more enhanced production (Figure 3c).

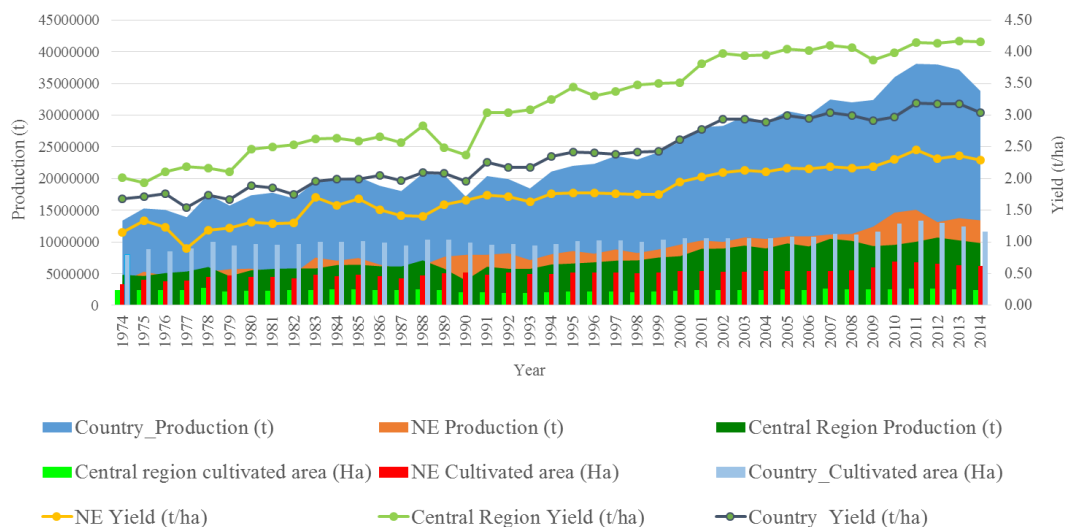


Figure 2 Changes in production, cultivated area and yield of rice from 1974 to 2014 in Thailand. Regional data in Central and Northeast Thailand are also shown.

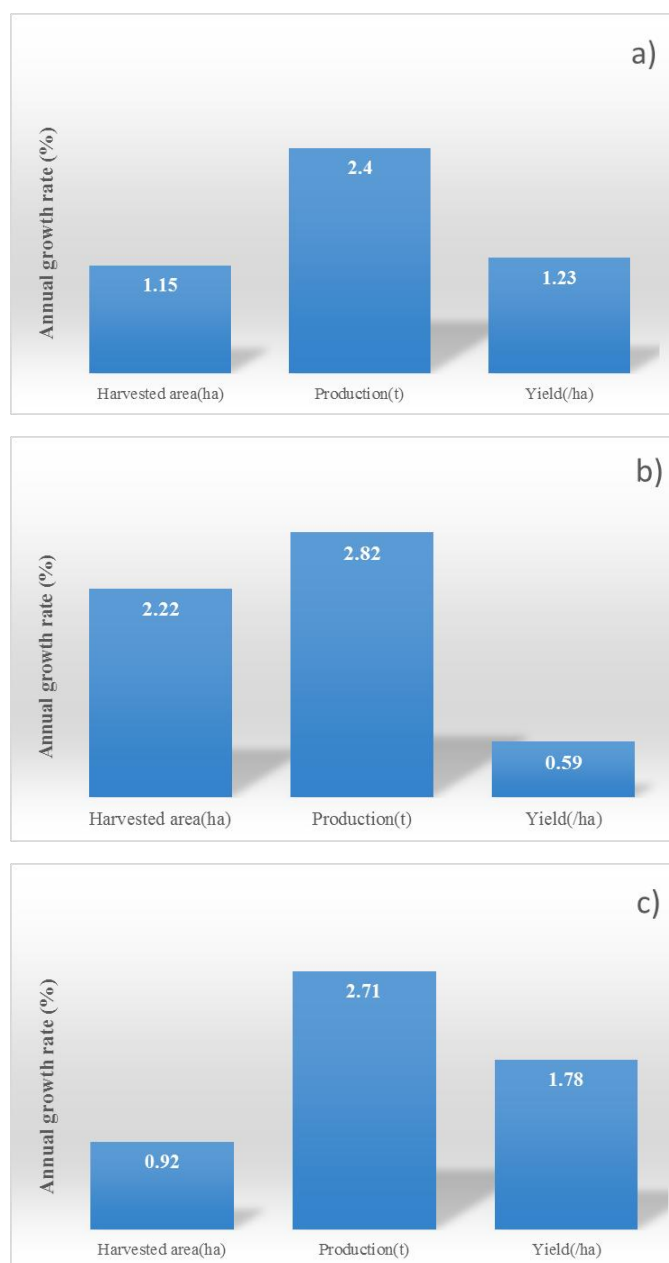


Figure 3 Annual growth rates of area harvested, production, and yield of Thailand during (a) 1961-2010, (b) 1961-1990 and (c) 1991-2010 (Data source: FAOSTAT)

The results showed some factors that significantly contributed to the increase of rice production. First, changes from landrace varieties into high yielding varieties increased yield. The percentage of cultivated area with landrace varieties was significantly negative correlated with rice yield during 1989 to 2013 ($r=0.95$) (Figure 4). Second, expansion of irrigation area lead to the increase of rice yield. The increase in the large and medium irrigation project area was significantly positive correlated with rice yield during 1961 to 2011 ($r=0.94$) (Figure 5).

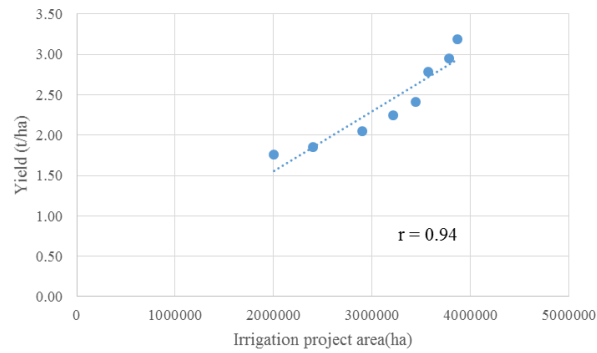
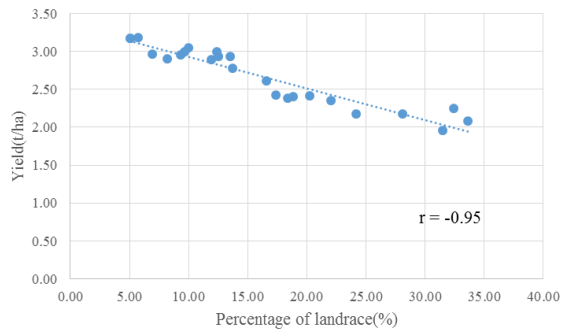


Figure 4 Scatter plot between percentage of landrace cultivated area and rice yield during 1989 to 2013 in Thailand.

Figure 5 Scatter plot between percentage of large and medium irrigation project area and rice yield during 1961 to 2011 in Thailand.

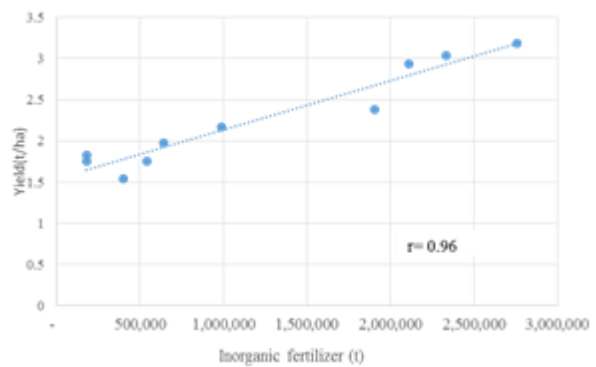
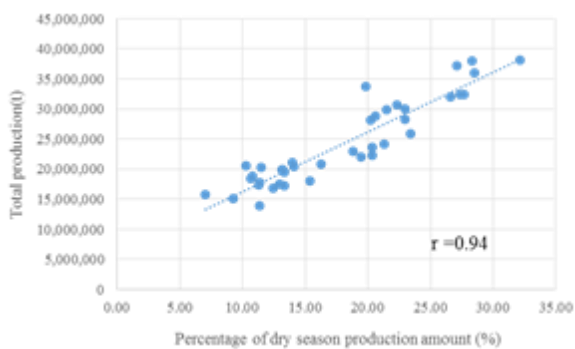


Figure 6 Scatter plot between percentage of dry season production and total rice production during 1976 to 2014 in Thailand.

Figure 7 Scatter plot between amount of inorganic fertilizer and yield during 1961 to 2014 in Thailand.

Third, change of cropping system and rice production ecosystems played substantial role in total production increment. Increasing percentage of dry season rice production contributed to increase in total rice production. In 1970's dry season rice production contributed to only 10% of total rice production but the figure became more than 30% in 2014 (Figure 6). Deepwater rice ecosystem in central region of Thailand with low yield level due to flood had been substantially converted to dry season irrigated rice ecosystem where high yielding photoperiod insensitive varieties were grown (Buddhaboon et al., 2013). This also increased yield and production. Fourth, use of inorganic fertilizer in rice production significantly positively correlated with rice yield during 1961 to 2014 (Figure 7).

Agricultural extension system

Systematic agricultural extension in Thailand started in 1967 when DOAE was established with authorities and roles in agricultural knowledge dissemination and services (Ocharoen and Panichayothai, 1998; DOAE, 2011). The period of DOAE can be mainly divided into 3 phases:

1. 1967-1977 General agricultural extension approach

At this phase, there were many limitations such as lack in materials, tools and supports for operation. The advices in extension were not specific and sometimes having been neglected from farmers. The efficiency of technology transfer depended on the personal capability of officers.

2. 1978-1996 Training and visit system

According to the support from World Bank, training and visit system has been started which disseminated many modern technologies of green revolution to farmers via officers' visits with collaboration of local farmer's leaders. The officers were trained systematically and the tools and techniques such as plot demonstration, posters and lectures were used. Due to the top-down system, communication tended to be one-way, and farmers tended to be regarded as recipient of the new technology without being trained in analytical thinking skill to cope with their problems by themselves.

3. 1997- present Participatory system

Tools and techniques used in this phase included participation and learning activities and programs offered from farmer field schools and agricultural technology transfer and service center (ATSC). Farmers had more chance to participate in agricultural development and planning and some of them improved skill to think and

analyze. The extension at this phase considered environmental conservation along with the development on agricultural production.

A preliminary comparative assessment has shown different work emphasis of DOAE between training and visit phase and participatory phase. In the former phase DOAE emphasized on transferring modern technologies mainly via the visit of officers and plot demonstration in order to increase production of economic crops (Ocharoen A and Panichayothai, 1998; DOAE, 1977,1981). DOAE changed this extension system in the former phase according to the change of 1997 Constitution of Thailand, 8th National economic and developmental plan. Agriculture was intended to be more strengthened and local community development via farmers' participatory learning was emphasized in the latter phase. More diverse needs of farmers were covered and their independence was fostered. Production by use of appropriate technology for sustainable agriculture was emphasized such as IPM, organic agriculture, sufficiency economics philosophy, etc. However, the tasks of officers were loaded on agricultural services and as facilitator for agricultural development activities than advance technology dissemination.

Discussion

Inauguration of DOAE in 1967 and adoption of Train and Visit System from 1978-1996 in agricultural extension in Thailand would have been driven by green revolution in Asia starting from 1960's. New high yield varieties (HYVs) came from the breeding program with collaboration with International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), which contributed to a small increase in rice yield during 1960-1990, together with increase in irrigation area. However half of total rice area was still planted with landrace varieties (DOA; n.p., 1984). Inorganic fertilizer was applied but at low rate of application (OAE, 1997), for example, only 43 kg/ha and 21 kg/ha of nitrogen elements for non-glutinous rice and glutinous rice, respectively during wet season, resulting in low yield at 1.72 t/ha and 1.49 t/ha respectively in 1980 (modified from OAE (1980b)). The degrees of dissemination of modern technologies have been limited during early period of DOAE (OAE, 1980b). While the degree of intensification had been low to medium by 1990, production increased by area expansion.

Worldwide trends of reassessment of inefficiency of Train and Visit System prompted to seek for alternative methods of agricultural extension in 1990's. It is recognized that adoption of farmer participatory approach by Thai government from 1997 coincided with more rapid yield increase and production intensification from 1990 to 2010. While after 1990, landrace varieties have been almost replaced by new HYVs which had two times higher potential yield with the cultivated area of landrace reducing from 33.6% in 1989 to 5.0% in 2013 (calculated from OAE (2015b)). Inorganic fertilizers became more intensely used from 1990's onwards to reach the present application rate of 185 kg/ha for wet season rice (modified from OAE (2015b)). Dry season production increased gradually from 1,393,000 tons in 1976 (OAE, 1986) to 10,086,500 tons in 2013 (OAE, 2015b).

Rice yield of central plain and northeast regions increased but with the former region attaining greater enhancement (Figure 2). The reason was considered to be the rice varietal differences; in central region farmers grew higher yielding photoperiod insensitive varieties such as SPN1 and attained average yield around 4.5-5 t/ha with good irrigated system. On the other hand varieties grown in northeast region were mostly photoperiod sensitive fragrance varieties (i.e., KDML105, RD6, RD15) which were adapted to rainfed lowland ecosystem with their average yield around 3-3.5 t/ha (Paitoonchaloenlarp et al, 2008). On-farm yield of

northeast region could be lower, only around 2-2.5 t/ha (calculated from OAE (2014)) depending on the extent of stress such as drought or flood. Just from the yield gain during the past years extension of northeast region seems to have only limited output. It may be necessary to consider other aspects of technologies apart from high yield in northeast region, such as stability, quality, labor-productivity, product improvement i.e. GAP, farmer development, etc.

Our analysis indicated that smaller level of yield increase in Thailand compared with other countries in Asia and world from 1960 to 2010 is explained by (1) limited irrigation development and dominant proportion of rainfed rice area (i.e., around 70%) in Thailand, (2) breeding programs focusing on yield stability under rainfed ecosystem (e.g., tolerant or resistant to biotic and abiotic stress) and comparatively less emphasis to increase yield potential; hybrid varieties are not much adopted in Thailand unlike Vietnam and China.

The situation of government organization including DOAE dramatically changed in 2006 and 2009 due to restructure of government and policy. Policy on farmer's data registration which is aimed to use for planning national agricultural development as a database for the decision on project and policy of government (MOAC, 2009) increased the works of extension officers (e.g., farmer registration services). As a result, their efforts for the works of dissemination of technology have been much reduced. Along with the issue of the act of restructure of government on rice in 2006 to establish Rice Department (RD) to be a responsible sector to work for whole issues of rice, rice researchers in RD have to work including extension tasks of technology transfer as well. Research and extension works directly to farmers by researchers would become challenging tasks for both researchers and farmers who may not be familiar in communication skills required for extension. Hence, developing relationship between rice researchers and farmers along with building capacity of farmers would become an important issue as well as technology development for improvement of rice production. Investigation of factors and limitation to this relationship and participation is being studied at present in selected villages in northeast region, to clarify the situations of farmer-researcher relationship and possible pathway for rice extension in Northeast Thailand.

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Saansad Adarsh Gram Yojana: Sustaining Stakeholders' Participation?

Surabhi Bajpai

As of 2014, 67.6¹ percent of India's population resides in its villages. Given the nature of India's democracy and the fact that two-third of India's population resides in its villages, majority of the development and alleviation oriented schemes have been focused towards rural areas involving huge outlays and implementation scale, irrespective of the government in power. Since the election of the new government in India, various schemes such as the *Pradhanmantri Grameen Sadak Yojana*, the *Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employee Guarantee Act (MNREGA)*, the *Jan Dhan Yojana*, the *Indira Awaas Yojana*, the *Pradhanmantri Jeevanjyoti Beema Yojana*, and the *Atal Pension Yojana* have come into being and are increasingly being operated towards effective field implementation.

Inspired by Mahatma Gandhi's vision of model villages, the *Saansad Adarsh Gram Yojana* (SAGY) or the model village adoption and development scheme, launched in October 2014, following an announcement by Prime Minister Modi in his inaugural address at India's 69th Independence Day, is unique in many ways. SAGY aims at installing certain values in the villages and their people so that they get transformed into models for others, calling for a demonstration effect. The values of SAGY emphasizes heavily on people's participation, gender equality, guaranteeing social justice and adherence to *antyodaya* – “enabling the poorest and the weakest person in the village to achieve wellbeing”. Though, these are often the key words for any policy, unlike previous policies, which involved disbursing huge sums of money towards various rural centred scheme, this policy calls for a convergence plan of various government programs and grants and hence, does not allocate any additional budget towards the execution of the scheme. Moreover, elements of the new CSR (Corporate Social

¹ Rural poverty portal <http://www.ruralpovertyportal.org/country/statistics/tags/india>

Responsibility) Act ²and converging of national and state schemes have been heavily emphasized in the implementation process.

Additionally, one of the reasons that SAGY emphasizes heavily on social inclusion and a participatory approach is to create a sense of ownership and initiate collective action. Given the past experiences and the inconsistency in the development of rural areas across India, it acknowledges the disconnect between development inputs delivered and the needs of the community, often associated with centrally sponsored “one size fits all” type of schemes. Problems cited as ineffective implantation of schemes also include, absence of organic convergence of different schemes, unfair decisions regarding allocation of benefits to locations and households leading to alienation, political partisanship and disregard to socio-cultural values of different sections of the community.

As a way to overcome the short comings and ineffectiveness of rural development schemes in the past, the responsibility of the implementation of the SAGY has majorly been accounted towards Members of Parliament (MP’s), elected representatives of the Panchayat and functionaries of various programs concerned at national, state and district level. To improve implantation and measurement, overall coordination and review mechanisms have also been laid out at different levels, including establishing review committees at national and state level. The elected MP, acknowledged as a major promoter of the scheme, with responsibilities including, but not exhaustive of, identification and selection of the *adarsh gram* or the model village, engaging with the community and motivating them to take up development activities on their own, mobilizing additional resources, particularly from CSR and philanthropies, periodic measurement of progress, including non-tangible outcomes, such as the ones focusing on social inclusion and justice.

At a national level, with the Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India as the nodal ministry, two high level committees, one headed by the Minister of Rural Development, GoI and the second, headed by the secretary of Rural Development, with

² Section 135 of The Companies Act, 2013

membership from various agencies touching on the themes of *panchayati raj*, women and child development, school education, micro, small and medium enterprises have been formed as a part of the implementation process. As a follow up mechanism and also to facilitate convergence of various national and state level schemes, an empowered committee headed by the Chief Secretary, consisting of relevant departments, including experts and the Secretary of the Rural Development Department have been mandated as a channel of implementation with respect to the scheme.

The roles and responsibilities assigned at the state level are supplemental to the central SAGY guidelines and include review of village development plans, structuring monitoring mechanism, identifying bottle necks, coordination with the national committees, developing a time table for exposure visits and facilitating technical and administrative support for the field staff. Even though, the planning and implementation process of the SAGY involves coordination at National and State level, the actual implementation and execution of the scheme lies with the District Collector, playing the role of the nodal officer, assisted by charge officer, identified professionals of the District Mission Management Units, of NRLM³ and the PMRDF's⁴, in case applicable. The responsibilities of the DC not only include review meeting with MP but also conducting a base line survey and facilitating the preparation of a village development plan.

Given that the scheme has completed a year since its launch, according to the current numbers out of the 543 members of *Lok Sabha*, so far only 499 members have identified Gram Panchayats, with 44 members not having identified their villages, with maximal number of 38 from the state of West Bengal. Additionally, for *Rajya Sabha*, the numbers are even higher with 52 out of a total of 248 members not even having identified their gram panchayats.⁵

³ National Rural Livelihood Mission

⁴ Prime Minister's Rural Development Fellow

⁵ GoI, SAGY, Summary Report http://164.100.72.105/mobile/reports/Dreports/SummarReport_chosenGP.aspx

Moreover, given that onus of the scheme lies with the MP, many have called the scheme as well-intentioned but impractical. The experiment of choosing a village as per the guidelines of the scheme can be a conundrum for any MP, as stated by Mr. Satapathy, a four time MP from Dhenekanal, Odisha, “Let me be totally selfish and opportunistic here. I am a four-time Lok Sabha Member of Parliament. When I seek votes in future elections, people of the vast majority of villages would ask me why did I not choose their village for SAGY, and what makes me competent to beg for their support! It is also possible that supporters of opponents could ask me to scoot and ask for votes only in those handful of villages which I would be insensible enough to earmark for 'development' under SAGY. I have, by the way, received more than 600 applications from villagers (including letters from IFS and IAS officers) requesting that I adopt their village.”⁶.

As a measure, many MP’s have found innovative solution to this problem, Mr. Jayant Sinha, MP, Hazaribagh, in correspondence via his office, “applied an innovative practice of organizing a district wide competition inviting application from 20 blocks for the selection the adarsh gram, utilizing the participatory nature of the scheme.”⁷ In terms of implementation, “strict follow ups and frequent visits have been cited as a way to sustain mobilization”. Given that the scheme does not allocate separate funding for implementation and execution, the major promotion of the scheme does lie with the bureaucracy at the district level. In a telephonic interview with a former PMRDF in Jharkhand, involved in the implementation of the scheme, one of the drawbacks of the scheme has been the concentration of the resources only towards the selected village and exclusion of members of other neighboring villages in the MP’s constituency.

Additionally, the onus of implementing the scheme, headed by the BDO’s⁸ and charges officers may be jaded due non-monetary exchange of resources given the nature of the program. Considering, the scheme calls for participatory development, including a call for collective action and a sense of ownership, the translation of the same across various gram panchayats may not give standardized results. Moreover, given the deficit in inputs, the focus

⁶ Sathapathy Tathagata, “Poke Me: Sansad Adarsh Gram Yojana a well-intentioned but impractical scheme”, The Economic Times, July 8, 2015”, http://articles.economictimes.indiatimes.com/2015-07-08/news/64212215_1_sansad-adarsh-gram-yojana-sagy-mplad-fund

⁸ Block Development Officer

of the scheme to shift towards softer interventions and measurement and dissemination of outcomes at a village level, may not be easy to cite. Additionally, at the national level, coordination between state and central governments as an example to follow with respect to convergence of schemes has achieved mixed results, especially with opposing parties in government at the state and national level. Expressing dismay at the failure of the MPs from West Bengal to join Prime Minister Narendra Modi's ambitious project, Saansad Adarsh Gram Yojana, the Prime Minister's Office (PMO) shot off a letter to the West Bengal Chief Secretary to review the progress made.⁹

Given that it has only been a year since the implementation of the scheme, the progress so far cannot be sighted in absolute numbers. Though, considering the outreach and mobilization associated with the scheme, it does carry the potential of large scale transformation, based on the will to serve villages. If around 800 parliamentarians adopt a village every year, by 2019, more than 4,000 villages will be transformed into model villages. Without putting an ounce of extra burden on the taxpayer and by effective utilization of presently underutilized local area funds, SAGY would transform the lives of more than 2.5 crore people in rural India.¹⁰

As an introduction to this scheme, the village of Punsari, Sabarkantha, Gujarat, and Hiware Bazar, Ahmednagar, Maharashtra, have been cited as an examples to follow. Though, the concept of success and well-being differs for the both the villages and hence, cannot be compared, a common thread underlying the two is the will of the people of the village, translated into action with the members of the Gram Panchayat. Therefore, the underlying theme of this scheme as a way to create community led mobilization to facilitate economic, social, human and personal development lies with members of the villages and echoes the concept of *jan bhagidari* or people's participation. An a concluding note, in pursuit of Mahatam Gandhi's description of an ideal village

⁹ Kumar Anand U, "Village Adoption: PMO writes to Bengal Chief Secy", Economic Times, February 18, 2015

¹⁰ Sitharaman Nirmala, "Sansad Adarsh Gram Yojana: The will to serve our villages", Economic Times, July 18, 2015

“An ideal Indian village will be so constructed as to lend itself to perfect sanitation. It will have cottages with sufficient light and ventilation built of a material obtainable within a radius of 5 miles of it. The village lanes and streets will be free of all avoidable dust. It will have wells according to its needs and accessible to all. It will have houses of worship for all; a village common for grazing its cattle, a co-operative dairy, a primary and secondary schools in which industrial education will be the central fact and it will have panchayats for settling disputes. It will produce its own grains, vegetables and fruit, and its own khadi. This is my idea of model villages.”

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The Empowerment of Micro, Small and Medium Based on Commodities in Lebak, Banten, Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

Local economic development is not a new thing. In general, regional or local economic development is essentially an attempt to strengthen the competitiveness of the local economy for domestic economic growth and the accumulation of these activities will have a great impact on the development of national economic competitiveness and strengthening the competitiveness of the national economy. The role of SMEs in the domestic economy is critical and strategic. This is supported by some data macro-economic indicators of SMEs is quite dominant in the Indonesian economy. The development of cooperatives and micro, small and medium enterprises is also an important part of the economic development of Lebak. Development and empowerment of SMEs require a comprehensive review to provide information and appropriate policy recommendations for stakeholders in developing SMEs. One focus of the research is important to be related to the development of SMEs is the study of the development of primary commodities of MSMEs. This paper using descriptive analysis, Focus Group Discussion and SWOT. From the analysis resulted that the biggest problem faced by SMEs is the problem of capital, no legal framework explains the main commodity in Lebak, and needs no assistance from the local government policy to SMEs.

Keywords: SMEs, Empowerment, Commodities

INTRODUCTION

Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) have an important role in economic development. Because the rate of labor absorption is relatively high and the need for capital investment is small, SMEs can flexibly adjust and respond to changing market conditions. This makes SMEs are not susceptible to a variety of external changes. SMEs would be able to grasp quickly the opportunities, for example for production substitutive imports and increase domestic needs. Therefore, the development of SMEs can support economic diversification and acceleration of structural change, which is a prerequisite for the long-term economic development of stable and sustainable.

The role of SMEs in the national economy is vital and strategic. This is supported by some data macro-economic indicators of SMEs is quite dominant in the Indonesian economy. SMEs constitute the largest segment of national economic actors. The big issue is why the economic growth in Indonesia as well as provincial and local level with the districts and cities still small does not meet the targets or goals so that the construction remains low . This has an impact still many poverty and unemployment. How can spur economic growth in the region? One point of the problem is the discovery of the type of business people (micro small and medium enterprises) and featured excellent products and earning potential to be developed into a mainstay in the area (Rusdarti, 2010).

According to the Ministry of Cooperatives and SMEs, the number of SMEs in 2010 reached 53, 82 million units, increasing to 55, 20 million units in 2011. By category, the largest portion is a segment of micro enterprises, which account for about 99% of the total number of SMEs (Depkop, 2012). The Central Bureau of Statistics also explained that the highest sector of the investment made by the SMEs is in services (57 percent), trade (20 per cent) and manufacturing (23 per cent). The magnitude scale businesses and cooperatives SME sector are estimated to reach 54 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Such a large number of shows, SMEs have an important role in supporting the national economy. Therefore, the development of SMEs should receive the most attention.

The development of cooperatives and micro, small and medium enterprises is also an important part of the economic development of Lebak. Meanwhile, based on the results of Economic Census 2006 conducted by BPS unknown number of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Lebak district amounted to 104 537 units of business which operates in 13 types of businesses.

During the development of primary commodities of MSMEs in determining the priority scale list using the criteria of production data, opinions, agencies and major data of MSME respondents on a KPJU (commodity, product, and type of business) in a subdistrict. But this time, there has been a relatively fundamental change, where the determination of KPJU featured in Regency / City using analytical tools Comparative Methods Exponential (MPE) and Analytic Hierarchy process (AHP), with expectations in each regency / municipality in the province will KPJU has featured in various sectors were appropriate and suitable to be developed. This method refers to a method developed Thailand through the OTOP program, which was quite successful in developing SMEs in Thailand. With this method, the local government can establish a more focused program to develop specific KPJU featured in a district / city, so they can create jobs and increase social welfare. Expected featured KPJU can stir-KPJU KPJU because the working of backward linkages and forward linkages Thus the poverty rate will decline, and economic growth, in general, will increase.

In addition to encouraging the government to focus better, determination of priority KPJU (featured) will also encourage the government can appropriate policy for diversity patterns of the scale efficiencies of each KPJU. In theory, each product or service type (KPJU) certain, would have economies of scale that are different from the products or services (KPJU) to another. KPJU that has economies of scale are low, and then the industry

will be difficult KPJU entrant deter entry. Because it is the so easy entrant into the industry, the business scale KPJU for each unit will be small. For such cases, the appropriate policy strategies to improve the efficiency of the industry is to have a form of clustering industrial centers, or an industrial area. In contrast to KPJU with large economies of scale, then within the industry itself would be difficult for a new entrant entered. For KPJU so, then the appropriate government policy is to encourage and facilitate the KPJU business units to achieve economies of scale, by organizing the healthy competition, namely by developing the contestable market.

The ability of SMEs to compete in the era of free trade, both in the domestic market and in export markets, is determined by two main conditions that need to be met. First, the internal environment must be conducive SMEs, which covers aspects of human resource quality, control and information technology, organizational structure, management systems, culture/business culture, the power of capital, business networks with outsiders, and the level of entrepreneurship (entrepreneurship). Second, the external environment should also be conducive, related to government policies, legal aspects, market competition conditions, economic-social, infrastructure conditions, the level of public education, and changes in the global economy. In addition to these two conditions, the strategy of empowering SMEs to be able to enter the world market is vital for ensuring the survival of SMEs.

But in its development, SMEs have limitations in various ways, including limited access to market information, limited market reach, limited networks, and limited access to the strategic business location (Tambunan, 2012). Therefore, efforts to improve access of SMEs to the market information, business location, and business networking to increase productivity and competitiveness. Particularly for SMEs in Lebak, its development is very worrying. Development in Lebak, who used intensively in the industrial sector, has now switched to the trade and services sectors. This, of course, threatens the existence of SMEs. Seeing the potential of which is owned by Lebak, which until now has not been fully utilized. The potential could come from agribusiness, agriculture, marine and fisheries, livestock, mining and energy, property and tourism. The role of local government as the policy makers should be keen to be able to see the potential of Lebak. Policies and plans for either long or short term are taken to be more oriented to public welfare. Development that is not associated with the problem of poverty will lead to short- and long-term problems that will ultimately harm the development process itself. Raised the issue of poverty and find alternative preventive efforts become a priority in development is something that is very precise.

Development and empowerment of SMEs require a comprehensive review to provide information and appropriate policy recommendations for stakeholders in developing SMEs. By the description, this study intends to study KPJU featured in Lebak using FGD, descriptive analysis, and SWOT analysis. Based on the results of this study are expected to provide information and policy recommendations appropriate for the banks and the Government of Lebak in developing the regional economy. SMEs development in the future needs to combine the benefits of local (neighborhood internal) and global market opportunities, synergized with regional autonomy and the free market. SMEs needs market thinking on a global scale and act locally (think globally and act locally) in making decisions related to the development of SMEs (Hafsah, 2004).

METHODOLOGY

This study took place in Lebak. Data that will be observed in this study included primary data and secondary data. For primary data collection will be done by purposive sampling method that is more oriented towards the achievement of the essence of the research objectives.

This study is a phase that has a storied. So that the results of the analysis that would be associated with the analysis in the previous stage. To achieve the objectives that have been outlined earlier, the analysis tools that will be used in this study are as follows:

a. Descriptive Analysis

The analysis in this study was conducted with the descriptive statistical approach. This analysis gives an overview of consistent patterns in the data, so the results can be explored and interpreted briefly and depth based on the results of the descriptive analysis (Kuncoro, 2003). In a descriptive analysis made interpretation of the data and relationships that exist in the study. Also, it also carried out a comparison between the results with the results of related studies and made the correlation between the outcome of these studies with theories or concepts that are relevant.

b. Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) is a process of data collection and complete information concerning a very specific issue through discussion groups. FGD is necessary to:

- Researchers want to obtain in-depth information about the level of perception, attitude, and experience of informants.
- Researchers want to understand more diversity of perspectives among community groups or categories.
- Researchers require additional information in the form of qualitative data from quantitative research involving a complex community issue and have important implications.
- Researchers want to gain satisfaction and value for high accuracy due to hear opinions directly from the subject of research

c. SWOT Analysis

SWOT Analysis is used as the basis for defining a strategy to determine strengths and weaknesses and the opportunities and challenges that will be faced by SMEs. SWOT Analysis is an analysis of internal and external conditions of an organization which will then be used as the basis for designing the strategy and work program (Rangkuti, 1997). The internal analysis includes pension the power factor Strength and Weakness. Meanwhile, the external analysis includes factors Opportunities and Threat.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Descriptive Analysis

Lebak is famous as one of the commodity-producing fruit, especially bananas. Every day dozens of tons of bananas shipped to various areas of Lebak. The marketing aspect of the abundance of bananas this is not a problem, because no matter how much some bananas will continue to be absorbed by the market. But the advantage of the abundance of these commodities can only be enjoyed by a few people, especially the middleman who have enough capital. While the standard of living of the farmers had not yet moved out of economic difficulties. That condition is a significant opportunity, and added value for commodity bananas are plentiful in Lebak, namely the banana processing into a variety of processed foods, so in addition to absorbing the workforce will also provide added value to commodity bananas than if sold directly without any processing.

In the process of implementation and development of the banana commodity business sale, there are various problems. The economic crisis and the high level of competition between employers one. These conditions make the artisans have to be more creative in developing business and tried to exist still. To overcome this problem, there are several steps were performed. One is a marketing strategy that put more emphasis on direct sales to

consumers (direct selling) is accompanied by a high level of promotion as well.

Marketing becomes an important part of maintaining the viability of the industry. Commercialization of bananas sale in Lebak is direct, no pay on the spot or through the collectors. The selling price of bananas sale at the producer level ranges between Rp. 9000 - Rp. 10,000 / kg, while the market price ranges between Rp. 10.000 - Rp. 15,000/ kg (the amount of which is based on the year 2013, and from time to time subject to change). Sale of Lebak bananas is marketed to the traditional market in the district of Lebak and its surroundings, or sold to a major airport.

If seen from the difference between the selling price which is already passing through a middleman or mediator will be seen that the largest profit margins enjoyed by collectors not craftsmen sale of bananas. Several steps can be undertaken by entrepreneurs and supported by local governments in the form of coaching and mentoring techniques of packaging and more efficient marketing technologies, such as on the exhibition of products. Another step that can be done is the establishment of cooperative entrepreneurs banana sale. Such conditions that added value if done excellent packaging, effective marketing impact can be enjoyed by the artisans themselves. Expected employment rate will rise, and the economic income communities craftsmen banana sale will also increase. The development potential banana sale processing business is enormous. Number craftsmen banana sale in Lebak in 2013 amounted to ± 148 business units with a production capacity of bananas sale ± 340 992 kg per day, and the number of workers absorbed as many as 296 people (Commodity Profile Lebak, 2013). Business potential banana sale in more rings shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1. The Potential of Pisang Sale in Lebak 2013

No	District	Number of Unit	Number of Labor	Production Capacity	Value of Production
1.	Cilograng	45	90	103.680	311.040
2.	Bayah	103	206	237.312	711.936
3.	Total Amount	148	296	340.992	1.022.976

Source: Commodity Profile Lebak, 2013

Lebak is also known as the primary production of brown sugar/palm sugar. Employment in the public manufacture of palm sugar Lebak hereditary growth since ancient times. This is possible because there are quite a lot of Lebak palm plants.

Conditions resources abundant raw material is not accompanied by modern processing methods. Event production is still done traditionally and very simple. In 2013 in Lebak, there are around 5 815 business units engaged in the business of processing sugar/palm sugar. Palm sugar is widely used for cooking and baking, because palm sugar can cause the color, strengthen color durability from the natural dyes, besides that brown color is the fiber content of foods that are beneficial for digestive health.

The raw material for making palm sugar is obtained from molasses or what is often referred to as a cap, which male flowers frame arena or palm plants that can be tapped when the 5 -year -old palm plant with production peaks at age 15-20 years. The outpouring juice is usually accommodated in the tube (1-meter long bamboo rods), and the storage process can take up to 3 months continuously without stopping. Each tree can produce 10-15 liters of juice/day dengan 2 times tapping, i.e., morning and afternoon. Commodities palm sugar has an enormous potential for developed, because it has an economic value of labor is quite large. Moreover, the spread of business units covered almost 15 districts in Lebak district also holds the potential of a great driver of the economy. Production capacity and production value generated from palm sugar business are also quite high. For details, see on Table 2:

Table 2. The Potential of Palm Sugar in Lebak 2013

No	District	Number of Unit	Number of Labor	Production Capacity	Value of Production
4.	Sobang	1.193	2.386	2.505.300	20.042.400
5.	Bojong Manik	38	76	79.800	638.400
6.	Lebak Gedong	329	658	690.900	5.527.200
7.	Sajira	36	72	75.600	604.800
8.	Muncang	262	524	550.200	4.401.600
9.	Cirinten	485	970	1.018.500	8.148.000
10.	Gunung Kencana	155	310	325.500	1.604.000
11.	Cigemblong	743	1.479	1.552.950	12.423.600
12.	Cijaku	376	752	789.600	6.316.000
13.	Cibeber	886	1.772	1.860.600	14.884.800
14.	Cilograng	239	478	501.900	4.015.200
15.	Cihara	205	294	308.700	2.469.600
16.	Wanasalam	64	128	134.400	1.075.200
17.	Malingping	131	262	275.100	2.200.800
18.	Panggarangan	673	1.346	1.413.300	11.306.400
	Total Amount	5.815	11.507	12.082.350	96.658.800

Source: Commodity Profile Lebak, 2013

Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

Identify the problem and the need for commodity clusters of palm sugar and banana sale made through the analysis of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with stakeholders, i.e., Local Government and businesses. The results of the analysis of the FGDs with the parties concerned can be identified problems/obstacles in the development of clusters or sale of commodities KPJU banana and palm sugar, among others:

a. Availability of raw materials

Raw material constraints facing is continuity. At the time of harvest, abundant raw materials can not be absorbed up by businesses because of limited storage technology and production capacity. While the dry season occurs in reverse. Unique palm sugar, the minimum age of trees that can be taken nira also an obstacle. Also replanting adopts a long time also became one of the barriers assuredness industrial raw materials.

b. Production capacity

Production constraint is felt regarding quantity and quality. Regarding number, workmanship processing is still traditionally has a limitation of the amount of production. The production capacity constraints cause has not been able to fulfill the demand in large quantities. Regarding quality is the uniformity of the product, either from the shape, size, etc. and levels of cleanliness level of product yield.

c. Standardization

Standardization of product sale related to the ability of banana and palm sugar can be bought and sold in modern markets such as supermarkets. During this time the sale of the two commodities only through direct selling to consumers.

d. Capitalization

The problem of capital for businesses of the two commodities is the main problem faced. To meet the number of large orders, it takes a significant capital. So far businesses still having problems with access to credit from banks as collateral

problems.

e. Packaging and Marketing

Still simple product packaging so that the product easily damaged and less attractive to the consumer is also a problem. Engineering and marketing model is still very traditional also hindered the development of the product.

f. Price stability

The selling price of the product sale of banana and palm sugar is strongly influenced by the price of raw materials and production support. Moreover, the tendency of businesses that sell their products to middlemen also constrains the maximum added value that can be felt by businesses.

g. Legal protection

Statue of law is used as collateral for the business of the types and forms of a commodity that is in Lebak. The side of the legality of the products has been the constraints faced by companies if it is to carry out a new marketing strategy, for example through the exhibition.

SWOT Analysis

SWOT analysis is the analysis that sees the potential of SMEs to grow and develop regarding internal and external SMEs. Internally SMEs include the strengths and weaknesses (Strength and Weakness) and on the outer side of SMEs including opportunities and threats (Opportunity and Threat). For the sale of commodities banana and palm sugar, referring to the SWOT analysis can be indicated the conditions as shown in Table 3 below:

SWOT (Strength and Weakness - Opportunity and Threat)			
Internal		Eksternal	
<i>Strength</i>		<i>Opportunity</i>	
a	The selling price of that products are high	a	The diversity of consumer tastes
b	Environmental conditions that support the availability of raw materials	b	The export market is still open
c	<i>Trade mark</i> product	c	The high interest of investors who want to invest in Lebak potential development of industrial zones
d	Highly number of human resources	d	Starting of AFTA
<i>Weakness</i>		<i>Threat</i>	
a	Limited of technology (production and packaging)	a	The availability of land for raw materials is increasingly limited
b	The production cycle was not fixed	b	Producers from other regions are starting to do the innovation for this product
c	Low of marketing techniques		

To develop SMEs with featured KPJU sale of bananas and palm sugar necessary strategic steps to support it. Availability of raw materials will ensure production capacity. High selling price will be maintained if the production capacity can be sustained. To support this, the environmental conditions must be maintained so that raw materials can be met at any time. Some competent human resources is also a major strength of the sustainability of production of this commodity.

Opportunities for the development effort for these products is enormous. Supporting factors include the diversity of consumer tastes. The variety of tastes will encourage businesses to innovate the development of products such as packaging, shape and quality of the products, etc. Besides an opportunity that must be read by the enterprise is the export market is still wide open. Economy into the era of free trade could also be a market for this commodity.

To develop the quality and quantity of the products of SMEs for the two goods is certainly a lot of weaknesses. One of them is a right technology engineering technology, as well as the production and marketing of packaging, are still very traditional. This condition will certainly hamper the development efforts of commodity sale featured KPJU banana and palm sugar in Lebak. Also, the production cycle is not fixed depending on the availability of raw materials and capital is also a weakness that must be anticipated.

Factors that can not be overlooked is the threat from an internal and external side. On the domestic side, for example, is a high level of human resources of businesses. The quality of human resources should be enhanced with a lot of training and mentoring done by the private sector or department of cooperatives of the region concerned. Regarding the external example is the availability of land for raw materials is increasingly displaced by conversion of land use. Also, the expansion of producers from other areas of the same kind of commodity products. The conditions must be anticipated by entrepreneurs or existing SMEs in Lebak.

SME Development Strategy Recommendations

Of the various concepts of community development in the economic field, here are a few options strategies undertaken in the empowerment of SMEs, namely:

1. Ease of Access Capital

One of the problems faced by SMEs is the capital aspect. The slow accumulation of capital among micro, small, and medium enterprises, is one cause of the slow pace of development of business and lower operating surplus in the micro, small and medium enterprises. The capital factor is also one cause no emergence of new markets beyond the extractive sector. Therefore, in the empowerment of SMEs solving the capital aspects of this important and should be done.

Therefore, to increase the capacity of these SMEs, banks must make this sector as an important pillar of the domestic economy. Banks are expected to no longer just hunting for companies that have been established, but also, a pioneer to develop the potential of the economy by growing support entrepreneurs through access to capital for the development of new entrepreneurs in the SME sector. Banks should improve their competence in empowering small and medium enterprises to provide total solutions ranging from capture potential new entrepreneur, help to grow. Giving credit is one link in the development of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises as a whole.

2. Infrastructure Development Assistance

Efforts to boost productivity and encourage the growth of the business will have no significance for the community if their products can not be marketed or, if they can be sold, but at a very small price. Therefore, it is an important component in the effort to empower SMEs is the development of production infrastructure and marketing.

3. Development of Business Scale

4. Business Network Development, Marketing and Business Partnership.

Efforts to develop a network of this business can be made in various patterns of tissue, for example in the form of sub-contracting system and cluster development.

5. Human Resource Development

Human resource is an important factor for any business as well as in the small business sector. The success of small-scale industries to penetrate global markets or face

of imported products in the domestic market was determined by the ability of actors in the small industry to develop products so that their business can still exist. The primary drawback development of small and medium enterprises in Indonesia is due to the lack of human resource skills. Therefore, in the development of small and medium businesses, governments need to improve training for SMEs both regarding entrepreneurship, administration and knowledge and expertise in business development. Enhance the quality of human resources is done through various ways such as education and training, seminars and workshops, on the job training, apprenticeships, and business cooperation. Also, one form of human resource development in the SME sector is mentoring. Mentoring of SMEs is necessary and significant. The primary task of this companion is to facilitate the learning process or reflection and become a mediator for the strengthening of partnerships between micro, small businesses, and medium enterprises to large enterprises.

6. Improved Access Technology

7. Create a business climate more conducive.

The issue that has been happening is the less conducive business climate in supporting the development of business as shown by the small number of public services, the lack of legal certainty and the local regulations that do not constitute evidence of a pro-business climate less conducive. Therefore, improvement of the business environment more conducive to reform and deregulation of doing business for SMEs is one of the right strategies to develop SMEs. In this case, there needs to be an effort to facilitate the company environment has done by economically efficient, healthy and non-discriminatory competition for survival and improvement of the performance of SMEs. Also, there needs to be action to eliminate various charges that are not appropriate, the integration of cross-sectoral policies, as well as surveillance and defense against anti-competitive practices business unhealthy and supported the improvement of legislation and institutional development.

8. The legal framework

Granting legal protection is intended to provide assurance and recognition of local governments on the forms and types of commodities that can be categorized as featured. Status featured here can make their concentration and special treatment to certain products. Hopefully, by the umbrella law recognized by the government and the competent authorities will assist the SMEs to increase the yield and quality of the product, or can produce a product that has a high sales value.

9. System KPJU and this cluster covers a large area .

Considering the limited resources available, then in its development initiated by actors with the will and determination to move forward, which will eventually be the locomotive driving the development of SMEs this commodity.

10. The existence of the central terminal and the central storage of raw materials production of SMEs.

CONCLUSION

From the analysis resulted that the biggest problem faced by SMEs is the issue of capital, no legal framework explains the primary commodity in Lebak, and need no assistance from the local government policy to SMEs. Also, we need innovation regarding guaranteed supplies of raw materials production, marketing techniques, and commercialization of products, and there is a central terminal sale and purchase of raw materials and products.

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**The Impact of Bilharzia disease on Socio – Economic Development in
the Gezira Scheme – Sudan**

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ABSTRACT

This study was carried out in the Gezira scheme to identify the impact of Bilharzia disease on socio- economic development in Gezira scheme. The study was established on the assumption that Bilharzia disease has a drastic effect on the farmer income due to his absence from work. A simple random multistage stratified sample was taken from farmers in the villages of the scheme (180) farmers to represent the research community. Statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS, version 11) were used to display and interpret the data;

The study has established the following results:

This disease spread in the Gezira region, sometimes culminating to an epidemic level.

Farmers in the Gezira scheme do not get enough health care.

Income from agricultural production is less than medical treatment expenses for most farmers.

The role of the state in the control of this disease in the region is weak.

Chi-square was also used to identify the significant or non-significant relations. Chi-square has confirmed the following findings:

There is significant relation between each of the following:

Bilharzia infections and cost of health services after the year (2000).

Bilharzia infections and activity that contact water.

Bilharzia infection and total income per year.

There is also non-significant relation between each of the following:

Bilharzia infection and the available places of treatment.

Bilharzia infection and the level of annual income.

Bilharzia infection and the awareness of the farmer of it.

Key words: Bilharzia disease, socio- economic, development, Gezira scheme

INTRODUCTION

Schistomiasis (or bilharziasis) is considered one of the most important parasitic disease affecting man. It is estimated that about 200 million people are infected in the world and that about 600 million are at risk (Mohamed, 1998).. The disease is very closely linked with socio- economic situation of the communities, with rural lower income groups suffering more than high communities.

During the 1970s and 1980s considerable interrogation has been collected on the distribution of schistosomiasis, its public health significance clinico-pathological manifestation and socio- economic aspects. In spite of the advances that have been made with new drugs for chemotherapy and in control methods, schistosomiasis has increased in prevalence and distribution as a result of a progressive expansion in development projects of water resources in the tropics and sub- tropics and increased population movement (Eltash, 2000).

Schistosomiasis is a waterborne parasitic disease caused by the eggs of small parasitic flatworms as schistosome that live inside the blood vessels of the gut, liver, or bladder. It is documented that over 200 million people in more than 70 countries throughout the

developing world are thought to be infected and schistosomiasis recognized as one tropical disease of most concern to the world health organization (Mohamed, 1990). The disease is both preventable curable but sadly remains a serious public health problem. Poverty and underdevelopment go hand in hand with this chronic disease. The prevalence of poverty is closely influenced by human activities. However, even if only 10% of those infected with schistosomiasis have severe clinical disease this represents 20 million seriously ill people (WHO, 1999).

Schistosomiasis is caused by parasitic treatment worms which in their adult form live in the blood stream of human hosts and the completion of their life cycle, needs to pass larval stage in certain species of aquatic or amphibious snails. The ecological requirement of these so, called intermediate host snails, are a key determinant in the distribution of the disease aquatic weeds provide an important substrate for the snails. Unlike mosquitoes, snails do not actively carry the disease organism from one human to another, completion of the behaviour there is the other determining factor (FAO, 1995).

Schistosoma hematobium infection is endemic Africa and eastern Mediterranean countries including Jordan, in which schistosoma was reported in 1986. It is estimated that at least 180 million persons are exposed to the risk of infection and about 90 million persons are infected . However the extent of morbidity due to schistosoma infections has probably been underestimated. It is widely accepted that the most infected individuals show no symptoms or signs upon physical examination, and only a small proportion develop serious chronic disease, the primary objectives of the current strategy of control is the reduction or diminution of morbidity due to schistosoma infection. To reach this objective a thorough understanding of the morbidity due to schistosoma is necessary for considerable progress has been made in assessment of morbidity due to schistosoma hematobium infection during the past 13 years. The review emphasizes the scientific literature on this topic published, mainly but not exclusively between 1975 and 1987 (WHO,1989).

The Economic Impact of Schistosoma:

Schistosoma is one of the main health problems hindering socio- economic development in Sudan. It affects millions at an early age reduce productivity and exerting a significant socio – economic impact(Abdel- Hadi, Tolaat,2000).

Control of the disease requires sustaining and long term funding and schistosoma is a slowly progressing clinical problem which does not cause high mortality rates that command public attention factors such as these mitigate against efforts to justify control in cost benefit terms Stockard, (Abdalla 1978).

Schistosomiasis in the Sudan

Archibald (1933) thought that the disease started in the Sudan as far as back as 2600 B.C. He mentioned that schistosomiasis has been introduced into the Sudan through political and economic contacts with Egypt. He suggested that the thousands of pilgrims from west Africa flowing through the country, to and from Mecca, might play an important part in the transmission of the disease. The first mention of the existence of the disease in the Sudan during this century was reported by Balfour (1904) who found 17% of the children in Khartoum primary school suffering from urinary schistosomiasis. No regular reports on the prevalence and incidence of the disease were available before the initiation of the school health services in 1911/1912.

Christopherson and Newlove (1919) using hospital clinical reports rather than sound epidemiological evidence, concluded that schistosomiasis was endemic in all provinces of Sudan except the Red sea area.

In 1919 Egyptian labourers were employed to give account for a group irrigation scheme project at Nori in the northern province. By 1921, the disease established itself there and spread to other irrigation farms and finally become wide spread in Dongola area (Archibald, 1933).

At about the same time foci of schistosomiasis were discovered in Kordofan province at Um Rawaba and Abuzabad. A new era in the history of schistosomiasis in the Sudan began in 1925 with opening of the agricultural scheme in the Gezira province, where schistosomiasis was practically unknown except for a few sporadic cases in the vicinity of the Blue Nile. In 1927, a survey was carried out in children in twenty villages and not a single child was found to be infected. That occurred though the snail intermediate hosts of urinary schistosomiasis (*S. haematobium*) and intestinal schistosomiasis (*S. mansoni*) were established in the canal (Humphreys, 1932).

Spence (1924) suggested that Egyptian labourers with schistosomiasis should rather be treated before being allowed to enter the Sudan or else be sent back to Egypt. In 1925, it was decided to prohibit the entry of infection labourers. Arrangements were then made either to reject or treat, at Wadi Halfa quarantine station, all infected labourers going to the Sudan. Similarly, all persons coming from the west of the White Nile were examined for *S. haematobium* at Kosti or Duem and Duem carried out useful survey work and registered an average, *S. haematobium* infection rate 17%. Examination for *S. mansoni* were not made as the infection was then thought to be uncommon. Annual survey during the years 1926/1927 suggested that the infection rate with *S. haematobium* was less than 1%, *S. mansoni* was not detected in stools but may have been overlooked.

Although the data from the medical institutions continued to indicate an infection rate of approximately 1% a survey conducted by Stephenson (1947) between 1942/1945 revealed some alarming figures. The average *S. haematobium* infection was found to be 21% in adults and 45% in children. He incriminated the mirror canal as the main source of infection and pointed out the prophylactic measures taken had failed.

Greany (1952) conducted a survey in 1946 and found *Bulinus* and *Biomphalaria* snails equally common in all canals in a density closely related to weed growth. *S. mansoni* infection rate in *Biomphalaria* was twenty times that of *S. haematobium* in *Bulinus* (1-2% compared to 0.06%). He examined 80,000 inhabitants (about 25% of

the Gezira population at that time) and the results showed that *S. haematobium* and *S. mansoni* were equally prevalent in 10- 15 years old children.

During the early fifties, Sharaf Eldin and El Nagar (1955) carried out a pilot trial to control the intermediate snail hosts using copper sulphate.

El Nagar (1958) reported the success of a large control campaign in the Gezira irrigated scheme that covered all canals in the scheme at that time (5000 kilometers). The methods adopted were: snail habitat destruction by the removal of the weed from the canals (mechanical and manual), destruction of snails by copper sulphate, prevention of snail reinvasion by means of medical traps and chemical barriers and treatment of infected persons using antimony based drugs. Each canal was treated for twenty hours with 30 p.p.m of copper sulphate followed by a continuous treatment of the chemical barrier of +0.125 p.p.m. of copper sulphate and mechanical trap at the campaign was successful and that it could be implemented in other irrigated schemes. However, that campaign was the only trial carried out on a large scale to control the disease in Gezira irrigation scheme for a very long period.

In 1971 a bilharzia project was established in Gezira scheme with the long term objective to control the disease. Amin (1972) found that the infection rate of *S. haematobium* was less than 1% in villages of northern of the Gezira. He found the infection rate of *S. mansoni* in the same area to be 25% by direct faecal smears and following year by the stool digestion technique he found a prevalence of 60%.

In 1974, a routine snail control regimen was introduced, which consisted of five aerial sprays with the molluscicide N- trityl morpholine over the main, major and minor canals in the most northerly 80000 feddans of the Gezira scheme (Amin and Fenwick, 1975 and 1977).

The regimen was continued for the three years and its effects were regularly monitored:

by surveillance and sampling of snails, and by parasitological examination in preschool children and school children. The results suggested that the objective of keeping the minor canals virtually snail free had been achieved, but the incidence data gave equivocal results, since in some villages there was evidence that transmission was as high as in a nearby untreated area (Amin et al, 1972).

In other parts of the Sudan, the exact magnitude of the problem of schistosomiasis is not well known. Amin and Omer (1972) showed that both types of the disease occur in Khartoum and evidence was obtained of actual transmission. Amin and Satti (1973) predicted that the incidence of *S. haematobium* at lake Nubia in northern province would rise as a result of the Aswan High Dam. In western Sudan Amin (cited by Babiker, 1987) discovered a focus of *S. mansoni* near Zalingi in Darfour province and *Biomphalaria pfeifferi* was identified as the vector. However, in Kordofan province only *S. haematobium* was found with a prevalence of 14% among school children (Eltom, 1976).

In southern Sudan *S. haematobium* and *S. mansoni* were both endemic and an outbreak of *S. mansoni* was reported by Omer et al (1972).

The disease is in all agricultural development schemes in the Sudan. The history of schistosomiasis is well documented for Gezira Agricultural Scheme by The Blue Nile Health Project (BNHP, 1980-1990).

The BNHP was established in 1979, 10-year project to control the major water and irrigation associated diseases prevalent in the agricultural communities along the Blue Nile. The first epidemiological survey in Gezira Scheme revealed that the prevalence of schistosomiasis was 51% with a range from 30% to 70%. The disease is now endemic in Khartoum (Ahmed, 2002 & 2003), the Northern State (El Tom et al.,

1993, Ahmed, 2003), in the far Western Sudan (Doumenge et al., 1987, Ahmed, 2003). Also it is endemic in the mid-west (Daffalla & Suleiman, 1988), in eastern Sudan (Schistosomiasis Department Internal Reports, 1998 and Ahmed, 2003) and in southern States of the country (Ahmed, 2003).

In the last three years, the Federal Ministry of Health (FMOH) in collaboration with Schistosomiasis Research Laboratory (SRL), University of Khartoum, has conducted many epidemiological surveys of schistosomiasis. Unfortunately, the finding recapitulated that the situation is bleak and desolate. The prevalence rates of intestinal schistosomiasis in sugar cane schemes are very high, 50% (Asalaya), 80% (Kenana), 60% (Gunaid), 60% (New Halfa) and 37% (Sennar). The joint reports of both FMOH and SRL reassured that the disease parameters suggested that the disease parameters are dramatically increased. The World Bank, Utroska et al. (1997) estimated that the minimum population at risk in the Sudan was 24 million, while 5 million are infected, with an average prevalence of 20.8%.

The overall goal of Schistosomiasis Control Programme (SCP) in the Sudan is to facilitate and improve human development and poverty reduction by reducing the disease burden.

Table (1): Overall Prevalence and Intensity of Schistosoma mansoni among schoolchildren in El Managil village by water - contact activity, 2005:

Contact Activity	Number examined	Number Positive	Prevalence (%)	Intensity (GMEC±SD)
Path	3638	2009	55.2	62.0 ± 2.2
Swim	309	202	65.4	77.9 ± 2.2
All	2223	1183	53.2	75.3 ± 2.3
Total	6170	3394	55.0	67.2 ± 2.2

Source: National Programme for Bilharzia Control 2005.

Figure(1): Overall Prevalence and Intensity of Schistosoma mansoni among schoolchildren in El Managil village by water - contact activity , 2005

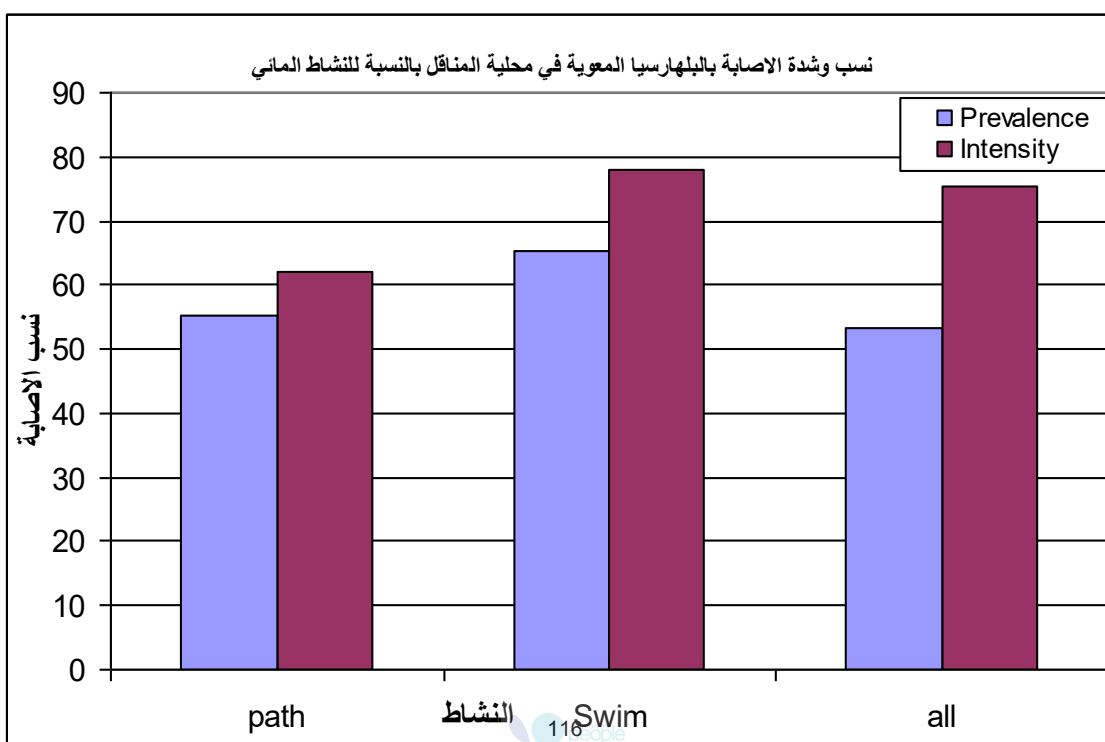
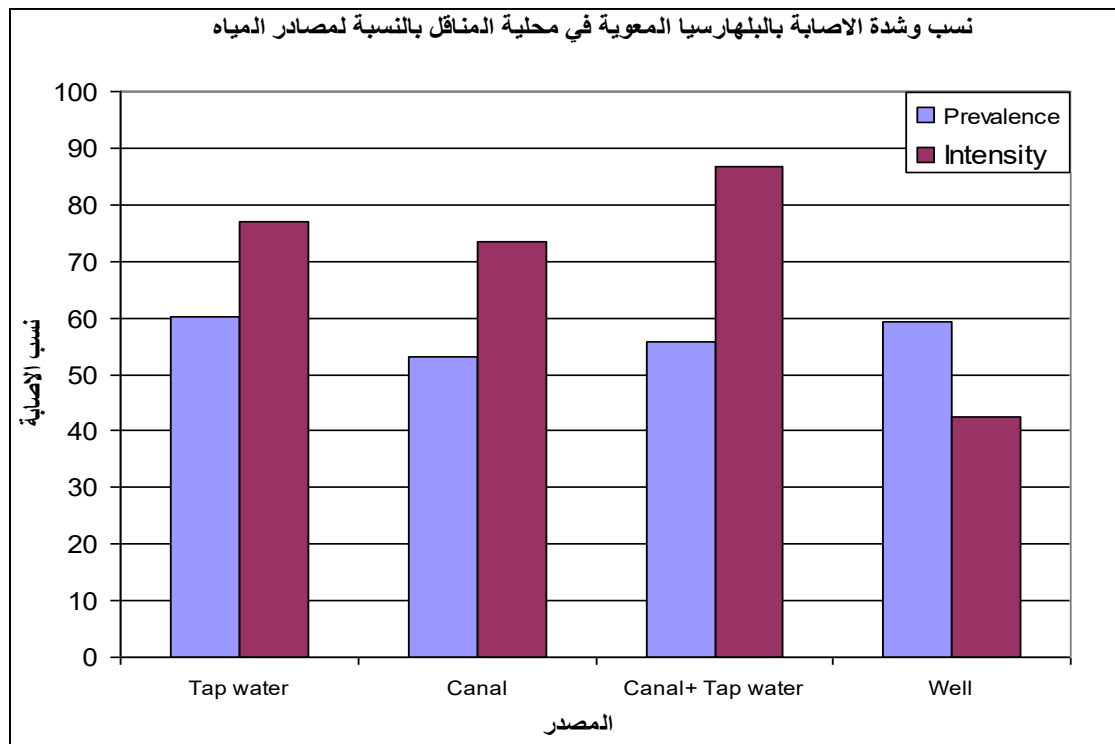


Table (2) Overall Prevalence and Intensity of Schistosoma mansoni among schoolchildren in El Managil village by water supply, 2005

Water supply	Number examined	Number Positive	Prevalence (%)	Intensity (GMEC±SD)
Tap water	1357	815	60.1	77.0 ± 2.3
Canal	2973	1575	53.0	73.4 ± 2.2
Canal + Tap water	772	431	55.8	86.6 ± 2.4
Well	1248	739	59.2	42.6 ± 1.8
Total	6350	3560	56.1	67.7 ± 2.3

Source: National Programme for Bilharzia Control 2005.

Figure (2): Overall Prevalence and Intensity of Schistosoma mansoni among schoolchildren in El Managil village by water supply, 2005:



METHODOLOGY

Study area: The study was conducted in Gezira scheme which is located in central Sudan. The scheme area is 2.1 million feddan, irrigated from Sennar dam and is under one management. There are about (128000) farmers with average holding of (10) feddans for each, the scheme consists of eighteen (18) groups (or divisions) divided into (115) blocks. The main crops are cotton, wheat, groundnuts, sorghum, forage and vegetables, the growing seasons extends from June to March.

Sample Technique:

Sample Design: The considerations on light of which we choose the samples differ according to different natures of the sample, environment conditions and the aims of the research study, in addition to the methodological considerations that represent the original community. Equal chances of selection were given to the sectors of the original community. A methodological sample selection criteria was adopted according to the following two styles:

A distinctive sample based on special conditions: The rural community in the Gezira comprises different phases of socio- rural development, some areas still live in primitive tribal conditions in all dimensions, and other rural areas began to be urbanized so that one can not differentiate between them and other fully urbanized areas.

Between these two extremes there exist other patterns of rural life ranging from different social development patterns i- e from primitive social life to fully urbanized life. On the light of the above I had intended to choose a distinctive special sample that comprised two rural models. The sample represented three divisions of Gezira region and three divisions of Almanagel for north, middle and south of each division.

Simple random sampling: The researcher had used a class sample of multistage stratified random sample in order to increase the degree of precision in the sample. He had chosen two inspectorates from each division, and from each inspectorate five villages, and finally three farmers from each village, making a total of ninety farmers from Gezira region and ninety from Almanagil. The selection was based on the possibility of easy access to the research areas.

Sample Size: The sample size was determined according to the level of precision and the availability of resources in terms of cost, time and other relevant facilities.

The sample unit for this survey is the farmer. The population is estimated to be about (128000) farmers according to administration of the scheme (2005). Multistage random sampling method was followed in selecting the respondents due to observed homogeneity of socioeconomic characteristic of the farmers. Because the population is highly homogenous, thus even the smallest sample will be representative to the population that why we chose the sample size (n) = 180.

Time Survey:

Primary data have been collected using improvised questionnaire from the field survey carried out in the Gezira scheme by the researcher during season (2005-2006).

Data Analysis:

To achieve the objectives of the survey, various and flexible data and analytical techniques were used in each stage according to requirements needed. Different statistical procedures were used in the analysis of data in this study, using the computerized statistical package for social science (SPSS, version 11) data analysis and management.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample and background variables of the study (e.g. percentage and frequency distribution). This helped to generate general description of the

expenditure, income and cost of diseases treatment...etc. The chi- square procedure was employed to determine the significance (or insignificance) in relation to the study variables.

RESULTS

This part deals with measurement and assessment the results of application of chi- square analysis for determining the significant or non-significant and the relationship between dependent and independent variables:

Table (3): Bilharzia infections by cost of health services after the year (2000):

	cost of health services after the year2000			
	greatly in creased	slightly in creased	not increased	
Count	109	45	5	159
% of Total	60.6%	25.0%	2.8%	88.3%
Count	12	5	4	21
% of Total	6.7%	2.8%	2.2%	11.7%
Count	121	50	9	180
% of Total	67.2%	27.8%	5.0%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi- square value = 9.877

Df = 2

Sig(2- sided) = 0.007

Result: There is a positive significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there is a positive significant association between bilharzia infections and cost of health services after the year (2000).

Table (4): Bilharzia infections by activity that contact water:

	if you have such contact for what activity								
	Fetching	Swimming	Bathing	all mentioned	Swimming and bathing	fetching and bathing	Fetching and bathing	mean	
Count	12	1	45	88	1	2	10	0	159
% of Total	6.7%	0.6%	25.0%	48.9%	0.6%	1.1%	5.6%	0.0%	3%
Count	3	0	9	3	0	0	4	2	21
% of Total	1.7%	0.0%	5.0%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	2.2%	1.1%	11.7%
Count	15	1	54	91	1	2	14	2	180
% of Total	8.3%	0.6%	30.0%	50.6%	0.6%	1.1%	7.8%	1.1%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi-square value = 28.060

Df = 7

Sig(2- sided) = 0.000

Result: There is a positive significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there is a positive significant association between bilharzia infections and activity that contact water.

Table (5): Total income per year by cost of water borne diseases (malaria& bilharzia)per year:

	if yes how it cost per year				
	30 – 60	60 – 90	90 – 100	100+	
Count	30	28	26	10	94
% of Total	16.7%	15.6%	14.4%	5.6%	52.2%
Count	13	2	6	2	23
% of Total	7.2%	1.1%	3.3%	1.1%	12.8%
Count	6	12	3	2	23
% of Total	3.3%	6.7%	1.7%	1.1%	12.8%
Count	7	4	1	0	12
% of Total	3.9%	2.2%	.6%	.0%	6.7%
Count	6	3	2	0	11
% of Total	3.3%	1.7%	1.1%	.0%	6.1%
Count	8	3	0	3	14
% of Total	4.4%	1.7%	.0%	1.7%	7.8%
Count	1	0	0	2	3
% of Total	.6%	.0%	.0%	1.1%	1.7%
Count	71	52	38	19	180
% of Total	39.4%	28.9%	21.1%	10.6%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi-square value = 36.317

Df = 18

Sig(2- sided) = 0.006

Result: There is a positive significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there is a positive significant association between total income per year by cost of water borne diseases per year.

Table (6): Bilharzia infections by health care after the year (2000):

	health care after the year2000				
	greatly improved	slightly improved	not improved	deteriorated	
Count	24	39	49	47	159
% of Total	13.3%	21.7%	27.2%	26.1%	88.3%
Count	4	10	2	5	21
% of Total	2.2%	5.6%	1.1%	2.8%	11.7%
Count	28	49	51	52	180
% of Total	15.6%	27.2%	28.3%	28.9%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi-square value = 7.001

Df = 3

Sig(2- sided) = 0.072

Result: There were no significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there were no significant association between bilharzia infections and health care after the year (2000).

Table (7): Bilharzia infections by knowledge of bilharsia:

	hour knowledge of bilharzias					
	very much	much	moderate	very few	no thing	
Count	69	30	27	29	4	159
% of Total	38.3%	16.7%	15.0%	16.1%	2.2%	88.3%
Count	5	5	3	6	2	21
% of Total	2.8%	2.8%	1.7%	3.3%	1.1%	11.7%
Count	74	35	30	35	6	180
% of Total	41.1%	19.4%	16.7%	19.4%	3.3%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi- square value = 5.797

Df = 4

Sig(2- sided) = 0.215

Result: There were no significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there were no significant association between bilharzia infections and knowledge of bilharsia.

Table (8): Bilharzia infections by access to clean piped water:

	do you have access to clean piped water		
	yes	No	
Count	107	52	159
% of Total	59.4%	28.9%	88.3%
Count	18	3	21
% of Total	10.0%	1.7%	11.7%
Count	125	55	180
% of Total	69.4%	30.6%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi- square value = 2.966

Df = 1

Sig(2- sided) = 0.085

Result: There were no significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there were no significant association between bilharzia infections and access to clean piped water.

Table (9): Bilharzia infections by the source of drinking water:

	If no what alternatives					
	Neighbor	canal	well	neighbor and canal	not same	
Count	6	11	32	6	104	159
% of Total	3.3%	6.1%	17.8%	3.3%	57.8%	88.3%
Count	1	1	0	3	16	21
% of Total	0.6%	0.6%	0.0%	1.7%	8.9%	11.7%
Count	7	12	32	9	120	180
% of Total	3.9%	6.7%	17.8%	5.0%	66.7%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi-square value = 8.826

Df = 4

Sig(2- sided) = 0.066

Result: There were no significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there were no significant association between bilharzia infections and source of drinking water.

Table (10): Bilharzia infections by if respondents have no latrine:

	if no what is the alternative						
	neighbor latrine	near building	canals	no same	neighbor latrine and near building	near building and canals	
Count	10	6	35	104	2	2	159
% of Total	5.6%	3.3%	19.4%	57.8%	1.1%	1.1%	88.3 %
Count	0	0	1	20	0	0	21
% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%	11.1%	0.0%	0.0%	11.7 %
Count	10	6	36	124	2	2	180
% of Total	5.6%	3.3%	20.0%	68.9%	1.1%	1.1%	100.0 %

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi-square value = 7.798

Df = 5

Sig(2- sided) = 0.168

Result: There were no significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there were no significant association between bilharzia infections and if respondents have no latrine.

Table (11): Bilharzia infections by medical places:

	have you village access to places of medicine		
	Yes	No	
Count	127	32	159
% of Total	70.6%	17.8%	88.3%
Count	18	3	21
% of Total	10.0%	1.7%	11.7%
Count	145	35	180
% of Total	80.6%	19.4%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi-square value = 0.404

Df = 1

Sig(2- sided) = 0.525

Result: There were no significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there were no significant association between bilharzia infections and medical places.

Table (12): Bilharzia infections by the government role in the control of malaria and bilharzias:

	the government role in the control of malaria and bilharzias				
	Moderate	weak	very weak	absent completely	
Count	20	34	38	67	159
% of Total	11.1%	18.9%	21.1%	37.2%	88.3%
Count	7	5	4	5	21
% of Total	3.9%	2.8%	2.2%	2.8%	11.7%
Count	27	39	42	72	180
% of Total	15.0%	21.7%	23.3%	40.0%	100.0%

Source: Data survey (2005).

Chi- square value = 7.123

Df = 3

Sig(2-sided) = 0.068

Result: There were no significant association at 0.05 level.

As shown in the above table, chi- square test result revealed that there were no significant association between bilharzia infections and the government role in the control of malaria and bilharzias.

CONCLUSION, RESULTS & RECOMMENDATIONS

The statistical analysis of the economic characteristics of the farmers revealed that most of the farmers have some sorts of education and the majority of them are within the productive age group.

The researcher has established bilharzia has an economic and social impact on the rural farmer in Gezira Scheme, causing drastic negative effects at both health and social levels which in return hampers rural development in the research area. Through the analytical study of the impact of these diseases on rural development in the Gezira Scheme, the researcher has established the following results: The spread of bilharzia disease in the Gezira Scheme, sometimes culminating to an epidemic level, causes great loss of human life's. This affects productivity either through death or absence from work, in addition to a decrease in the income due to the costs incurred in prevention and treatment of the disease.

Huge funds are allotted to the control of diseases either through control of carrier, health awareness, mass-media expenses, building health administration centers for the control of the diseases, in addition to supporting all that can mitigate their negative effects. This is evidently a huge amount of money that could otherwise be allotted to the rural development making the Scheme a decent place to live in and directs the efforts of the farmer to their real aim which is the increase of productivity for more income and enhancement of the general economy of the state. Gezira Scheme farmers do not get an equal amount (or share of) health care as those in urban areas due to the small (or few) number of health centers and their deprivation (or lack) of the qualified medical staff and equipments. This hampers rural development in the area.

The income from farming (for all farmers) is (low) improper in relation to the cost of treatment of the diseases. This contradicts the strategies and objectives of Gezira scheme.

The ineffective role of the health-media in increasing the health awareness of the hazards of the disease has lead to farmers' weak role in the control of the carrier at the personal level.

The role of the state in the control and treatment of the diseases is weak due to:

- Weakness or lack of carrier control at the local administrative units.
- Lack of constant funds for control.
- Decrease of the staff and their incompetence in relation to administrative and technical abilities of the health field.

The results of chi-square test revealed that there is a positive significant association between bilharzias infections and activity that contact water. In addition the estimation of the factors (socio-economic and health) showed that the loss hours are divided into direct and indirect loss.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Due to the obtained results of the impact of bilharzia disease on socio- economic development in the Gezira scheme the researcher recommended the following:

- 1- There must be cooperative health organizations for the farmers in each office to work for the protection and treatment of bilharzia disease.
- 2- The administration of the Gezira scheme must implement national health insurance for the farmers for the control of the carrier and treating the disease in participation with the farmers and the administration of the scheme, and form specialized committees in each village of the scheme to be responsible for the follow up and control of the carrier of these diseases.

- 3- Giving more attention for agricultural and health services for the villages of Gezira scheme, being the essential base of developing the country side, increasing the production, raising the income and improving the standard of living.
- 4- Mobilizing all community and its organizations for the effective participation in the tasks of controlling this disease at all levels.
- 5- Cooperation with related sectors for the best means to stop the negative health effects in agricultural schemes.
- 6- Activating the prevailing laws and introducing the necessary laws and rules to raise the level of health performance.
- 7- Giving more attention to rural education and increasing the exploitation of natural resources in addition to improving the humanitarian relations to develop the farmer's community.
- 8- Giving more attention to the social, economical, cultural, and human development for the Gezira farmers being the asset of rural development.
- 9- Giving the rewards health workers incentives to improve performance.
- 10- Sanitation, improved hygiene and provision of latrines, which reduced contamination of water courses, and also reduced of human water contact.
- 11- More attention should be paid to the improvement of the environmental sanitation and epidemiological studies.
- 12- To improve health extension and health services in Gezira scheme.

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The influence of human development index, economic growth and allocation of operational expenditures to the capital expenditures in the Province of Banten

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This article is aimed to find out the influence of the human development index (HDI), economic growth and the operating expenditure to the amount of capital expenditure in the province of Banten. The data used are IPM, economic growth, operational expenditure and capital expenditure in the last ten years. This study used multiple linear regression method. The results showed that only economic growth has a significant impact on the allocation of capital expenditures. While the direction of the relationship between operational expenditure with capital expenditure is negative so that if the number of operational expenditure in Banten province is high then the amount of capital expenditure low. The number of allocations of operational expenditure does not reflect the level of quality improvement progress of HDI and low economic growth. Therefore, to expand economic development in the province of Banten, it is necessary to increase the portion of capital expenditures in the budget of the priority areas in the infrastructure sector.

Keywords: Human Development Index, Economic Growth, Operational Expenditure, Capital Expenditure, Banten

Background of the problem

Human Development Index is one of indicators applied in measuring the level of citizen's physical and non-physical qualities. The physical quality; reflected in life expectancy; and the non-physical qualities (intellectual) is mirrored through the average length of education obtained by the population and the literacy rates; and by considering the people's economic ability which reflected from the value of Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) index. Economic growth is defined as the increase in GDP/ GNP in spite of discerning whether the growth itself is larger or smaller than the rate of population growth or whether the changes in economic structures occurs or not.

Economic growth is the process of increasing in real gross national product or national income. Thus, economy is said as "Growing" or "Developing" if the real output growth occurs. Another definition of economic growth is Economic growth occurs when there is an increase in the output percapita. Economic growth illustrates the increase in the standard of living measured by real output per person. While poor-densely populated countries and numerous people live at the level of the life boundary, have experienced setback in raising it. Some developed countries have enjoyed a high standart of life quality that keeps growing continuously.

Operational expenditure is inseparable from the budget including the local government budget (APBD). An entity, particularly for a country, would require routine expenditures in regard to run the states' operational. However, the amount of operational expenditure should not give too much burden on the budget. The reason is because the economic benefits derived from their operating expenditure tends to be short-term, only to fulfill the routine needs.

Therefore, the strategy of allocation budget of region plays an equally-important role in increasing local revenues. In an effort to increase the public contribution to the regions' reception, capital expenditure should be increased. Capital expenditures is made by local governments, for example development and improvement in education, health and transportation sectors, so people would also enjoy the benefits of regional development.

The capital expenditure budget is based on the local needs for facilities and infrastructure, both for the streamlined-implementation of the government tasks and public facilities. Therefore, in an effort to improve the quality of public services, local government should change the composition of expenses. Until now, region's expanses has been more widely used for relatively less productive spending. Utilization of spending should be allocated for productive things, for example to carry out some development activities. So, capital spending is done in order to establish the nature of capital which will add on the fixed asset/ inventory that benefits more than one accounting-period, including the expenses for maintenance in regard to preserve or add benefits and increase the capacity & quality of the assets.

Human development index is reflected by the development of a wide range of infrastructure and informatics to improve the physical and non-physical qualities of the population and the welfare of society from the aspect of education, health and the need for the availability of adequate housing. Thus, the local governments require capital expenditure to demonstrate the achievement of good human development index as well as the economy growth.

To enhance human development index and economic growth, Banten provincial government needs to allocate its capital expenditures. So that the development of physical and non-physical quality that is reflected in the human development index and economic growth can go as expected.

Based on this background, the problem in this research is: Do human development index, economic growth and operating expenditure affect to the amount of capital expenditure?

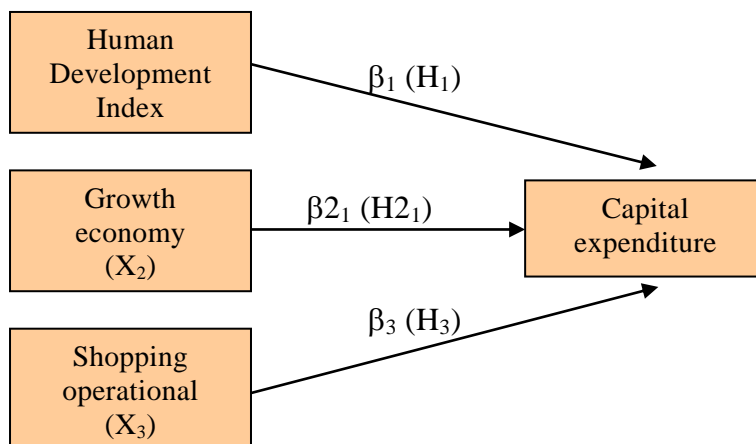
The purpose of this study is to analyze the influence of the human development index, economic growth, and the operating expenditure to the amount of capital expenditure in the province of Banten?

Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite index calculated as the simple average of the three (3) index that describes the basic human ability to expand choices: life expectancy index, education index and index of living standards.

Based on Government Regulation (PP) No. 71 Year 2010 concerning the Government Accounting Standards, expenditures are defined as all expenses by the State Treasurer/ Regional Public Treasurer in reducing More Budget Balance in the relevant fiscal year period that will not be earned back by the government payment. According to the same PP, expenditures are classified by economic classification (type of expenditure), organization, and function. Economic classification is a grouping of expenditure based on the type of expenditure to carry out an activity. The type of expenditure that exist on the government entities include but not limited to operational expenditures, capital expenditures, other expenditures and transfers.

In paragraph 37 Appendix 1:03 PP No. 71 Year 2010, capital expenditures are defined as expenditures budget for the acquisition of fixed assets and other assets that benefit more than one accounting periode. Capital expenditure are capital expenditures for the acquisition of land, buildings, equipment, intangible assets. Capital expenditure is more long-term than operational expenditure.

The theoretical framework of the research began with theoretical studies by analyzing relevant theories, Theory of Welfare, Economic Growth Theory, Theory Operational Expenditure, and Capital Expenditure. The basic theoretical and empirical studies underlying the association between variables with another were described as follows :



Picture 1.1 : The framework influence the Human Development Index, Growth economy and Shopping operational to Capital expenditur in Banten

The study's hypothesis is that human development index, economic growth, and operational spending have significant effect on the amount of capital expenditure.

To determine whether there is the influence of the human development index, economic growth and the operating expenditure to capital expenditure in Banten province. It will apply a multiple linear regression analysis with the following formula:

- $Y : \beta_0 + \beta_1x_1 + \beta_2x_2 + \beta_3x_3 + e$
 Y = Allocating Capital Expenditures
 β_0 = Intercept
 β = The regression coefficient
 x_1 = Human development index
 x_2 = Economic growth
 x_3 = Operational expenditure
 e = Error

The hypothesis testing in multiple regression are as following:

Ho: $P = 0$, no real influence of independent variables on the dependent variable with $\alpha = 5\%$.

Ho: $P = 0$, there is real influence of independent variables on the dependent variable with $\alpha = 5\%$.

Hypothesis Testing

1. Coefficient of Determination

The coefficient of determination (R^2) measures to what extent is the ability of the model to explain variations in the independent variables. The coefficient of determination is used to explain the regression model predicting the dependent variable. The higher the coefficient of determination, the better the ability of independent variables explaining the dependent variable

2. Simultaneous Test (Test Statistic F)

Basically, Test Statistic F indicates whether all of the independent variables or inclusion in the model have influence altogether on the dependent variable.

3. Partial Test (Test Statistic t)

Test Statistic T indicates whether each independent variable or free in the model have influence alone (partially) on the dependent variable.

Discussion

This study was conducted to find out the effect of human development index (HDI), economic growth and the operating expenditure to the amount of capital expenditure in the province of Banten.

To find out whether all independent variables or free variables included in the model have influences on the dependent variable, it was tested simultaneously by multiple regression analysis with the test results as follows:

1. Coefficient of Determination

Table Coefficient of Determination X_1 , X_2 dan X_3 to Y
Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.914 ^a	.835	.753	163.691409

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.914 ^a	.835	.753	163.691409

a. Predictors: (Constant), Shoppingoperational, Growth economy, Human Development Index

Source: Data is processed by SPSS

Model Summary Table shows the amount of R Square of 0.835. It means 83.5% of the variation Allocating Capital Expenditures (Y) can be explained by the variation of the three independent variables, the Human Development Index (X1), Growth (X2) and Operational Expenditure (X3). While the rest (100% - 83.5% = 16.5%) is explained by other causes beyond the model.

1. Hypothesis 1 informs that the human development index significantly influences the allocation of capital expenditure is proven. Because empirically, human development index data are used to test the direction and strength of the index relationship /human development with the allocation of capital expenditure in Banten Province which has a deviation standard that is not too large (-14,282.2981) compared to the regression coefficient (212.242) to form t- count is greater than t-table with $\alpha = 5\%$ (2.511). Human development index coefficient of 2.306 (Table : distribution t) means that the contribution of human development index to the allocation of capital expenditures is fairly vast compared to the coefficient of economic growth and operational expenditures coefficient. The direction of relationship between human development index and capital expenditure allocation found in this research tends to be negative which means that if the rate of human development index is high in the province of Banten then the allocation of capital expenditures will be low and vice versa. This finding is fit to the logic and expectation in which slope is $\beta_1 < 0$.
2. Hypothesis 2 informs that the economic growth did not affect to capital expenditure significantly. Because empirically economic growth data used to test the direction and strength of economic growth in relation to the allocation of capital expenditures in the province of Banten has a larger standard deviation (-561.761) than the coefficient (160.221) so as to form the smaller t-count than the t-table $\alpha = 5\%$ (2.306).

The coefficient of economic growth of 0,535 (table 4.6) means that the contribution of economic growth to the allocation of capital expenditure is minimum compared to the contribution of the human development index, but larger than the variable operational expenditure. The positive direction of relationship means that any improvements in the economic growth of 1 percent of the capital expenditure will increase by 0.09 per cent.

Another thing that causes partial economic growth is not so influential on capital expenditure, is allegedly because as an integral factor, economic growth has not reflected the growth rate as expected by the government of Banten Province. This condition is seen from Banten provincial economic growth rate, which is still below the national average value of national economic growth.

3. Hypothesis 3 informs that operational expenditure is not significantly proven to influence the amount of capital expenditure. Because empirically, operational expenditure data used

to test the direction and strength of the relationship of operational expenditure with capital expenditure in Banten province with standard deviation of 233.175, compared with a coefficient regression (0.120). So the t-count is smaller than the t-table with $\alpha = 5\%$ (1,697).

The coefficient of -0.086 operational expenditures (table 4.8), means that the contributions of operational expenditures is not too large compared to the human development index coefficients and coefficients of economic growth. The direction of the relationship between operational expenditure with capital expenditure is significantly negative. If the amount of operating expenditure in Banten province is high, so the amount of capital expenditure is low and vice versa. In addition, the other factors that allows the operating expenditure not to affect the capital expenditure for the operational expenditure is because the allocations amount have not reflected the level of quality improvement of HDI progress both from a physical and non-physical, as well as the low achievement of economic growth.

The economic growth in every region, in terms of the usage, will increase private consumption (C), private investment spending (I), government spending (G) and expenditure on export and import (X-M) in the economy. The increased government spending will encourage increased demand for goods and services in the future economy which also boosts the increased production. The economic growth will also raise additional revenue. Additional revenue will increase the amount of savings as well as an increase in the amount of investment.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions

1. Human Development Index (HDI) affects significantly negative to the amount of capital expenditure. It means that if the index of human development in Banten Province was high, so the amount of capital expenditure would be low.
2. Economic growth did not significantly influence to the amount of capital expenditure with a positive trend. The higher the economic growth, the higher the region's ability to allocate capital expenditures in the province of Banten.
3. Operational expenditure did not influence significantly positive to the amount of capital expenditure. It means if the operating expenditure in Banten province was high, so the amount of capital expenditure would be low and vice versa.

Recommendations

1. In an effort to accelerate and expand economic development in the province of Banten, it is necessary to increase the portion of capital expenditures in the Budget (APBD) prioritized to the infrastructure sector, which is part of the regional authority.
2. Banten Provincial Government seeks to improve the Human Development Index (HDI), economic growth and efficiency of operational expenditure because from the simultaneous test results together, these three factors significantly influence to the allocation of capital expenditures (Y).

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THE POVERTY REDUCTION PROGRAM USING SELF HELPING MODEL

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Poverty is a problem faced by all provinces in Indonesia is included Bogor Regency. The data show that the number of poor people in Bogor is likely to increase from time to time. Economic growth is expected to reduce poverty, in fact quite often ignore the poor and marginalized. Therefore, the basic policies for poverty that is pro-poor, pro-jobs and pro-growth becomes important. One of the best ways to get out of the poverty trap is self-empowerment, so that the poor are able to help themselves out of poverty. This research aims to develop a model of self-empowerment or self-helping program to get out of the problem of poverty in poor communities productive. This study is a qualitative research. Data obtained came from questionnaires and focus group discussion. The research concludes that there is still a lot of potential resources not fully utilized. Much land is not used when the market for agricultural products such as cassava and ginger has been created. Meanwhile, in terms of livestock, goats, cattle and fisheries may be developed as its market share has been formed. Therefore the skills-based training and innovation is needed, so they can empower themselves.

Keywords: Poverty Reduction, Self-Helping Model, Poor Productive

INTRODUCTION

One of the crucial problems faced by local governments, including the Province of Bogor Regency is the problem of poverty. BPS Data explained that the number of poor people in Bogor in September 2012 amounted to 366.77 thousand people, an increase of 3.57 thousand of March of the same year (BPS, 2012). The issue of poverty is not just how the number and percentage of poor people, yet another dimension to consider is the depth and severity of poverty. To overcome poverty, the main policy directions for poverty in Bogor implemented through pro-poor, pro-jobs and pro-growth. Economic growth is expected to reduce poverty, in fact it sometimes ignore the economic growth of the poor and marginalized, resulting in an increase in inequality (Ali and Son, 2007). T

he increase in inequality can have implications in the form of a falling rate of poverty reduction, social and political stability as well as a decrease in the growth itself. When the inequality of development occurs then it is not in line with the concept of inclusive growth. According to Ali (2007) the main source for inclusive growth and poverty reduction is the field of productive and decent employment, social security and increasing the capability of the basic needs of the community. To create inclusive growth materialize, efforts were made to reduce poverty is not enough to just rely on the pattern of assistance, or poor enforcement is done uniformly. Poverty reduction needs to

look at the first character and specific patterns that occur in poor communities, in order to obtain a comprehensive poverty reduction models.

Main problems of development in Bogor include: (1) the low quality of human resources, as reflected in the low level of education and health as well as other aspects that put people in development; (2) low economic conditions; (3) inadequate quantity and quality of infrastructure and sustainable environmental management to accelerate regional economic development; (4) has not been the establishment of good governance and good governance; and (5) lack of social community and / or religious social development to achieve human dignity and a high or a high level of civilization. The low level of education was associated with lower access, quality and relevance of education. This is caused mainly by the lack of educational opportunities, lack of professionalism of teachers and their distribution is not uniform, the limited availability of facilities and infrastructure quality education, lack of effectiveness in the management and governance of education, and yet the realization of equitable education funding.

The problem of poverty is multi-dimensional in Bogor not quite overcome by the provision of subsidies or cash assistance to the poor. One of the best ways to get out of the poverty trap is self-empowerment. Based on this, the general purpose of this research is to develop a model of self-empowerment or self-helping the model to get out of poverty. This research aims to develop a model of self-helping programs tailored to local knowledge that there are appropriate and in accordance with the potential and positive character.

RESEARCH METHODS

This study is an exploratory study with aim to map the multidimensional character of poor groups as well as the nature of poverty. The main character explored is the potential, everything that is positive which is owned by the poor as a basis for the development of a model that empowers the group itself. This research is multi-dimensional because it will explore the positive character traits, economic potential, wisdom, local knowledge or covering aspects of economic, sociocultural and ecology. This research was conducted in Bogor, especially in the sub Ciseeng and Parung length and focused on areas that are pockets of poverty.

In this study will be taken two regions with the highest poverty severity index, but is supported by the high potential areas. This research was conducted in 2014. This research using primary and secondary data. Primary data includes positive character, the potential economic, cultural (traditional), hope, wisdom and local knowledge as well as the role of government. The main source of primary data is a poor target groups. Meanwhile, secondary data include: data associated with poverty such as the development of poverty, the poverty gap index, the poverty severity index as well as the various programs and policies to reduce poverty.

In order to obtain the data in question, some data collection techniques used in this research:

- a. Documentation techniques, this method is used to map the current conditions of poverty, projections and identify the various programs that have been undertaken by the government.
- b. Interview, used to dig the primary data of the target group that is a positive character, economic potential, culture, hope, wisdom and local knowledge as well as

their expectations. In the interview will be used instruments structured interview guide to be easily communicated and understood by respondents. This technique is used with consideration of the character of respondents who may not be educated.

- c. Focus Group Discussion (FGD). FGD will aim to align the various opinions of the various parties involved in the fight against poverty such as community leaders, academia and government.

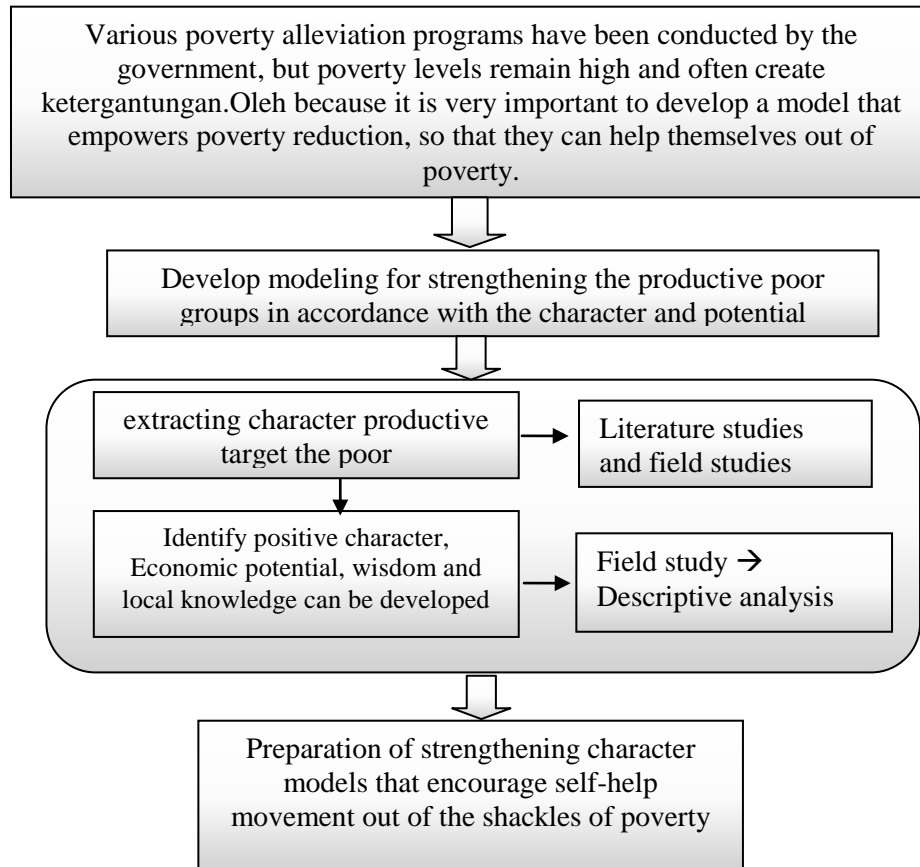


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework Research

Primary data is a source of data obtained directly from the research subjects. Primary data may be subject opinion (people) individually or in groups, the observation of an object (physical), event or activity, and test results. The method used to obtain primary data, survey and observation methods.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Judging from the gender of the 100 respondents who answered the questionnaire, the number of female participants amounted to 8 people or only 8 percent of the total. This result is possible because most are the backbone of the family is a man, and only a few women heads of household. Some jobs are available in the village is included in work that requires power, among others, agriculture, animal husbandry galangal, fish and farm laborers. While the sectors that demand by households women are trade (small shop) and agriculture.

Education Respondents

In terms of the respondents' education, then 46 percent of respondents completed primary school or equivalent. While respondents who did not complete primary school as much as 26 percent. Education of respondents who were in the village Kahuripan is relatively low. Only about 3 percent have a high school education and above. In fact, 18 percent of respondents did not answer openly education. It is assumed that as many as 18 percent of respondents did not have an alias literacy education then this condition is very ironic. Table 1 explains the Bogor district social welfare indicators in 2011-2013, explaining that the literacy rate in western Java by 95.35 percent.

Table 1. Realization of Public Welfare Indicators
Bogor Regency Year 2011-2013

No	Indicator	Performance		
		2011	2012	2013
1	Human Development Index	72,58	73,08	73,45
	<i>a. life expectancy (year)</i>	69,28	69,70	70,00
	<i>b. the literacy rate (%)</i>	95,09	95,27	95,35
	<i>c. the average duration of the study (year)</i>	7,99	8,00	8,04
	<i>d. purchasing power (Rp/month)</i>	631,63	634,52	636,62
2	The number of poor people	470.500	447.290	446.890

When compared to the literacy rate of the village Kahuripan it can be said that there are still many people who have not been touched access to education there. Elementary school nearby the current can be reached after walking for 30 minutes. If people want to continue with secondary education or further then he should come out of the village and continue education dikecamatan approximately 15 miles from the nearest village.

Aspects of Nutrition and Health

From the health side the majority of them did not experience severe disease that requires medical treatment. Only 13 percent of those who had experienced severe pain. Usually they are associated with typhoid illness and disease due to lack of hygienic environments such as tuberculosis. Moreover, their access to health care to the doctor infrequently. The majority of them claim that if the pain they would buy the drug store.



Figure 2. Sanitation house is in the village of Kahuripan, Ciseeng

In the village are not available health services such as doctor or clinic. If they want treatment then they should go to the district Parung located approximately 15 miles to get treatment. Some also stated that in the last year of their families that they are rarely ill to require serious medical treatment. On the other hand respondents considered pemerintah role in providing health is still lacking. They expect the government to make health services that reach their village. Most of them still consume water that is not good for health because it is mixed with water from livestock manure disposal.

Availability of clean water is one of the prerequisites for the realization of a healthy settlement. Therefore, people's access to clean water is essential met. In the new water service coverage to 25 districts. Clean water sanitation coverage in 80 villages / villages in 19 districts, which has a production capacity of 2098.5 l / dt. Meanwhile, new water service coverage reached 56.86%, consisting of taps and the remaining 15% of the rural population Bogor Regency (increased coverage of water supply which are conducted by the government only 1% - 2% per year). The low coverage of water services, such as the decreasing availability of raw water resources and environmental carrying capacity, due to blockage of water bodies / river by a relatively high sedimentation.

Aspects of Knowledge

in terms of education, they realize the importance of educating their children. With the parents' education is limited so it is difficult to find suitable employment. They realize that education is the bridge for people to look for a better job. Therefore, they will try to send their children to higher education.

Judging from school goes the majority of respondents answered all schoolchildren, a minimum basic education. Some of them only a junior high school because of lack of funds. Ironically, some of them also do not have sufficient skills. Thus, they are very massive poverty, can not afford but do not have the skills. However, the majority of them have skills beyond agriculture as traditional artisans, drive, sew so that it can be used to earn money. For the role of government should be further improved. Hope to be able to access education at the high school level is expected by them. Some of the necessary means among other things that the school was built not too far from their place and adequate road infrastructure required.

Natural Environmental Aspects

If viewed from the aspect of the natural environment and the majority of them do not own the land that used to try. Many families are still riding the elderly. As many as 55 percent of respondents said no land, and only 35 respondents who claimed to have land. Ironically mereka who have off-farm land on average more than 500 yards even exceed 1000 meters. Thus ownership of land in the village Kahuripan owned by a few people, so that they can be tried as farming, livestock breeding and keeping fish.

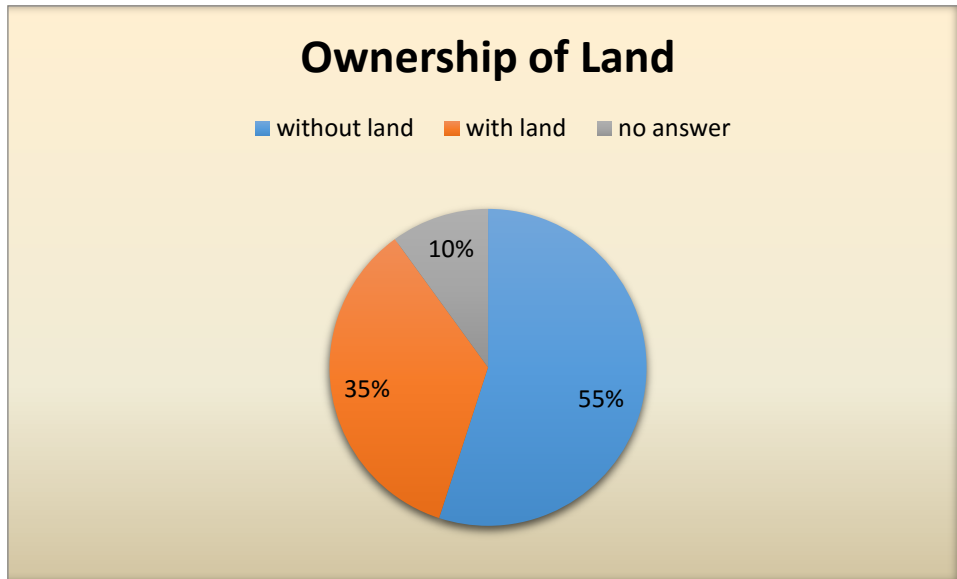


Figure 3. Ownership of Land

Low purchasing power occur for many reasons, among others: inefficient distribution system so that the relatively high price, not optimal strengthening of the domestic market and commodity market efficiency, not optimal trade monitoring and improving the business climate of trade, as well as non-optimal arrangement of means of trade. Departing from this condition, it is necessary to design future programs increased efficiency of goods distribution system, the management of price stability, the increase in the domestic market and commodity market efficiency, increase trade monitoring and improving the business climate of trade, and trade as a means of structuring the modern market and traditional markets.

Landless workers usually work as a laborer or industry to meet the family livelihood. If they choose to be workers, they usually bekerja in a nearby town. With limited education, they somewhat difficult to work in the formal sector and become workers in the informal sector. Their hope to send their children at higher education level then they will have a higher education and can work in the formal sector such as civil servants or other work which suggests higher education.



Figure 4. Traditional Toilet

In terms of the quality of drinking water consumed, most respondents stated that the quality of water there is relatively less good. Meanwhile, the government's role in preserving the environment is relatively less. The rivers are full of garbage left and there is no treatment. Many residents who do not have private bathrooms that have a bath in the shower or public baths. Farming activities carried out not far from their home so can damage the health of the occupants.

Aspects of Economic Environment

When viewed from an economic standpoint, they usually earn from working as entrepreneurs. Only some of them are getting the business of agriculture or fisheries. Apparently agriculture and fisheries that they have is not enough to sustain a family life so that they have to work outside. In terms of purchasing power of rice are staggering. Nearly 35 respondents replied that their purchasing power to buy the rice is very limited, meaning that if they need they have to allocate income to buy rice. Availability of rice from their agricultural products are also not enough that they have to buy rice from other regions. The low economic conditions is the resultant or accumulation of various problems such as low investment, low exports, less vital agriculture, SMEs have not helpless, yet tourism development, yet helpless SME, low purchasing power, high unemployment and persistent levels of poverty. Less vital agriculture occurs because of limited land, capital, agricultural machinery, and technology. To that end, the future needs to be continued revitalization of agriculture.

The problem faced by SMEs include the empowerment of SMEs are not optimal, administrative procedures, limited capital, limited access to technology, entrepreneurship limitations, limited infrastructure, and lack of optimal support from stakeholders. Based on these problems, it is necessary to design integrated development programs, improvement of administrative procedures, strengthening capital, open access to technology, entrepreneurship development, provision of facilities and infrastructure, and strengthening networking with all stakeholders.

Social Environmental Aspects

When viewed from the side of the social environment it can be said that the level to help them remain high. This could be possible because most of them are native to the citizens there so that relationships are very strong. Living in harmony is a separate asset for rural economic development. Additionally rarely arise between them in the community. If there is a problem will be discussed at neighborhood association for looking solutions.

Aspects of Social Structure and Services

In terms of structure and community service is good enough. This will helped by the construction of roads and bridges that connect the village with the city district Kahuripan Parung. The access opening in the village economy so as to facilitate their mobility. However, they are too low banking access. They are often difficult to penetrate the banking access. Banking requirements document suggests formality

trouble them so much those who prefer to bank or broker installment loans with high interest.

Potential Empowerment

Some of the potential that could be developed in the village Kahuripan and Ciseeng is the land that has not been fully utilized. Some of the land was not even allowed a maximum of management. 2. The following table describes the potential of empowerment that is expected to be enhanced potency.

Table 2. Potential Resources Development

Potential,	Aquaculture	Constraints
Agriculture	agriculture galangal	Still traditional, land is not extensive, low market share
	cassava gardens	High market share, the ability to farm produce low quality seeds, lack of training of local government
	lemon grass, ginger	Management is less serious that the results are not optimal
Livestock and fisheries	sheep	Limited capital to buy sheep, cages are still traditional and not embrace aspects of hygiene
	cow	limited capital
	fishery	Traditional cultivation, limited knowledge, high market share
SME	small shop	Limited capital, less complete, traditional management, low financial literacy
	convection	Skill there, but the hostage as a laborer. Accept orders from outside and not produce for itself. Limited design without any effort to increase knowledge.
	decorative plants	Supportive climate, market share there, but no ability to manage

From the table above it can be seen that the actual agricultural and livestock sector could be developed further. As usual small and medium businesses, the lack of capital into classical problems that need to be completed. The second problem is related to the limited knowledge that innovation is slow. Actually, from the pre-existing business convection they can make better stitching and can innovate itself, but it did not. They received a limited work orders without any attempt to innovate the production. For the provision of training is necessary to increase revenue.

CONCLUSION

Many of the problems faced by the people poor in the district of Bogor. If viewed from the aspect of the natural environment and the majority of them do not own the land that used to try. While the limitations of expertise and capital into an obstacle for them to improve their standard of living. On the other hand there are many unused land could be an alternative for them to earn a living. Agriculture and livestock can still

be developed further. As usual small and medium businesses, the lack of capital into classical problems that need to be completed. limited knowledge so that innovation is slow. Actually, from the pre-existing business convection they can make better stitching and can innovate itself, but it did not. They received a limited work orders without any attempt to innovate the production. It becomes a separate job for the government to improve the lives of its citizens. Therefore the skills-based training and innovation is needed, so they can empower themselves.

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