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Determinants of Profitability: Case Study of Real Estate Companies in Hochiminh Stock Exchange

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Abstract
This study is conducting an empirical examination on the determinants of firm profitability of real estate companies listed on HOSE from 2010 to 2018. The difference from previous studies would lie in the usage of explanatory variables, the quantity of sample and the period of study. Based on data of 34 companies with 306 observations, this research methodology applies descriptive statistics, correlation statistics and regression analysis. The empirical results revealed that firm size, asset turnover, liquidity have a significant impact on firm profitability, while firm growth showed no significant effect on profitability denoted by ROA and ROE.

Keywords: Determinant, Firm Size, Asset Turnover, Liquidity, Growth

1. Introduction

According to Nimalathasan (2009), profit is the major objective of a business. In the accounting view, profit evaluates not only the success of the products but also the development of the market for the product. In other words, profit provides proofs about earnings potential of a firm and how efficiently a company is managed. A company should gain profits in order to survive, maintain and grow over a long period of time. In case that the companies are not able to earn profit, capital invest will be eroded, which might lead to bankruptcy if this situation prolongs.

Profit and profitability convey two different meanings. Profit can be regarded as an absolute measure of earning capacity whereas profitability is relative measure of earning capacity. As stated by Iyer (1995), Profit is being as "excess of return over outlay." In terms of profitability, Nimalathsan (2009) claimed that "it was the ability of given investment to gain a return from its use." Profitability ratios evaluate companies' capacity of generating profits and central investment to security analysis, shareholders as well as investors. Specifically, profitability refers to gainings of enterprises that are generated from revenues and after subtracting all expenses incurred during a given timescale. Holstrand (2009) claimed that profitability was further expressed as a price-earnings ratios evaluating income as well as expenses. Because of the importance of this topic, a great volume of literature studying about the elements contributing to firms' profitability. Nowadays, strong competition dominates the market in which all processes are highly reliable on information, the success of a company demands particular measurement and management systems. In order to follow the principle of rational economics, a corporate has to systematically analyze its financial results or in other expressions is analyze profitability. In fact, there are numerous literature investigated determinants of profitability of firms. On the other hand, it is evident that a deep research about determinants of profitability of listed real estate firms in HOSE should be done. Currently, Vietnam is witnessing strong urbanization in big cities, especially in the two largest and most vibrant cities, Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City and key economic zones. Therefore, real estate is a great opportunity and long-term, leaving little in the fierce competition to win the market of Vietnam. Many experts said that Vietnam's real estate attraction of foreign investment is expected to help standardize Vietnam's real estate market. The real estate market is one of the markets with an important position and role for the national economy, having direct relationships with the financial and monetary markets, the construction market and the material market, construction, labor market. Effective development and management of this market will make an important contribution to the process of promoting socio-economic development, creating the ability to attract investment capital for develop and make practical contributions to the process of sustainable urban and rural development towards industrialization and modernization of the country. According to the analysis of economic experts, if the investment in real estate sector increases by 1 USD, it will boost other sectors of the developed economy from 1.5 to 2 USD. Therefore, a study on determinants of profitability of listed real estate firms in HOSE becomes vital.

2. Literature Review

Abor (2005) studied the relationship between capital structure and profitability of 20 listed companies in Ghanaian stock exchange. The results show that the negative relationship between total debt and profitability as measured by ROE. The study of Mohammad Fawzi Shubita; Jaafer Maroof Alsawalha (2012) examines the effect of capital structure on profitability by expanding the research of Abor (2005) and Gill, et al. (2011). Data sources used include financial data of 39 companies operating in the industry listed on the Amman Stock Exchange Amman over a period of 6 years from 2004 to 2009. Research results show a negative relationship between total debt and profitability.

Marius Pentea (2014) used a paned data of 55 industrial companies from 1999 to 2012 to explore the determinants of firm's profitability which measured by ROA and ROE. Four independent variables such as firm size, growth, capital intensity and human resources were taken into analyzation. The results revealed that firm size, capital intensity and human resources had positive relationship with profitability while firm growth had no linkage to profitability

Waseem Ahmad et al. (2015) analyzed determinants of textile companies' profitability in Pakistan by utilizing unbalanced panel data of 111 firms from 2006 to 2011. The authors used Net profit as indicator of profitability and firm growth, firm size, liquidity and leverage as independent variables. The empirical result indicated that firm growth positively affected profitability while leverage negatively impact on profitability. Also, liquidity and firm size had no significant relationship with profitability.

Georgeta Vintila et al. (2015) investigated the potential factors impacting on the corporate financial performance of 46 Romania companies listed on the Bucharest Stock Exchange from 2009 to 2013. Based on unbalanced panel data, the authors used multivariate regression models to identify the relationship between profitability (measured by ROA, ROE, Share price) and independent variables (Debt ratio, Size, Liquidity, Sale Growth, Firm Age and Asset Turnover). The empirical result showed that Debt Ratio, Sale Growth negatively affected the profitability while Firm Size had a positive linkage with profitability. Furthermore, the relationship between Total Asset Turnover, Liquidity and profitability were proved to be not statistically validated.

In 2016, Zeeshan Fareed et al conducted a study to investigate the determinants (including firm size, firm age, firm growth, productivity, financial leverage and electricity crisis) of 16 companies' profitability in power and energy sector in Pakistan from 2001 to 2012. Radom effect model is chosen to point out the combination of variables that most suitably estimated the influence of the independent variables on dependent variables (ROA as proxy of profitability). The research findings proved that firm size, firm growth and electricity crisis had positive impacts while firm age, financial leverage and productivity negatively influenced on the firm profitability. Furthermore, the empirical results indicated that firms with higher growth rates would have higher profitability and firm size was the strongest determinant of profitability in power and energy industry of Pakistan.

Adebayo Sayedoyin Ifeduni and Onyeiwu Charles (2018) examined determinants of profitability of manufacturing firms in Nigeria. Twelve companies listed in Nigerian Stock Exchange constituted the sample of this research. The dependent variables were ROA and ROE as proxies of a firm's profitabilty and the independent variables were Size, Debt Ratio, Asset Growth as explanatory variables. A panel data regression analysis as well as Fixed Effect Model were used in this study. The empirical result revealed that Size and Debt Ratio had a postive correlation with profitability while Asset Growth showed no insignificant association with firm profitability.

G. Thenmozhi (2019) investigated the factors influencing firm profitability of Fast Moving Consumer Goods firms listed in India from 2005 to 2017. Based on panel data estimation on 82 firms, this study applied Multiple regression model. Also, he chose Return on capital employed as dependent variables and size, leverage, liquidity, inventory turnover ratio, assets turnover ratio, past profitability, growth, GDP and interest rate as independent variables. The results illustrated that firm size and asset turnover played the most positively influenced role in enhancing a firm's profitability.

In 2017, Le Thanh Tam and Pham Xuan Trang conducted a study to evaluate factors affecting the profitability of 9 commercial banks listed in HOSE from 2007 to 2013. Commonly, based on panel data, the authors used Random Effects Model to evaluate the relationship between a bank's profitability (measured by ROA, ROE and NIM) and independent variables (Size, Total Asset Growth, Inflation, GDP Growth and Interest Rate). The results showed several key significant internal factors including: Size, Total Assets Growth, Interest Rate and external factors such as: GDP Growth and Inflation.

Hung Ngoc Dang et al. (2019) studied the effect of firm growth, firm size, capital structure on profitability of 214 listed Vietnamese enterprises with a panel of 1070 observations from 2012 to 2018. Based on the regression results by generalized least squares and structural pathways analysis, the outcome illustrated that there was a negative relationship between capital structure and profitability whereas size positively impacted on profitability. Additionally, firm growth had no significant correlation with profitability.

Vu Thi Hanh et al. (2019) studied about the relationship between a firm's wage, firm size and firm age with firm profitability measured by ROA and ROE of 693 listed companies in 2015 by using both ordinary least square and quantile regression methods. The results showed that firm size had postive association with firm profitability while wage and firm age negatively impact on firm profitability.

Le Thi Nhu et al. (2019) investigated the elements influencing firm profitability such as capital structure, firm growth, firm size and asset turnover. Based on panel data collected from 73 listed construction firms in Vietnam from 2008 to 2015 with 584 observations, the authors used quantitative methods and FEM through Hausmen test. The outcome pointed out that the firm age and debt ratio had contrast relationship with profitability while growth rate, asset turnover and size positively affect firm profitability

3. Data and methodology

3.1. Data

The sample for this research consists of listed corporates operating in Real Estate Industry on HOSE. The data for this study is used by panel data collected from 34 real estate companies listed in HOSE over a period of 8 years from 2010 to 2018. The selection of the timescale was made since a relatively large number of businesses were in need for evaluation aim. Panel data was utilized for this study since it was a qualified research tool providing results which cannot be assessed by Cross Sectional or Time Series Data (Asimakopoulos, Samitas, & Papadogonas, 2009). Also, this method offers more benefits compared to cross-sectional approach since the quantity of data points and level of freedom can be accelerated and the issue of multicollinearity can be decreased, which enhances the efficiency of econometric evaluation (Hsiao, 1986). Besides, time influence would be incorporated with the aim of manage heterogeneity which is grasped by Fixed or Random effects methods. Based on Baltagi's view (1995), these are parts leading to one-sided results when being ignored in cross-sectional or time arrangement evaluations.

3.2 Variables

Based on previous studies, determinants of profitability will be tested by size, growth, liquidity, asset turonver and TDTA, ROA and ROE, as follow:

Table 1: Variables

Category	Variable	Formula	Authors
Dependent variables : profitability			
	ROA	$\frac{Net\ income}{Total\ Asset}$ x100	Tian and Zeitun (2007) ; Ebiad, (2009);Ramadan et al., (2011); Gil et al., (2011); Sivathaasan et al (2013); Vatavu (2015), Le & Phan (2017) and Abel et al., (2017).
	ROE	$\frac{Net\ income}{Total\ Equity}$ x100	
Independent variables			
	Size	Natural log of Total assets	Coase (1937) , Ozgulbas et al.(2006), Jonsson (2007), Lee (2009), Faris (2010), Salman &Yazfandar(2012), Pervan & Visic (2012), Bambang et.al (2013).
	GROWTH	$[\frac{Ending\ value}{Beginning\ value} - 1]$ x100	MacMillan and Day (1987), (Le and Phan, 2017), Cooper et al. (2009), by Eriotis et al. (2007) and Gurcharan (2010)
	Debt-Asset Ratio (TDTA)	$\frac{Total\ liabilities}{Total\ Asset}$	Amidu (2007), Murray and Vidhan (2009), Mahfuzah Salim and Raj Yadav (2012), Ishaya Luka Chechet & Abduljeleel Badmus
	LIQUIDITY	$\frac{Cash}{Current\ Liabilities}$	Eljelly (2004), Nassirzadeh & Rostami (2010), Sandhar & Janglani (2014), Bhayani (2010),
	ASSETTURNOVER	$\frac{Sales}{Total\ Asset}$	Skolnik (2002) , Albayrak and Akbulut (2012), Singh's (2012),

3.3. Model

To investigate the determinants of firm profitability, this paper will use the following benchmark estimation:

$$ROE_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Size_{it} + \beta_2 AssetGrowth_{it} + \beta_3 Liquidity_{it} + \beta_4 AssetTuronver_{it} + \beta_5 DebtRatio + u_{it}$$

$$ROA_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Size_{it} + \beta_2 AssetGrowth_{it} + \beta_3 Liquidity_{it} + \beta_4 AssetTuronver_{it} + \beta_5 DebtRatio + u_{it}$$

Where:
ROE: Return on Equity
ROA: Return on Assets
i : company
t : time (years)
β_0: Intercept
$\beta_{1,2,3,4,5}$: Coefficient of indenpendent variables.

4. Empirical results

4.1. Summary statistics

Descriptive statistics demonstrate the mean, minimum, maximum and standard deviation of the variables and provide a overview of the characteristics of the data. Mean is considered most important indicator determining the common value represented in a set of numbers so that if the data is aligned on and a regular basis, the mean value is accurate distribution center. Standard deviation would be a quantity frequently utilized to indicate the dispersion of a variable around the average number. Or it can be said that the standard deviation is used to estimate the dispersion of a data set which has been made into a frequency table. It not only measures the volatility of statistical values but also demonstrates difference in the value of each evaluation time compared to the average value.

Table 2: descriptive statistics of the variables

. xtsum roe roa tdta size growth liquidity assetturnover

Variable		Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Observations
roe	overall	.0628627	.1747936	-1.7325	.612	N = 306
	between		.0940058	-.3111333	.1763111	n = 34
	within		.1481468	-1.358504	.5254072	T = 9
roa	overall	.0288026	.0684005	-.8965	.2633	N = 306
	between		.0347215	-.1194333	.0782111	n = 34
	within		.0592003	-.748264	.2140915	T = 9
tdta	overall	.5168676	.1763062	.0235072	.9480659	N = 306
	between		.1483108	.1936356	.7653921	n = 34
	within		.0983093	.1548323	1.001288	T = 9
size	overall	28.34556	1.280716	25.6891	33.29389	N = 306
	between		1.190766	26.29672	32.1746	n = 34
	within		.5094124	25.51297	30.21143	T = 9
growth	overall	1.996925	9.764831	-.6249	108.7773	N = 306
	between		6.809527	-.2595444	39.85878	n = 34
	within		7.085091	-37.86185	70.91544	T = 9
liquid~y	overall	.4037814	1.159742	.0014003	11.04387	N = 306
	between		.8328626	.0170191	4.641602	n = 34
	within		.8182515	-4.228427	6.806046	T = 9
assett~r	overall	.3536462	.8456313	.0070022	12.99268	N = 306
	between		.5907165	.0850149	3.618513	n = 34
	within		.6126165	-2.859296	9.727813	T = 9

The primary financial ratio, ROE, measures the capacity of an enterprise to generate earnings from the investment of its shareholders. Based on the table, the average ROE of sample enterprises was 0.0628627 with a standard deviation of 0.1747936, and minimum and maximum values were -1.7325 and 0.612, respectively. In addition, the average ROE in surveyed timescale was 6.29%, which indicated that for every $100 of shareholders' investment, earnings of $6.29 would be generated. Nevertheless, it is necessary to claim that some of the selected business recorded slight losses over the given timescale as minimum ROE was -1.7325%. On the other hand, ROA evaluated the efficient usage of all the assets to generate earnings from 2010 to 2018. The mean value for ROA was 0.0288026 with a standard deviation of 0.0684005 and minimum and maximum values were respectively -0.8965 and 0.2633 for 306 observations. Additionally, the average ROA of 34 selected companies was 2.89%, which indicated that for every $100 invested in assets, earnings of $2.89 were generated. Overall, the profitability of firms in the Real Estate Industry was noticeably erratic because the value of standard deviation of both ROA and ROE was above their average. The result is consistent with high variation in financial leverage variable due to the fact that greater degree of financial leverage would lead to more volatility in earnings.

Also, the table revealed that five financial ratios including: size, growth, total debt to total asset, liquidity and asset turnover had positive means values which ranged from 03536462 of liquidity to 28.34556 of firm size. The high mean value of firm size illustrated that researched firms were big enterprises taking advantage of their size to enjoy economies of scale and positive externalities. Furthermore, in case of firm Size and TDTA, it could be seen that the volatility was not particularly high since their standard deviation was below their average while Growth, Liquidity and Asset turover had high volatility because their standard deviation was above their average.

4.2. correlation variables:

It can be witnessed from the above table, there was a positive relationship between ROE and remaining variables. Among them, the result showed a significantly positive relationship between ROE and Size (r=0.1604). This supports the aforementioned literature about positive relationship between Firm Size and profitability. Other ratios consisting of Growth (r=0.0272), Liquidity (r=0.0272), Asset Turnover (r=0.0224) and TDTA (r=0.0206) having a marginal correlation with ROE.

Table 3: correlation coefficient

. corr roe roa tdta size growth liquidity assetturnover
(obs=306)

	roe	roa	tdta	size	growth	liquid~y	assett~r
roe	1.0000						
roa	0.7584	1.0000					
tdta	0.0205	0.0146	1.0000				
size	0.1604	0.0827	0.3260	1.0000			
growth	0.0272	0.0334	0.0288	0.2690	1.0000		
liquidity	0.0355	0.0657	-0.3947	-0.2352	-0.0263	1.0000	
assetturno~r	0.0225	0.0529	-0.2346	-0.1901	0.0174	0.2050	1.0000

Overall, firm profitability has a positive correlation with conducted financial ratios, especially Firm Size. In addition, the table illustrated that TDTA had considerably positive association with Size (r = 0.3260) and slightly positive relationship with Growth (r=0.0288) while demonstrating a significantly inverse relationship with Liquidity(r=-0.3947) and Asset Turnover (r=-0.2346). In terms of Size, this ratio showed substantially positive association with Growth (r= 0.2690) and negative correlation with Liquidity (r=-0.2352) and Asset Turnover(r=-0.1901). Also, Growth indicated a negligible correlation with Asset Turnover (r=-0.0263) and Liquidity (r=0.0174).

3.3. Hausman test

Table 4: Hausman Test for ROE

Test	Statistic	Statistic amount	P-value
Hausman	χ 2	5.12	0.3904

Table 5: Hausman test for ROA

Test	Statistic	Statistic amount	P-value
Hausman	χ 2	9.42	0.0934

This tables indicate that the result with p-value is greater than 0.05, therefore null hypothesis is not rejected, in which there is a correlation between the unique errors and the regressors in the model. In this particular case, Random Effect Model (REM), which is a statistical model where the model parameters are random variables, is more suitable. This results of Hausman Test would be consistent with the theory that REM is predicted to generate more effective outcomes after controlling for possible endogeneity and autocorrelation influences related with dynamic models (Blundella and Bond (1998)).

3.4. Results

3.4.1. Return on equity

Table 6: Result of regression model by using REM method

```
. xtreg roe tdta size growth liquidity assetturnover, re robus

Random-effects GLS regression                   Number of obs      =       306
Group variable: firm1                           Number of groups   =        34

R-sq:  within  = 0.0255                         Obs per group: min =         9
       between = 0.0564                                        avg =       9.0
       overall = 0.0297                                        max =         9

                                                Wald chi2(5)       =     11.81
corr(u_i, X)   = 0 (assumed)                    Prob > chi2        =    0.0375

                                 (Std. Err. adjusted for 34 clusters in firm1)
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
             |               Robust
         roe |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-------------+----------------------------------------------------------------
        tdta |  -.0851981   .2065824    -0.41   0.680    -.4900921    .3196959
        size |   .0319307   .0186541     1.71   0.087    -.0046307     .068492
      growth |  -.0007824   .0003312    -2.36   0.018    -.0014315   -.0001333
   liquidity |   .0064944     .01043     0.62   0.533    -.0139479    .0269368
assetturnover|   .0094353   .0097188     0.97   0.332    -.0096131    .0284837
       _cons |  -.8025902   .4510414    -1.78   0.075    -1.686615    .0814347
-------------+----------------------------------------------------------------
     sigma_u |  .08004177
     sigma_e |  .15614303
         rho |  .20809484   (fraction of variance due to u_i)
```

After running Random Effect Model, a multicollinearity test was conducted with “VIF” command to confirm if this estimmation result would be reliable or not. The result showed that all coefficients are less than 5, which implies a small degree of correlation amongst the variables. This means no multicollinearity occurs.

Table 7: Collinearity Diagnostics

```
. collin roe tdta size growth liquidity assetturnover
(obs=306)

  Collinearity Diagnostics

                        SQRT                   R-
  Variable      VIF     VIF    Tolerance    Squared
----------------------------------------------------
       roe      1.03    1.02    0.9663      0.0337
      tdta      1.30    1.14    0.7700      0.2300
      size      1.29    1.13    0.7777      0.2223
    growth      1.09    1.04    0.9196      0.0804
 liquidity      1.22    1.11    0.8175      0.1825
assetturnover      1.09    1.05    0.9137      0.0863
----------------------------------------------------
  Mean VIF      1.17
```

The model is measured using Stata 14 software as follows:

ROE = - 0.8025902 + 0.0319307* Size – 0.0007824 * Growth + 0.0064944 * Liquidity + 0.0094353 * Asset Turnover – 0.0851981 * TDTA (1)

Based on above table, Size (0.0319307), Liquidity (0.0064944) and Asset Turnover (0.009453) have a marginally upheld impact on ROE ($p<0.05$). An increase in Size and Asset Turnover by one unit would lead to the acceleration of ROE by 3.19307%, 0.64944% and 0.9453%, respectively. Additionally, firm growth shows an insignificant effect on firm profitability (-0.0005649). This meant that no matter how firm grow, there is no difference in opportunity to increase firm's profitability. Morever, the relationship between TDTA and ROE experienced the same pattern in which a negative relationship would be displayed (-0.0851981; $p>0.05$). In other word, the company should decrease total liabilities so that the firm will have more opportunities to increase ROE as 1 unit increase in TDTA lead to 8.51981% decrease in ROE.

3.4.2. ROA

Table 8: Result of regression model by using REM method

```
. xtreg roa tdta size growth liquidity assetturnover, re robus

Random-effects GLS regression                   Number of obs     =        306
Group variable: firm1                           Number of groups  =         34

R-sq:  within  = 0.0359                         Obs per group: min =          9
       between = 0.0092                                        avg =        9.0
       overall = 0.0142                                        max =          9

                                                Wald chi2(5)      =      16.00
corr(u_i, X)   = 0 (assumed)                    Prob > chi2       =     0.0068

                                 (Std. Err. adjusted for 34 clusters in firm1)
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
             |               Robust
         roa |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-------------+----------------------------------------------------------------
        tdta |  -.0192515   .0314019    -0.61   0.540    -.0807981    .0422951
        size |   .0099728   .0051807     1.92   0.054    -.0001812    .0201269
      growth |  -.0002422   .0001562    -1.55   0.121    -.0005484    .0000641
   liquidity |   .0043583   .0045467     0.96   0.338    -.0045532    .0132697
assetturnover|   .0062441   .0032858     1.90   0.057    -.0001959    .0126841
       _cons |  -.2474173   .1573094    -1.57   0.116    -.5557382    .0609035
-------------+----------------------------------------------------------------
     sigma_u |  .02890279
     sigma_e |  .06190342
         rho |   .1789798   (fraction of variance due to u_i)
```

After running Random Effect Model, a multicollinearity test was conducted with "VIF" command to confirm if this estimmation result would be reliable or not. The result showed that all coefficients are less than 5, which implies a small degree of correlation among the variables. This means no multicollinearity occurs.

Table 9: Collinearity Diagnostics

```
. collin roa tdta size growth liquidity assetturnover
(obs=306)

  Collinearity Diagnostics

                        SQRT                   R-
  Variable      VIF     VIF    Tolerance    Squared
----------------------------------------------------
       roa      1.02    1.01    0.9816      0.0184
      tdta      1.30    1.14    0.7695      0.2305
      size      1.26    1.12    0.7947      0.2053
    growth      1.09    1.04    0.9201      0.0799
 liquidity      1.23    1.11    0.8154      0.1846
assetturnover      1.10    1.05    0.9122      0.0878
----------------------------------------------------
  Mean VIF      1.16
```

The model is measured using Stata 14 software as follows:

ROA = - 0.2474173 + 0.0099728* Size – 0.0002422 * Growth + 0.0043583 * Liquidity – 0.0062441 * Asset Turnover – 0.0192515 * TDTA (2)

According to above table, Size (0.0099728), Liquidity (0.0043583) and Asset Turnover (0.0062441) have an marginally upheld coeficient on ROA ($p<0.05$). This meant that if the other variables remain stable, the 1 unit increasing in size or asset turover will perform respectively 0. 99728%, 0. 43583% and 0.62441% increase in ROA.

Since there was no considerable association between growth and ROA, the increase in ROA was not statistically affected by the firm growth. Lastly, in terms of capital structure, TDTA (-0.0192515) had a negative influence on ROA, which indicated that the more total debt enterprises cope with might lead to the decline in firms's ROA because one unit increase in TDTA will lead to 1.92515% decrease in ROA.

LIQUIDITY: The study showed a positive relationship between Liquidity and Firm's profitability. This empirical result was in line with various investigations from leading authors such as: Bhunia et al. (2011), Takon Samuel Manyo and Vera N.Ogakwu (2013), Victor Curtis Lartey et al. (2013), Uwalomwa (2013) and Zaid et al. (2014). However, it was contrast to the perspectives of Eljelly (2004), Nassirzadeh & Rostami (2010), Sandhar & Janglani (2014), Bhayani (2010), Mistry (2012) and Pratheepan (2014). In fact, compared to previous years, the business cash flow of many real estate listed firms recently had appeared unusual signs when inventory, receivables, and short-term liabilities increased sharply, while money and cash equivalents of some businesses are showing signs of decline, though still showing profits. The rate of successful capital mobilization by issuing bonds is very low, any enterprise that mobilizes through this channel must pay very high interest rates. Liquidity ratio in the real estate market is also very low when the number of successful transactions is only about 2%. As a result, liquidity ratio plays a vital role in firms' operation as the higher liquidity ratio firms had, the higher ability it pay mature debts of different types of corporate debt. Based on the aforementioned result, it was evident to raise the cash and lower the current liabilities in order to boost the profitability of corporations. When the liquidity index increases, the amount of cash reserves and cash equivalents increases, thereby helping businesses reduce transaction costs and financial risks, along with strengthening the faith of the investors. This will cause the business to increase sales and profits, in other words, the profitability of the business. Moreover, the higher market operations Real Estate business had, the more notable achievements they could accomplish. *In short, firms' liquidity had a statistically significantly positive impact on profitability of the firms in Real Estate industry.*

FIRM SIZE: In particular, the assessed coefficients of Firm size with profitability end up being slightly positive. Although there was an opposite conclusion between this empirical result and previous researches of Baumol (1959), Jonsson (2007) or Lee (2009) claiming that firm size had an inverse relationship with profitability, this result was in the similar direction with studies conducted by many worldwide authors such as Collins and Preston (1969), Myers and Majkuf (1983), Ozgulbas et al.(2006), Papadognas (2007), Faris (2010), Salman & Yazfandar (2012), Pervan & Visic (2012) and Bambang et al. (2013). The real estate firms listed in HOSE have greater profitability as their total asset expands. This research also indicated that big corporates enjoy higher profit compared to small one, which might spring from the scenario that large firm could adapt to technological advancement or macroeconomic environment as well as take advantage of their position in negotiating the purchasing cost for the vacant land, implementing marketing strategies and attracting customers. According to Economies of scale which happens whenever accelerating output would lead to lower long-run average costs, if companies increase in size, they become more effective and profitable. Moreover, As claimed by Chell and Baines (2004), firm with small size affects profitability in many dimensions. They would be evidently more likely to confront with financial constraints, which prevented them to gain access to finance from financial insitutions. Small-sized enterprises could be prepared to pay higher interest rates for additional loans, thereby failing to take issuing external equity into consideration to stay in control. This can curb the development of the company, which eventually influenced the firm's profitability. Especially in industry with high fixed costs like real estate, expanding in size might be necessary to keep competitive in the market. Therefore, firms' size had a statistically positive impact on profitability of the firms in Real Estate industry.

ASSET TURNOVER: Furthermore, Asset Turnover was proposed to have a positive influence on firms' profitability. This result was in line with researches from numerous authors including Albayrak and Akbulut (2012), Singh's (2012), Erawati (2013) and Balili (2016) stating that there was a positive linkage between asset turnover and profitability. This implied that sales growth had an evidently positive influence on profitability of firms in this industry. The acceleration in Sales indicated that Higher asset turnover ratio means that companies generate more revenue per dollar of assets. Conversely, if company had a low asset turnover ratio, firms were not efficient at utilizing their assets to generate sales. In fact, enterprises in real estates sector tend to have huge asset bases and low asset turnover. In addition, this research suggested that corporates might undergo a decrease in their marketing cost as a percentage of sales, also the demand for the real estate properties of customers would surge since in order to encourage enterprises to supply houses for low-income people, the State has made a policy of lending capital according to the preferential regime. In the period of 2013 - 2016, the State provided support for lending to social houses through a preferential credit package of VND 30,000 billion. Corporates could take this advantage to rise price and earn more profits, firms' asset turnover had a statistically positive impact on profitability of the firms in Real Estate industry.

ASSET GROWTH: Asset Growth was an internal determinant of businesses' profitability. Specifically, there was an and unclear and insignificant relationship between two ratios. This meant the profitability was not affected no matter how total asset would grow. In fact, this result was different from the pecking order theory stating that high growth opportunities of an enterprise would be expected to demand more debt financing in the future because a high asset growth rate signifies that the firm is able to generate more value as well as profit from its investment chance. This theory was supported by Lee, Smith and Schomburg (2000) that high-growth companies achieving substantial market share would generate economies of scale, which eventually contribute to higher profitability. On the contrary, some theoretical studies advocate the negative correlation between a firm's asset growth and profitability as proved by trade-off theory such as Eriotis et al (2007), Cooper et al (2009) and Gurcharan (2010). According to trade-off theory, companies with greater growth chances tend to maintain a low debt ratio, which indicated an inverse relationship between growth and profitability. However, based on the result of this study, no significant connection was proved between firm's asset growth and profitability. This result had similar conclusion of a study conducted by Roper (1999), Gschwandtner (2005), Martin et al (2010) and Federico and Capelleras (2015) who observed no significant association between asset growth and profitability in a sample of young manufacturing companies. As a result, firms' growth had an insignificant impact on profitability of the firms in Real Estate industry.

DEBT RATIO: When it comes to capital structure, debt ratio (TDTA) was the last internal determinant of profitability. As the result showed, TDTA had statistically negative with firm profitability (ROA and ROE). This outcome was contrary to hypothesis of this study that TDTA positively or insignificant influence on firm profitability. The irrelevance theory conducted by Modigliani and Miller (1958) as well as Sam and Heng (2011) claimed that no evidence could be proved in terms of relationship between those variables. Additionally, from the study of Abor (2005) investigate the relationship between capital structure and business's profitability in Ghanaian concept, a remarkably positive association between TDTA and profitability was illustrated. However, based on the analyzation of this study, it would be reasonable that real estate firms mainly operate by a huge amount of long-term debt rather than short-term debt, which made these enterprises would take many years to pay off. Hence, a great deal of their capital might be allocated in interest payment instead of other profitable areas. Furthermore, this result is more in line with the Pecking order theory that support the idea of utilizing own capital first and solely resort to debt financing whenever the primary choice is no longer capable. Also, the finding of this study was consistent with Amidu (2007), Tian and Zeitun (2007), Murray and Vidhan (2009), Mahfuzah Salim and Raj Yadav (2012), Abduljeleel Badmus Olayiwola (2014), Ho Thi Ngoc Thuy (2015) who pointed out the inverse association between capital structure and profitability. When businesses are profitable, they often tend to increase undistributed profits to reinvest in order to expand the scale as well as be the source to help businesses grow best in the future. Hence, firms' TDTA had a statistically negative impact on profitability of the firms in Real Estate industry.

5. Conclusion

The main aim of this study would be to investigate the impact of several selected variables on the profitability of the listed firms in Real Estate Industry on HOSE. In this research, the influence of firm size, growth, liquidity, asset turnover and TDTA on firms' profitability through two main financial ratios ROA and ROE were analyzed. The data for this study was collected from websites of 34 listed firms in Real Estate Industry on HOSE from 2010 to 2018 including their balance sheet and income statements. In order to evaluate the impacts of the independent variables on the dependent variables, the Fixed and Random effect models are utilized to conduct in this paper.

The emperical results illustrated that firm size, liquidity, asset turnover had staticsally positive association with profitability while the firm's TDTA showed a negative impact on profitability of the listed firms in Real Estate Industry on HOSE. In addition, there was an unconscious relationship between firm growth and firm profitability of the listed firms in Real Estate Industry on HOSE.

The emperical results of this study are summarized in the below table :

Variables and relevant hypothesis	Expected relationships	Outcome	Conclusion	Previous studies with same results
Size (H1)	+	+	Accept	Collins and Preston (1969), Myers and Majkuf (1983), Ozgulbas et al.(2006), Papadognas (2007), Faris (2010), Salman & Yazfandar (2012), Pervan & Visic (2012) and Bambang et.al (2013).
Growth (H2)	-	-	No significant	Roper (1999), Gschwandtner (2005), Martin et al (2010) and Federico and Capelleras (2015)
Liquidity (H3)	+	+	Accept	Bhunia et al (2011), Takon Samuel Manyo and Vera N.Ogakwu (2013), Victor Curtis Lartey et al (2013), Uwalomwa (2013) and Zaid et al (2014)

Asset Turnover (H4)	+	+	Accept	Albayrak and Akbulut (2012), Singh's (2012), Erawati (2013) and Balili (2016)
Total debt to Total Asset (H5)	+	-	Reject	Amidu (2007), Tian and Zeitun (2007), Murray and Vidhan (2009), Mahfuzah Salim and Raj Yadav (2012), Abduljeleel Badmus Olayiwola (2014), Ho Thi Ngoc Thuy (2015)

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Women's Income-Generating Activities and Gender Roles in Rural Households in Mayo Danay Division, Northern Cameroon

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Abstract
In sub-Saharan Africa, women participate in the rural labor market where they are present in subsistence agro-pastoral activities, which are more domestic work and, in other income-generating rural activities such as trading. Within the studies carried out on women's status in communities, those on women's access to income-generating activities in certain contexts such as Ghanaian urban areas, have revealed that, income-generating activities contribute to a redistribution of gender roles in households. This paper by questioning the impacts of women's economic activities on gender relations within households in rural areas of Northern Cameroon, aims to analyse the realities faced by women involved in income-generating activities in a particular rural area to assess if the changes mentioned above happened in all communities. The data used for this work are empirical data from a qualitative survey of 48 women living in 8 villages in Mayo Danay, an administrative territory in Northern Cameroon. The results of this survey reveal that rural women involved in income-generating activities are both breadwinners and domestic workers. Contrary to what was observed in Ghana, the status of female breadwinners does not participate in the emancipation of women. Indeed, even with their means of production, women are still dependent on men and are still alone to bear the burden of the domestic work. Access of women to income-generating activities and their participation in household expenditures have surely reduced poverty in households but have not contributed to gender roles changes.

Keywords: Women, Rural Area, Income Generating Activities, Households, Cameroon

1. Context

In sub-Saharan Africa, most women are active. According to International Labor Organization, sub-Saharan Africa, with a female activity rate of 61%, is the area with the highest female activity rate in the world (ILOSTAT, 2020). These women are present in all sectors of the economy. They are found in agriculture, industry but also in services. They participate in the rural labor market as well as in the urban labor market (Locoh, 2013). In the rural labor market, they make essential contributions to the rural economy by working alone as self-employed entrepreneur or by working for others as salaried employees or family helpers (Droy 1990; Roberts, 2001). The participation rate of women in the rural economy in sub-Saharan Africa stands at 60% and is the highest in the world. With this high rate, some scholars as the Danish feminist author, Esther Boserup (1984), described Africa like the ideal context to study women involved in agriculture. Let's say that these percentages represent the mean of the participation of women in the various sub-Saharan countries and not the situation in each country. When observing the situation in the countries, we notice that, women's participation in the rural economy varies from one country to another. In some countries as Ivory Coast, the participation rate of women in rural economy is quite low with a rate of 36%. In other countries like Lesotho, Niger and even Cameroon, this rate is high varying between 60% and 70% (FAOSTAT, 2019). Within the rural economy, women are involved in subsistence farming which is more domestic work and, in rural income-generating activities such as trading of agricultural products (crops and animals), handicrafts, and food processing. Thus, rural women are actors of non-market and market economies.

Studies carried out on women's presence into gainful economic activities (Acharya Bell et al., 2010; Boateng et al., 2012; Brown, 1994), have revealed that involvement of women in income-generating activities is a favourable factor to female contribution to household decision-making, and expenditures on one hand, and to redistribution of social gender roles on another hand. In fact, in the households of women involved in income-generating activities, there has been a gradual entry of men into domestic tasks such as taking care of children, cleaning the compound, collecting firewood and many other related tasks (Nignan, 2005). This article, which addresses the issue of the place of active rural women within households in the northern of Cameroon, is part of the discussions developed on the topic of women's access to gainful economic activities and the redistribution of social gender roles in private sphere.

The analysis of the social roles of active rural women in Africa in the private sphere is quite relevant insofar as this reflection allows us to seize and understand the experiences of a large number of African female populations. Africa today is still the Africa of villages, as Jean-Marc Ela said. In Cameroon, the majority of the female population is still living in rural areas. The lives of these women are articulated between the private and public spheres. Indeed, women's lives are not only built around realities such as politics, economics, arts and culture. Household work, domestic violence, , sexuality, household charges and expenditures, occupy an important part in their daily lives. Moreover, with the concept of empowerment that emerged in the context of gender and development policy during the second half of the 1990s, the emancipation of women is no longer understood solely from the perspective of reduction of the gap between men and women in politics and in the labor market but as a multidimensional reality whose indicators are both quantitative and qualitative and taken into consideration the relations of domination as well as other elements like the sharing of domestic tasks, the margins of freedom given to women in decision-making, the capacity to influence (Roy, 2006). From the life of women in private areas, we can have clear ideas on the changes and mutations that take place concerning the status and roles of women in society just as we can understand the life of women in public sphere. Indeed, the life of women in the political and economic areas is strongly influenced by the life of women in domestic units. The dichotomy between private and public that confined the women in domestic work and offered men the exclusive power of public relations is presented as responsible for the ousting of women from the political scene and labor market. The female roles in domestic unit as the reproduction and taking care of children, contribute to the marginalization of women in the labor market, as the activity behavior of women has so clearly shown in the European Union where women leave the labor market for a period of time to take care of the family in general and children in particular (Battagliola, 1984). To analyze the place of active rural women within households in the rural areas in Northern Cameroon, we conducted a survey with women living in few villages of the Mayo Danay division.

2. Methodology: a qualitative study among women engaged in couple relationships

This article is a reflection built on empirical data. The data presented at the level of the results are obtained during focus group discussions carried out with women engaged in couple relationships and living in rural localities of the Mayo Danay division such as Vonaloum, Zébé, Yirdeng and Djogoïdi which are all localities in the Yagoua subdivision ; and in the localities of Karam 1 and Massa-Yka of Gobo subdivision. In addition, women living in the villages of Tchalawa and Bangana located in the subdivision of Guere were also met. In sum, 8 villages of the Mayo Danay division constitute our study area.

Mayo Danay is an administrative territory, a division in the Far North region of Cameroon, located in the northern part of the country on the banks of the Logone River and which has a hot climate with rainfall of about 560 millimeters per year. This territory is mainly occupied by rural populations. According to the data of the last general census of the population in Cameroon (BUCREP, 2005), about 77, 2% of the population of Mayo Danay live in rural areas. In this area, the prevalence of couples living together is quite high. About 64.7% of the population above twelve years of age is engaged in a cohabitant couple. These couple relationships are: polygamous marriages, monogamous marriages and common-law unions. This population practice Christian, Muslim, and African traditional religions.

During the field trips carried out during the months of December 2020 and January 2021, we animated 8 focus group discussions with 48 women in the union and involved in income-generating activities. Each focus group constituted of 6 women working in various fields of activity. Thus, in each of the groups, we met farmers, artisans, traders, breeders, food processors. This diversity has been taken into account because it allows the collection of data on activities.

The data was collected using an interview guide and in two languages: French and Massa. With women who could understand and speak French, data was collected in French. But, for women who did not speak French well, data was collected in the mother tongue of the peoples living in the villages of Mayo Danay: the Massa language, which is a language understood and mastered by the team of researchers who collected the data. Data were collected on the following items: income-generating activities, household charges and expenditures, domestic work, sexuality and domestic violence. These data, recorded in a tape recorder, were transcribed, translated when needed, and recorded in French before being submitted to a thematic content analysis during which the data were categorized and codified.

3. Results

3.1. Female activity in the rural area of Mayo Danay: A series of agro pastoral activities

In the rural area of the Mayo Danay division, most women are engaged in agro-pastoral activities, supplemented by fishing, trading, handicrafts and food processing. An observation of the orientation of agricultural, fishing and food processing products reveals that some products are used for the subsistence of the family while; others are integrated in the market economy. With their activities, women are engaged in various types of economies: invisible and visible, market and non-market economies.

3.1.1. Farming

Nowadays, we see that farm work has become more and more a woman's job. The women are involved in agriculture more than men. And, they cultivate food and non-food crops. The main food crops the women grow are: cereals (irrigated rice, rain fed rice, sorghum, maize, voandzou, sesame, cowpea, penicillary millet, etc.), vegetable crops (okro, folere, cucumber, eggplants, peppers, watermelons, etc.), legumes (peanuts, soybeans, etc.), plants with tubers (cassava and plantains) and fruit trees (mango trees). Cereals are sown in the rainy season while vegetable crops and tubers are cultivated in the dry season.

For the majority of food crops like market gardening and most cereals, women practice traditional agricultural methods using hoe, plow, unimproved seeds, slash-and-burn etc. Modern farming methods are only used for the cultivation of irrigated rice. The cultivation of irrigated rice which is widespread in all the sub divisions of Mayo Danay, was initiated and encouraged by an agricultural company, the SEMRY (company for the expansion and modernization of Yagoua rice cultivation), which offers technical assistance to farmers. Rice cultivation is practiced using modern cultivation methods that combine irrigation, the use of fertilizers and improved seeds. In fact, the peasants cultivate rice on plots irrigated by SEMRY, use fertilizers and improved seeds made available to them by SEMRY. This company operates on about 11,500 hectares of land. Food products from the food agriculture are consumed locally in households, in the cities of Cameroon and even in neighboring countries like Nigeria and Chad.

The agriculture of non-food products consists mainly of the cultivation of cotton and tobacco. Cotton and tobacco are planted by few peasants in the subdivisions of Gobo and Guere. Tobacco cultivated here is a product used within the Mayo Danay division. It is not integrated into any transformation or exportation process. The cultivation of tobacco is promoted by the peasants themselves. And it does not benefit from any technical assistance and the peasants use traditional cultural methods as hoe, watering with open wells to grow this non-food crop. Cotton, on the other hand, is cultivated for exportation. It is not integrated in the local consumption. The cultivation of cotton as well as its trade is organized and promoted by the cotton development company (SODECOTON), a parastatal agricultural company. Cotton cultivation is carried out on plots of land belonging to the populations who benefit from SODECOTON technical assistance in agricultural inputs like fertilizers, improved seeds etc.

To grow these crops, women work as independent entrepreneurs in their personal fields and as family helpers in the fields of their spouses. In the fields' s of their husbands or spouses, women are involved in nearly all the tasks. They are the ones doing without being paid the following tasks: hoeing, planting, weeding, harvesting, threshing and placing in granaries. The men only do the land clearing and selling of the farm produce. Even though both men and women are involved in the agricultural activities of these farms; men are the main and direct beneficiaries of the products harvested. Women do not earn any income for their participation in the agricultural activities on the farms of their husbands and do not have the right to sell the crops. Thus, women are a free workforce for their spouses.

As independent entrepreneurs, women work with their children on the lands attributed to them by their spouses for agricultural activities. The women carry out activities in their farms after hoeing and planting in the farms of the men. Women work following a particular cycle. When the farming activities start, women firstly engage themselves in the farms of their spouses. It is when they finish planting in those farms that they can begin farming activities in their personal farms. Thus during the periods when farming activities are carried, women are very busy as declared by this informant *"the woman at this time is very busy, we can say that she is at the beginning and at the end of all the farming activities."*

3.1.2. Fishing

Fishing is a popular activity in the Mayo-Danay division, watered by Logone River, Lougoumatia River, Lake Guere, Lake Maga, ponds and other streams. The fishing activities are practiced throughout the year with a main fishing season from July to November. The fishing methods are artisanal. Fishermen and fisherwomen use for the activities: fishing nets, fishing canals, fishing hooks, and baskets. This fishery supplies with fresh and smoked fish, the local markets of the Mayo Danay Division, , the markets of the towns located in Divisions which shared boundaries with the Mayo Danay such as Maroua, Bogo, Kaele , and some markets situated in Nigerian and Chad villages. The main species fished are: tilapia, captain etc. Women are not engaged in all types of fishing. They mainly practice basket fishing in ponds and small streams during the rainy season.

3.1.3. Breeding

The breeders met in the Mayo-Danay Division, practice two types of breeding: sedentary breeding and transhumant breeding. However, women are only present in sedentary breeding which is a very dynamic business. The area is full of cattle, goats, pigs, poultry, horses and donkeys. This activity is carried out in the pastures that surround the villages, in animal farms and in the surroundings of the family compounds. Sedentary breeding mobilizes a large population of animals. Women are involved neither in transhumant breeding nor in practicing animal husbandry in pastures. They rear animals in their compounds.

3.1.4. Gathering

Picking is carried out in the bushes where the population collects various parts of the plants. The products collected are leaves (Cassia occidentalis, Corchorus olitorius, Leptadenia hastata, Amaranthus viridis, false sesame Ceratotheca sesamoides,), tree bark, lianas, skein, and wild fruits (jujube, tamarind, wild figs, desert dates, doum and ronier, annone, shea, néré) which are used in traditional pharmacopoeia, the construction of houses and enclosures, the nutrition of population specially in the dry season. It's a female activity. Only women carry out picking activities.

3.1.5. Handicraft

Handicraft is an important activity in the area and its economic impact is very high in the domestic units. In this sector, women are present in ceramics, pottery, and basketry which are female activities. To make clay pots, women collect clay in ponds and use hand-building in shaping of clay. Thus, on the bottom of a round pot, the potter, who is a woman, applies a layer of clay and shapes it with her hands until it takes a slightly spherical shape. She can then do various decorations (circular lines, zigzags etc.) on the pot. Once dried, the pottery is burned to make it stronger and more resistant. The various kitchen utensils produced by potters are: canaries for storing water, and cooking pots.

3.1.6. Food conservation and processing

The women of Mayo Danay are very involved in the conservation of animal and vegetal products. Indeed, the women salt, smoke, dry fish and meat after fishing and hunting trips. The species hunted and conserved are: antelopes, hinds, partridges, wild ducks, rabbits, guinea fowl, monitor lizards, squirrels. They also preserve food through drying to avoid post-harvest losses and ensure the availability of food in all seasons in domestic units and markets. Foods that benefit from conservation through drying are peanuts, sesame seeds, ground peas, okro, and corn. Concerning food processing, women produced from crops local beer (bili bili) and liquors (arki). All these processed and preserved foods are not only used for family consumption; women store them in their attic and wait for the lean season to sell them.

3.1.7. Trading

Mayo Danay rural area is characterized by an important commercial activity that can be seen in markets and small stalls where items produced by the local population are displayed as well as manufactured or raw products from other areas such as gasoil, sugar, clothes, potatoes, etc. The markets are places where exchanges are done between inhabitants of the administrative territory, traders coming from Cameroonian big cities (Ngaoundéré, Douala and Yaoundé), and traders of neighboring countries (Chad and Nigeria). There are two main types of markets in this area: food markets and livestock markets. The women of the locality are more present in the food markets where they sell the products of their farms: cucumbers, tomatoes, eggplants, peanuts and many other foods. To sell, the women sometimes, travel on long distances; going from one village to another. This because, in these rural areas, the market of a village is only opened once per week. And villagers do trading in the market of their village and in the markets of other villages of the area, located near or far from their residential area. This is a prosperous activity, and by doing business, women have become independent entrepreneurs today.

3.2. Women in household expenditures: bearing all or part of the responsibilities

Within the domestic units, women contribute to household responsibilities through domestic work and household expenditures. While all women are implicated in domestic work, only women involved in income-generating activities participate in household expenditures. Thus, economic activity determines the participation of women in household expenditures. In fact, women who do not have income-generating activities like the Muslim women are not involved in household expenditures; they only deal with domestic labor. Their male spouses provide for all household expenditures.

In households, with women having income-generating activities, the situation is quite different. Women are not only in charge of domestic labor, they also assume household expenditures. In these households, women take care of children and the other members of family; they prepare food, clean up the compounds, sponsor the education of the children, supply finances for the health and other needs of the family. In fact, women involved in income-generating activities are also breadwinners. Thus, in the rural areas of Mayo Danay, the traditional male breadwinner model is not observed in all homes. Women are major actors of the domestic economy. The data collected during the survey, clearly shows that in some households, women bear all the expenditures while in others, they assume part of the expenditures of the domestic units. Women carry the whole burden of the household when the disengagement of men from family responsibilities is observed. Indeed, in some households men are very careless and do not implicate themselves neither in household expenditures nor in domestic labor. Women thus, find themselves alone carrying the whole burden of the household responsibilities. They are both those who do the domestic labor and play the role of breadwinner. During the focus groups discussions, one woman identifies herself in these terms: *"I am the man and the woman of the house. I cultivate tobacco to assume the expenditures of my family. I sponsor the education of my children and I finance the health of the family members. My children attend secondary education and universities with my personal income."*

Alongside these brave women, who can be described as jack-of-all-trades, there are women who share family expenditures with their spouses. One woman on the field expressed herself in the sharing of expenditures in her home in these terms:
"With my husband, we work so that we can meet the needs of the family. My husband is a primary school teacher, and I am a business woman. My husband gives me an amount of money each month to run the household. But this money is not enough to cover all the needs. I usually add my personal contribution to meet the needs. Even for the education of children, he finances school fees and I use my personal income to buy school supplies."

Thus, women participate in all categories of family expenditures. There is no gendered division of the expenditures in households. In the budget of the domestic unit, we do not have needs that are systematically covered only by men or women. In couple where the expenditures are shared, the two spouses put money together to support the expenditures of the household. They spend collectively. Both men and women invest in all categories of expenditures that are: food, drinks, education, health, clothing, transport, cigarettes and tobacco, housing and household equipment, water-electricity, and gifts.

For the food and drinks for example, women's and men's contributions are made through financial contributions and through the use of the products of their various activities (farming, breeding, food processing and conservation …) to feed the family. To prepare meals, women use crops from their fields, from the fields of their spouses or use their earnings or the contribution of their spouses to run the households expenditures to buy some food. In the Mayo Danay division rural area, households spend enough money for feeding. This because, mixed farming is not spread, traditions do not permit to kill animals reared in the compounds frequently, and the diet is much diversified. Peasants generally have monoculture fields where they grow a single crop. With this practice, a family grows between one and four types of crops per year and to prepare the meals composed of a wide variety of crops, the farmers are obliged to buy crops. Indeed, women go to the markets and buy foodstuff not produced by the household unit. This includes, foodstuff which are produced out of the Mayo Danay division such as palm or refined oil, broths (maggi cubes), salt, rock salt, potatoes, cocoyam and food produced at the local level as tomatoes, maize, sorghum, millet etc.. A woman during the data collection tells us about the expenditures done in her household in these terms:
"The expenditures are made for potatoes, cocoyam, which are not cultivated here. They are produced in Maroua. I have two farms: a farm of beans and a farm of sorghum. My husband cultivates groundnuts. So when i want to eat something like millet, i buy. Here we do not cultivate many crops in a farm. No, some people only cultivate maize, others cultivate millet, others sorghum. You're not going to find someone who practiced mixed farming here. In ours farms we do not put many crops at the same time. No, it's not like that here in our localities."
Another woman expresses herself on the same question, saying, *"We buy meat and fish regularly. The meat is bought because, according to the traditions, the animals that are bred at home are not for feeding. They are a sign of wealth and are used in traditional ceremonies or sold when the family faced financial difficulties. In addition,*

we buy a lot of food on the market because foods like okra, tomatoes, in short, market gardening products are not cultivated throughout the locality. It is only the inhabitants leaving by the banks of the Logone River who cultivate these crops."

Money used to cover the various expenditures of the household (food, drinks, education, health, clothing, transport, cigarettes and tobacco, housing and household equipment, water-electricity, and gifts), comes from the various income-generating activities of women or their spouses. But, when couples face financial difficulties, they go out and take loans in associationsor credit unions. In the rural area of the Mayo Danay Division, women are organized in associations in which activities such as savings and loans are carried out. Thus, with income-generating activities, women are now playing the roles of breadwinners in households in the rural areas of Cameroon. In various studies around the world, (Acharya Bell et al., 2010; Boateng et al., 2012; Brown, 1994), when women acquire the status of breadwinner, they are more emancipated and respected by their spouses. Is this situation also observed in the particular socio-cultural context in which we carried out our study? In the rural area of Mayo Danay, are women involved in income-generating activities benefit from more freedom, are less dependent and submissive to their spouses, less victims of marital violence and sexual assault?

3.3. The rural women of Mayo Danay, emancipated spouses?

To understand the emancipation of rural women in Mayo Danay within households, we studied the margin of freedom given to women by their spouses in various aspects of domestic life such as the choice of the daily meals, the sexuality and, the authority of men. With the data collected, we noticed that, in these various aspects of the domestic life, women do not benefit of a wide margin of freedom that allows them to decide on the daily meals of the family and the sexual behaviors of the couple. They are still under the authority of men. When it comes to daily meals, for example, they prepare food according to the desires of their spouses. During our field trip, few women reported marital violence. They declared that, they were victims of domestic violence simply because they served to their spouses, some foods the men did not appreciate. It clearly appears that these women are not allowed to prepare the food they like but the meals their spouses appreciate.

Sexuality appears as a domestic area where the reins are held by men. According to the women, they do not benefit of any margin of freedom, there is no dialogue on sexuality in their couples, women execute what the men ask as indicated by this participant: *"When it comes to sexuality, it is the man who decides. We women cannot refuse sex to our husbands or we will be beaten. We cannot talk about condom use or abstinence to our spouses; they will not listen to us and if we insist, we will be beaten.*"

Sexuality in this particular context is not built up with dialogue. Indeed, women do not initiate a dialogue on sexuality with their spouses. These dialogues are almost absent among couples in our study area. Topics like the prevention of sexually transmitted infections and birth control are not discussed by the couples. The interlocutors for women on these topics are: health personnel, peer educators, health mobilizers and other women of the community. The Women are thus oppressed in their households even when they have income-generating activities. Daily, they face the authority and the violence of their spouses, who do not give them the opportunities to have a fulfilling personal life.

Conclusion

The rural area of Mayo Danay division in the Northern part of Cameroon is a socio-cultural context where women are dynamic actors of the economy. They produce goods and are integrated into services through several activities: agriculture, fishing, breeding, food processing, handicraft and trading. In these activities, they are either independent entrepreneurs or family helpers. Thus, in this particular socio-cultural context, women are not only confined in domestic labor, an invisible work where they are daily engaged in the care of family members and household chores such as cleaning, washing, cooking etc. They are also present in the public spheres. Precisely, they are economic actors, breadwinners, domestic workers. Indeed, the products of the various activities of women are for family consumption and for trading. And, with these various activities, women partially or totally assume the various household expenditures such as food, alcoholic and non-alcoholic drinks, education, health, equipment of the domestic unit etc. In this rural area, the male breadwinner model is not observed in couples with women engaged in income-generating activities. These women contribute to the expenditures of the household. In some cases, we even have some households where the woman is the unique breadwinner, men having disengaged themselves from household expenditures and responsibilities.

These women who are breadwinners are marginalized. In the villages of Mayo Danay, women still have a narrow margin of freedom and are confined in traditional social gender roles. They are still very dependent on the desires of men and submissive to their male spouses. This situation is quite different from the situations observed in other contexts of sub-Saharan Africa such as the Ghanaian urban area and the Burkinabe rural area, where the integration of women in economic activities has empowered them and has incited changes in gender social roles (Boateng et al. al, 2012; Nignan, 2005). In our study area, women are not emancipated despite their important contributions to household expenditures and their double status in the domestic unit (breadwinner and domestic worker). The presence of women in income generating activities and in their participation in households expenditures have not contributed to their emancipation. The status of women in this rural area has not considerably change. In this society, women are still occupying the position they had in the years 1970s and 1980s as described in some anthropological and ethnological works carried out in the northern part of Cameroon by researchers such as Vincent (1979), Barbier (1985). We can thus conclude that, during the last decades, the situation of women in the rural areas of Northern Cameroon has not undergone significant changes concerning the emancipation of women and the men's participation in domestic work. Women continue to bear the burden of male domination and are classified in cadet's category. The fairer sex is dominated in this context despite the fact that they have means of production. Thus, the economic liberation of women does not guarantee emancipation. Indeed, as long as women remain engage in a socio-cultural system which is not restructured, emancipation remains a goal and an ideal still far to achieve. The deconstruction and reconstruction of cultural systems is thus an essential prerequisite for the emancipation of women in this particular context.

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Light Effect, Color Applications and Composition in Ustad Nasrullah Sarwary Arts

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Abstract
This research pays for Ustad Nasrullah Sarwary arts' characteristic one of Afghanistan modern painters in which analysis light display workout, color application and composition in his arts. The aim of this research it the cognition and introduction of specifications and hidden artistic and scientific points in Sarwary arts. The importance of this research is to introduce specification of one of skillful painters who was not known in art. The results show that Prof. Sarwary was successful to combine classism, naturalism and impressionism and make his own unique method. He also could make ideal space of light effect display and application of basic geometry in his art composition. Art students in Herat and Kabul Art Faculties can make the best of use of this research results as their study complementariness and also increase social knowledge level about an Afghan painter work specification (Sarwary).

Keywords: Prospective, Composition, Conflict, Color, Theme, Light, Basic Geometry

Introduction

Painting in Afghanistan faced up and downs alongside of historical eras, especially recent forty-three years' war in Afghanistan made the work environment tough for them. Nasrullah Sarwary is one of painters whose life was made tougher because of war incidences, but regardless of war era Sarwary could gain proper achievements in painting arts. The motive of this research is to recognize and introduce Sarwary's helpful resplendency and achievements in which have outstanding features in Sarwary's paintings in which are worked in Manzar Jihad Military Museum in Herat.

This is a library form of research, based on sites and observations and sets forth with Sarwary painting arts and also analyzed light display workout, color and geometry application and compositions in Sarwary's arts.

Research Questions

- What tactics did Sarwary use in his paintings' visualizations and light display?
- What specification did Sarwary painting art have in his color applications?
- What are the basics of Sarwary painting arts composition?

Brief Introduction of Prof. Nasrullah Sarwary

Prof. NasrullahSarwary was born at 1942 in second municipality area of Herat City. He was graduated from Telecommunication Field of Kabul Military University and provided services for many years beside his artistic activities in the field of paintings. When he was a young man, he was taught of art basics knowledge specially painting art by Prof. Khair Mohammad Khan, Karim Shah Khan, Prof. Behzad Saljoghi and Prof. Ali Ahmad Kahzad who had impressive activities in the field of Art.

Nastullah Sarwaty (Picture 1) had special style and tactic. He is the owner of primary modern mural in Herat City. Sarwary made the primary artistic plan for Manzar Jihad military museum and there are several paintings and murals by him.

Sarwary was amorous of Natural views, military forces and equipment, and people leaving theme paintings. He was deceased when he was seventy-five years old. (doorbin.af)

Picture 1: Prof. Nasrullah Sarwary, Herat, 2012

Color Prospective in Prof. Nasrullah Sarwary Arts

Jack Stimer highlights color leveling value in prospective as below:

In case of color use without leveling (for instance pure gray), no perspective would be found out. For the creation of aspect, there is a need for color conflicts, pure blue might be seen closer from the dark yellow and reds. (Jack Stimer, 2004: 114)

Pic (2) is a part of Manzar Jihad military museum inside wall in which is worked out by Nasrullah Sarwary. Colorful prospective is visible at this work with warm and cold color conflicts beside color fade in picture distance in which gives the sense of natural distances to viewer. Warm colors are the closes distance and preview in the board. If the boards divided into two parts as it is horizontal, lower part of the board has the most use of warm colors and the upper side of the board has cold colors with a slight decrease and neutralize in color in which cause hills and mountains to move away of viewer's eyes gradually (Picture 2).

Different leveling of colors in lower part of board made such prospective aspect in which make the site and nature vastness visible and make clear the distance between mountains and prepared a beautiful and realistic nature. In fact, the painter imitated the beauty of nature and did not consider extra nature elements and visualized his ideal beauty of the nature.

As Ernest Kasier mentioned: All artistic including classical lightening painters from Italy in sixteen centuries to experts like Batu all inspired from one principal it means that they believed that the Art is not a blind imitation of nature but Art is imitating «beauty of nature (Kassier 2003: 13).

On the front preview of this board (picture 2) the elements, things and people are close because of the purity of colors and their warmness in which placed in the front preview of the board and also this warmness of the colors made more movements in figures and painter selected what needs from the nature and use it and prevented pure imitation.

Picture 2: Sarwary work, Zendeh Jan War, Herat, Manzar Jihad military museum

Lightening Display in Sarwary Works

Mohsen Waziri Moqadam expressed as follow about the quality of things coloring (level of darkness and light):
« The ones who make designing of things without knowing about the quality of coloring, if they want to create volume, they fade darkness gradually to get the lightening. Fading darkness and lack of attention to their main shapes cause to disappear buildings and object body and volumes take inappropriate shapes» (Moqadam; 2001, 148).

Regards to this theory of Moqadam, when Sarwary work on picture (3) is being seen it is clear that Sarwary considered the quality of coloring with different coloring levels (light coloring, reflective color regards to type of materials in flower charts) and also did not fade darkness and worked intensively.

One of distinctive features of Sarwary works is considering light. As it can be seen the picture (3) light shining on a ruined roof with a hole in which attract attention and is known as the static point and aesthetic of the board. This house with shining light placed dark lights in which make it clear that this part of the board was very important and essential to the painter and this light intensity made the house as the key element of board. Some parts of house walls placed in shadow in which purple color gives a special effect to the work. The thing gives attraction to this board is color reflections; on the left of the board where war figures are placed.

In this figure, shadows play an essential role for light display; light was worked with color shining without fading supplementary compositions white shadow colors are neutralized.

Picture 3: Sarwary Work, Zenda Jan War figure, Manzar Jihad military museum

Warm, Cold, Dark and Light Color Conflicts in Sarwary works

Lusia Mayer, on congenital feeling, states about being attracted eyes by strong colors and effects of color to make rhythm as follow:

The color application uses continuously from the unconscious, intuition or congenital feeling. Human eyes are attracted by the strong colors because eyes do not use to see them on wide surfaces. Nature is generally consisting of soft colors like green and brown on a wide surface. Color can be an essential element in rhythm production (Mayer, 1997: 81).

The application of strong colors in most of Prof. Sarwary works is visible. Attention to color values is clearly seen in picture (4) by Sarwary on cold and warm color conflict and the power of colors. This visualization figure of a war picture is painted in Manzar Jihad military museum, Herat. This work shows the color conflict application of cold and warm colors by using green, blue, purple, and warm soil tone color and oranges like colors and all these conflicts cause stimulation of figures and light displays. This light displays and using cold and warm color conflicts make the rhythm in the board. The intensity of warm colors in this art caused to determine to emphasize point of the board.
As Eithen says; color conflict between dark and light is a certain restoration tools for light and shadow and visualization shapes (Eithen, 2010:26).

Conflict of light and dark in this work of Sarwary made a form of consolidation and decisiveness in the board and it is a proper tool for nature, shape of figures, subject and content of work restoration.

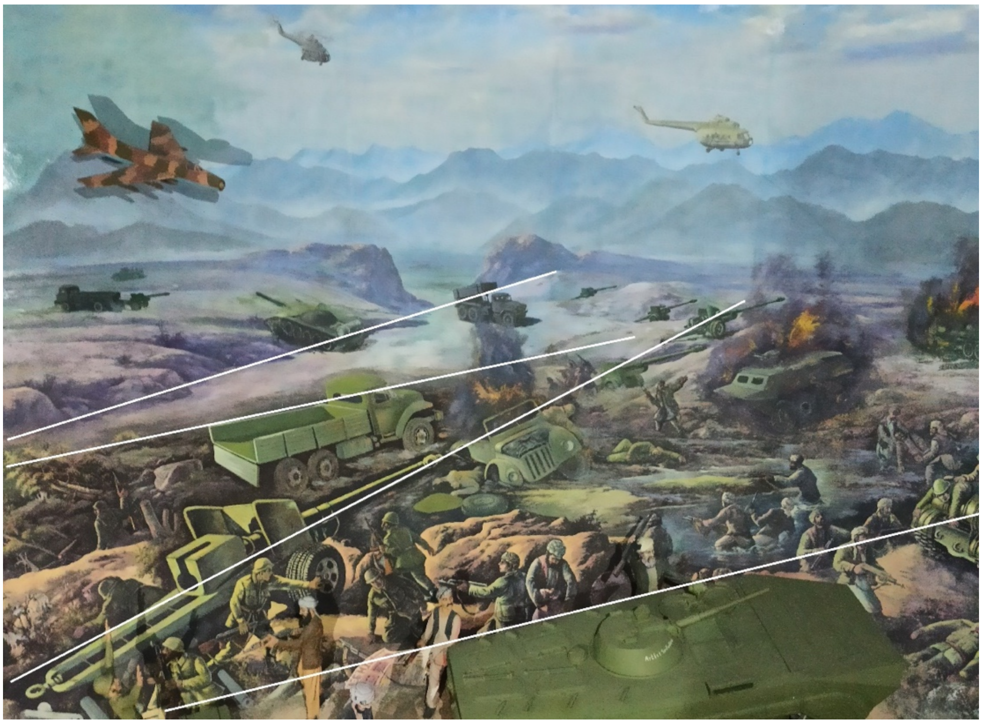
Blue colors in the left-lower side of the board and neighboring warm colors (picture 4) made natural form and these blue shadows caused to guide viewer eyes toward the war scene.

In the right-upper side of the board, one JEEP vehicle is shown in which is fired. Warm and cold colors of fire make visualizations and intensify war scene feelings.

Picture 4: Sarwary work in Jihad Manzar, cold and warm, dark and light color conflicts

Geometric composition

Creation of composition regarding basic geometric, linear prospective and considering escape points are highlights of this board. War cannons in the board are designed in a way that to place in one direction and guides the eyes of the viewer from the foreground of the board to the background. And also, lorry was placed parallel to the huge war cannon, and the linear perspective of the board repeated in the empty space after the lorry vehicle (commuting path). The lower inclined line of the tank in the board has a parallel move with upper lines (picture 5).



Picture 5: Sarwary work, Jihad Manzar, Linear Perspective

Khashayar Qazizada wrote as follows: « circles formation of figures induces inner move of shapes in which is intensified with precise selected movements of the human body» (Qazizada, 2003: 151).

Zahra Rasooli stated as follow about the impact of application for inclined lines to induce desired space: inclined line as a guidance line help to make the visual move from one surface to other, from one horizon to other and from front to the back or verse versa (Rasooli, 2007: 336).

In picture (6) can be seen that, head of seven body figure placed on a circle move line, the basic geometry of board is on an oval form in which cause for viewer's eyes move on figures and states consciousness capability of the owner of the work how to use shapes regards to the work composition. In the picture (7) also there are six-figure bodies on an oval shape in fact, which shows that the painter emphasized on the basic composition of the board on the shape and forms of the circle.

Picture 6: Sarwary work, Manzar Jihad military museum, basic geometric composition regards on circle shape

Picture 7: Sarwary work, Manzar Jihad military museum, basic geometric composition regards on the circle shape

Discussion

Painting art artworksManzar Jihad military museum is commanded according to Marx theory as follow: in a productive society, worker is a direct producer of good and value which is forced to sell their work force and construction force to capitalists and in fact separated from their creativity potential and realize themselves in a product in which is not of himself (Ahmadi, 1995: 184). But Sarwary was successful in this paints regard to his unique creative power to light display, scientific color application and compositions to the person opposed to production condition and client suggestions.

If it is supposed to debate on color prospective of Sarwary works, it would be analyzed classism, naturalism, and amprialism regards to the landscape painting; because in the primary steps color tones in Sarwary works has naturalist orientation and as Jackstimer says in case any color worked without leveling, no prospective tone would be visible. This expert emphasizes that color conflicts should be used to create aspect. Regards to color conflict, as color application in Sarwary works, not considering the tactics, his works are mostly similar with impressionists works. Mentionable point is that Sarwary deleted extra natural elements but used generals of nature that were mostly required for his work effectiveness.

If Sarwary works were uniform without color conflict, resulted boards could not display quality of lightning on elements. The use of Sarwary coloring for lightning, coloring for light display, light for shadow and darkness shows the consciousness of sarwary on colors and shows his tactical talents.

Restoration through color conflict of dark-light is a trick of Sarwary hand to attract clients and as a tool to be a communication tool with client and work. In case this restoration was not in Sarwary work, local clients of Afghanistan would not be familiar with mental shapes and forms and could not communicate with the work.

Application of Basic geometric in composition of boards in figures in medieval era and Herat miniature school of art in ninth centuries were highly applicable (specially Kamaleddin Behzad works). Sarwary considered a framework for his compositions regards to basic geometric and kept the balance and harmony with placing the heads of figure body in a form of circle shaped.

Conclusion

Methods of Nasrullah Sarwary in lightening is application of colors and color prospective in color composition of classism, naturalism and impressionist. Restoration of Sarwary works with dark and light conflict and light display is to keep better relation and closer with clients. Different and opposite coloring in Sarwary boards is set to visualize light and darkness skillfully.

Color perspective is realistically observed. Color reflection visualization is clear prof. Sarwary complementary tendency of impressionist style. Strong colors with oppositions are applied in Sarwary works intensively. Basic geometric are used for board composition (prospective and figure arrangements). Restoration of nature is considered regards to personal aesthetics of artistic not his unique imitation. Sarwary messages in his works are not mysterious, it is expressed with realistic elements.

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The Link Between the Type of Attachment and Religiosity

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Abstract
Motivation: This paper aims to show the central role of the notion of attachment in human behavior, the image of God in the representation of the believer as a parental figure and as an oversized attachment figure in the personal relationships, social and religious behavior. Methods: Scientific and comparative studies of different concepts from psychology of religion, social psychology, psychoanalytic theory, cognitive psychology as well as theory, research and behavioral studies. Results: Attachment to God seems to develop in a coordinated way with the maturation of attachment to the primary figure but also with the development of cognitive processes involved. In addition, in case of danger, loss and separation are validate the human and common response to approach God as a substitute figure of attachment, the intensification of religious activities. Conclusions: The need for attachment and attachment for religion is one of the prerogatives of survival, development and growth and it is present in all-important areas of the life, culture and in all societies. People who develop a secure attachment are less prone to become religious over time.

Keywords: Attachment, Religiosity, Oversized Parental Figure, Primary Figure, Representation, Maturation, Anxiety, Avoidance

1. Introduction

1.1. The attachment theory

J. Bowlby developed the attachment theory around the 1950s, a theory that assimilates concepts from psychoanalytic theory, ethology, and cognitive psychology (Atkinson et al., 2002). Attachment theory focuses on the connection created between the child and the parent during development. Bowlby states that attachment is a behavior resulting from gaining or maintaining proximity, "a fundamental human need to seek protection, comfort, and support" (Golu, 2015, p. 85).

According to this theory, babies perform a series of innate attachment behaviors. These behaviors are laughing, crying, sucking and grabbing. The reason why babies exhibit these behaviors is to maintain physical closeness to the figure of attachment, and aim at the survival of the baby in possible dangerous environmental situations (Abbasi et al., 2016). The most important characteristics of the attachment relationship are the availability and responsiveness of the parent. Responsiveness refers to the way the parent reacts to the signals sent by the child, so "the adult's responsiveness to the child's signals is decisive in forming a secure attachment" (Golu, 2015, p. 86).

As time passes and the parent-child interactions increase, the child will develop strong beliefs and expectations about the availability and responsiveness of parents, but also conceptions of themselves as deserving or not the parental affection (Bylsma et al., 1997). These beliefs are mental models and conceptualized as mental representations of the knowledge gained from experience about attachment figures (Bowlby, 1973).

Attachment theorists argue that there are two dimensions that underlie the development of patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors about relationships (Foster et al., 2007), namely anxiety and avoidance.

Anxiety describes the tendency to worry about rejection and the availability of others at times when the person needs support, while avoidance refers to the tendency to avoid intimacy and closeness in relationships. It develops from interpersonal experiences characterized by inconsistency of availability and support by parental attachment figures, for this reason people with a predominantly anxious attachment expect inconsistencies when they need the availability of others (Foster et al., 2007). Avoidance develops from interpersonal experiences characterized by total lack of availability and support by parental attachment figures, which is why these people have learned not to expect availability and support from others, being insensitive to such signals (Foster et al., 2007).

1.2. Types of attachment

Attachment theory holds that primordial interactions with primary caregivers have a lasting effect on how the person will engage in close relationships throughout life (Bowlby, 1969).

According to the classification model of attachment types proposed by Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991), interaction with parents results in the construction of positive or negative mental models of how the individual perceives himself (*model of self*) and others (*model of others*), and the types of attachment are classified as follows: securing, anxious, fearful avoiding, and avoiding by rejection.

The security person has a positive outlook on both himself and others, these people have high self-esteem, high confidence in others, having a conception of self, based on a real, valid context (Hampton et al., 2011). The relationships in which people engage with this type of attachment are on reciprocity, closeness, respect, and trust (Bylsma et al., 1997; Passanisi et al., 2015). Secure attachment is characterized by a low level of anxiety and avoidance, is associated with satisfactory close relationships.

The avoidant type by rejection has a positive perception of himself and a negative perception of others. They may have a high level of self-esteem, but they suppress their desire and need to engage in an intimate, close relationship, which is why they are perceived as having low sociability (Passanisi et al., 2015). These people believe that they can be loved, but have a general feeling of distrust of others and expect not to be able to rely on them, or even be rejected by those around them. (Bylsma et al., 1997). Avoidant attachment by rejection is characterized by a high level of avoidance and a low level of anxiety (Foster et al., 2007).

Individuals with an anxious attachment style have a negative perception of themselves and a positive perception of others, which is why they tend to have an increased dependence on other people (Passanisi et al., 2015). People with this type of attachment feel that they cannot be loved, but they believe that other people are trustworthy and available (Bylsma et al., 1997).

People who have a fearful-avoidant attachment style have a negative perception of both themselves and others (Passanisi et al., 2015). People who show this type of attachment have the perception that they are not worthy of being loved, and at the same time they perceive others as not people they can rely on and who will reject them (Bylsma et al., 1997).

2. **Methods and materials**

2.1. The link between religion and attachment theory

The idea that the basic aspects of religious experience and behavior can be understood in connection with the theory of attachment was pioneered by Kirkpatrick (Kirkpatrick, 1994). In particular, Kirkpatrick proposed that the relationships with God perceived by believers tend to resemble the defining criteria for attachment relationships, and therefore they function psychologically like other attachment structures. In developing this idea, numerous factors, both social and cultural, as well as related to the specificity of the initial attachment link form facets to explain this link (Granqvist et al., 2020).

The first aspect we can look at in investigating the relationship between religion and attachment theory is the very origin of the term religion. It comes from the Latin word "religare" or "relegere" and means "to be bound" (Ferm, 1945). Monotheistic religions are based on faith in a personal God with whom believers have a personal relationship (Granqvist & Kirkpatrick, 2016). The idea of connection with a personal God already creates a framework similar to that in which attachment relationships are formed and, therefore, carries the same psychological valences as those related to human attachment figures.

In addition, the centralization of the notion of love/attachment in most religions is another relevant factor in the development of this topic. In monotheistic religions, the relationship with a personal God is marked by love, and the centrality of love felt as coming from God is often found in the accounts of people who convert, who compare the process of conversion with that of falling in love (Thouless, 1923). Ullman (1982) conducted one of the most consistent studies on religious conversions and in his conclusions states that from his interviews with people who converted "what we initially considered a change of ideology primarily, proved to be more like a love affair. The conversion revolves around a sudden attachment, a passion for a real or imagined figure that appears against the background of a great emotional turmoil."

One of the most intuitive statements in approaching this subject is the image of God in the representations of the faithful as a parental figure, which offers protection and refuge from dangers. This representation is formed based on biblical structures (for example, Psalm 27: "The Lord is my light and my salvation; whom shall I fear? The Lord is the city of my life; whom shall I fear?") with which are raised the persons whose education also includes a religious side. For them, in the simplified representation meant to answer questions about what God is like, the explanations revolve around an image of a good parent, who cares for his children and wants to help them grow well, who punishes when his children make mistakes and who protects against dangers. Beyond these first coordinates that children receive related to God, in the ecclesiastical representation of religion there are numerous reinforcements of this concept. The very notion of the father of the priest, who is the representative of God (in Christianity, of God's Son as Bishop) in the church, represents a connotative function for this principle. In addition, other sources underlying the Christian faith are vocal in this regard, such as the Our Father prayer. Consequently, studies on this topic, on the images that people have about God, constantly emit as the main factor, the parental figure, loaded with a series of descriptors connected to the attachment figure, such as lover, protector and caregiver (Tamayo & Desjardins, 1976).

This concept of the figure of God as an oversized figure of the father was famously enunciated by Freud (1927, 1961) and is the main succession left to the psychology of religion. Beyond this legacy, however, modern theorists point out that the image of God as an oversized attachment figure is more appropriate, rather than just the father, because God captures the essence of both valences and includes as many maternal as paternal characteristics (Kirkpatrick, 2005).

2.2. Implication of relationship between religious attitudes and attachment types

Attachment to God seems to develop in a coordinated way with the maturation of attachment to the primary figures, but also with the development of cognitive processes that can support the concept, such as symbolic thinking and mentalization. These advances in cognitive functioning decrease children's dependence on physical contact with primary caregivers and increase their ability to rely on internalized sources of emotional security. In addition, the completion of these stages of development allows children to represent their intangible abstract entities as God and to be able to refer to them as attachment figures (Cherniak et al., 2020).

According to the theory, the unavailability of a primary attachment figure activates an attachment behavior designed to restore an adequate degree of proximity. However, quickly, in the early stages of development, an individual can anticipate that efforts to achieve an appropriate approach to the figure of attachment will not be successful, and in this case: "Whenever the natural object of the attachment is not available, the behavior can be directed to a substitute object. Even if it is inanimate, such an object often appears feasible to play the initial role, although secondary to the primary figure of attachment. Like the main figure of attachment, the lifeless replacement is sought especially when the child is tired, sick or stressed." (Bowlby, 1982).

This statement of Bowlby explains people's behavior to address God as a figure of attachment (substitute for primary figures) especially in conditions of perceived danger or in situations of distress (suffering), also validated in a quick look at human responses in case of danger, loss and separation from a leading figure of attachment, war and other extreme living conditions. Behavioral responses in these situations primarily aim at approaching God as a substitute figure of attachment, through the almost unconscious call to prayer, the intensification of religious activities, the search for answers in the field of theological explanations, etc.

However, these affective and behavioral responses do not appear only in isolated situations of distress, but they are also present in precarious relational situations in adulthood. Kirkpatrick (1997) reports that during a 4-year study period, women with an anxious romantic attachment pattern established a renewed relationship with God and reported significant religious experiences, which they describe with expressions such as "being born again" and speak in tongues more often than women with secure attachment speak.

3. **Conclusions**

Studies in the literature suggest that people who report past experiences consistent with the pattern of insecure attachment or who present a pattern of insecure attachment today tend to become more and more religious over time. A determining factor for the increase of religiosity is the need to regulate the intense suffering, mentioned above. For reasons of probability, over time, the chances of a person exposed to several events that cause these feelings increase. Given that the need to regulate suffering through a surrogate attachment figure is relatively low or alternates with a new intimate relationship with another person, religiosity as a result of growing older no longer has the same consistency (Granqvist & Hagekull, 2003).

In my opinion, given that attachment is one of the primary prerogatives of survival and development and one of the essential elements of growth; it is normal, on the one hand, for its implications, or reminiscences of them, to be found in all areas important to people. On the other hand, people's need for religiosity and to relate to a superior figure who can provide protection and love is a human condition proven by the test of endurance over time and its ubiquity in the whole diversity of human societies. Thus, looking from this perspective at the complementarity between the importance of the attachment structure for human development and functioning and the need for religion, equally validated by time and presence in all societies; it becomes a little surprising that there is a connection between the two and they influence each other. However, this does not negate the fact that the mechanisms of this relationship are very interesting to study.

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Indonesia's African Foreign Policy Shift under President Jokowi

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Abstract
Under President Jokowi's leadership, Indonesia seems to have made Africa a foreign policy priority. Previously bounded by Bandung romanticism and lacking understanding on the contemporary strategic importance of Africa, Indonesia finally launched its own Africa+1 forum in April 2018 in Bali, the *Indonesia Africa Forum* (IAF), following an economic diplomacy framework and will to do business with Africa. For Jokowi, Bandung should be leveraged to mean business. Indonesia had previously struggled to institutionalize Asia-Africa intercontinental multilateralism through the *New Africa-Asia Strategic Partnership* (NAASP) launched during the 2005 Asia Africa Summit in Jakarta organized to celebrate the 50th anniversary of the Bandung Conference; while other major Asian powers such as Japan, China, Malaysia, India or South Korea developed their own political, economic and cultural platforms with African countries. Closing a clear research gap, this original study allows a better comprehension of this foreign policy shift and of Indonesia's contemporary foreign policy towards Africa within Global Africa Studies. For more pragmatism and flexibility, this qualitative research, notably based on in-depth interviews with Indonesian and African diplomats, uses an eclectic analysis allowing a holistic approach combining levels of analysis and types of factors; thus increasing explanatory power.

Keywords: Indonesia, Africa, Asia-Africa, Indonesia-Africa, Foreign Policy, Jokowi, Global Africa Studies, External Powers in Africa

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Problem

Willing to turn the Bandung Spirit leverage into concrete business, President Jokowi made Africa "an Indonesian foreign policy priority" (Himawan and Tanjung 2017; Lumanauw and WBP 2017). The Minister of Foreign Affairs Retno Marsudi called it moving "Beyond the Bandung Spirit" (Marsudi 2017).[1] Yet, limited material capacities in its foreign policy or non-traditional security threats such as the Covid-19 crisis can disturb the development of real power (Acharya 2014). Explaining Indonesia's late contemporary African engagement compared to other

[1] In an article in The Jakarta Post on February 2, 2017, titled "*Indonesia and Africa: Beyond the Bandung Spirit*", Minister Retno wrote: "*The focus of our relations will be economic cooperation*" (Marsudi 2017).

emerging powers triggered this research. While Indonesia tried to institutionalize Asia-Africa intercontinental multilateralism through the *New Africa-Asia Strategic Partnership* (NAASP) launched during the 2005 Asia Africa Summit in Jakarta organized to celebrate the 50th anniversary of the Bandung Conference, other major Asian powers such as Japan, China, Malaysia, India or South Korea developed their own political, economic and cultural platforms with African countries, away from the Asia-Africa multilateralism promoted by Indonesia. Previously trapped in Bandung nostalgia and unaware of the new strategic importance of Africa in the 21st century, Indonesia finally launched its own Africa+1 forum in April 2018 in Bali, the *Indonesia Africa Forum* (IAF) obeying to an economic diplomacy paradigm and imperative to boost business with Africa (Anya 2018); moving away from a continent-to-continent approach or complete intercontinental multilateralism (Kemlu 2018). Under Jokowi, relations with Africa seemingly enter the heart of Indonesia's national interests (BPPK-Kemlu and UMY 2016; Lumanauw and WBP 2017).

Before Jokowi, Indonesia favoured an Asia-Africa or continent-to-continent multilateral approach while other Asian powers did not. Indonesia has now joined the so-called "new scramble for Africa" (Carmody 2011, 2016). In the context of external powers' competition to access African markets and resources, the institutionalization of Asia-Africa relations promoted by Indonesia through the NAASP did not operationalise. Indonesia lacked knowledge and capacity on Africa to lead the institutionalization of a large Asia-Africa platform like the NAASP (CDT with H. Wirajuda 2018). Each major Asian power prioritizes its national interests pursued through its own strategic means. Major emerging countries not only view Africa as part of their diplomatic agenda in a South-South Cooperation (SSC) perspective;[2] [3] but also clearly as a new market for their products and investments, and a source of natural resources (Carmody 2013; Darracq and Neville 2014; Iwata 2012; Van der Merwe, Taylor, and Arkhangelskaya 2016; Taylor 2014). Yet "emerging powers in Africa" like Indonesia cannot in reality be resumed to a kind of mercantilism.

1.2 Importance of the Problem

From the previous background and problem presentation, the research questions can be formulated as follows: what explains the Indonesian foreign policy shift towards Africa under President Jokowi; and how can Indonesia's current foreign policy towards Africa be interpreted? As an academic contribution, this research adds a reference to the theory of Indonesian foreign policy in the dynamic Asia-Africa and Indo-Pacific contexts. This exploratory, descriptive-analytic study based on empirical research brings an alternative perspective on Indonesian foreign policy to better grasp Indonesia-Africa and Asia-Africa interactions in general. Given that relations with Africa from an Indonesian perspective have rarely been studied, this work is original and innovative. Global Africa Studies are quickly developing. Indonesia's African policy has not been well studied yet compared to other emerging powers. Obviously disturbed by the Covid-19 crisis, this study still proposes a serious contribution to the underdeveloped field of Indonesia-Africa studies. Understanding Indonesia-Africa relations is a strategic topic given Indonesia's standing as a major emerging power or pivot state (Santikajaya 2016, 2017). This study modestly supports better relations and knowledge between Asia, Indonesia, and Africa and its countries. This research's findings could propel the emergence of more comprehensive and in-depth studies on the African continent from an Indonesian perspective; and vice versa.

1.3 Relevant Scholarship

No significant studies or seminal work on Indonesia's foreign policy towards Africa can be identified.[4] [5] Indonesia allows a new view on Asia-Africa contemporary links. Contemporary literature on Asia-Africa appeared more

[2] The SSC discourse is often presented as a mask dissimulating national interests (Van der Merwe, Taylor, and Arkhangelskaya 2016; Taylor 2014).
[3] SSC combines seeking material benefits as well as human achievements in the Bandung solidarity tradition (Korkut and Civelekoglu 2013; Ndzendze 2018).
[4] The short development on Indonesia in Africa in the collective book *Emerging Powers in Africa* is not satisfying. Yet the IAF had not taken place at the time of writing (Van der Merwe, Taylor, and Arkhangelskaya 2016).
[5] The business guide published by the MOFA on Indonesia's economic presence in Africa is not academic (Eximbank and Kemlu 2018; Pramono 2012).

often in the early 2000s with the star topic of "China in Africa" (Amakasu Raposo de Medeiros Carvalho, Arase, and Cornelissen 2018). The literature has often presented a Western bias (Brautigam 2009; French 2014). But the rise of Asian research notably has permitted new narratives. Major Asian countries' African engagements have been compared to assess the possibility of Asian partnerships in Africa (Iwata 2012, 2020). The issue of emerging powers in Africa has been studied using diverse paradigms: Marxist, critical, neo-liberal or more realist (Ayers 2013; Corkin and Naidu 2008; Darracq and Neville 2014; Davis 2018; Hirono 2019; Iwata 2012; Kato 2017; Korkut and Civelekoglu 2013; Kornegay and Landsberg 2009; Van der Merwe, Taylor, and Arkhangelskaya 2016; Zhao 2014). Different variables or determinants of Asian approaches towards Africa have been identified such as diplomatic reasons with for example China's struggle against Taiwan and post-1989 sanctions or South Korea facing North Korea; the need to secure resources; or market access (Alden 2005; Darracq and Neville 2014; Iwata 2012; Van der Merwe, Taylor, and Arkhangelskaya 2016). The risk of "Black Solidarity" between Indonesian Papua and Africa has haunted Indonesia for decades (Deplu and UNDIP 1984).[6] Power through a realist paradigm or pure mercantilism ignore more refined reasons for Asian engagement on the African continent; for example China and India in development assistance or the African defence sector (Boutin 2018; Ndzendze 2018). Yet Asian powers like China or India need to protect their citizens and assets in Africa causing an abandonment or at least a modification of the almost sacred non-intervention principle towards more pragmatic foreign policies (Hodzi 2019; Okolo 2015). Indonesia would have considered expanding in Africa before Jokowi if material or pure power factors were considered. Foreign policy determinants are complex and multiple. Due to the rising importance of Asia-Africa relations, Asian types of engagement towards Africa need to be apprehended.[7] Mixing all forums of Asian and African countries into one Asia-Africa platform has been envisaged (Amakasu Raposo de Medeiros Carvalho, Arase, and Cornelissen 2018).[8] This blending would deliver Indonesia's idealistic intercontinental vision presented at the 2005 Asia Africa Summit (CDT with H. Wirajuda 2018).

1.4 Research Design

Filling a research gap, this research aims to study Indonesia's foreign policy towards Africa in the 21st century especially under Jokowi, which calls for an exploratory approach due to the shortage of existing materials compared to China-Africa research for example. More specifically, this study inspects the shift of Indonesia's African engagement from a multilateralist, idealistic, continent-to-continent involvement in the institutionalization of Asia-Africa relations through the NAASP declared in 2005 and again in 2015 at the Asia Africa Summit; to a more realist and materialist approach notably embodied in the IAF launched in April 2018. This investigation allows to better understand Indonesia's foreign policy towards Africa as a sub-field within Asia-Africa studies and Global Africa Studies; and thus create knowledge on the African foreign policies of major Asian powers, especially through country-to-continent forums. Instrumental for state action, Indonesian elite and decision makers' mindsets concerning Africa are looked into. Understanding the foreign policy shift from an idealist-multilateral approach to a pragmatic-bilateral approach in an economic diplomacy framework entails studying structural, institutional, ideational and psychological causal mechanisms (Parsons 2007); examining the essence and available theorizing of Indonesian foreign policy; and also seeking correlations through comparisons with other Asian powers more advanced in their African policies that tend to influence Indonesia's own engagement.

The complexity of foreign policy cannot be apprehended with simplistic paradigmatic approaches denying certain levels of analysis or factors. Holistic approaches facilitate the analysis of foreign policies. Research on the African foreign policies of major external powers such as China, India, the UK, the US or France combine structural and agency level analysis; and ideational and material factors (Burton 2016; Carmody, Kragelund, and Reboredo 2020; Charbonneau 2016; Copson 2007; Duggan 2020; Erforth 2016; Gallagher 2011; Porteous 2008; Taylor 2014). Eclectic analysis provides a comprehensive and flexible framework for a holistic approach combining levels of

[6] Online interview (September 2020) with the Indonesian Ambassador in Tunisia (2016-2021) Prof. Ikrar Nusa Bhakti.

[7] To pursue their African interests and strategies, China and India have shifted towards increased multilateralism (AU, BRICS and other platforms) (Panda 2017).

[8] Profesor Jepang Yoichi Mine: *"these country-to-region summits may well be reorganized into a single region-to-region (Afro-Asian or Afrasian) forum, thereby avoiding duplication and unnecessary competition and opening up a way of dynamic mutual learning between Asians and Africans, rather than one-way transfer of knowledge from a big Asian country to dozens of separate African nations"* (Amakasu Raposo de Medeiros Carvalho, Arase, and Cornelissen 2018).

analysis and types of factors; therefore increasing explanatory power. Eclectic analysis "s*eeks to extricate, translate and selectively integrate analytical elements – concepts, logics, mechanisms and interpretations – of theories or narratives that have been developed within separate paradigms but that address related aspects of substantive problems that have both scholarly and practical significance*" (Sil and Katzenstein 2010).

A complex and debatable reality, Indonesia's delayed contemporary engagement with Africa and more substantial interest under Jokowi transcends the question of paradigms, requiring combined explanations as a real scholarly problem (Lake 2013). Problem-driven, this research began from an interrogation on why Indonesia stuck to the NAASP, its multilateral approach to Africa; not forming its own country-to-continent forum, the IAF, until 2018. This interrogation widened to Indonesia's contemporary African foreign policy, which calls for examining various causal mechanisms and processes creating or explaining the depth of the studied phenomena. Causality requires flexibility and freedom that paradigmatic bounded research can hinder. Research on Indonesian foreign policy in general or China-Africa relations reveals that a universal theory is inexistent. Interplay always occurs between agency and structure, material and ideational factors. Eclectic analysis towards middle-range theories supports pragmatism, linking causal mechanisms from various paradigms for the formulation of more holistic research outputs. Given the absence of a unique theoretical perspective to comprehend Indonesian foreign policy (Nguitragool 2012), eclectic combinations of paradigms, notably of realism or neoliberalism that share a rationalist or positivist ontology combined with constructivism, are employed to gather structure or the international system and agency notably domestic politics; but also ideational factors like perceptions or educational background of foreign policy elites and realist material factors like power and wealth distribution (Santikajaya 2017; Shekhar 2018).

2. Method

This study seeks to describe and analyse Indonesia's foreign policy towards Africa in the 21st century under President Jokowi as an analytical descriptive research. The focus of this study is directed at state foreign policy, an important part of state power. Thus, the level of analysis is at the state level and state actors. Given the eclectic analysis approach, the systemic level remains a concern; although structure is a human creation. Analytical methods like Foreign Policy Analysis (FPA) appear insufficient especially concerning foreign policy content or ideas. Empirical, inductive and flexible methods born from primary and secondary data sources, as used in this study, seem more relevant. Qualitative methods, mostly in-depth interviews with Indonesian and African diplomats based in Indonesia and Africa, have provided this study's primary data; with the Indonesian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) standing as the main primary source.[9] Data from sources in the Military and the Police [10] as well as ASEAN was also obtained. Snowballing and purposive sampling from mostly the author's private network determined the sources. Interviews were conducted in Indonesia mostly; online since the Covid-19 crisis. The Indonesian MOFA library in Jakarta also provided primary data. Secondary data was gathered from books on foreign policy topics relating to Indonesia and other Asian and external powers in Africa, research reports, print and digital mass media, journals and papers. This data made this research more comprehensive and empirically illustrated.

3. Results

3.1 The Bandung Spirit linkage and NAASP deadlock

Indonesia Africa friendly historical ties are symbolically enshrined in the Bandung principles or the *Dasasila* promulgated at the Bandung Conference in April 1955 (Lee 2010); marking the birth of SSC and of the "close support and cooperation" between Indonesia and Africa (Kemlu 2017). A strategic ally, Africa is also a partner for Indonesia in the Group of 77 in the United Nations, the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) or the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC). For African countries, Indonesia becomes visible as a potential new partner and

[9] such as the former Minister of Foreign Affairs and President Jokowi's special envoy for Africa in 2018, Dr. Hassan Wirajuda (CDT with H. Wirajuda 2018).
[10] relating to peacekeeping operations in Africa, defense cooperation or non-traditional threats for example.

model with its democratic credentials, dynamic economy and well-managed demographic diversity.[11] Indonesia's socio-political profile can appear attractive for African countries due to a similar attention to stability and development in a relatable context and configuration.

Indonesia-Africa cooperation covers various fields such as health and family planning, forestry, agriculture and fisheries, environment, women's empowerment and democracy. Economic cooperation is aimed at trade, energy, infrastructure and the maritime sector. Although limited, Indonesia provides human and institutional capacity building, financing and technical assistance (Bilateral, NAM and SSC) to African countries. Indonesian companies, both SOEs and private, are increasingly getting involved in Africa (Pramono 2012).[12] In the Jokowi era, Indonesia prioritises economic engagement and cooperation in its relations with Africa. Indonesia aims to go "beyond the Bandung Spirit" (Marsudi 2017). But how to fulfill the potential relating to the strong symbolic historical links between Indonesia and Africa? Bandung created the concept of Afro-Asian solidarity that conserves emotional and symbolic power. Yet no transcontinental or transregional Asia-Africa platform has been operationalised. During the 2005 Asia Africa Summit coupled to the Bandung Conference 50th anniversary celebration, Indonesia launched the unimplemented and unoperationalised NAASP. Bandung idealism and a feeling of historical responsibility drove Indonesia towards the NAASP multilateral framework; symbolically and historically charged yet impossible to institutionalise. Ignoring the NAASP, other Asian powers built their own specific frameworks and country-to-continent forums. Indonesia actually focused internally since *Reformasi*. Africa seemed far and not yet a foreign policy priority. When the domestic situation is weak, Indonesia cannot implement a widened foreign policy; domestic politics founding all Indonesian foreign policy (Sukma 2003). The rise of the Indo-Pacific concept brings Africa into Indonesia's geopolitical *Weltanschauung* and elite mindsets.

3.2 The Birth of a more Pragmatic Framework: the Indonesia Africa Forum (IAF)

Despite the prestige of the Bandung Conference and Afro-Asian Solidarity, Asian countries in the 21st century engage independently with Africa; not through an Asian continental bloc. Asia Africa relations have materialised in a series of forums or summits launched by major Asian powers such as the *Tokyo International Conference on African Development* (TICAD) for Japan in 1993; the *Forum on China-Africa Cooperation* (FOCAC) for China in 2000; the *Korea Africa Forum* (KOAF) by South Korea from 2006 or the *India-Africa Forum Summit* (IAFS) by India from 2008 (Iwata 2012, 2020). ASEAN's giant, Indonesia only organized its first country-to-continent forum with Africa, the IAF, in April 2018 (Kemlu 2018). Institutionalising more concretely Indonesia's engagement with African countries, the IAF fully prioritises economic relations following the will of President Jokowi to leverage Bandung's legacy for concrete business with Africa, in accordance with his interpretation of the national interest as increasing the economic prosperity the Indonesian people. Placed directly under the President's patronage and organized by the Indonesian MOFA, the IAF does not take place at the Summit or Ministerial level; contrary to the country-to-continent forums or summits of other major Asian powers that bring together African Presidents and Ministers to boost socio-political, economic and cultural relations. During those summits, billions of dollars of investment and aid from Asian powers are usually declared. The IAF appears more modest than the platforms of other major Asian powers in line with Indonesia's weaker material capacities. Moreover, Jokowi himself is known to be humble and dislike international political forums without concrete business outcomes.

Given its status as host country of the Bandung Conference, Indonesia benefits from a positive *a priori* and a special position in Asia-Africa not yet really leveraged. President Jokowi is conscious of the increasingly strategic role of Africa for major powers and for Indonesia. Jokowi nominated his closest ally, a key political entrepreneur and power broker, and the most prominent figure in his cabinet, General (Ret.) Luhut Binsar Pandjaitan, as Chair of the newly-created Indonesian Task Force for Africa Infrastructure. Luhut has been very active in seeking

[11] Although threatened by democratic backsliding according to many researchers (T. P. Power and Warburton 2020) and other weaknesses. The impact of the Covid-19 crisis is also not evaluated

[12] Pertamina acquired its first overseas oil field in Algeria. Indofood dominates the instant noodle market in Nigeria or Ghana under the Indomie brand; expanding throughout Africa. Other companies such as PT DI, PT KAI, Kalbe Farma, Wings Group, Sinar Mas, Indorama or Gajah Tunggal are growing fast on the African continent.

infrastructure projects and other deals in Africa. Indonesia organized the *Indonesia Africa Infrastructure Dialogue* in August 2019 in Bali (Kemlu 2019). Sharing the same colonial experience and recognised for its support to African independences, Indonesia benefits from a positive image and soft power in Africa. Africa also often supports Indonesia diplomatically.[13]

Since the New Order, Indonesia's foreign policy was more focused on its sub-region; ASEAN being described as the cornerstone of Indonesia's foreign policy (Anwar 2017, 2020). With its accession to the G-20 under President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono (SBY), Indonesia gained more prestige; presenting itself as the world's largest Muslim-populated democracy and a dynamic economy despite its domestic plagues such as corruption or poverty. SBY's foreign policy doctrine of "*a thousand friends zero enemies*" lacked focus for any significant strategic expansion outside Southeast Asia.

In the flexible respect of the *bebas aktif* doctrine, Jokowi has brought Indonesia to better assert its interests; proving more selective and pragmatic in its foreign policy choices and partnerships. In this perspective, Africa forms part of Jokowi's agenda at least in terms of business; calling for a deeper focus. The example and competition of other major Asian and emerging powers combined to Indonesia's thirst for expansion and recognition raised the intensity of Jokowi's and thus Indonesia's willingness to engage with Africa. Yet, the Indonesian strategy towards Africa remains somewhat unsophisticated; contrasting with the important potential of Indonesia-Africa ties.

3.3 The Impact of Jokowi's Leadership

Indonesia's shift towards engaging Africa more concretely, especially for business, originates directly from President Jokowi. Siding mere rhetoric, Jokowi started Indonesia's contemporary African journey. Africa allows Indonesia to internationalise its state foreign policy; offering the possibility of envisaging great power status in the future in the sense of Pardesi who defines great power as the ability to become a major power in at least one external region (Pardesi 2015). In ASEAN, Indonesia faces major obstacles to impose its views creating frustration as seen with Myanmar. Africa can form part of Indonesia's post-ASEAN foreign policy (Sukma 2009; Suryadinata 1996). The state integrated effort notably through Indonesian State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) initiated by Jokowi to expand towards Africa can be seen as a first for Indonesia; marking an historical change. As opposed to Indonesia's traditional foreign policy academic description as inward-looking and unambitious, Jokowi reveals a more proud and confident Indonesia. Indonesia's domestic problems remain heavy so that Jokowi's African expansion appears as a true achievement.

In the Jokowi era as well as before, foreign policy remains in the hands of the President and his closest aides and allies; somewhat isolated for some of its major parts from political and interest competition (McRae 2019). Modest and still in its early stages, Indonesia's shift towards the African continent validates this reality. Pragmatic and humble, Jokowi sidelined the NAASP deadlock. Africa has entered Indonesia's elite mental map from the top. Africa is now perceived as an opportunity for Indonesian expansion notably for Indonesian SOEs. Similarly to China, Indonesian SOEs can see Africa as a laboratory for their internationalization. Major Indonesian MNCs like Indofood for instant noodles already dominate some African markets like Nigeria or Ghana. Jokowi's push for economic diplomacy has forced Indonesian foreign policy to execute quicker as seen in the new African engagement. Like on the domestic scene, infrastructure development in Africa has been prioritised. Indonesian SOEs seek contracts to build railways, buildings and ports all over Africa; following the examples of China, Brazil or Turkey. Indonesia Inc. lead by the state underlines the true rise of Indonesia on the global stage. An Africa policy is a prestige marker. Jokowi's African move actually resonates domestically since it can be perceived as a way to legitimize his national politics and programs precisely focused on infrastructure development. Recognition and demand for Indonesian capacities in Africa highlight domestic success. The continuity of Indonesia's African expansion after Jokowi is an issue. Leadership change could scrap the promising start; as well as the impact of the Covid-19 crisis.

[13] For example, Egypt was the first country to recognize Indonesia's independence. Indonesia also benefits from the support of African countries on the issue of West Papua at the United Nations.

3.4 Beyond Economic Drivers

Contrary to the doxa, economic determinants are important but surpassed by or submitted to sovereignty issues in the hierarchy of external powers' interests for engaging with Africa. Notwithstanding the economic diplomacy paradigm, this is also the case for Indonesia. Trade or natural resources are important but secondary explanations. [14]Emerging powers like China, India or Turkey seized the African opportunity at the beginning of the 21st century. Indonesia waited until 2018 and the Jokowi presidency; although the economic opportunity had been present all along. China's highest interests or its *raison d'État* in Africa are not material interests but national sovereignty, stability and unity notably the One China policy (Rolland 2021). Indonesia's *raison d'État* impacts its African foreign policy. The protection of Papua for example is linked to Indonesian territorial integrity and unity. The *raison d'État* is non-negotiable contrary to material interests.

Suharto's foreign policy had been said to be in priority about status and recognition (Suryadinata 1996). It is similar under Jokowi. Indonesia's new African ambition appears as a signalling tool, a way to show Indonesia's rising status and development success domestically and internationally. Africa is also essential for Indonesia for better international recognition through peacekeeping or the African bloc at the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA). International recognition fluidifies domestic rule.

Finally, African agency and sovereignty also condition external power success in Africa. African elites defend their interests thus framing relationships to their advantage following Bayart's theory of extraversion (Bayart 2000, 2015). Indonesia has to be able to understand and negotiate with those primary actors while preserving a positive image with African populations. Appearing as too driven by material interests without bringing a developmental impact to Africans can ruin an African policy. Indonesia's narrative will need to be flexibly adjusted with the evolution of its African presence.

3.5 The Role of Ideas

Ideational mechanisms are key to explain Indonesia's African policy. The primacy of material drivers in the literature on external powers in Africa has been exaggerated. Material factors derive from ideas and perceptions. Emerging countries have material needs yet they cannot be resumed to mere neo-colonial actors. Their states possess a diversity of interests with state survival and sovereignty on top of the pyramid. These emerging states also face African states, their agency and their interests. The NAASP did not institutionalise given the absence of an epistemic community capable of formulating an Afro-Asian idea; and the form and content of an Afro-Asian transcontinental platform. The European Union (EU) formalised firstly thanks to ideas as the strongest causal mechanisms above structures or institutions (Parsons 2002). In Asia and Africa, conceptions of sovereignty or regionalisation differ as showed with the different philosophies of ASEAN and the African Union for example. Idealising Bandung, Indonesia could not develop an ideational framework for the NAASP in the Afro-Asian transregional context. The idea of Africa for Indonesia also lacked clarity. Sukarno declared Asia and Africa possessed weak power and thus had to gain moral, spiritual and ideational power (Gerits 2016). Indonesia's material rise still needs to follow Sukarno's wish to develop impactful links with the African continent and its people.

Both Jokowi and his main ally Luhut possess entrepreneurial ideational mindsets. Luhut is also a former General giving him a special capacity of implementation in Indonesia's complex environment. Coupled to Chinese ideational influence notably linked to "China in Africa,"[15] this pragmatic mindset permitted the operationalization of the foreign policy shift towards Africa. The new idea of Africa in the Indonesian leadership's mindset has been translated into the IAF and Luhut's task force for infrastructure notably.

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[14] According to the UN Comtrade Database (https://comtrade.un.org), Indonesian trade with Africa was highest between 2011 and 2014; before the Jokowi shift.
[15] The so-called Chinese model if it exists can be itself traced to Japanese developmental models; China having been strongly supported by Japan in its economic rise.

3.6 Indonesia's Knowledge Production Deficit

The quality of ideas can be linked to the quality and capacity in knowledge production and education. Indonesia suffers in this domain; negatively impacting its foreign policy. Indonesia's late and still constrained contemporary engagement towards Africa; and the NAASP deadlock as a matter of fact; underline this correlation. African studies have been mostly inexistent in Indonesia. Despite the Afro-Asian narrative, Africa was not a region of interest for Indonesia until Jokowi. No funding was therefore focused on studying Africa academically. Academic research in Indonesia is strongly subject to state and business interests. Since Africa is now of interest the academic world starts to consider the continent. This process happened in Turley in the early 2000s (Eyrice Tepeciklioğlu 2016). Indonesia lags behind other major emerging countries in terms of research and academic capacities, notably in social sciences. Its universities are underfunded. Academics have to look for outside projects to make ends meet. Indonesia's actual success in Africa will be conditioned by Indonesia's knowledge production on Africa. Nations like China are investing massively on their research concerning Africa.

3.7 The NAASP: an apparent failure but future success?

The NAASP multilateral attempt failed to operationalise given the inexistence of a defined Afro-Asian idea and epistemic community; the diversity of sovereignty definitions and political cultures; state rivalries; historical aspects and memory; and lack of material capacity and knowledge of African dynamics notably on the Indonesian side. The NAASP was also not endorsed by the African Union (African Union 2013). The Indonesian MOFA understood early it could not implement the NAASP platform. Other major Asian powers were not interested. Yet Indonesia persisted to launch again a slightly revamped NAASP in 2015 as merely a new declaratory effort (BPPK-Kemlu 2010). A vast regime like the NAASP surpassed Indonesian leadership capacities. Institutionalising abilities indeed depend on material and ideational powers to unite players with competing interests (He and Feng 2020; Young 1991). Despite Indonesia's new pragmatic, more entrepreneurial and more feasible African approach lead by Jokowi and his entourage especially Minister Luhut, the NAASP could be beneficial ahead for Indonesia if its material and knowledge abilities grow strongly. Blending the various country-to-continent Africa forums of Asian powers for example could encourage partnerships and collaboration; supporting a real Afro-Asian community; and placing Asians and Africans on the same level (Amakasu Raposo de Medeiros Carvalho, Arase, and Cornelissen 2018). The NAASP is thus not a complete chimera.

4. Conclusion

All external powers, developed or emerging, struggle to find the proper African strategy that needs to be flexible to adapt to the evolving and diverse African context; and take into account African agency originating both from elites and civil society. Indonesia is no exception. Its lack of knowledge on Africa and state capacity deficit could lead to substantial mistakes in relationship to the continent; as seen with the NAASP previously. Co-construction with Africans and knowledge production determine success in Africa. Still at the dawn of its contemporary African engagement, Indonesia does not yet face the major problems an increasing continental presence creates for interest protection. It benefits from a sort of beginner's luck that will disappear given the potentially rapid increase of its continental weight with the development of such billion dollar projects as railways construction in Congo for example (Alawi 2020). Lead by President Jokowi's laudable effort and pragmatism, an increased awareness about Africa among Indonesian elites has developed. Although declared a priority, the continent *de facto* remains a secondary priority. Perceiving and engaging Africa strategically; mobilising the necessary ways, means and ends; and making sure serious mistakes are avoided; will remain a tremendous challenge. Years ahead will tell if Indonesia can raise its capacities; especially following the impact of the Covid-19 crisis, still difficult to evaluate at the time of writing.

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The Ripple Effect of Civic Education Empowerment: Unravelling the Pillars of Good Citizenship

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Abstract
Discourse on pivotal current issues through and in education is the best approach to promote civic engagement and meaningful political participation among the youth. In this paper, the benefits of civic education empowerment from among Grade 12 students of Sablan National High School was explored. The essence of civic education empowerment has three main goals: political knowledge and understanding, democratic attitudes, and a readiness for democratic political action. Schools play an important role in catalyzing increased civic engagement; they can do this by enabling the youth to develop and practice the knowledge, beliefs, and behaviours needed to participate in civic life. The ripple effect of civic education empowerment is manifested in the relevant learning experiences obtained by the participants in terms of their civic knowledge and civic skills. As to how these civic knowledge and civic skills enhance their civic dispositions and participation, it is evident that participant-respondents assimilated the necessary civic knowledge for an informed choice which reflects their civic dispositions in the formulation of their standards for suffrage. Civic knowledge, civic skills, and civic dispositions and participation constitute the core elements of an informed and active citizenship.

Keywords: Civic Disposition, Civic Education Empowerment, Civic Knowledge, Civic Skills, Civic Participation, Suffrage

1. INTRODUCTION

Citizenship and civic empowerment instils a sense of political awareness, develops civic values, and reduces political apathy. In the grassroots civic education extension program of the Department of Political and Social Sciences (DPSS) in the Cordillera Region, Castillo et al. (2019) conveys that socio-political values enhance citizenship. It concludes that socio-political values demonstrate citizenship, and civic education programs are a way to obtain them; claiming that acquired socio-political values are essential to community engagement and nation-building; thus, it recommends that citizenship education must be intensified and sustained.

1.1. Definition of citizenship

As the community functions to construct and inculcate morals and virtues to its citizens (Halstead and Pike, 2006; Muleya 2018), citizens in turn are expected to commit to the values and morals derived (Pearce and Hallgarten, 2000). Halstead and Pike (2006) refer to citizenship as membership to a political community or state of settlement. Cohen (2017) and Tilly (1997) stress that rights and obligations are what legitimately bind a citizen to a state. Citizenship, thus, is both belonging and participating. Simply, citizens are bound to perform their duties and responsibilities to the community as expected of them while they enjoy the benefits, protection, and privileges of citizenship vested by the community.

The study is framed to evince that civic education and citizenship education mutually stake and contribute in the process of actualizing citizenship values. Muleya (2018) vetoes that citizenship education and civic education are the same—there are distinctions to their characteristics and how they are applied but convergences dwarf them. Civic education is oriented with the process of enriching citizenship. Meanwhile, citizenship education comprises the activities pertinent to the understanding and effectuation of duties and responsibilities, rights, and other facilities of citizenship. They join as fundamental education frameworks whereas civic education is more concerned with methods and mechanisms, while citizenship education is towards disposition, acquisition of knowledge, skills, and values including commitment and understanding thereto, but not limited. Muleya (2018) finds the simplest yet practical convergence of civic and citizenship education: they are applied in daily life. Balanced to the orientation of the matrix for citizenship used from Levinson (2011) and the model for civic education by the DPSS adopted to this research, civic education then is taken as the process of inculcating transformation with the embedded concept of citizenship education to enrich learner civic knowledge, skill, and disposition and participation to actualize meaningful citizenship ideals.

1.2. Civic education

Civic education on the other hand is a system, praxis, participation, and effectuated socialization (Peterson, 2011; Carretero, Haste & Bermudez, 2016; Muleya, 2017). It conjoins the learning system with participative exhibition; a process involving formal and informal transfers in teaching citizenship education (Peterson, 2011). Peterson (2011) also positions that citizenship education falls in the scope of civic education. The author views school learning as a formal system but gives equal importance to community-level socialization and teachings as informal transfers of knowledge. Importantly, civic education is personalized to the practices, experiences, and processes developed within the community; hence, civic education is associated with community cultural practices and knowledge that influence citizens' behaviour and action (Crittenden and Levine, 2013; Biesta, 2011; Muleya, 2018).

1.3. Citizenship education

Concise to cognition, citizenship education is dedicated to: the discussion of the rights of members in a political community; the cultivation of their understanding towards citizens' duties and responsibilities; expositions on how individuals perform to be capable citizens of the community; and the assimilation of theory and learned knowledge to reflect citizens' action (Pearce and Hallgarten, 2000; Halstead and Pike, 2006; Muleya, 2018). It is committed to: the individual tiling of social, moral, and citizenship values; political socialization and participation; and the conception of individual visions and aspirations of citizens for their community making them perceptive not only to their role to the community but also to how they can transform and contribute meaningfully to it (Butts, 1980; Annette and Mclaughlin, 2005; Pearce and Hallgarten, 2000; Cohen, 2013; Muleya, 2018).

In Cohen (2013), citizenship education is grounded to three pillars: knowledge, values, and disposition. Levinson (2011) in precedent lay that a tripartite citizenship empowerment must spring action; thus his pillars are: civic knowledge, civic skills, and civic dispositions and participation.

As a transformative process, the researchers identified the levelled demonstrations of civic education and its holistic transformation of citizens through the pillars of citizenship by Levinson (2011). Articles of literature suggest that there are quantifiable gains to civic and citizenship education in the realm of personal, cognitive, socio-emotional, behavioral, and participatory dimensions (Vilazaki and Mathebula, 2013 as cited by Muleya, 2017; UNESCO, 2016). Through the DPSS civic education program implementation caravan as a working model of civic education, the researchers determined the actualized values of citizenship and participation among indigenous citizens proving that civic education is not bantam to knowledge and thought formulation but extends to participative and engaged citizen exhibition.

1.4 Research Problem

This research study explored the benefits of civic education among Grade 12 students of Sablan National High School as a sequel of the citizenship education themed, civic education extension program implemented by the DPSS. The benefits of civic education were manifested in the embodiment of the three pillars of good citizenship by Levinson (2011), namely: civic knowledge, civic skills, and civic dispositions and participation. The specific questions are:

1. What are the relevant learning experiences obtained by the Grade 12 students from the implementation of the DPSS civic education program in terms of civic knowledge and civic skills?
2. How do these civic knowledge and civic skills obtained by the Grade 12 students enhance their civic dispositions and participation?
3. Why do civic knowledge, civic skills, and civic dispositions and participation constitute the core elements of an informed, engaged, and active citizenship?

2. PHILIPPINE CIVIC EDUCATION AND CORDILLERAN INDIGENOUS LEARNING SYSTEMS

2.1. Formal civic education in the Philippines

In the Philippine contemporary, The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement (2012) implores colleges and universities to create an environment conducive to learning and civic engagement by prioritizing civic learning and democratic participation. Therefore, schools should have the capacity to influence the overall civic life of their students, local, and state. Educational systems and institutions, as a collective, should encourage and join discourses regarding local and national issues; however, it is vital that civic responsibility be inculcated to the youth before entering higher education (The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement [TNTFCLDE], 2012). This task now falls under the K-12 education and evaluation agencies in the Philippines to consider along with the reality that not all students proceed to higher education.

Since education is an institution for learners to develop their civic skills and maturity, civic learning should be present to both the youths' formal and informal education across all levels (TNTFCLDE, 2012). According to Abes et al. (2007), as cited in Johnson (2017), educators should not consider civic identity as separate and different from the learner's overall identity. They must be of the same developmental trajectory. Having an idea of the learners' identity enables educators to craft the necessary interventions.

2.2. Indigenous education and indigenous knowledge system

Educational anthropologists reiterate that indigenous education and knowledge structures are salient areas of concentration even in a world characterized by globalization and with demands for a mainstream universal education system. A critique to mainstream education is its indelible experiences of isolation to indigenous students from their very own communities, heritage, culture, and history. Western-inspired mainstream universal education kills indigenous knowledge by decontextualizing indigenous knowledge from its cultural and spiritual foundations, resulting in fragmentation and misinterpretation. Such disregard for the indigenous communities cause the disappearance indigenous knowledge system (IKS), further augmenting the discrimination and marginalization of indigenous learners which result to poor learning outcomes (Rovillos, 2002).

Peterson (2011) avers that cultural teachings, community practices, and interactions expose an individual to the ideals of citizenship. Hence, meaningful experience of cultural activities and affairs, literature, as well as interaction with members of the same community is an informal, nevertheless substantial, system of citizenship education.

Literature on indigenous learning systems (ILS) in the Cordilleras present systems akin: Arzadon (2016) in a study entitled "The *Mambunong* and the School Knowledge Systems: Parallel and Interconnected" finds two knowledge systems in Sitio Lamut of La Trinidad, Benguet: (1) the knowledge system held by the *Kankana-ey mambunong* (village priest-elders)—informal; (2) while its formal counterpart is found to schooling. The *mambunong* system believes and centers its discussion to accounts and phenomena beyond the material world.

Bennagen's (1987) ethnographic work in a *Kankana-ey* community pronounced that learning occurs from childhood to adulthood as mediated by people (family members, peers, elders), rituals (like *dawak*), and friendly settings like in *dap-ay* (male dormitory). This bases that the community plays an important role in the development of an individual. At the final phase, the adult *Kankana-ey* is expected to acquire skills about livelihood, ritual performance, and political participation (Arzadon, 2016).

Indigenous knowledge systems do not only maintain the attachment of the people to their culture and history as an in-group. More significantly, they aid better into the transfer and communication of knowledge and information from educators to learners due to language constraints for in-groups. To learners, the synthesis of skills and capabilities on citizenship rendered to them through formal education are blended to their cultural, educational practices as instruction that equips them to be knowledgeable, productive, participatory, and thus good citizens in their respective communities and the state as a collective.

3. METHOD

3.1. Population and sampling

Purposive sampling was used in choosing the participant-respondents. Participant-respondents are composed of fifty-five (55) enrolled Senior High School students from the Humanities and Social Studies (HUMSS) strand, the Accountancy and Business Management (ABM) strand, and the General Academic Strand (GAS) of Sablan National High School (SNHS) in Benguet, Philippines. The sample was dependent on the attendance and participation of the participant-respondents during the two-time visit of the DPSS in facilitation of its citizenship education empowerment lecture-workshop at SNHS.

Fifty-five (55) participants were grouped into eight (8) during the administration of the editorial cartoon activity (first-phase, qualitative); meanwhile, fifteen (15) participants responded to the impact assessment administered after the program implementation (second-phase, quantitative). In order to ensure that sample identity matches, attendance sheets were procured and administrative assistance from the SNHS faculty was sought.

3.2. Research Design

An **embedded mixed method design** was adopted utilizing a preliminary qualitative data gathering with a consequent nested quantitative and qualitative assessment enriched to the first-phase findings. Embedded design is a useful constructive approach commonly applied in program-implementation studies (Creswell, 2014). The mixed-methods quality of the study is discerned in the collection of open-ended, qualitative data and the close-ended, quantitative statistics (Onwuegbuzie and Turner as cited by Creswell, 2014).

3.3. Data Instruments, Analysis, and Gathering

Photo language via editorial cartooning was the qualitative data instrument for the first-phase data collection. Cartoons and visual media are non-linguistic sources that have communicative functions in depicting meaning through impactful symbols and object representations (El Refaie, 2009). A **thematic analysis** (TA) was used to semiotically treat the data by identifying repeated patterns of messages or themes in the visual presentations (Sani et al., 2012; Costa, 2016).

A follow up **survey-questionnaire** via impact assessment was administered to resolve the gaps in the primary phase. **Statistical mode** was used to extract common, dominant quantitative points for nesting. In measuring the central tendency of data, statistical mode is useful to identify the most frequent variables in the dataset (Kenney and Keeping, 1962).

The data gathering process involved a first-phase qualitative data collection and analysis succeeded by a secondary quantitative data collection whose inquiry was generated from the first-phase data to correspond and supplement the initial results (Yu and Kazanchi, 2017; Creswell, 2014).

Procedurally, qualitative findings were extracted through a thematic analysis from the administered editorial instrument during the first visit. For the quantitative phase of data collection, a follow-up survey questionnaire (i.e., impact assessment) was administered to the sample on the second data facilitation where empirical findings were nested to the main themes to key the ripple effect of civic education among participant-respondents.

3.4. Value-freeness

Value-free inquiry is an inquiry or research that is thought to be free from the influences of human values (Given, 2008) and that the belief by which concepts are defined without using evaluative terms (Carter, 2015). Value neutrality was observed in the conduct of the study. Value-neutrality refers to the duty and responsibility of the researcher to overcome personal biases while conducting any study. It aims to separate fact and emotion and stigmatize people less (Group, 2019). Given that the study at hand was conducted by researchers coincidentally in their capacity as co-implementers of the Extension Program of the DPSS, who had direct experience in the execution of the program as core group, and had interactions with the participant-respondents, researchers made sure that the observations and interpretations presented were unbiased as it must be. The researchers made clear of their noble values and how these could affect their work. Data gathered were objectively treated in accordance to the prescribed design and methods of the study.

4. FINDINGS

Specific Research Question 1: What are the relevant learning experiences obtained by the Grade 12 students from the implementation of the DPSS civic education program in terms of civic knowledge and civic skills?

Derived from the findings, participant-respondents were able to develop essential civic learning to and about: **indigenous self-governance and identity**, **political decentralization**, **regional prosperity and economic development**, and **citizenship education culminating for a sustainable democracy**. These civic understanding and knowledge develop into civic skills which are determined by the **degree of their political maturity** and their **voter participation** in exercise of their political right.

Specific Research Question 2: How do these civic knowledge and civic skills obtained by the Grade 12 students enhance their civic dispositions and participation?

The radical switch of civic knowledge and skills obtained to influence disposition and participation evinces the targeted ripple effect borne out of civic education efforts. **Civic education** empowerment confers to participant-respondents the necessary civic knowledge for an informed choice which reflects their civic disposition in the formulation of their criteria for suffrage. Streamlining, the themes to the **criteria** for political preference drawn from sample responses were: **rational choice, experience of political candidate to public service, educational background, personal attributes,** and **good track record**. Thematically, **political discernment to voter participation** in exercise of their disposition over political issues, particular to their action to vote in a plebiscite and or referendum is a demonstrated action of their disposition and as told by their individual justifications. More so, the determined **participation to political activities** of the participant-respondents, especially to the twin issues of autonomy and federalism, exhibits substantial maturity of their disposition hence stirring meaningful participation.

Specific Research Question 3: Why do civic knowledge, civic skills, and civic dispositions and participation constitute the core elements of an informed, engaged, and active citizenship?

The tripartite elements of the ripple effect narrative are fundamental tenets necessary to be acquired for citizens to manifest an informed, engaged, and active role in citizenship action. Civic knowledge, civic skills, civic dispositions, and civic participation elaborate the leveled process for citizenship development. In order for one to exercise meaningful citizenship participation, one must first be informed on and about issues pertaining to the society. This development is not narrowed to awareness of various concerns and issues, but requires a citizen to thoroughly improve their wisdom on and about the rudiments of citizenship. With knowledge and understanding as baseline, citizens are able to transform them into skills, such as: critical assessment, exposition of thought or reasoning, and interpreting apparent to how the participant-respondents expounded on their choice narratively explained and as deduced through linked themes. Learned knowledge then forms to assimilate how citizens internally deliberate on pressing phenomena or changes.

Civic disposition is the result of a citizen's application of his/her civic skills. It is the part of the process where one has determined from within a logical conclusion. Disposition serves as their perception and even their substance for debate when challenged to explain or reason out a choice or certain belief. It is the imprint of knowledge. Meanwhile, civic participation is the process of putting into a tangible and obvious action the result of one's civic disposition. How participant-respondents have drawn into symbols their idea of autonomization and federalism in the editorial cartoons are tangible indices. How participant-respondents as a group corroborated to share their perception with one another and put into a single poster-image, different views with harmony is a display of their shared interest. How participant-respondents articulated their motive behind their action for political participation (i.e., to vote for and during elections, a political candidate, to a plebiscite, and a referendum as in Scenarios 1, 2, 3A, 3B).

In order for a citizen to meaningfully socialize and participate in exercise of their citizenship rights and involvement, it is important that one must be: informed, or is willing to be informed; is open to engage with the community—to communicate, learn, and to share; and to purpose in performing their duties and rights as active citizens. All of which is encompassing the process of the ripple effect borne out of civic education.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1. Results

5.1.1. Thematic results on editorial cartoons (see Appendix A).

Table 1: Themes identified from editorial cartoons and their tally.

IDENTIFIED THEMES	EC1	EC2	EC3	EC4	EC5	EC6	EC7	EC8	T
Regional prosperity and economic development[1]									7
Indigenous self-governance and identity[2]									4
Political decentralization[3]									4

Note: Editorial Cartoon is abbreviated as EC.

Table 1 shows the as tallied from the eight (8) editorial cartoons. Participants were tasked to draw their understanding of the Autonomous Region in the Cordillera on one side, and to picture their understanding of federalism in the Philippines on another. Labels and captions to enhance concepts were encouraged. Among the main themes, regional prosperity and economic development was evident to seven (7) of the drawn instruments. Indigenous self-governance and identity tied with political decentralization manifesting among four (4) editorial cartoons. These dominant themes round the discussion to determine the knowledge and skills identified along with its influence on the disposition and participation of the participant-respondents to political activities.

5.1.2.. Thematic and mode results on impact assessment.

5.1.2.1. Scenario 1 on voter preference of an electoral candidate for mayoral post to an assumed local election.

Table 2: Voter disposition on an electoral candidate.

DESCRIPTION	TALLY (n=15)
Lawyer-politician of over 20 years who interchanges with wife between term limits.[4]	1
Uncle by consanguinity without concrete preparation and educational qualification.	0
Moneyed businessman.[5]	1
Retired public school teacher.[6]	13

Table 3: Tallied and identified themes to impact assessment scenario 1.

THEMES	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15	T
Voter participation																15
Experience in the public field																14
Educational background																14
Personal attributes																13
Good track record																13

Table 2 exhibits voter disposition towards electoral candidates preferred to be voted in an assumed, incoming mayoral election. Participant-respondents mutually pledge to vote for a retired public school teacher among the

[1] Regional prosperity and economic development (EC1, EC3, EC4, EC5 EC6, EC7, EC8)
[2] Indigenous self-governance and identity (EC1, EC5, EC6, EC7)
[3] Political decentralization (EC1, EC4, EC6, EC8)
[4] Lawyer-politician (R15)
[5] Moneyed businessman (R6)
[6] Retired public school teacher (R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, R7, R8, R9, R10, R11, R12, R13, R14)

listed electoral candidates with thirteen (13) unanimous votes. Meanwhile, one (1) participant-respondent opts to vote for a lawyer-politician with decades of experience who interchanges with his wife between term limits, and one (1) for a moneyed businessman.

On Table 3, themes to the participation and criteria of electoral preference are: voter participation which was revealed among the fifteen (15) assumed votes of the sample, while experience and education tied as demonstrated among fourteen (14) participant-respondents. Personal attributes and a good track record were substantiated from among thirteen (13) responses.

5.1.2.2. Scenario 2 on voter action and stance on an assumed plebiscite for a new, Federal Constitution.

Table 4: Voters' disposition towards plebiscite for a new Federal Constitution.

DESCRIPTION	TALLY (n=15)
Will vote for the adoption of a new Federal Constitution.[7]	13
Will not vote for the adoption of a new Federal Constitution.[8]	2
Will not bother to participate in the plebiscite.	0

Table 5: Identified themes to impact assessment scenario 2 on voters' disposition towards plebiscite for a new Federal Constitution.

THEMES	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15	T
Rational choice																8
For positive change/transformation																7
For regional development and prosperity																4
Death of culture and unity																2
Philippines is not ready for federalism																1
Compliance																1

To Table 4, thirteen (13) participant-respondents chose to vote for the adoption of a new Federal Constitution; two (2) opposed to vote for a new Constitution; while none remained to be indifferent towards the plebiscite. Correspondingly, out of the themes identified and tallied from scenario 2 of the impact assessment, rational choice was displayed among eight (8) responses of the participant-respondents. Seven (7) are up for positive change or transformation to CAR; four (4) are supportive of regional development and prosperity. Meanwhile, two (2) justifies that a new, Federal Constitution kills nationalism and the central unity of a unitary state; and an opposition to justify Philippines' incapacity for Federalism and as a mere act of compliance, hence, their reason to vote were evident among one (1), separate responses.

5.1.2.3. Scenario 3A on voter participation and disposition to an assumed referendum to adopt an organic act creating an Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras.

Table 6: Voters participate in a referendum to become an Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras.

DESCRIPTION	TALLY (n=15)
Will cast (a) vote.	15
Will not cast (a) vote.	0

[7] Will vote to plebiscite for the new, Federal Constitution (R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, R6, R7, R8, R9, R10, R11, R21, 14)
[8] Will not vote to plebiscite for the new, Federal Constitution (R13, R15)

Table 7: Identified themes to impact assessment Scenario 3A to voters' participation on a referendum to an Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras.

THEMES	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15	T
Future-sightedness/vision for voting																9
Voters education																2
Positive, active citizenship participation																2
For indigenous and environmental preservation																1

On voters participation in a referendum to an Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras as shown in Table 6; fifteen (15) participant respondents collectively choose to cast their vote in a referendum.

To Table 7, justified among the responses from the administered impact assessment supplanting their choice to participate for a referendum to a new, Federal Constitution for CAR, future-sightedness or regional vision was keyed from nine (9) explanations. Voters' education and positive, active citizenship participation were respectively manifested from among two (2) separate explanations. Indigenous and environmental preservation as a reason was also expounded from one (1) exposition.

5.1.2.4. Scenario 3B on voter participation in the referendum/election.

Table 8: Voters action on a referendum to an Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras.

DESCRIPTION	TALLY (n=15)
Will vote for autonomization.	15
Will not vote for autonomization.	0

Table 9: Identified themes to impact assessment Scenario 3B to voters' action on a referendum to an Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras.

THEMES	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15	T
Regional competitiveness																6
Self-determination, sovereignty, independence																5
Cultural coherence																2
Backward regional development																1

Fifteen (15) participant-respondents, or the entire sample, choose to vote for the autonomization of CAR in display of their suffrage evident in Table 8.

Final to the thematic determination, among the identified themes to scenario 3 of the impact assessment on voters' action to referendum displayed on Table 9, regional competitiveness as a theme was depicted from among six (6) explanations. Five (5) respondent-participants proposed their adherence for self-determination, sovereignty, and independence. Furthermore, the theme cultural coherence was sourced from two (2) claims; and backward regional development had a sole (1) manifestation from among the responses.

5.2. Discussion

5.2.1. Themes to Specific Research Question 1.

Themes for civic knowledge:

Regional prosperity and economic development.

Prosperity is conceptualized as ecological sustainability, social inclusion, and quality of life. Its overall concept encompasses economic security, competitiveness, and growth (Law Insider, n.d.). On the other hand, economic development is a broader concept than economic growth. The development reflects social and economic progress and requires economic growth. Growth is a vital and necessary condition for development, but it is not sufficient as it cannot guarantee development (Fritz & Koch, 2016).

Reflective to editorial cartoons, images of money, infrastructures, land cultivation, products of regions, and highways signify the change and the region's desired development (EC1, EC2, EC3, EC4, EC6, EC7, EC8). These symbolisms clinch for economic independence and prosperity. However, amidst the desired progress, symbols for consistency and preservation remain evident. As the region (CAR) progresses and develops, it should not neglect the people and its cultural identities as its lifeblood (EC1, EC3, EC5, EC6, EC7).

To the impact-assessment, participant-respondents answer to cast their votes on a plebiscite for the autonomization of Cordillera with aim for a developed and prosperous region. “Left behind," "to develop," “will benefit,” and "to improve" (Scenario 3A: R1, R3, R4, R5, R8, R11, R13; Scenario 3B: R1, R4, R5, R8, R15) are common narratives linked to how respondents put development and regional competence together amicable to a defined prosperous region at par with other regions.

Indigenous self-governance and identity.

Indigenous governance refers to the patterns and practices of rule by which indigenous people govern themselves in formal and informal settings (Nichols, 2007). The Philippines pictures plurality and diversity in terms of various ethnic communities, religions, cultures, and languages, which in turn makes unity and national development a complex issue to discuss. Mendoza et al., (2006) from Buendia et al., (2016) states that, it is to be reflected that governing a multi-ethnic nation-state makes it imperative that people’s cultural differences and political-economic structures be considered in governance.

The stout recognition of indigenous peoples and indigenous governance were evident in indigenous markings in the editorial cartoons: EC1, EC5, EC6, and EC7 (cultural patterns and symbols, leaders in cultural attire). The concept of self-rule, self-determination, and indigenous people’s governance has a deep historical meaning embedded among the indigenous peoples (IPs). It is a permanent fixture in the local vocabulary rooted in ethnic identity, claim for ownership of ancestral lands, and defense of culture. The editorial cartoons were rich with symbolisms that captured the need to deepen one’s understanding of IP governance as well as to appreciate their governing mechanisms. To the impact assessment, the determination to indigenous self-governance comes with the acknowledgement of the participant-respondents to Cordillera’s unique culture and systems which placates their ascribed indigenous identity. This strengthens the support for autonomization and federalism as self-governance is believed to not only preserve regional cultural identity but is more progressive to attend to concerns and needs distinct to the region (Scenario 3A: R7, R8, R9, R10, R11, R12, R13, R15; Scenario 3B: R9, R10, R11, R12, R13, R15).

Political decentralization.

Political decentralization allows indigenous communities to form an independent governing body that translates a united and shared culture admissible to a region particularly to the Cordilleran community. Division via puzzle blocks, highlighted archipelagic and regional divide (EC1, EC4, EC5, EC8) represents the separated states or regions in a federal system but are still recognized as part of the country. The division is perceived to empower all regions within the country to self-determination. The person dressed in their traditional clothing (EC1, EC5, EC7) represents the retention and solidification of cultural identity while realizing self-determination over the region. It endows the turned political subdivisions to their own decision-making and policy-making as well as to the management of their autonomous regions.

Political decentralization as a theme can be emphasized in the answers of all participant-respondents in the impact-assessment affirmative to transforming CAR to the Autonomous Region of the Cordillera (Scenarios 3A and 3B: R1 to R15). Majority are open to a new constitution that favours the concept of autonomization which promotes the theme of independence on the premise that it is advantageous to indigenous communities by allowing self-governance and without deep reliance on the central government (Scenario 3A: R10, R15; Scenario 3B: R2, R9, R10, R11, R12, R13). In addition, the respondents preferred for the region's collective emancipation from the national government in terms of policy-making and the utilization of their natural resources (Scenario 3A: R12).

Citizenship education for sustainable democracy.

Citizenship education equips people with knowledge, and skills to understand, challenge, and engage with democratic society which includes politics, the media, civil society, the economy, and the law. Informed, active, and responsible citizens are a significant necessity for democracies to maintain activity - citizens who are willing and able to take responsibility for themselves and their society and contribute to the political processes.

Civic education and citizenship are inseparable to the practice of democracy. Democratic exercise is founded on the electoral participation of the sample (Scenarios 1, 2, 3A, 3C). The source of their action is reinforced by their accumulated knowledge, developed skills, and formed disposition allowing them to justify their carried political action (Scenarios 2, 3A, 3B). These expound a critical degree of political maturity, grounded defence of their discernment, and a meaningful participation to political activities.

Themes to civic skills manifested:

Voter participation.

Voter participation is the lifeblood of democracy. A distinct and special political act, voting allows for the views of more people to be represented than any other activity (Owen, 2008). Voter participation is exhibited in the manner participant-respondents choose to vote, or not to, during elections, on a plebiscite, or in a referendum (Scenarios 1, 2, 3A & 3B). Independent justifications that contrast, match, or supplement each other are the dispositions that substantiate their decision. Meanwhile, their participation is the action taken to patent their disposition. Voter participation is also a response to an existing political activity (i.e., elections, plebiscite, referendum) benefited from democracy.

Degree of political maturity.

The degree of political maturity is highlighted on the manner participant-respondents reason their political stand and action. These are potentially rationalized out of a sound disposition over accumulated civic knowledge. Concrete indicators are their explanation that led to their contextualized and presumed voter action (Scenario 2B and 3B). The degree of political maturity are thus affected by the quality of the core elements (i.e., civic knowledge and civic skills) which would engender the feature of their disposition which marks their level of political maturity.

5.2.2. Themes to Specific Research Question 2.

Criteria for voter discernment/preference:

Rational choice.

Direct to the participant-respondents, rational choice is indicative of their regarded idea of change in government towards regional development leaning for economic advantage. Their link to the multipliable narrative of “prosperity” from their justifications is not eccentric to the prosperity of the entire country but also to prosperity perceived for being an autonomous region. Concisely, economic return in rational choice is identified to three (3) outcomes in their ideation of prosperity: prosperity of the region; prosperity of all regions; and prosperity of the country. In addition, their expectations of prosperity have shared qualities deriving from their understanding of autonomization and federalism. The rational choice is to vote for an option that is economically advantageous to the people.

Experience in the public field.

Experience in the public field connotes a levelled socialization with the community. This is acquired from an electoral candidate’s former profession or career which determines their capacity to relate and understand the needs of the community. Experience is also associated with a candidate’s mastery of methods and practices essential to public office. Also, years of experience is found to be concurrent to the critique of their track record, which is apparent if an aspiring electoral candidate previously held a post in public office determining their political tenure. Although presented as a single criterion, experience alone is a weak benchmark without allied measures consonant to moral prescription, previous performance, platforms, and alike attributed to candidates.

Educational background.

An educated figure is a prospect capable of handling the system, their constituents, and their grievances through the application of their acquired knowledge and learned composition. Since education is an edge even ahead of the basic, considerate standard to one’s ability to read and write required among electoral candidates, the educational background of an aspiring leader is determined as a capacity especially to leadership and in addressing management and social exigencies. There is higher trust awarded to an educated figure that is able to utilize their consolidated knowledge to practice in public service.

Personal attributes.

Political campaigns are avenues for electoral candidates to present and relate to the people, their platforms, plans, and advocacies. On a personal level, to garner the trust of the citizens, electoral candidates pronounce their dedication and will to receive the support of the people and to attain post in public office. They express their zeal to forward what they believe is best for the community. Participant-respondents are drawn to vote for political actors who are passionate and motivated which they determine through face value campaigns. Ultimately, the personal attributes of political candidates indulge voters to relate with what they aim to pursue and deliver to the improvement and development of the community.

Good track record.

A clean and good track record lays the quality for competent and honest service of a political candidate. Participant-respondents favour an aspiring candidate that has a clean background with no issues in the past.

Track record as a criterion is also evaluative of their historical performance during their tenure to a former office or to their basic background that would determine preference for election.

Themes to political discernment and meaningful voter participation:

Political discernment in voter participation.

Political discernment in voter participation is justified on the kind of political action that they carry (i.e., to vote or not to vote during elections; Scenarios 2, 3A, 3B), their set individual criteria for selecting an electoral candidate (Scenario 1), and their justification for their choice of action (Scenarios 2, 3A, 3B). Political discernment in voter participation then is described as the exercise of choice manifesting one's political disposition and understanding over political issues and or concerns, inclusive to mental debates over activities such as elections, referendum, and plebiscite.

Meaningful participation in political activities.

Meaningful participation rises from their understanding on the essentiality of political involvement and suffrage on plebiscite and referendum over the narratives of autonomy and federalism (Scenarios 2, 3A, 3B). Furthermore, participation is made meaningful if there is an action for a critical assessment certainly shown on the extracted dispositional criteria of participant-respondents to electoral candidates (Scenario 1).

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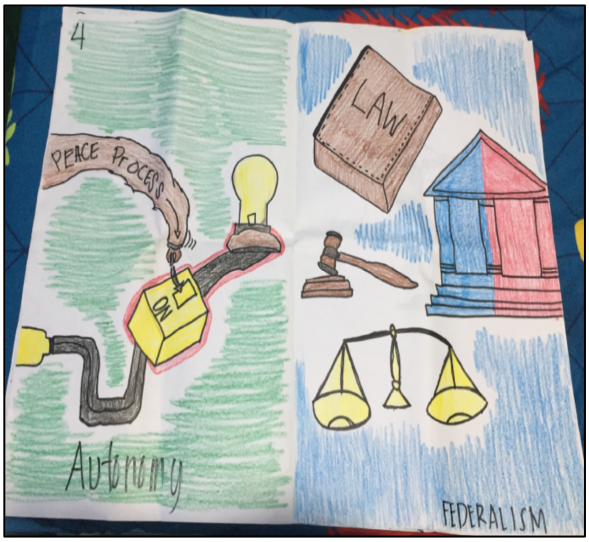
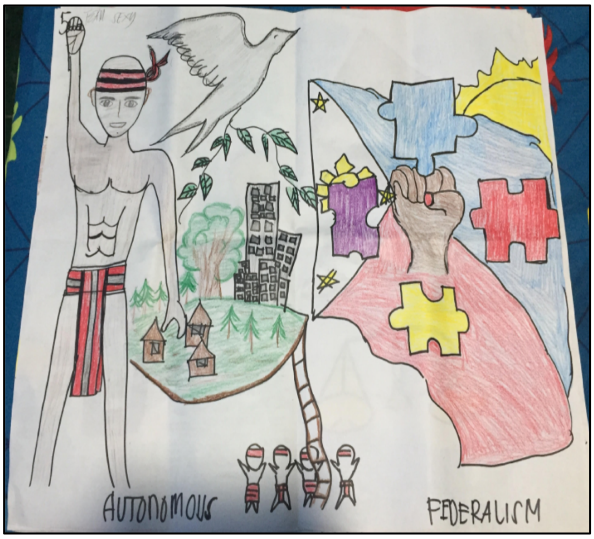
APPENDICES

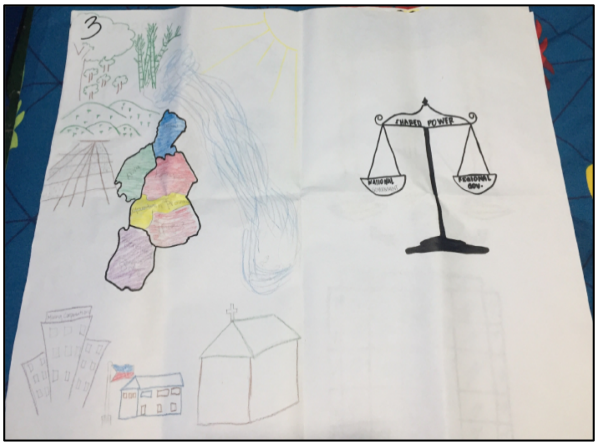
Appendix A: Editorial Cartoons

Editorial Cartoon 1 (EC1) *Editorial Cartoon 2 (EC2)*

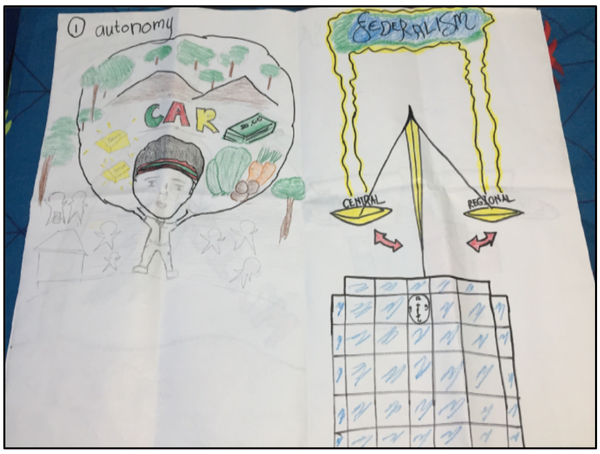


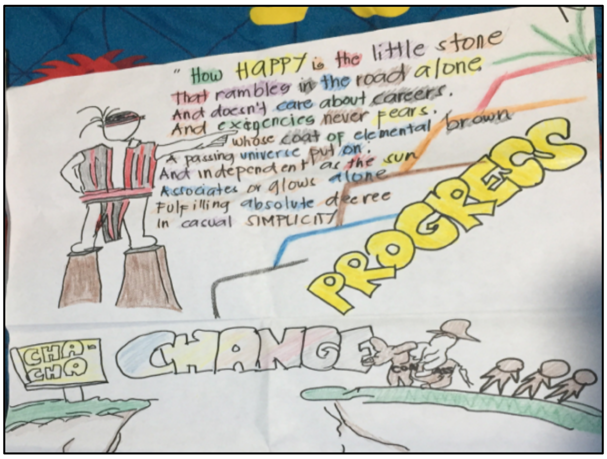


Editorial Cartoon 3 (EC3) *Editorical Cartoon 4 (EC4)*

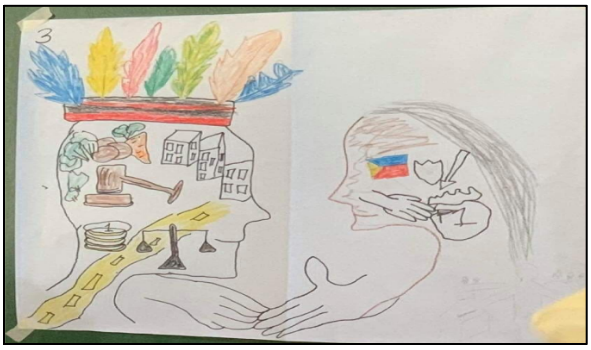


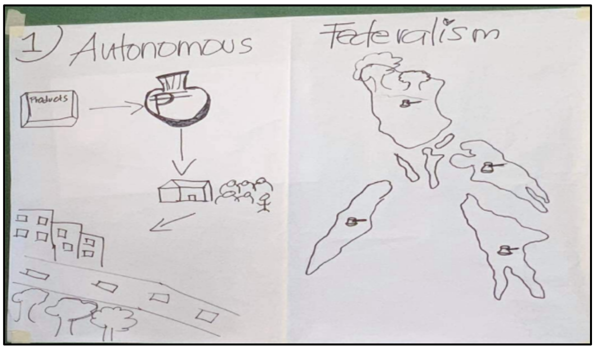
Editorial Cartoon 5 (EC5) *Editorial Cartoon 6 (EC6)*





Editorial Cartoon 7 (EC7) *Editorial Cartoon 8 (EC8)*





Appendix B: Impact Assessment Questionnaire

SITUATION/SCENARIO 1: Assuming there is going to be a midterm election in the Philippines come May 2020. At stake will be national and local positions. In your town/municipality, there are four (4) candidates for the Mayoral post. How are you going to vote in the elections? Please check on the space provided on each item from A-D which among the choices your preferred vote will be.

- **Candidate A** is a lawyer and has been the mayor of the town for the past 20 years. In between term limits, his wife would replace him as mayor, after which he would return again as mayor.
- **Candidate B** is your uncle by blood relationship. He is desirous to become the mayor but obviously lack concrete preparation and educational qualifications to run the affairs of the town.
- **Candidate C** is a moneyed businessman who spends lavishly just so he can get elected as mayor.
- **Candidate D** is a retired public school teacher who finds the position to serve the town's people a passion, like what he did in his profession for many years.

SITUATION/SCENARIO 2: In 2021, before bowing out from the Presidency, President Rodrigo Duterte succeeded in working out for the revision of the Constitution to pave the way for the creation of a Federal form of government in the Philippines. Consequently, a Plebiscite is called to get the approval of the Filipino electorate on the proposed New Constitution. How will you vote in the Plebiscite?
- I <u>will vote</u> for the adoption of the New Constitution.
- I <u>will not vote</u> for the adoption of the New Constitution.
- I <u>will not bother to participate</u> in the plebiscite.

SITUATION/SCENARIO 3: On March 2020, a referendum is set in the Cordilleras for the adoption or rejection of a Third Organic Act intended to create an Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras (ARC). Historically, a similar referendum was held way back in 1990 and 1998 but it was a failure due to the people's lack of understanding on the issue of autonomy.

A. Will you participate in the Referendum?
    - I will cast my vote.
    - I will not cast my vote.

B. How will you vote in the Referendum/Election?
    - I will vote for the creation of Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras (ARC).
    - I will not vote for the creation of Autonomous Region in the Cordilleras (ARC).

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Treasuring Career from Home: The Sustainability of Women Homeworkers and Household Divisions

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Abstract
Women homeworkers in Indonesia also resulted in double role causes women to have double workload, namely the main work that makes money and household chores such as cleaning the house, cooking and so on. This is because women cannot leave their responsibilities in the household, yet they must continue to perform their main work. Accordingly, a discussion addressing the dual burden and mechanism of division of work between men and women in the household is needed. This research was conducted with a descriptive qualitative method aimed to describe a number of issues including how consensus was performed by women homeworkers in carrying out the division of work with men and the efforts of women homeworkers to do the division of work with their husbands in the domestic sphere. The research was conducted in Malang City, East Java, Indonesia with snowball sampling techniques on 37 women. Based on the research results, it was discovered that: 1) the division of work in the public and domestic spheres for women homeworkers was flexible; 2) Men more often did the heavy household chores such as washing and drying clothes, the division of work occurred at certain times such as in the morning; 3) Within the household, the division of work between men and women took place when the woman homeworkers' main work piled up and could not be abandoned.

Keywords: Career, Household Division, Women Homeworkers, Indonesia

1. Introduction

Women homeworkers are women whose roles as wives in a family as well as people who help earn extra income for the family by working from home. This phenomenon is typically in Indonesia for recent years for optimizing women's capability in working and earning money by depending on their skills. Home-based workers in Indonesia are those who take jobs from patrons in certain industries (usually categorized in home industry or small industries), then the workers doing their jobs at home. Further, in Indonesia, home workers are included in the informal sector, which is working in contract-based, not chosen as fixed employers, paid in wholesale systems, fringe works and conducted by women (Hart, 2001; Sofiani, 2012). The homeworkers informalization has an impact for their sustainability working conditions. In Indonesia, their existence is not approved as productive workers and they are not counted as productive workers nationally but as housewives, because almost all the jobs are done in their home (Agusmidah, 2018).

Likewise, homeworkers are also familiar in Malang city, East Java Province, Indonesia. As second largest city in East Java, Indonesia with a fairly dense population, Malang city reported that the percentage of male population in Malang in 2020 was 49.32% while women percentage was 50.68%. Meanwhile, in 2021, the percentage of male population in Malang City was 49.31% while women were at 50.69%. Accordingly, based on this data, it is known that in the past one year the percentage of the female population is still higher than the men. The high number of populations also affects the number of job seekers in the community. Based on the Statistics Central Bureau of Malang City data in 2014, the number of working women was 160,305 people. Meanwhile, according to the updated Statistics Central Bureau of Malang data in 2020, the population of women in Malang was 415,690. As a result, based on the above data explanation, it can be concluded that there are still many women who do not work for various reasons, and they only depend their lives on the salary of their husbands.

On the other hand, development cannot be separated from economic factors. One of the aspects of economic activity is the development of entrepreneurship to guide and improve the economic status of the lower class. One of the most common ways to do this is through industry. Industrials usually refer to industry (companies), or institutions and organizations that produce goods or provide services. (Martono, 2014; Newman & Gauerholz, 2002). Interestingly, homeworker systems in Malang city, Indonesia in which a worker bulk-labors a certain task for a fixed amount of payment, is one of the types of occupations for women in the informal sector still attracting most women in Malang City, Indonesia. Especially for those who are not engaging with career. There is still a limited research attention given to this area of employment, both from the government and the academics.

The status held by wife as a representative of the husband in the matter of household affairs makes it unable for her to let go the obligation to carry out the responsibilities existing in the domestic realm such as in matters of caring for children, cleaning the house, cooking, and other domestic matters. This actually creates injustice against women because women workers who have the responsibility of being extra income earners for families are also required to engage in the domestic sphere. This results in a double burden on women who live together with their husbands because there is no clear division of work mechanism in the domestic sector (Purbasari & Lestari, 2015).

The role of women in the public sphere is only considered as an additional role while the role in the domestic sphere is the main responsibility of women which cannot be shared with men. Consequently, this causes the low appreciation of the domestic function of women. Even if women have responsibilities in the public sphere, they are remaining obliged to serve their families in the domestic sphere. This leads women to have a double burden that must be borne between the public and domestic spheres. This double burden takes place because there is no mechanism for the division of roles and functions between men and women in the domestic sphere, which occurs because women are in a non-dominant position in the household (Prabasmoro 2006: 28).

The double burden is a dual task that must be carried out by women to fulfill their obligations in the public and domestic sphere. This leads to greater demands on women, namely helping the family economy and thinking about problems in the realm of the household (Salmah, 2014: 3). This article identifying and analyzing on how women in Malang city, Indonesia conducted their careers from home as women homeworkers and their sustainability in managing households. On the other hand, this paper intender in working consensus was performed by women homeworkers in carrying out the division of work with men as their husband and the efforts of women homeworkers to do the division of work with their husbands in the domestic sphere, while at the same time they run a job from home.

2. Method

This research was conducted by using a qualitative approach with descriptive research. The steps taken in conducting research were through in-depth interviews, observations, and documentation (Cresswell, 2003, Sugiyono, 2017). The researchers conducted interviews with the woman homeworkers one by one and recorded the results of the interviews, then the researchers continued to actively conduct in-depth data digging by visiting the residence of the woman homeworkers who acted as the interviewees. The main informants in this research were women homeworkers in Malang City, Indonesia.

Furthermore, the technique to select the informants was snowball sampling, namely the researchers first visited the chairman of Malang City JPPRI (Indonesian Women Homeworker Network) named Mrs. Yuyun Ekowati. Afterwards, the researchers were directed to the women homeworkers in Blimbing District, Malang City named Mrs. Kasianik whose role as JPPRI treasurer, then directed towards the chairperson of the POS sector worker in JPPRI named Mrs. Sri who later introduced the researchers to the other women homeworkers. Moreover, data analysis in qualitative research was performed by data reduction, which is an effort in organizing data by sorting them into manageable units, searching and finding patterns, and finding the important ones. Then this was followed by presenting data and drawing conclusions. The technique used in testing the validity of data was time triangulation. Time triangulation is data collection conducted at certain times where the informants feel refreshed, in example in the morning where the informants have not experienced many problems so that it will provide more valid and credible data.

3. Results

The establishment of Women Homeworkers Network in Indonesia began with research collaboration between Indonesia and Australia regarding the Home Net (Homeworkers). From this collaboration, an organization called MAMPU (Advanced Women for Economic Development) was formed, based in Jakarta. Furthermore, several branches in 7 provinces in Indonesia such as East Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta, West Java, North Sumatra, Batam, and Riau were developed. Moreover, JPPRI (Indonesian Women Homeworker Network) in the Malang City area, Indonesia was established on 16 September 2015.

On the other hand, there are also some women who have jobs and these jobs do not require them to enter the public sphere. According to the data obtained from JPPRI (Indonesian Women Homeworker Network), Malang City has around 120 women becoming the members of Women Homeworkers Networking in Malang. These working women are under the auspices of JPPRI (Indonesian Women Homeworker Network). Based on the research results conducted by the researchers, it is known that there are 2 kinds of women homeworkers, namely POS (Putting Out System) and SE (Self Employment) homeworkers. Women who work in the POS (Putting Out System) sector are homeworkers who take work from employers or companies and work in their respective homes and deliver the work to the employers or companies that provide the work. The example of the worker is the onion peeling worker. Meanwhile, SE (Self Employment) homeworker is women who have their own business who often use female workers from the POS sector to complete the work.

Based on the observation, the type of tasks performed by women homeworkers at Malang, Indonesia is including putting a cover on raw materials and commodities to be processed further, convectional dressmaking, embroidering cloth pieces for making commodities, multi-purpose feather patching, different types of good packing, and other types of tasks which can be performed at home by women homeworkers. It can also be said that the tasks performed are mostly tasks exclusively attributed as women’s skills.

Based on administrative data of women homeworkers obtained from the Chairperson of the Indonesian Women Homeworker Network (JPPRI) in Malang, Ms. Yuyun Ekowati, it was found that there were around 118 women homeworkers spread across Malang. In more detail, the number of women homeworkers who were under the auspices of JPPRI was divided into 7 groups, namely first, Dahlia group consisted of 13 working women, the majority of whom worked as tailors and workers who put on sequins (beads on wedding dresses). Second, Kenanga group with a total of 14 homeworkers with the majority worked as tailors and batik makers. Next, Anggrek and Melati groups consisted of 14 women with the majority worked as onion peelers, then the Nakula group with 6 members and the majority worked as tailors. Sixth, Wijaya Kusuma group with a total of 18 members with the majority worked as tailors, and the last was the Menur group with a total membership of 55 people, the majority of which had food or drink business as well as work as tailors.

One interesting thing found by researchers was that one of JPPRI's goals was to train women's independence to earn their own income without having to rely too much on their husbands. However, in fact, these working women were not allowed to leave their house or be responsibility as housewives who took care of all domestic matters such as cooking, cleaning the house, and so on. Furthermore, JPPRI also directed these women who worked under its auspices to be independent and did not rely too much on their lives based on their husband's salaries. Based on interview with the JPPRI founder in Malang City, Indonesia, there are still many women who are burdened with this condition and wanting to do something useful instead of working from home:

"Many of women homeworkers are trapped in patriarchy system based on Indonesia's culture. They feel so hard to speak up about what their own necessity. JPPRI is always here to support many women for giving then an understanding that they also need a time for self actualization. Some of them are still in fear to talk with us because their spouse is not agreed with this activity. The husbands' thoughts that if the wife following all our agenda for a long time, they will left their family to work outside. It is ridiculous things in modernization era, which people are competing each other to gain in the workforce for berret quality life, but in here (Malang-Indonesia) there are still many women not allowed to participate in working. So, as the solution, working from home is the better way even though they (women homeworkers) have not paid in a good salary like others" (Ibu Yuyun, 47 years old)

Another activity performed by women who were the members of JPPRI was participating in the Woman School held in Blimbing District, Malang City. The Woman School is an activity initiated by JPPRI as a venue for interaction of women homeworkers in Malang City. The activities at this Woman School are conducted once a week including understanding financial-related material, training conducted by fellow network members such as sewing skills training, and training on organization and administration which is beneficial for developing knowledge and skills for women homeworkers as their future provisions.

Further, based on the results of the observations, the process of work division occurred when the women homeworkers' main jobs piled up or when they received a lot of work orders. This was when men or husbands allowed women to focus on their main jobs while all household matters including cooking or cleaning the house were done by the husbands without any instructions from their wives. Moreover, the process of work division between the public and domestic spheres occurring within the families of homeworker female informants was also based on the level of difficulty of existing house chores. For example, washing heavy clothes. This work was performed by the husband since this work was considered as a hard work. Nonetheless, the man performed these domestic works only when the man or husband was in the house or if the woman or the wife had a main job that could not be left behind.

On the other hand, women homeworkers who did not have a mechanism of work division at home chose to prioritize their house chores or domestic works. This was because the women considered that their domestic works were a responsibility that could not be abandoned. In addition, the nature of women who liked cleanliness made them choose to prioritize domestic works rather than their main works. As mentioned by one of informants below:

"As wife and mother, the priority is working in domestic works firstly. Everyday, I must cook, serving a breakfast for my family first, after that I am cleaning my house. I can do my tasks (as onion peeler and chili slicer) mostly after my husband and my children left this home for going to work and going to school. I have ever done my tasks on weekend when they are at home, but I feel so uncomfortable. My husband gets angry to me because he thought that I had neglected him and my children, so I promise to them not to repeat those mistakes." (Ibu Jurinah, 35 years old)

It is similarly with previous research which found the role of women in the public sphere is only considered as an additional role while the role in the domestic sphere is the main responsibility of women which cannot be shared with men. Consequently, this causes the low appreciation of the domestic function of women. Even if women have responsibilities in the public sphere, they are remaining obliged to serve their families in the domestic sphere. This leads women to have a double burden that must be borne between the public and domestic spheres. Therefore, by doing works from home, women homeworkers are seeming enjoyed their roles in realm, without complain and it should be perceived as a part of women's nature. As said by one of informants:

> *"I think (women) are taboo to said about how life burdened us in domestic and public works. We must think, said wisely, although we are tired with this condition. Many women in here (Malang, Indonesia) must be accepted this role as a God's gift, as the Javanese (our ancestor) does, so we can do all the things in life sincerely. Women are also human; we need to be respected by each other. But, in fact, women are still seeming like can not doing something better than men does." (Ibu Sahila, 44 years old)*

What is said before by informant, are also strengthen by another informant from Malang city, Indonesia:

> *"If women do not have a distinction work in their home, it can be sure that she has a less bargain position or have no bargain position at all. Because for us (women homeworkers), working from home is not easy as people seen. Some of us (women homeworkers) are not allowed by our husband, or even family for having an opportunies on working outside. Actually, its hard for us in facing this, but…we have to realize if husband should have a greater authorization in our family as a norm in our culture (Javanese culture), and we must respect to it." (Ibu Nina, 29 years old)*

4. Discussion

Many of the women homeworkers in Malang City, Indonesia still experiences double workload in the domestic sphere. This double workload occurs because the women homeworkers in Polehan Village still own the responsibility to take care of all domestic matters in their houses. This causes women to have greater responsibility in taking care of the domestic territory, especially if the women also work to meet the daily needs of the family, this of course will double the burden. The structure of power in the household between husband and wife also influences the determination of the burden that women have on the domestic sphere. Men who are considered dominant in the family have more power than women which causes women in a family to experience subordination or to be in a non-dominant position (Nugroho, 2008). The impact of this position causes the low bargaining position held by women. This is because women do not have the power in making decisions regarding the division of work in their households.

Further, the low bargaining position of the wife can also be caused by the status of the women, the level of the last education of the women, the authority of women as wives in the family, and the background of kinship and wealth owned by women in the household. The low bargaining position of women will ultimately have an impact on the occurrence of more workload experienced by women (Anggaunitakiranantika, 2019). Comprehension of the bargaining position in the family aims to explain how the bargaining position of women homeworkers in conducting consensus or discussions regarding the division of work with their husbands in the domestic realm.

Moreover, the low bargaining position of women in the household can be explained further through the theory of Levy Blood & Wolfe, Roger, White about variations in decision patterns in the family (Coleman, 1990; Newman & Gauerholz, 2002). This theory suggests that one important aspect in the family structure is the position of the family due to the distribution of power that causes the division of work within the family. On the basis of this distribution of power, several patterns of decision making that often affect the structure of the division of work within the family emerged, including:

1. Decision making by husband only
2. Decision making by husband and wife where the wife's dominance is greater
3. Decision making by husband and wife in which there is no dominance of both parties (both have the same bargaining position)
4. Decision making by husband and wife where the husband's dominance is greater
5. Decision making by wife only (Kusumawarti, 2016; Newman & Gauerholz, 2002)

Other factors that influence family decision making are:

1. The higher the husband's income, the higher the husband's power in the family
2. The existence of additional income given by the wife will increase the wife's power within the family
3. The higher the wife's education level compared to the husband, the higher the wife's power in the household (Kiranantika. A, .2015: 53)

What needs to be underlined is that the bargaining position of women in the household is not always low. Several things can increase the bargaining position of women in the family, namely (Hariadi in Kiranantika, A, 2015: 53):

1. Education level of women in the family
2. Employment status of women in the family
3. Income earned by the women

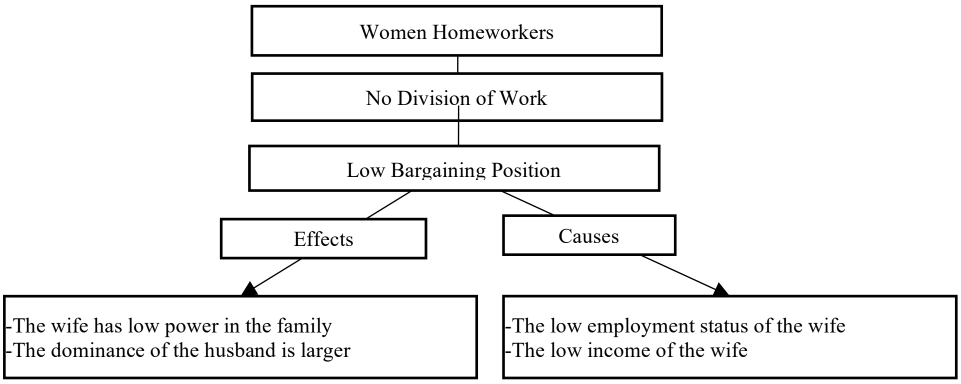
The above theory is expected to be able to explain the power held by women in the household as well as the pattern of decision making in division of work with husbands in the families of women homeworkers. Moreover, based on the observations, it was discovered that there were some women homeworkers who still experienced a double burden in the family, the double burden made the women homeworkers had a double workload, namely the main work and the domestic work which by some informants was considered as a compulsory work that could not be abandoned by women.

Furthermore, the work process by women homeworkers who did not get help from their husbands was first, they performed the house chores in the morning such as cooking, cleaning the house and so forth, then they proceeded to do the main job that earned money. However, if they still had the house chores which had not been completed in the morning, they still needed to finish them after completing the main job. This was usually done in the afternoon and evening.

Based on the description, it can be seen that women homeworkers who do not have a work distribution system in their family have a fairly low bargaining position. This is because the wife do not have the power to talk about what work should be done by men or women in the household. Bargaining position itself is a bargaining position held by women in their efforts to get the distribution of power in the family domain. There are 2 types of the bargaining position of women homeworkers related to the division of work that must be carried out between the Public and Domestic spheres, which further determines the position of women in their families. This double burden takes place because there is no mechanism for the division of roles and functions between men and women in the domestic sphere, which occurs because women are in a non-dominant position in the household (Prabasmoro, 2006).

Based on the results of interviews conducted, the low bargaining position of these women homeworkers could be seen from the employment status of these women where their status was only as homeworkers and the low income generated by these women homeworkers. On the other hand, the wife's decision in domestic work was greater yet the dominance of power remained in the hands of the husband, where husband as the dominant party did not feel that he had the obligation to do or assist his wife in doing domestic work. This further could be seen through the scheme below:

Figure 1: Decision Making of Women Homeworkers



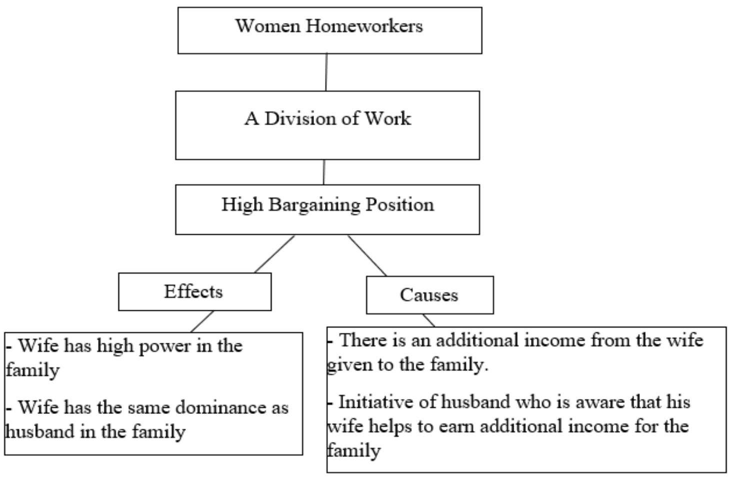
Source: Primary Data, Analyzed, 2021

Conversely, women homeworkers who had a work distribution process within their family would find it easier to do their main job because their husbands were willing to help with the household chores. This indicates that women homeworkers have a high bargaining position within the family. The husband's participation in helping the wife's work was done without any orders or coercion from the wife, where this decision-making came purely from the husband's initiative.

The work division occurred at certain times, for example, in the morning when the wife was having the hassle of taking care of the house chores, the husband's initiative arise to do other domestic work such as preparing the needs of their children to go to school. Other division of work also took place when the woman homeworkers' main job piled up, the heavy domestic works such as cooking, cleaning the house, and washing clothes would be immediately transferred to the men.

This division of work makes women have a fairly high bargaining position in the family. The division of work is also initiated by the decision making done jointly by the husband and wife where there is no dominance from both parties or both have the same bargaining position due to the husband's awareness that the wife helps to make a living in the household, or in other words there is an additional income given by the wife which will ultimately increase the power of the wife in the family.

Figure I.2: Variations in the Decision Making of Women Homeworkers



Source: Primary Data, Analyzed, 2021

Based on the research findings, it was discovered that women who had a work division with their husbands held a bargaining position within the family since the division of work occurred due to the husband's own initiative to do house chores or domestic works. The high bargaining position of women will certainly have an impact on the decision-making process in the household of the woman homeworkers, which in turn will affect the pattern of women's power within their household.

Conclusion

Based on the research results and discussion described above, it is found that the division of work process occurs when the women homeworkers' main job piles up or when they get a lot of work orders. Furthermore, the process of work division in households within the family of women homeworker informants is also based on the difficulty level of the existing house chores. In addition, women homeworkers who do not have a division of work in their family choose to do their house chores first before doing the main jobs that earn money.

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Advocating Women Migrant Worker's Rights through Social Services Organizations in Malaysia

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Abstract
Dependency on migrant workers is a growing situation in Malaysia particularly the ones from Indonesia, the world's largest non-skilled and semi-skilled worker importer. Despite their decision to migrate in order to obtain better livelihood, there are various risks faced by Indonesian migrant workers, including exploitation. To this day, the problems faced by women migrant workers are mostly dominated by documents forgery, fraud, overstay, unpaid wages, sexual abuse, involvement in criminal cases, and other rights violations that are not in accordance with the proper work contracts. Indonesian women migrant workers are often segmented to work in production sectors, such as manufacturing, service sectors such as domestic work and the cleaning industry. This study used qualitative research with in-depth interviews and participant observation to access, collect the preliminary data from the government officials, NGOs and unions related to migrant worker's social welfare. The finding indicated that there were several migrant workers' rights that have been agreed upon to provide significant protection for migrant workers in destination countries whether they are related to employment or social security. However, with the different legal ratifications of specific countries, the destination country has the freedom to restrict any access to certain migrant workers' freedoms. In other words, protection is subject to the laws and constitutions of the country which have been formulated locally. However, in the case of migrant workers' rights violations, most parties work together to resolve the issues. This includes establishing non-governmental organizations to curb issues of social inequality that help all parties involved.

Keywords: Malaysia, Migrant Worker, Social Service Organizations, Women

1. Introduction

Cross-border migration is an increasing universal phenomenon that occurs continuously. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) through its latest report found that employment-based migration kept increasing since 2000 from 173 million to 244 million in 2015 (IOM, 2017). However, job migration is not like commodity trade or services because it is related to the migration of people who have rights and justice that need to be emphasized. This is because, according to statistics recorded by IOM, the majority of migration around the world involves less skilled and semi-skilled workers who are likely to be exposed to exploitation (IOM, 2017). The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR) on Article 1 states that:

> *"All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood."* (UNDHR).

Based on the above declaration, the rights of every human being clearly need to be protected by every group of society and it is no exception in the context of migrant workers. Labor law has provided the description of the basic or minimum rights of workers in employment. Through its enforcement, employees have legitimate rights to claim their rights or seek for protection. However, exploitation of rights and pressures keep happening to migrant workers around the world, including the ones in Malaysia. This indicates that compliance with human rights in the context of social protection is minimal and alarming. For example, a report submitted by the US Embassy in Malaysia reported an extreme case involving human trafficking in Malaysia. Although Malaysia is placed at Level 2 due to its increased efforts in expanding prosecution and conviction investigations, Malaysia is still evaluated as not complying with the minimum standards to eradicate such cases completely. This can be proven through the case of trafficking in 2016, where the government identified 1,558 victims of human trafficking, a significant identification compared to 305 victims in 2015 (US Embassy in Malaysia, 2017). The identification of human trafficking cases relies on reactive labor inspections based on complaints about unpaid workers and other rights violations. It is clear that compliance and implementation of human rights need to be enhanced in order to ensure the social protection of migrant workers in Malaysia.

According to the International Labor Organization (ILO), migrant workers are job-oriented migrations that describe the movement or migration performed by individuals from one place to another, for the purpose of working or seeking employment. Migrant workers who are migrating abroad fill jobs that are required for under-skilled, semi-skilled and skilled workers. The ILO defines a migrant worker as someone who has migrated, or has migrated from one country to another, with the impression that the person is under the provision of the state or employer (ILO, 2013). Ideally, sending Indonesian labor abroad is one of the alternatives to solve the problem of unemployment in Indonesia, including women labor. There are two dominant sectors in Malaysia involving Indonesian women migrant workers, one of which is the informal sector that requires these women to be maids. The other sector is the formal sector with manufacturing as one of the most highly chosen job since it is more secure and has comprehensive protection from the employers. Both of these areas of employment are well received by Indonesian women migrant workers which are shown statistically by a data recording a total of 38,664 maids in 2009 (Azmy 2012) and an estimation of 127,127 manufacturing workers in 2011 (Ministry of Home Affairs 2012).

However, despite this migration there are various risks faced by migrant workers, which includes exploitation of their rights. There are two main criteria that need to be considered in the definition of employee exploitation. The first is the fundamental right in employment and the second is the ability of employees to protect themselves. The protection here encompasses the ability to obtain statutory rights provided by law and other channels (e.g. trade unions) to make claims of rights. Exploited workers are workers involved in high risk, denied basic employment rights and low ability of workers to protect themselves (CONIAC, 2009). These two criteria outline boundaries which enable labor law to be the main basis for forming indicators and further identifying exploited workers. To this day, the problems faced by migrant workers are generally dominated by fraud, unpaid salaries or salaries below minimum wages, human trafficking, and also emotional, physical, and sexual abuse. Other problems include forgery of documents due to agent fraud, overstay, incomplete or illegal documents for staying, involvement in criminal cases, inability to communicate with family and other rights violations that are not in accordance with the employment contracts (Kolopaking, 2015). In addition, Osman and Shahiri (2014) stated that migrant workers also have very low employment benefits and are forced to work in an uncomfortable and dangerous workplace environment (Osman and Shahiri, 2014). They are also vulnerable to the threat of layoffs and excessive discrimination, making it difficult for workers in those jobs to seek legal protection. As a result, the basic rights of employment are also denied.

This article aimed to present social services organizations' roles in providing advocacy assistance to women migrant workers as they always are the object of suffering from marginalization. This paper argues that the practice of social protection of migrant workers is unparallel to the demand of their labor. Moreover, the discussion encapsulates the question of how social services organizations play pivotal roles in advocating for women migrant workers, given that the discrepancies between policy and practice widen the debates. However, apart from the government or the employer there are certain organizations established to protect migrant workers who do not get the protection from their employers or to become temporary shelters for these migrant workers. There is a range of social services provided by non-profit organizations that actively promote equality, opportunity, and assistance to migrant workers in accordance with human rights.

Advocacy, Support and Social Protection of Migrant Workers

In general, advocacy is known as activity to obtain the social rights by pleads acting or speaking on behalf of another people (Forbat & Atkinson 2005). Thus, advocacy and rights remain inseparable as advocacy signifies some interventions for improving the ability of individuals to cope with social risk (Bateman 2000; Beckett 2006). They also emphasize its role in fostering a sense of civic empowerment among particular groups and entire communities. Through empowerment, social services use advocacy to help improve people's lives through policy-oriented decisions and guidelines. However, typically, the social services are unknown or unavailable to the receivers. Therefore, it is difficult for people who do not have the resources to learn about services available and ways to overcome the obstacles that hinder human growth and development.

Therefore, as the most influential tool in representing marginalized groups, advocacy accomplishes its common objectives relatively on stating a case, influencing decisions, protecting from abuse, rectifying the balance of power, and promoting awareness in exercising rights (Dunning 1995). In the migration field in particular, according to Piper (2008) International Labour Organization (ILO) sets off as a pioneer in the promotion of a migration rights based. In fact, it allows a major change on civil society groups to advocate and initiate campaigns for the ratification of the Migrant Workers Convention. The initiative induces the effort towards the ILO prominent role in promoting the migrant rights, including the rights of women migrants. According to Elias (2010) and Migrant Forum in Asia (2006), the rights-based approach creates another avenue in developing a more gender-sensitive rights in migration, in regards to ‘‘empower women [migrants] to assert their rights’’ with the strong statement ‘‘Migrant Rights Are Human Rights’’ along with the campaigns of the transnational feminist movement of the 1990s that adopted the phrase ‘‘women's rights are human rights’’ (Bunch, 1990).

Social protection has various definitions and understandings. However, this diversity is influenced by the social, economic, and political conditions of a country. An Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2000) explains that social protection is basically a program designed to reduce poverty as well as to increase the capacity of the population in protecting themselves from disasters and loss of income. In this case, social protection is not included as risk reduction nor is it only focusing on development activities in the social field. ADB divides social protection into five elements, namely (i) labor markets; (ii) social insurance; (iii) social assistance; (iv) micro and area-based schemes for protection for the local community; and (v) child protection.

However, according to the World Bank in the "World Bank Social Protection Strategy," the concept used by ADB in providing social protection is still traditional. The World Bank defines social protection as (i) security networks and ‘springboards’; (ii) investment in human resources; (iii) efforts to address social segregation; (iv) cause-focused and not symptoms-focused; and (v) actual situation consideration. In contrast, Barrientos and Shepherd (2003) argued that social protection has traditionally been known as a broader concept of social security, social insurance, or social security networks. Currently social protection is defined as a collection of public efforts in dealing with vulnerabilities, risks and extreme poverty (Conway, de Haan et al.; 2000). Deutsche Stiftung für Internationale Entwicklung (DSE) concludes that social protection used by the UN in the "United Nations General Assembly on Social Protection" is defined as the protection from a significant reduction in income or salary; assistance to families (and children) and health services and solutions availability.
Holzmann, Koettle and Chernetsky (2005) classify migrant social protection into four systems. First system is the most beneficial for migrants. Under this method, migrants have access to social security and social services in destination countries that have social security agreements to prevent losses when immigrants return home. European Union and other developed countries use this system since they have bilateral social security

agreements with other countries. The second system regulates that migrants have access to the destination country's social services and security without the destination country has social security agreements with the migrants' country. Most migrants worldwide fall into this category. The third system is that migrants do not have access to social security and no social security agreements exist between the destination country and the migrants' country. The fourth system is for all illegal immigrants who have limited access to social security and uncontrolled working conditions.

Thus, their problems and rights need to be raised and protected respectively. Migrant workers benefit from the principles and rights outlined in the ILO Declaration 1998. This refers to the principles and rights in the workplace based on the eight principles of the ILO Convention and the United Nations Convention (1948) which are related to the following guidelines:

i. The government needs to ensure that national laws and practices that promote and protect human rights are applied to all migrant workers and related parties. National laws and policies should also be guided by ILO standards in the field of employment, effective and competent employee screening, social security, maternity leave protection, employment protection, occupational safety and health, as well as in sectors such as agriculture, construction and hospitality and restaurants.
ii. Information on human rights and responsibilities should be provided to migrant workers in helping to defend their rights.
iii. The government must provide effective enforcement mechanisms to protect the human rights of migrant workers and provide training on human rights to all government officials involved in the management of migrant workers.

Internationally, human rights guarantees are regulated in the 1990 Migrants Convention. This nine-part and ninety-three-way convention emphasize the principle of non-discrimination and the importance of protecting human rights for foreign workers based on universal human rights norms. The convention incorporates the rights of foreign workers to be protected by the destination country, such as the rights for not being the object of torture, inhumane acts or conduct or punishment that degrades humanity (article 10), the rights to freedom and security as a person (e.g. arbitrary detention, national protection against terrorism, the rights to be prosecuted in time (article 16 paragraph 1) and the rights for not being targeted for expulsion collectively and the rights for decisions to be communicated to them in a language they understand (article 22). Further, the responsibility of the destination country to protect foreign workers and their family members from violence, physical injury, threats and intimidation is explained in article 16 paragraph 2. The importance of human rights protection for foreign workers also issued by the UN General Assembly in Resolution 63/184 on 18 December 2008 about immigrant protection and the needs of the government to make concrete choices and measures to prevent human rights violations of foreign workers (Waspada, 2010).

A study of each provision under Article 5 to Article 13 of the Federal Constitution in Malaysia showed that there is a specific use of expressions to distinguish the words "people" and "citizens." Therefore, the matter of protection of fundamental freedoms is not an absolute freedom for everyone. Article 9, Article 10 and Article 12 do not use the expression "person" but instead use the expression "citizen." In other words, Article 9 (Prohibition of exile and freedom of movement), Article 10 (Freedom of speech, assembly and association) and Article 12 (Rights to education) are fundamental freedoms that provide only protection for citizens.

The declaration of "The Universal Declaration of Human Rights" (UDHR) consists of 30 articles that are used as a basic declaration document related to human rights and protection for countries to be given recognition in the drafting of the Constitution of an independent country without it having the nature to bind the country (non-legally binding document). In the context of Malaysia, the case of Merdeka University Berhad v. Government of Malaysia [1981] CLJ 175, the Supreme Court has upheld the position that UDHR is a "non-legally binding instrument" (SeHAM 2016). Therefore, Malaysia is not fully subject to international recognition on this issue.
Despite this implementation, there are some aspects of social protection that practically need to be considered. In the issue of foreign workers' health, several methods mandate comprehensive health protection to protect migrant workers and the locals themselves, especially from infectious diseases. In 1991, Malaysia introduced

special guidelines for the policy regarding the Recruitment of Foreign Workers (Robertson, 2008). It specifies the employers' responsibilities in providing accommodation, health protection and various employment terms and conditions (Kanapathy, 2006). The Government of Malaysia declared that all migrant workers entering Malaysia must have medical insurance effective by 1st January 2011. Already working foreign workers should also be insured with the same insurance, during the process of renewing their work permits and all of the processes must be borne by the employers.

The employer can set any insurance company to provide medical coverage for each foreign worker up to RM120 (US $ 38.8) per annum. In contrast, a study conducted by Karim and Diah (2015) on Bangladeshi foreign workers working in Malaysia found that these foreign workers' medical support or health protection were denied due to the absence of a clear agreement. This study is supported by Noh et al., (2016) finding which showed that 79% of foreign workers are not protected with health benefits (e.g. workplace injuries). In addition, there are about 3.1 million uninsured foreign workers working in low-tech and labor-intensive industries in Malaysia, resulting a high total unpaid hospital bills in public hospitals (Transport Economics Program, 2013).

Periodic monitoring through field surveys provides an insight into how the human rights and social protection of migrant workers are provided by their employers. For example, through a study conducted by the National Population and Family Development Board in Tawau Sabah on Indonesian Manpower in 2014 found that employers have provided facilities and welfare to Indonesian workers working in their companies. Overall, the majority of employers in all sectors have provided insurance facilities (97.3%), accommodation (83.8%), and health and medical care facilities (78.4%). In addition, they also have provided accommodation facilities for employees with family members (67.6%) and fares back to the country of origin (36.1%). Only a small percentage (8.1%) of employers provide remittance services to the country of origin (LPPKN, 2014).

2. Method

This paper used an exploratory, qualitative research approach. Interviews and participant observation were conducted to access preliminary data to gai insight into migrant-based stakeholders in Klang Valley, Malaysia. Specifically, the aim of this paper was to generate evidence and better understanding of the role of the migrant-based social services in managing, advocating and promoting a better livelihood for the women migrant workers. In order to obtain advocacy trends on policy and practice towards women migrant workers, this study used a collection of research data in 2011 and 2019. In-depth interviews were conducted with several informants such as the government officials from the Ministry of Home Affairs, Malaysia Labour Department and Indonesia Embassy (KBRI), Malaysia Trade Union Congress and Manufacturing in-house Union and Indonesian NGO, FOKMA in 2011. Moreover, in 2019, the author conducted informal interviews and discussions obtained from migration-based NGOs and Migrant Care Malaysia with supporting documents in advocating activities as secondary data. Participant observation was conducted at one seminar relating to Indonesia migrant worker's advocacy and strategies at Indonesia Embassy in Kuala Lumpur. The speakers invited to the seminar were Indonesia parliament members, special ambassador of Indonesia to Malaysia, law attaché and labour attaché.

The interviews were based on the institutional function, which was then analytically analyzed through the spectrum of advocacy and right-based issues on migration that elaborates the role of social services in order to enhance the social protection of women migrant workers. From the perspective of NGO in Malaysia, the questions were emphasizing on the advocacy and intervention strategies of assisting women migrant workers in Malaysia, including goals and constraints and perceptions of the institutional landscape. Moreover, the interview also aimed at investigating the people, networks or institutions that have been most relevant to the NGO in accommodating migrant workers. Before the interview started, the purpose of this study was explained to each participant and verbal consent was obtained.

3. Results

This section is divided into two important themes, which included the nature of migrant workers' rights that have been practiced in Malaysia, specifically the one that is related to employment relations. Furthermore, to portray the contribution of advocates in social services, this section also discusses the role of multiple stakeholders in promoting and advocating the rights of these women as migrant workers. This section explains the activities and programs run by these stakeholders, which included entrepreneurship programs or workshops, legal service and counselling.

The Rights of Migrant Workers in an Employment

The informants particularly the officials who manage foreign worker's systems, gave different opinions about the matters. According to MoHA official, Malaysian government has provided similar treatment to both local and foreign workers. In contrast, KBRI labour attaché stated that Malaysia had not played its role in protecting migrant workers particularly women that have been seen as the most vulnerable group. Their statements are as follows.

> *"Initially, they will get all the rights that are provided to the Malaysian. For example, the rights as employees particularly the rights for health service, compensation, hospitalization and promotion in their job. They will get all of them, as what the local gets. But this applied to those who came here legally not PATI [read: illegal migrants]. They are not subject to discrimination, but in terms of salary there is a slight difference between locals and foreign workers. That one (read: the salary difference) can be seen as a kind of discrimination but not in other matters. The rights of foreign workers are guaranteed under workman compensation act 1952. If there is a dispute, they have the rights to be heard in the court of law." (MoHA official, 2011)*
>
> *"Yes I agree especially about the enhancement of the law. It needs to be ratified about migrant workers. It is one thing to protect women moreover women have the right psychologically. When they are forced to work on a holiday or public holiday, it's sick. They are women. However, you cannot do it (by purpose). Sometimes if you take leave, there is punishment. About their livelihood, there are many Indonesian women living in the Cheras hostel, Sunway Kemuning, so many. There are around 12,000. It creates problems, one of which is social tension that causes women ro feel inevitable due to women's sensitivity." (KBRI labour attaché, 2011)*
>
> *"As a fact and the reality, Malaysia really depends on foreign workers and clearly depends on Indonesian workers. We could say that physically [read: employment] it is ready. However, from the regulation it is not perfect. As an example, Malaysia now has Employment Act 1955 but there is no article about protections for foreign workers, especially women workers. Then, on the second establishment of the act, it is said that workers can work for 48 hours. It is heavy for women. Personally, I think the woman can work compulsory for 40/42 to 45 hours and OT (working overtime) cannot be mandatory or compulsory. OT is done voluntarily. However, lots of things are mandatory or compulsory here in order to pursue target. Therefore, the law or Malaysia's regulations are not perfect. From physical protection point of view, the example can be seen from the women housing. I also see that women workers living in their hostel's placement have no protection from the government to specify the hostels for women only without men residents in order to ensure their safety. But women from different countries it is not a problem. The reality is that women hostels also allow men to live as the residents. It will create another social problem. If they are not strong mentally, then who knows, it is que sera-sera [what will happen, will happen]. It is kun fayakun [Arabic proverb similar to que sera-sera meaning]. It is only natural because the women or men are far from their family and their family supervision. For example, they are… you know… Let alone their faith is thin and not all Muslims from Indonesia, right? So yes, it happened like that." (KBRI labour attaché)*

As explained in the previous section, Malaysia is not fully subject to international recognition on this issue. This often creates a dilemma to those having the intention to help migrant workers, including in-house unions. Their statement is as follows.

"Sometimes when we think of it over again, it is very difficult, especially for people like us [read: in-house union]. I am a staff of Infinity and on the other hand holding President position of company union. When there is a staff problem [read: dissatisfied], I need to negotiate or confront the management and in the same time I kene jaga periuk nasi I sendiri [read: I have to take care of my own job position]. It is very-very difficult. Recently, luckily, Alhamdulillah [read: grateful] we have Ms Nurul, as our senior manager, it means in our management. She is very concern. Whenever we brought Indonesian welfare issues, she will resolve it. The issues are varied. Even though they [read: Indonesian] are not our union member but as far as we have a sense of humanity, we have to help." (In-house union President, 2011)

Advocacy and Activities in Promoting Human Rights towards Women Migrant Workers

Based on the interviews, all informants agreed that women migrant workers really need support as working in Malaysia has made it becomes their second home and living away from their families creates a miserable life for these women. In comparison to male migrants, the majority of informants said that they were more capable and able to help themselves. On the contrary, women migrant workers were seen as weak and therefore need comprehensive protection. As MoHA officials explained, any foreign workers might be found to have been smuggled in or a victim of human trafficking. For such cases, they were referred to the Ministry of Women, Family and Community in Malaysia. The minister offered shelter, provided counseling and other protection strategies.

As an Indonesia-related NGO based in Malaysia, FOKMA plays a distinctive role in solving women migrant workers issues. Due to recent cases, FOKMA seeks different method of advocacy including counseling to those in need. As expressed by the former advisor:

"Perhaps in the collaboration with KBRI, we could provide someone qualified in counselling study, who have psychology or human law background, who can guide and consult women migrants who are facing emotional and psychological problem. What we have now, especially in factory hostel only a warden who do not have that particular skill. We need to hire Indonesians who obtained their qualification from Law Faculty in Indonesia. We had done some tests and hope that KBRI will hire those who are qualified very soon."

Instead of the determination in giving legal advice, there are many forms of programs and activities prepared for women migrant workers. These include sewing and baking class and also Quran recitation class. Enterpreneurship seminar and workshop were among central programs provided by NGOs to empower women migrants to prepare their post migration life when they decided to return home for good. The author had an opportunity to participate in one seminar for Indonesian migrant workers at KBRI in Kuala Lumpur. This seminar was organized by Indonesian students who were studying in Malaysia University. The full-day seminar sponsored by Migrant Care Malaysia became a platform to create awareness to participants in order to understand their rights as legal workers in Malaysia. The seminar also helped them understanding the laws and policies of the host country as well as introducing them with several activities conducted by the Embassy to uplift migrant worker's livelihood.

4. Discussion

In the context of migrant workers, human rights theory is inseparable in discussing and determining why basic assistance and protection are needed to be provided to migrant workers. The concept of 'social rights' refers to government intervention for the purpose of protecting the economic position of the people, workers and others. In this context, the main issue is whether migrant workers are entitled to equal treatment by employers and access to protection and social facilities set by the country.

Through the results of a study conducted by Brickenstein (2015), it is shown that widely ratified agreements, conventions and regulations were only the lowest level of common interest in ensuring minimum protection for migrant workers. The problems that are circulating are more about the regulations that are not widely validated with diplomatic and flexible law (soft law), and illegally binds members. The rights of social protection for the workers also need to be prioritized among the primary regulations in order to meet their specific needs. The ILO multilateral framework on labor migration can be referred as one of the most relevant non-binding provisions. The best practices analyzed were the relevance of the ILO Convention, UN-recommendations, UDHR articles and articles from ICRMW. In many terms, the provisions focus on public rights without discrimination.

The principle of equal treatment in this field is applied for all workers by human rights instruments as created by the United Nations (UN) through the United Nations Conventions on Migrant Workers (UNCMW). The concept of Human Rights has undergone a transformation from an abstract principle as stated in the Declaration of Human Rights to a form that prioritizes individual rights and places obligations on a nation. The practice that has been done by Malaysian government was viewed contradicted to Human Right declaration and therefore the implementation is still questionable. Countries around the world have developed international accountability systems to assess their commitment to human rights. The state has a duty and obligation in providing rights support to migrant workers because it is related to the sovereignty and security of the country. However, it is not applied to the practice of distinguishing support and protection which should be a human right for migrant workers as well as local workers.

Social services and protection provide access to meet the basic needs of human rights, including access to income, life, employment, health and education, nutrition and protection. In addition, social protection also aims to address the absolute poverty and vulnerability faced by very poor people. Thus, social protection according to the UN can be divided into two sub-categories, which are social assistance and social insurance. Social assistance is the distribution of resources to the poor resource group, while social insurance is a form of social security with financing that uses the principle of insurance.

In addition, although the provisions being used show an indication of different rights between migrant workers and the citizens, these provisions determine fair treatment of rights. For example, Article 6 (1) of the Convention on Migration for Employment (ILO Convention No. 97) states that the same treatment must be given in relation to working conditions, union membership, accommodation, social security and employment tax (Cholewinski, 2005). Moreover, Article 59 (1) of the ICRMW gives migrant workers a set of special rights, including the rights to freedom of movement in the destination country, including the freedom to choose one's residence. Most importantly the convention states that migrant workers should enjoy equal treatment with citizens in relation to unemployment benefits, protection against dismissal, and access to social and health services (Article 54 (1)).

There are a series of advocacy and diplomatic strategies taken by both countries. During ten years of the author’s research, fieldwork data emphasized that every stakeholder plays their own roles to overcome the misconduct. This evidence through activities and programs developed in the workplace, community and structural level to empower women migrants in Malaysia. However, in general, Migrant Care data shows similar issues such as exploitation, human trafficking and high mortality rate which consequently urged Malaysia to revise its migration policy and implementation in order to meet human rights plea.

Conclusion

The reliance on migrant workers is a growing situation for most countries in the world, whether in developed or developing countries. This phenomenon can be attributed to the establishment of world-class declaration rights, laws, bilateral agreements and social policies adopted by the countries concerned to protect the rights of both the source and destination countries. As a country that is ready to receive manpower from foreign countries, it can be assumed that the destination country is able to meet the needs of immigrant workers through appropriate and adequate social services. It is a necessity to protect the rights and interests of immigrant workers in terms of their employment and social life.

There are several rights of migrant workers that have been agreed to be given to protect them in the destination country. The rights are related to employment rights and social security rights. However, with differences in the ratification of laws by specific countries, destination countries have the freedom to restrict any access to certain freedoms of migrant workers. In other words, this protection is subject to the laws and constitutions of the country that have been enacted locally. However, if there is a violation of the rights of migrant workers, most parties work together to address issues related to migrant workers. One of the ways is by setting up non-governmental organizations to curb the issue of social inequality through different activities such as legal advice, counselling and community empowerment strategies.

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Proportional Representation System Whether Significance for Bangladesh: An Analysis

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Abstract
The purpose of this article is to ensure free, fair and credible election by adopting electoral reformation, switch from `Winner Take All" (WTA) to Proportional Representation (PR) system. In Bangladesh the election process and election result both have been questioned. Nevertheless, election is one of the key components in ensuring democracy. Particularly the free, fair and credible election is one of the basic and crucial prerequisites and elements of democratic government and governance. Bangladesh, we found an under developed political culture, lack of democratic political organizations, institutions and practices in true sense. All these indicators have been almost failed to institutionalize democracy in Bangladesh. In this backdrop, this paper attempts to explain that, a switch from the current Winner Takes All (WTA) system to Proportional Representation (PR) system can reshape the election system by keeping consistency, because of the fact that the democracy means the rule of the majority but the minority can't be uprooted as well as Proportional Representation (PR) method can help stabilize democracy in Bangladesh.

Keywords: Proportional Representation System, Bangladesh, Election

1. Introduction

When we got independence in 1971 our intent was to establish democracy under universal suffrage. But after 50 years we are still struggling to stabilize democracy in Bangladesh. At present Bangladesh follows `Majority system' that is also known as `Winner Take all' (WTA) system or 'First-Past -the Post' (FPP) system of election. Under this system, the candidate who gets the majority votes achieve the whole electorate and form government. The remaining candidates are left with nothing and they have no value, even though some of them might have obtained only a few votes less than what the winning candidate did (Islam,2016). The existing electoral system often leads to unfair outcomes and it is the barrier to ensure free, fair and credible elections. Thus, instance of stabilizing democracy election works against stability and makes unstable political culture. But the main saying of the Proportional Representation system produces stable and fair outcomes and promotes to real exercise of democracy.

However, it is going to be the biggest question on the mind of all constituencies when will the election be free and fair? Gradually We are going too far from free, fair and credible elections. It is very disquiet for us that our constituencies are losing their interest to cast votes. Though the election is one of the key components in ensuring democracy because they enhance citizen's participation in governance, ensures government accountability and encourages political competition (Larry E. Udu, Joseph Okwesili Nkwede , Ezekwe Emmanuel A. 2014). On the other hand, in 11th national election the chief election commissioner (CEC) has said that 80% voters have exercised their franchise (Bdnews24,2018). But there is huge gap between balloting figures of election day and the number of casting votes which is not acceptable (**Dainik Sangram** ,2019). So how could we expect free, fair and credible elections? How could we ensure actual democracy?

Though, more than 100 political parties exist in Bangladesh now. However, two major political allies. Besides this, Bangladesh has mostly a fading two-party system, which means that there are two dominant political parties, with extreme difficulty for anybody to achieve electoral success under the banner of another party (Shakil, Kaniz, 2013). But currently both are heading coalitions of like-minded parties with the AL leading Grand Alliance formed with seven minor parties were deciding to participate in 11th national election BNP along with some other minor parties formed an alliance named Jatiya Oikya Front (National Unity Front) took part in this election (The Independent, 2020). Minor parties join these alliances to hold their existence as well as to save expropriating their security money. But the substantial fact is without minor party large party cannot form government in addition to before the election they use the minor party as polled tool. Nonetheless PR system which does not require political parties, through this system enable independent candidates to be elected if they achieve public support (Douglas,2014).

Furthermore, in the context of Bangladesh, there are few examples of female contenders are nominated and combat for a seat of national parliament like a male contender in national election. Our political culture and institutional structure are failed for women to attain a full role in democratic political system. Here female representation is 16.67% in national legislature. Among 300 seats, reserved seats for female are 50. These reserved seats are allocated proportionately over 300 elected seats in our parliament. In our parliament 300 seats are elected through First -past- the post system or Winner Takes All (WAT) system. As a consequence, vast number of electorates have no representation in reserved seats. It is clear that the exact extent of female representation is a consequence of an extremely complex and poor interaction of cultural, structural and institutional factors in our national context. There are few increasing curves of female participation and representation since our independence. Despite these difficulties instead of current electoral system we need to assume Proportional Representation (PR) system which can ensure largest possible representation and participation of females.

The paper is based on research and review of the relevant literature on Proportional Representation (PR) as well as secondary analysis of National elections on election results, participation, representation in national Parliament and its impact. This paper also examines whether a switch from the current Winner Takes All (WTA) system to the Proportional Representation (PR) system which can making Bangladesh election fairer and help Bangladesh stabilize her democracy.

2. Proportional Representation (PR) system: Conceptual Framework

The proportional representation system is an honored election system in modern states. For the sake of wider participatory democracy, there is a strong view in the community that the voting system of proportional representation (PR) sometimes also called "full representation" needs to be introduced for electing members of parliament.

Table1: Percentage of votes and representation of political party in the Parliament

Parliament	**Date of Election**	**Votes (%) AL**	**Seats (AL)**	**Votes (%) BNP**	**Seats (BNP)**
Seventh	12 June,1996	37.4 %	146	33.6%	116
Eighth	1 October,2001	40.13%	62	40.97%	193
Ninth	29 December,2008	49.0%	230	33.20%	30

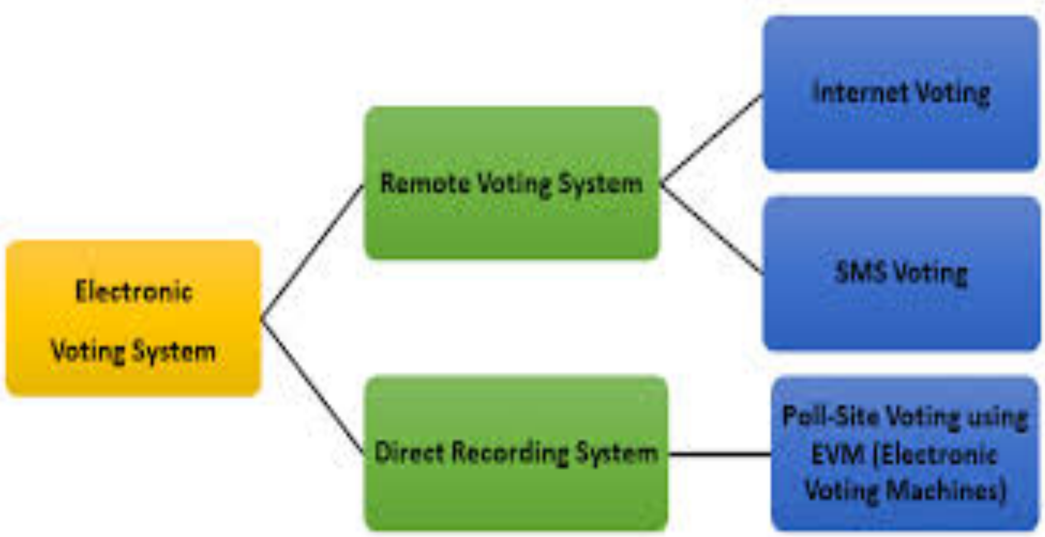
Source: (Fioj,2003) and EC, Dhaka

More than 100 political parties participate in our parliamentary election. However, after a tough polled combat in the seventh parliamentary election the winning party got only more 4%, in eighth parliamentary election got only more .84% and ninth parliamentary election winning party got more 16% percent votes. Rest of the votes or constituency who were defeated party they have no value! for example, there are two candidates one can win with a minimum of slightly over 50 percent vote. The rest 49 percent of the voters who did not vote for that contestant failed to get their representation in the winning participant. But the principle of democracy is not the rule of majority but for all, which professes equality as its very root and foundation (Moniruzzaman, M. 2009). More precisely, what is looked for is the percentage equivalents between the total national votes cast for the respective parties' candidates, and the number of seats won by the parties in the parliament. Proponents of proportional representation believe that there should be a direct and close correlation between total votes cast for each party across the country in a general election, and the number of seats won by each party in the parliament. Under a pure application of the principle, if half of the voters in the country vote for the AL and one-third vote BNP, then half of the membership of the parliament - 150 MPs - should be AL MPs and one-third of the parliament MPs should be BNPs (Blackburn,1995).

Proportional representation (PR) characterizes electoral systems in which divisions in an electorate are reflected proportionately in the elected body (Mill,1861). If *n*% of the electorate supports a particular political party as their favorite, then roughly *n*% of seats will be won by that party (ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, 2014). The essence of such systems is that all votes contribute to the result, not just a plurality, or a bare majority. More precisely, the definition of proportional representation (PR) is an electoral system in which the number of seats held by a political group or party in a legislative body is determined by the number of popular votes received. In another way we can make clear that, a system in which the number of seats held by members of a political party in a legislature (such as a parliament) is determined by the number of votes its candidates receive in an election (Merriam website, 2020). The PR system, according to author Zama Shaikh, "aims at removing the defects of territorial representation "Under this system, all the sections of the people get representation in proportion to their number" (Zama Shaikh,2017). Even the smallest section of population gets its due share of representation in the legislature." PR aims to achieve a balance between the share of votes and the subsequent share of representatives. If a party wins a certain percent of the votes, the same party should win approximately the same percentage of the parliamentary seats (Reilly & Reynolds, 1999). During practice it is revealed that the system does not produce proper representation. In Bangladesh perspective in case, there are two candidates one can win with a minimum of slightly over 50 percent vote. The rest 49 percent of the voters who did not vote for that contestant failed to get their representation in the winning participant. Representation of people continues to decline with increased number of contestants (The Independence,2017). Thus, of proportional representation (PR) system can create value of each vote and constituencies. Apart from this it can ensure the proper balance of votes and representative of the parliament.

2.1 Types of Voting System

In the world there are wide range of possible voting system. There are three common types of electoral systems used to elect government across the globe. These include:



1. Plurality or majority electoral systems

Also known as 'first-past-the-post' or 'winner-takes-all' a plurality electoral system is what we mainly use most of the democratic countries in the world. It's a system in which the candidate(s) with the highest number of votes wins, with no requirement to get a majority of votes. (Arend,1985).

2. Semi-proportional systems

These systems are used in some local elections in the various countries. They tend to produce more proportional results than plurality/majority systems, but less proportional results than fully proportional systems. They include cumulative voting and limited voting.

3. Proportional representation systems.

These voting systems are used by most other advanced Western democracies and are designed to ensure that parties are represented proportionally (according to the share of the vote they win) in the legislature. They include

A) party list systems,
B) mixed-member proportional, and
C) single transferable vote. (Charles,1999)

2.2 Types of Proportional representation voting systems:

A) party list systems:
Party list voting systems are by far the most common form of proportional representation. Over 80% of the PR systems used worldwide are some **forms** of party list voting. It remains the system used in most European democracies and in many newly democratized (Poundstone,2008). In these systems, parties make lists of candidates to be elected, and seats are distributed to each party in proportion to the number of votes the party receives.

There are three main ways to vote in Party List elections in use around the world.

i) **Closed List:** Each party publishes a list of candidates for each voting area. On polling day, the ballot paper just has a list of parties. Voters mark the party they support. In this system, a party gets seats roughly in proportion to its vote, and seats are filled by the party depending on an order they choose.

ii) **Open List:** On the ballot paper, each party has a list of candidates. In some open-list systems voters must vote for an individual candidate. In others, voters can choose between voting for a party or their choice of candidate.

iii) **Semi-Open List:** In a semi-open list voter are presented with a ballot like that of an open-list system. The difference comes at the counting stage. Generally speaking, voting for a party is taken as an endorsement of the party's order and candidates are then elected in an order chosen by the party. However, with enough vote's candidates can be elected out of order, though this is rare (Electoral Reform Society,2019).

B) Mixed-member proportional (MMP) representation

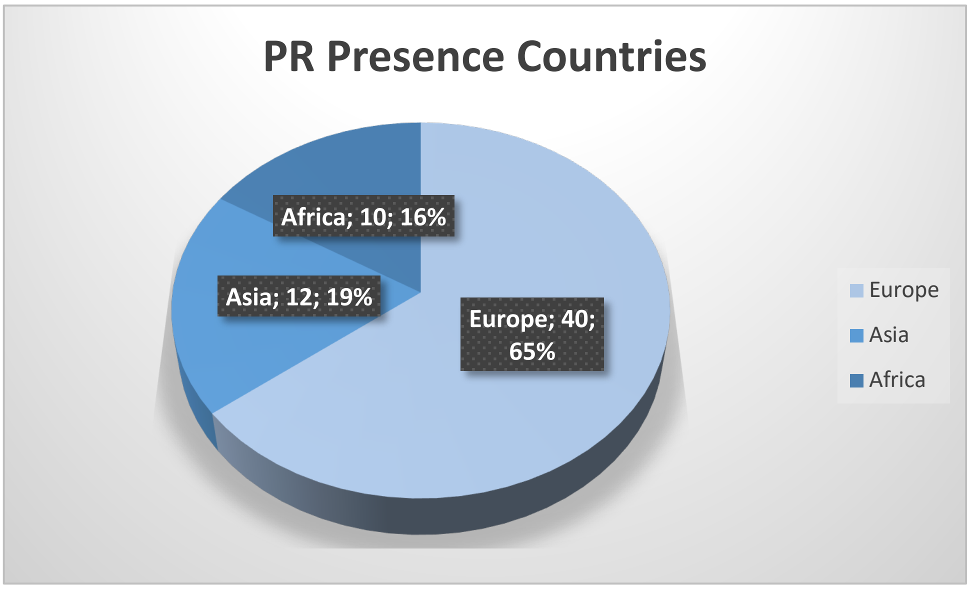
Mixed-member proportional representation goes by a variety of other names, including "the additional member system," "compensatory PR," the "two vote system," and "the German system." This system was originally invented in West Germany right after World War Two, though since then it has also been adopted in several other countries. MMP systems in use around the world in 1999. It's a mixed electoral system in which voters get two votes: one to decide the representative for their single-seat constituency, and one for a political party. Seats in the legislature are filled firstly by the successful constituency candidates, and secondly, by party candidates based on the percentage of nationwide or region-wide votes that each party received. The constituency representatives are elected using first-past-the-post voting (FPTP) or another plurality/majoritarian system. MMP differs from parallel voting in that the nationwide seats are allocated to political parties in a compensatory manner in order to achieve proportional election results. Under MMP, two parties that each receive 25% of the votes may both end up with 25% of the seats, even if one party wins more constituencies than the other (Soberg and Wattenberg, 2003).

c) Single transferable vote (STV):

This system of proportional representation is known by several names. Political scientists call it "the single transferable vote." It is called the "Hare-Clark system" and "choice voting." Political scientists have long been advocated the Single Transferable Vote (STV) as one of the most attractive electoral systems. However, its use for national parliamentary elections has been limited to a few cases (Hill, Wichmann, Woodall,1987). Under STV, an elector's vote is initially allocated to his or her most-preferred candidate. After candidates have been either elected (winners) by reaching *quota* or eliminated (losers), *surplus* votes are transferred from winners to remaining candidates (hopefuls) according to the surplus ballots' ordered preferences. The system minimizes "wasted" votes and allows for approximately proportional representation without the use of party lists. A variety of algorithms (methods) carry out these transfers (Warren, 1994). Although the system provides representation to minor parties, results in single transferable (STV) elections generally have shown that minor centrist parties benefit from the system and minor radical parties are penalized.

2.3 Proportional representation voting systems in Different Countries

There are many different electoral systems in use around the world. At present many of the world including Europe, Asia and Africa already acknowledged Proportional representation voting (PR) system for nationwide **elections** Already many countries are considering or agree to introduce this system. In recent years, there are 87 countries practice Proportional Representation voting system to fill a nationwide elected body. Among the 43 countries most often considered to be within Europe, 40 countries use some form of proportional representation system (PR) to elect their MPs (Michela Palese, 2018).



There is a growing move towards the PR system. Some developed countries practicing the WTA system so far, such as New Zealand, are now switching to the PR system. Most of the transition countries, after noting the international experience of PR and WTA systems, have opted for the PR system. Even in the United Kingdom, there are now trends away from the WTA system and toward the PR system. For example, the composition of the newly formed Scottish Parliament and of the Welsh and Northern Ireland Assemblies and also of local government bodies of Scotland and Northern Ireland are decided according to the PR system. It thus appears that the PR system is emerging as the system of choice for the 21st century (Islam, 2016).

However, during the past two decades, various Asian states have made transition to democracy and turn towards 'Majoritarian Democracy.' Most of the states receive conventional First Past the Post (FPP) electoral system to elect their representative of legislature. In recent years, many Asian countries are concerned to ensure accurate democracy so that they are going to take initiative to change the electoral system that emerged on the political agenda. There are almost 12 countries among 48 countries that make choice of Proportional Representation voting system to elect a nationwide elected body.

On the other hand, all the nation states of South Asia make claims of being democracies, but this description merely affirms the fact that all nine of them hold elections of some kind (Himal Southasian ,2014). The practice of accurate democracy in South Asia still remains an unsuccessful dream. Actually, local democracy operates in South Asia. Most South Asian countries functions conventional First Past the Post (FPP) electoral system. But its show us linings that there is **an** increasing consensus among citizens and political parties in South Asia that the current First-Past-The-Post (FPTP) electoral system should be clanged. The best alternative would be Proportional Representation (PR) electoral system.

India has a bicameral Parliament of the Union (Sansad) consisting the House of People (Lok Sabha) and the Council of States (Rajya Sabha). The lower house Lok Sabha seats 545 members, 543 of whom are elected through FPTP in single-member constituencies the upper house Rajya Sabha can seat 250 members, 238 of whom are indirectly elected by the state's legislatures (Election Commission of India, 2020). Below are the results from the 2014 Lok Sabha elections. But the results of India (Lok Sabha elections 14, and 2019) clearly show the limitations of a FPTP system, especially in a country with such a large and diverse electoral base. (Himal Southasian, 2014). There is a growing consensus among a broad cross-section of citizens and political parties in India that the current First-Past-The-Post (FPTP) electoral system must be replaced. A Proportional Representation (PR) electoral system is one viable alternative (Misra, 2018).

Afghanistan has a bicameral National Assembly (Jirga) consisting of the House of Elders (Meshrano Jirga) and the House of People (Wolesi Jirga). The lower house Wolesi Jirga seats 249 members elected, through the single non-transferable vote (SNTV) system combined with a multi-seat single constituency, a peculiar amalgamation of two different systems that prevents political consolidation of their mandate by parties (Eli, Berman, Michael, Callen, Clark, Gibson, James, D. Long 2014). For Afganistan the existing SNTV adequately addresses only gender inequality and partly ethnic cleavages. A better choice might be a closed-list PR system that jump-starts party formation and interethnic conciliation, as well as presents adequate representation of all ethnicities (Ghadiri, T. Sara, 2010).

Nepal has a unicameral Constituent Assembly (Sambidhan Sabha) that consists of 601 members, 240 of whom are elected through a direct, constituency-based FPTP contests, and 335 are elected through party list-based PR system. The remaining 26 members are nominated by the interim cabinet on a consensual basis. The Constituent Assembly (CA) has provisions in which women must make up at least half of the PR list. Overall, 33 percent of all the candidates for the CA must be women. Other PR quotas include 31.2 percent for Madhesis, 37.8 percent for the Janajatis (indigenous groups), 13 percent for Dalits, 4 percent for inhabitants of underdeveloped regions and 30.2 percent for others not mentioned elsewhere in the list (welcome to Election Commission of Nepal, 2020).

Sri Lanka has a unicameral Parliament consisting of 225 members, 196 of whom are elected from 22 multi-member constituencies, and 29 of whom are elected from one nationwide constituency. It consists of 140 Constituency Members, 70 District Members and 15 National List Members of Parliament elected for a six-year term. Sri Lanka follows an open list PR system in which each voter may cast three preference votes in a multi-member constituency. In this two-round contingent vote system, ballots whose first rankings are eliminated are redistributed to the next-ranked candidates if no candidate wins a majority in the first round of counting (Election Commission of Srilanka,2019). Rest of the South Asian countries like Pakistan, Bhutan, Burma, Maldives has run conventional First Past the Post (FPP) electoral system.

As discuss above we can say, Proportional Representation (PR) system is becoming contemporarily significant may be for following manner. last 100 years have been away from Winner Taken All (WTA) voting system is running worldwide but last few years, PR was adopted in many countries. PR is becoming honored system to ‘one man/one vote’ principle of PR that is to say that every vote has its own value. Earth-wide among Europe, Africa, Asia even South Asia’s most countries want to change their conventional electoral system due to ensure parliament institutionalization, to make democracy fairer, functional and fairly representation.

3.Proportional Representation in Bangladesh

Bangladesh has a unicameral Parliament known as the House of the Nation seating 350 members. These 300 members are directly elected from single-member constituencies through the FPTP system. The remaining 50 seats are reserved for women who are elected by the member of the house. This is done on the basis of proportional representation (PR) through single transferable vote (STV) in which the voter ranks candidates preferentially, and votes are reallocated from ballots whose first rankings are eliminated, shifting to the next-ranked candidates on those ballots (Ahmed, 2013).

Bangladesh at present follows ‘Majority System’ (MS) of national election. It is sometimes also known as the ‘Winner Takes All’ system or the “First Past the Post” system. The development of national election in our country is frustrating. The journey towards democracy is not a novel phenomenon in Bangladesh. The people of Bangladesh struggled for democratic political system for long years. Election culture of our country is skepticism demonic. Consistently Pakistan rulership, after independence, even when the democratic regime started journey in ninety decades always election result was questioned. Almost every election result denied by the defeated party with thin, uncouth fetch. The role of the government and the opposition was not conducive to democratizing the political system through free and fair elections and institutionalization during the recent past. Lately acceptability of election results facing criticism specially 10th election and 11th election, because these two-election held voter less and without appropriate participation of opposition. Which interrupting to stabilize democracy in our country.

From the perspective of political science, a unique 11th national parliament started its journey. There are several other issues related to reforms of the electoral system and electoral processes, which needs discussion and debate. Now **it's** time to think out of the box.

Firstly:

Proposals for reforming the electoral system, most notably proposals for changing the First Past the Post (FPTP) system, need greater scrutiny and debate. Further research on the pros and cons of different types of electoral systems such as Proportional Representation (PR) system and their implications in the specific context of Bangladesh politics are needed before initiating any reforms of the electoral system. A change of the electoral system may not necessarily lead to any improvement and worse still may lead to additional undemocratic practices.

Secondly:

In our country we see huge pressure pre- election and post- election context, for manipulation for winning the elections in the WTA system. This system always tries to abuse the voting process in several ways. But the PR system serves a direct link between the local vote outcome and whether or not the local political leader gets elected to the parliament. Hence, local political actors would not have as much stake in the local voting outcomes as they have now. Not only that, the decrease in pressure for manipulation and abuse of the voting process will undercut the importance of muscle and money power. Elections under PR therefore may not be as dependent on **terrorist act** as they are now. Furthermore, under the PR system, there would be little scope and incentive to manipulate election through resetting the boundaries of constituencies (Daily Star, 2014).

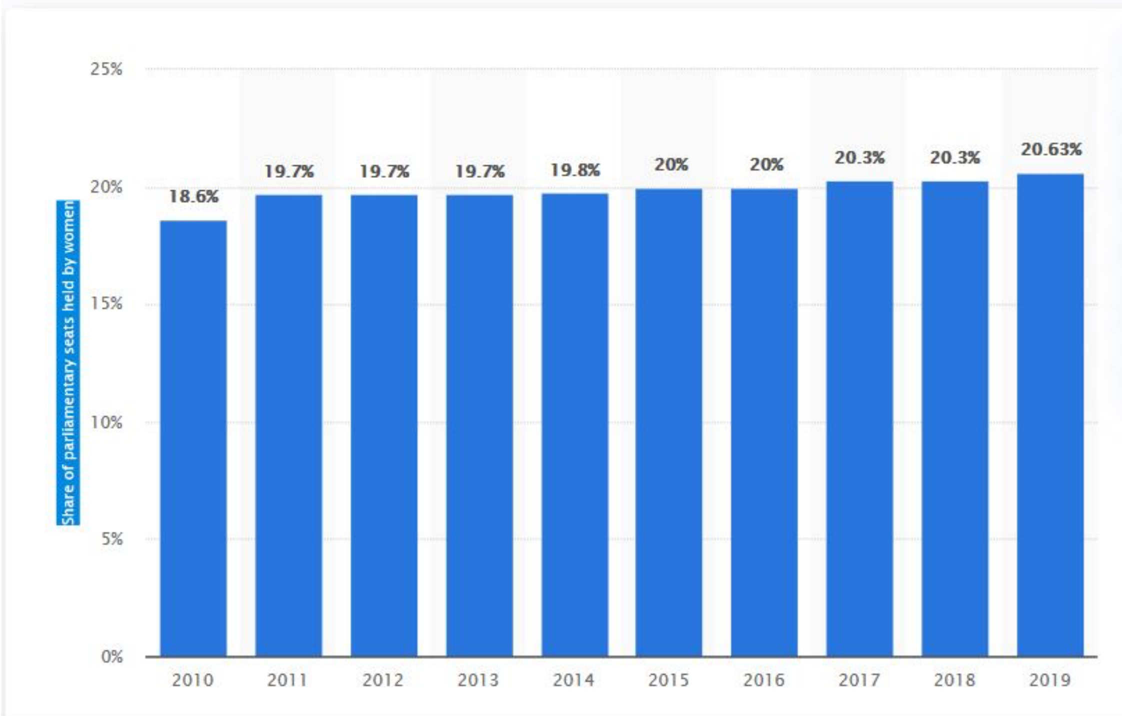
Thirdly:

The rate of Bangladeshi women's participation into our parliament and advancement of politics has been very slow and extremely poor. Today, women's participation in politics is necessary for both the democratic development of the country, as well as women's empowerment in Bangladesh. Critics argue this is a consequence of a number of factors, including women's responsibilities for family and children, the negative attitudes and discrimination of political parties, conservative religious and cultural doctrines, discriminatory socio-economic conditions, electoral systems, the nature of a regime and financial barriers (Rule, 1994a, 1994b; Liswood, 1999; Harris, 2001). Recently-held 11th general election, 22 women were directly elected among in 299 constituencies. Despite this, the percentage of women elected to parliament is less than 8% not even reaching double digits. With 50 seats already reserved for women, the total percentage of female representatives stands at 20.3% (Dhaka Tribune,2019).

PR can result in fairer representation for women. A series of studies since the mid-1980s have confirmed that more women have usually been elected to parliament under party list proportional representation (PR) than under majoritarian electoral systems (Norris, 1985; Matland, 1998; Reynolds, 1999; Kenworthy and Malami, 1999; Siaroff, 2000; 2001). This pattern holds both within established democracies and also across a broader range of developing societies worldwide. Within proportional electoral systems, the mean district magnitude has commonly been found to be a particularly important factor, with more women usually elected from systems using large multimember constituencies (Norris, Pippa, 2006).

PR is likely to increase the number of women in parliament. Furthermore, PR fosters ongoing challenges to major parties, and thus complements democratic pluralism. It is instructive that women in countries that have introduced PR are three times more likely to win seats through PR than to win in the first-past-post system.

Proportion of seats held by women in national Parliament in Bangladesh from 2010 to 2019



Source: https://www.statista.com/statistics/730649/bangladesh-proportion-of-seats-held-by-women-in-national-parliament/, accessed on March, 2020

Fourthly:

There are huge chances of manipulation for winning the elections in the FPP system. In this system election results cannot accomplish acceptability. Defeated party always accuses against winning party and boycott parliament. In 2018 last national election Jatiya Oikya Front (JOF) chairman Kamal Hossain said a "vote robbery" had taken place across the country. "We reject the reported results of this farcical election and are calling for a fresh election under a nonpartisan government," (VOA,2019). This system also tries to abuse the voting process in many ways. But the PR system serves a direct link between the local vote outcome and whether or not the local political leader gets elected to the parliament. Hence local political actors would not have as much stake in the local voting outcomes as they have now. Not only that, the decrease in pressure for manipulation and abuse of the voting process will undercut the importance of muscle power and money (Daily Star, 2014). So, we can look forward that under PR elections will free, fair and credible as well as election results will acceptable to constituencies, winning even defeated party also.

Fifthly:

In democratic system the members of parliament play very significant role. Unfortunately, Political parties are often nominated candidate in the basis of their money and muscle power, at present retired Civil-Army bureaucrats get priorities instead of skilled, devoted, grassroot candidate. Through FPP system is often leading to the nomination of election unskilled and wrong kinds of candidate. In consequence of our parliament only increase in numbers and becoming unintelligent. In other words, state goes far away from public welfare. Moreover, in politics there are creating apolitical culture which is restrict to institutionalize democracy in Bangladesh. A switch to the PR system may also help nomination and election of better, more qualified candidates to the parliament. The PR system, by contrast, may create greater scope and justification for nominating better quality candidates. People all over the country would vote for the same party list. Hence parties would feel pressured to include in their lists people with national reputations. It is generally people with exceptional qualities who are likely to be nationally reputed. Through a feedback process, the PR system may encourage people of better quality to join political parties and to be active in them (Daily Star, 2014). In proportional representation system, a candidate does not require absolute majority of votes to be elected. **Instead,** they must obtain a quota of votes, which is calculated in accordance with a statutory formula (know Your Council,2020).

Sixthly:

Since restoration of democracy after the fall of the autocratic regime led by Ershad in December 1990, none of the political parties was able to form the government on their own. Therefore, major parties started banking on small or name-only political parties, giving birth to the politics of alliance (The Daily Star,2018). At present political parties often have a tendency to form political alliance which became our democratic culture. After passing a long and tough journey, our political parties have become confined now within two great alliances, Awami League (AL) led 14 party alliance or Mohajote (with Jatiyo Party) and Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP) led 20 party alliances. Both the alliances are distinct differently by people as per their own political ideology as well as manifesto. Under the existing FPP election system, most of the smaller parties are become a part of these two alliances. Bigger parties reach out to small political parties to extend their alliance before elections and to strength their position in parliament. They attempt to dazzle voters with the number of small political parties in the alliance irrespective of their registration or their leaders and activists (bdnews24.com,2018). On the other hand, in an alliance few small political parties achieve election seats and most of the time smaller political parties draw in few votes. Consequently, small parties cannot be a part of ‘power’ without alliance with major parties. Faithfully translate votes cast into seats won, and thus avoid some of the more destabilizing and ‘unfair’ results thrown up by plurality/majority electoral systems. ‘Seat bonuses’ for the larger parties are minimized, and small parties can have their voice heard in the legislature. Adopting PR would finally allow for free and fair competition between all political parties. Supporters of minor parties are forced to either waste their vote on a candidate who cannot win; vote for the lesser-of-two-evils among the major party candidates; or not vote at all. In short, single-member district elections are rigged against minor parties and serve to unfairly protect the major parties from competition (Douglas J. Amy (2016).

4. Conclusion

This article examines whether a switch from the current Winner Takes All (WTA) system to the Proportional Representation (PR) system which can gives fair representation to all political parties and racial minorities. This system can reduce lack of participation of electorates in the democratic process. It can ensure more women elected and represented in the legislature. Through PR system our legislature will represent all the varieties of political opinion-not just the majority, it would not be ‘wasting’ any vote. All these issues making Bangladesh election fairer and help Bangladesh stabilize her democracy. The proportional representation system spreads in the countries of Asia and Africa, gradually outside the European countries. The system has attained popularity in this way in the entire world irrespective of developed and developing countries. The democratic countries are expecting that the foundation of democracy would stand on firm footing through this system. The culture of election in our country is filled with the notion of doubt. Though the democratic government system is introduced consistently in Pakistani period, post-liberation Bangladesh and even in the nineties the result of election faces question always on the issue of acceptability. The defeated parties have thrown the acceptability of election result into criticism in almost all the elections on the complain of sharp or acute, gross fraud. In its reaction they have boycotted parliament and made the road heated. Consequently, the parliamentary system is going to be ineffective. The opposition party is also joining in parliament session for short period to retain their membership after interval of ninety days to preserve their membership without going to the parliament to uphold public interest. Though the ruling party invites the opposition party in the parliament once again they are not taking suitable action. As a result, the opposition party is not responding. Moreover, unfortunately our electorates are losing their interest to apply their franchise, what we have seen our last national election (11th national election) as well as last city corporation election also. In order to get free from this polluted practice of political culture our election system has to be made more acceptable and people oriented. For this reason, we can introduce party list system in our country which is one of the systems of proportional representation. As a result, no party shall be able to get more seats in the national assembly by getting fewer votes. Moreover, not only the two big political parties but other small parties would get scope to represent in the national assembly by getting small number of votes. The democratic system would be established in country through this method not theoretically but in practice.

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Practical and Strategic Benefits of Banking Literacy Park in Library of Universitas Sebelas Maret, Indonesia

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Abstract
Well literate and financially inclusive community can be created through improving financial and banking literacy. This descriptive qualitative research aims to find out practical and strategic benefits of Banking Literacy Park to library users in Library of Universitas Sebelas Maret, with questionnaire being the method of collecting data. Data analysis uses an interactive model encompassing data collection, data display, data reduction, and conclusion drawing. The population of research includes students of FEB (Faculty of Economics and Business), SV (School of Vocation) and Postgraduate School of UNS, and financial practitioners. Discussion is conducted using structural functional theory. The result shows Banking Literacy Park in Library of Universitas Sebelas Maret used to find information, fulfill the need for financial and banking literacy (Goal attainment), respond to the library users' need for open and comfortable learning space (Adaptation); Library of Universitas Sebelas Maret establishes a relation with stakeholders to ensure emotional bond (Integration); the presence of literacy park can be optimized by increasing facilities, infrastructures, and holding financial and banking literacy (Latency). Practical benefit includes UNS-BNI Literacy Park in banking area as an alternative open comfortable strategic reading corner for studying, doing the lecturing assignment and final assignment, discussing, browsing internet, improving infrastructure and providing financial/banking literacy. Strategic benefit includes Banking Literacy Park providing knowledge and skill to manage money by understanding banking, investment, budgeting, selecting insurance, making decisions and opportunity of getting better life in the future. The management of UNS-BNI Literacy Park in banking area is conducted continuously to keep it existent and sustainable.

Keywords: Academic Library, Banking Literacy, Benefit, Literacy Park, Practical, Strategic

1. Introduction

Indonesia has lowest literacy rate for many years in Asia Pacific area (Amirio, 2015). Everyone should have financial literacy compulsorily. It is important to enable everyone, particularly millennial generation, to have great potential to be economic drivers, and the youth is the determinant of state's fate, so that they should take appropriate measures in financial management (Ichsani, 2020). Through a broad financial literacy, people are expected to have strong financial basic concepts and to have better financial management. The third National

Survey on Financial Literacy and Inclusion (SNLIK) conducted by Financial Service Authority (*Otoritas Jasa Keuangan* or OJK) in 2019 shows financial literacy index of 38.03% and financial inclusive index of 76.19%. The figure increases compared with the result of OJK's survey in 2016 showing financial literacy index of 29.7% and financial inclusion index of 67.8% (Otoritas Jasa Keuangan (OJK), 2019). Despite an increase in the people awareness of the importance of understanding financial literacy, the attempt of making the people aware of financial literacy still needs to be taken.

Financial literacy is the measurement of an individual's understanding on financial concepts, and ability and conviction to manage personal finance through an appropriate short term decision making, long-term financial planning, and paying attention to economic events and conditions, beneficial to improve Indonesians' welfare (Brillianti & Kautsar, 2020; Remund, 2010). Financial literacy involves knowledge on financial concepts and products; communicating ability concerning financial concepts; financial decision making skills needed; real use of different financial instruments; and self-confidence in decision making and financial action in the attempt of achieving welfare (Kemendikbud, 2017; Zait & Bertea, 2015). Financial literacy is also defined as knowledge and comprehension of financial concepts and risk, skill, motivation, and conviction to apply knowledge and comprehension in the attempt of making effective financial decisions, improving financial wellbeing of individuals and community, and participating in economic field. An individual's financial literacy will affect the saving behavior (OECD, 2006; Widyastuti et al., 2016).

Technology advance leads bank to compete with each other in providing improved digital service aiming to create easier, more comfortable, practical, and safe transaction process (Sitorus, 2019). Indonesians' behavior to achieve financial objectives tends to be short term effort in line with the predisposition of its financial objective with saving (75%.29%), financial planning (42.13%) and working/seeking for job proportions (38.36%) (Otoritas Jasa Keuangan (OJK), 2016). Bank is a financial institution dominating the payment system in Indonesia. People (public) as customers and banks should know the business it operates and the service product it offers in order to know their own rights and obligation. Financial service transactions and financial literacy education help banks market its service to the financially vulnerable customers (Mogaji et al., 2021). The factors most important to public literacy is to determine its choice in making decision to be customer are education, age, intelligence, experience, occupation, environment, and information (Dewa, 2019).

Ideally, financial literacy is given to the entire society through individual, group, institution, school, and high education. Financial literacy given in high education includes Financial Service Authority (*Otoritas Jasa Keuangan*) and micro-prudential supervision, banking, capital market, insurance, financing institution, pension fund, and other financial service institution, sharia-based financial and financial planning service industry (Otoritas Jasa Keuangan (OJK), 2016). Information on the banking sector is very important to be delivered to the campus community consisting of lecturers, students, and employees.

Library provides access to knowledge universally, but in the presence of financial literacy program, the library can teach basic concepts of financial literacy, and then library can expand these concepts and explore certain issues more in-depth, and library is an important agent in providing financial literacy to library users (Faulkner, 2016). Library of Universitas Sebelas Maret or UNS' Library is an open area in the form of Literacy Park used as studying and discussing corner, constructed owing to the cooperation of CSR and *BNI-Berbagi* program. This park is developed into Literacy Park in banking area. In this park, students are given information related to banking literacy that is adequate and sufficient to make better financial decisions corresponding to their needs and benefits more.

Financial knowledge an individual has develops into financial skills, and abilities of applying financial knowledge to daily life, and of making decisions rationally and effectively related to his financial and economic sources (Farida et al., 2021; Palameta et al., 2016). People are expected to trust financial service institutions and its product and service, after having adequate knowledge and skill. In addition to trusting the financial service industry, people should also trust its ability. The trust including trust in implementing financial activity like preparing investment and expenditure plans, arranging budget plans, and etc. (Tustin, 2010).

Financial literacy consists of some components and financial skills enabling an individual to acquire knowledge on effective money and debt management, so that financial literacy is one of the most important things an individual can do to ensure the sustainable financial stability (Corporate Financial Institute, 2021). Literacy in banking area still becomes challenge to Indonesians. As known, based on a study conducted by *Transparansi Internasional Indonesia* (TII) (Indonesian International Transparency), the corruption rate in Indonesia is high. In relation to banking practice, many bank officials use their access to commit corruption crimes in the banking sector, including misusing the customers' savings (Dunlop, 2021).

Financial Technology has facilitated and speeded public financial transaction process, particularly fund borrowing, giving solutions to financial problems, and providing digital technology innovation for financial service, thereby producing processes or products related to providing financial service (Aaron et al., 2017; Frost & Turner, 2018; Saksonova & Kuzmina-Merlino, 2017).

A system consists of interrelated subsystems. In structural, functional theory, subsystem is called GAIL system: goal-attainment, adaptation, integration, and latency (Parsons, 1951). This research aims to analyze the benefits and strategy of Banking Literacy Park in the Library of Universitas Sebelas Maret, Indonesia.

2. Method

This descriptive qualitative research used questionnaire as the technique of collecting data. Data analysis employed an interactive model of analysis encompassing data collection, data display, data reduction, and conclusion drawing/verification (Miles, Matthew B; Huberman, 1994). (Miles, Matthew B; Huberman, 1994) Population of research consisted of students of FEB (Faculty of Economics and Business), SV (School of Vocation) and Postgraduate School in UNS, but to obtain more valid data, a financial practitioner was made main informant to obtain data needed by the author. This research is related to UNS-BNI Literacy Park located in Ir. Sutami Street Number 36 A, Kentingan, Surakarta, Central Java, Indonesia.

3. Results

UNS' Library was established along with its main institution's establishment. UNS was originally a merger of 10 (ten) private colleges and IKIP Negeri (State Teacher Training and Education Institute) in Surakarta. The university was originally named Universitas Gabungan Surakarta (UGS), so that its library was also the combination of some libraries called UGS' Library centered on Pagelaran Keraton Surakarta, while the Library of IKIP Negeri remained to occupy a building in Purwosari, Perpustakaan PTPN in Tirtomoyo, and Perpustakaan STO in Manahan. The main duty of UNS' Library is to realize library partnership and integration as the library-based independent learning source center, partnership as library-based independent and collegial research center, partnership with all institutions and civitas academica (academic community) with first-rate service independently and collegially, and partnership as publication and collection media center with various scientific advantages for all civitas academica and library users at the national level in 2020, South East Asian level in 2025, and global level in 2030 (Universitas Sebelas Maret, 2016).

UNS' Library provides some services: book borrowing/returning/extension, library-free card, on-the-spot reading service, SNI corner, BI corner, Taiwan Corner, Demographic Corner, *Angkringan Pustaka*, reading corner, and reading space in Literacy Park. The vision of UNS' Library is to be first-rate and superior learning source, research, community service, and information service centers in the world in 2030. Meanwhile, its mission is to be a partner of all civitas academica and library users as library-based independent learning source center, as library-based independent and collegial research center, as first-rate service partner independently and collegially supporting the implementation of *tri dharma perguruan tinggi* (three pillar of university), and as publication and collection media center with various scientific advantages for all civitas academica and library users at national, South East Asian, and global levels.

UNS' Library in collaboration with BNI through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of *BNI-Berbagi* Program built UNS-BNI Literacy Park. CSR of BNI-Berbagi program aims to improve cooperation between UNS and BNI annually. This program also is BNI's contribution to the State in providing literacy service for UNS.

UNS' Literacy Park is built to improve service to the users of library in this case civitas academica of UNS to access electronic books and journals comfortably in cool and free-wifi space, thereby facilitating the students to access internet service. The realization of UNS-BNI Literacy Park construction includes: 4 gazebos, 1 *joglo*-shaped gazebo for the meeting hall, and parking lot. This park is developed in banking area, as the follow-up of cooperation that has been established between bank and UNS. It is confirmed by IJ, one of BNI's staffs, stating that this presence of Literacy Park indicates BNI's attention to the State, in this case providing literacy service in UNS. Open space or area such as Wifi zone in the Library of *Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember (ITS)* is applied to UNS' Library through the construction of UNS-BNI Literacy Park.

UNS' Library attempts continuously to develop service and infrastructure. Currently, UNS' Library provides some service: scientific library clinic located in the 1st floor, SNI Corner in 5th floor, Taiwan Corner in 4th floor, BI Corner in 1st floor, Javanese collection, ancient manuscripts, Dutch Books, Japanese Books in 3rd Floor and library café in basement. In addition, UNS' Library also holds come literacy activities to improve students' literacy through workshops, webinars, and training. Another service developed in UNS' Library is the development of Literacy Park. The Chairperson of UNS' Library stated that literacy park is embodied into creative and innovative park that can be utilized by civitas academica of UNS to study and discuss anything comfortably and in relaxed condition.

Activities conducted in the park are, among others: reading books, doing lecturing assignments, discussing, browsing the internet, and joyfully. The intensity of UNS-BNI Literacy Park use is very varying. MZ, a student of the Department of Accounting in FFB of UNS, stated that he uses this park twice a week to discuss, to do lecturing assignments, to study in groups, and to do final assignments. Meanwhile, KJ, a student of Department of Marketing Management in SV, said that he has never utilized the park, because when would use the park, the gazebos available have been full.

Facilities available in UNS-BNI Literacy are 4 gazebos, electricity installation, free-wife, 1 meeting hall, and parking lot. There are some students doing activities in this park every day. The gazebos available are still limited in number, so that many students who want to use this facility cannot get seats. The limited number of gazebos in the park can be seen from the response to Questionnaire given by YC, a student of Department of Accounting Education of Teacher Training and Education Faculty, in which he thought that the number of gazebos available is still limited, so that it is always full.

Millennial generation is inseparable from laptop and cellular phone use in learning. To supply the students' need for electricity to use laptops and cellular phones, this park is equipped with electricity installation interconnected in each of gazebo and likewise, wifi service for free. EA, a student of the Department of Accounting Education of Teacher Training and Education Faculty, stated that free-wifi service is available in UNS-BNI Literacy Service. This wifi availability facilitates the students to access a variety of information and knowledge they need, and they can find e-book, e-journal, scientific work, online newspapers, and other information.

The presence of UNS-BNI Literacy Park has some supporting factors: strategic location in the center of campus, on the left of UNS' Library building, between the main roads toward various faculties in UNS Campus. This park can be seen obviously by the students crossing the campus road. LD, a student of the Economics Department of Faculty of Economics and Business of UNS, stated that he could see the presence of the park when she crossed the road toward his faculty, the park can be seen "on the edge of road."

UNS-BNI Literacy Park is located on open area (space), surrounded with shady trees, offering cool and fresh weather. NM and AD, students of Development Economy Department of Faculty of Economics and Business of

UNS states that UNS-BNI Literacy Park has chic, cool, cozy, and clean location. This park is an alternative place for students to study and to do lecturing and final assignments.

Because it is located in an open space, there is no rule binding just like that applying to library, such as prohibition of drinking/eating, and rule of dressing, prohibition of wearing t-shirt and toilet sandal. Students can utilize this park as comfortably as possible. It indirectly practices the students to be more responsible for their lecturing assignment and maintaining the existence of public facilities.

As it is located in open area and can be used freely by all students, this park is always crowded with students. Therefore, the students who need quiet learning circumstances will be disrupted by the noise occurring in this park. VN, a student of Marketing Management Department of SV UNS, feels less comfortable to study in this park, as it is located close to the road on which many people passing by.

In digital era today, internet is a basic need. To students of UNS who are majority millennial generation, internet becomes a basic need to support the learning process. UNS-BNI Literacy Park is equipped with wifi facility provided for free, using Single Sign On (SSO). EA, a student of Accounting Education Department of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of UNS, said that wife is available for free in UNS-BNI Literacy Park. This wifi availability facilitates students to access a variety of information and knowledge they need to find e-book, e-journal, scientific work, online newspapers, and other information.

In addition to supporting factors, some constraint is found in utilizing UNS-BNI Literacy Park, related to unstable wifi network, thereby disturbing the internet network. EA, a student of Accounting Education Department of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of UNS, stated that the wifi is unstable in this park. This unstable wifi is due to internet network throughout UNS environment managed by one provider, Information and Internet Technical Implementation Unit of UNS, while it is accessed by all civitas academica of UNS. Thus, the internet use is overloaded, thereby disturbing its connection.

Gazebos available in UNS-BNI Literacy Park are still very limited in nature. Four (4) gazebos should facilitate thousand students existing in UNS; it is of course not sufficient. Many students want to utilize the gazebo, but they often do not get an opportunity of doing so, as it has been full. KJ stated that the number of gazebo is still very few, so that they should be in queue. Each time they want to use gazebo in the park, it is always full. The opened design of gazebo makes the students uncomfortable in the rainy season, as water will enter into gazebo. KH, a student of Management Department of Faculty of Economics and Business, water will enter into gazebo during rainy season in the meeting hall of UNS-BNI Literacy Park.

There has been no officer who is responsible for the management of UNS-BNI Literacy Park; therefore library users will find difficulty to contact the officer when they need some help. The cleaning service officer in this park is under the management of University's cleaning service officer, so that they pay less attention to this park's cleanliness. It is confirmed by SU, a student of Taxing Department of SV, stating that the floor of Literacy Park is dirty, sometimes rubbishes pile for several days and no cleaning service officer takes them.

No suggestion box or complaint box is available related to the utilization of UNS-BNI Literacy Park. It makes the students complain difficultly. Such condition makes students accept the available situation and facilities, as they cannot express their desire for the better development of this park.

The advantages of financial literacy are: giving understanding on financial literacy, managerial implication, and investment advice, and reinforcing knowledge and skill to manage finance in Covid-19 crisis situation, and increasing the number of people who utilize financial service products and/or services (Anand et al., 2021; Miller et al., 2009). It is in line with a financial practitioner, LK from Surakarta, stating that through financial and banking literacy provided in Literacy Park, students can learn directly from financial and banking practitioners. In lecturing process, students learn from books or theoretically only, but through this literacy, students can analyze the theory they have learnt in the lecturing process and its implementation in work realm and society.

Generally, students of Faculty of Economics and Business state that through having financial literacy, some advantages can be obtained: abilities of making better financial decision, of managing finance and debt effectively, of achieving the financial objective more readily, of minimizing cost through better regulation, of avoiding financial stress and anxiety, of making wise decision when choosing insurance, loan, investment, and credit card, and of planning effective structured budget (Corporate Financial Institute, 2021).

Include improving comprehension about financial products offered by formal financial institutions and avoiding investment activity in non-credible financial instruments; to institution, the advantages include improving competition or health competition level between financial institutions; to the state, the advantages include encouraging economic growth and poverty alleviation, reducing income gap, and improving financial system stability (S. Soetiono; Kusumaningtuti ; Setiawan, 2018).

In long term, our economic power and health will be determined by how good we educate our youths today. We should teach them dollar value. It is my assignment, as a financial consultant, to help make students financial literate, so that they have the ability to make effective financial decisions in their life (Tschache, 2009). Financial education for long term saving and investment is a special education for finance and consumer protection providing knowledge, skill, and abilities of managing and saving in order to minimize the risk among the students, to make saving and investment decisions (Atkinson & Messy, n.d.).

Considering the elaboration above, UNS-BNI Literacy Park developed in banking area has some benefits in providing knowledge and skill, choosing insurance, loan, and investment, using credit cards, and preparing effective structured budget, and improving the making decision ability in the financial area wisely.

Figure 1: UNS-BNI Literacy Park

4. Discussion

In Library of Universitas Sebelas Maret, Indonesias a social structure and a social institution lies in a social system consisting of interrelated and united elements in balance. Thus, it emphasizes on regularity and ignores conflict and change occurring among the users. Each structure in social system is functional to others, and otherwise if it is not functional, it will vanish or disappear by itself. Therefore for it to be integrated, it should be supported by values, norms, and rules of UNS' Library.

Goal attainment is a functional requirement resulting from the action taken to achieve the main objectives. Banking Literacy Park in UNS' Library can be used by library users to search for information, one of which is to fulfill the need for financial and banking literacy. Generally, the students of Accounting Department of Faculty of Economics and Business state that financial literacy is knowledge and skill in financial management and making decisions, while banking literacy is how to manage money by understanding banking, investment, budgeting, and using the knowledge in daily life (Stack, 2006).

They state that financial literacy is how to manage money by understanding banking, investment, personal financial management, and budgeting, and banking literacy is knowledge, skill, and belief influencing attitude and behavior to improve the quality of decision making and financial management in the attempt of achieving wellbeing. The existence of banking-area literacy park can be used to acquire information related to financial and banking literacy (Lubis, 2020).

Adaptation is a must for social systems to face their environment. Library users should adapt to the existence of banking literacy park and its need. UNS' library responds to the need of library users for an open and comfortable learning space by providing Literacy Park. This existence of park is developed in banking literacy field.

The benefit of banking literacy park lies in its ability of improving the movement of economic wheel (personally) because through financial literacy an individual can understand how to manage personal finance by determining priority scale. Financial literacy facilitates an individual to manage and to make decisions and to take any opportunity to get better life in the future. In addition, financial literacy facilitates the community to use financial product/service and to understand benefit and risk it generates (Tomic, 2018).

Financial literacy makes the finance organized better to avoid bad possibilities such as excessive debt proportion compared with the income. Financial literacy also can improve the state's economic quality, as more people financial literate (Ahmad & Shah, 2020). Considering the statement above, it can be concluded that library users and libraries should perform adaptation in the attempt of fulfilling the need for banking literacy information.

Integration is the organizer of components composing it. Library establishes relationships with stakeholders, including BNI, educators, teaching staff, librarians and public. It is conducted because integration made to ensure the presence of emotional bond in social system in order to provide solidarity and volition to cooperate. In other words, it should maintain the relationship between other three schemes (adaptation, goal attainment, latency). UNS' Library has provided a variety of e-journal and e-book collections in many disciplines, but collections in banking area are still limited in number. In addition, technology development requires the change in some areas, including banking area, in which bank makes innovation in providing service, such as digital finance. It requires the public to use financial technology.

Financial technology is applied to online payment systems. Non-cash transactions, investment, withdrawal, transfer, and online loans will not be accomplished without payment system. Digital financial technology is a combination of finance and technology facilitating the financial economic activities in daily life, that in turn will make the activities effective and efficient (Tsindeliani et al., 2021).

Latency (normative problem of motivation to fulfill) is a system that should complement, maintain, and improve individual or cultural patterns. The existence of literacy parks can be optimized by increasing facilities and infrastructure and providing financial and banking literacy.

UNS-BNI Literacy Park developed in bank area is located in open strategic area; this park is an alternative place for students in addition to some places that have been available in each of faculties. The existence of literacy park in bank area in the green environment becomes a space supporting reading activity and building knowledge without compulsion. This park is accessible to everyone (Park University, 2021). The location of UNS-BNI Literacy Park is visible and accessible to students coming from many faculties in UNS.

UNS' Library improves its services continuously, one of which is through providing open learning space, UNS-BNI Literacy Park, in which BI Corner is available to support banking literacy, but there has been no specific-banking website link available. It reduces the students' opportunity of improving banking information. Thus, UNS' Library should provide banking website and increase e-journal collection in banking area. The strategic benefit of Banking Literacy Park includes providing knowledge and skill to manage money by understanding banking, investment, and budgeting, to choose insurance, to make a decision and to take opportunity of getting better life in the future. The management of UNS-BNI Literacy Park in banking area should be conducted to keep its existent and sustainable.

5. Conclusions

Considering the result of research, it can be seen that the practical benefit of UNS-BNI Literacy Park in banking area includes its function as an alternative reading space, open, comfortable, and strategic space, the place for doing lecturing and final assignments, for discussing, and browsing internet, improving facilities and infrastructure and providing financial/banking literacy. The strategic benefit is that Banking Literacy Park provides knowledge and skill to manage money by understanding banking, investment, and budgeting, choosing insurance, to make decisions and to take opportunities of getting better life in the future. The management of BNI-UNS Literacy Park in banking area is conducted continuously to keep it existent and sustainable.

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Weak Local Parliament's Role: A Case Study of the West Nusa Tenggara Provincial People's Representative Assembly, 2009-2014

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Abstract
This study examined the weak of local parliament (DPRD)'s role in serving legislation, budgeting, and supervision function as well as its low of women's representation. It is assumed that DPRD position as part of regional government regime –instead of parliament one, make them impossible to play the role utmost. DPRD is frequently compared with the central parliament (DPR): Despite being the same legislative bodies, however, they have different roles and authority. In contrast to this assumption, rules by law normatively conceive that role of DPR and DPRD are remains the same. Their difference is just the level of they represent. Therefore, DPRD's inability to conduct normative roles pursuant to provisions of laws is important to explain. Taking the provincial DPRD of West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) as the case, this study attempted to disentangle weak of the local parliament, despite having broad normative authority. Several causes related to lack of human resources, lack of technical support and facilities, are the constitute factors that contribute DPRD's weak role. Meanwhile, the strong patriarchal culture and the fierce of electoral competition have been contributing to low women's representation in DPRD. The study is expected to provide a significant contribution to the academic debate on the non-optimal existence of DPRD. Also, a debate on women in politics, particularly with respect their representation in the local parliament.

Keywords: Local Parliament, Central Parliament, DPRD, DPR, West Nusa Tenggara, Local Politics, Women in Politics, Women's Representation

1. Introduction

It is hard to imagine democracy without a political party and its extension in parliament. Democracy developed throughout the world nowadays, including Indonesia, is an indirect democracy or representative one. People vest their mandate to the entrusted representatives through a general election, and the political party becomes the main entrance. In the Indonesia context, a general election conducted every five years provides political parties and selected representatives for people's interest, with constitutional validity.

Adding the political party, local parliament (DPRD) is also an important pillar of democracy. Unfortunately, local legislator members do not play their role and function to the utmost. Indonesia Democracy Index (IDI) reveals the DPRD contributes poor score to democracy. According to the 2009-2014 IDI data, three indicators revealing roles of DPRD in: (i) allocating education and health budget, (ii) establishing regional initiative regulation, and (iii) vesting recommendation to executives' body; get a poor score. The same is true for the indicator of percentage selected women of total provincial DPRD members (Rauf, et al., 2011; 2012; 2013; 2014a; 2014b; 2015). This state has not improved according to the latest IDI measurement in 2019. Those four indicators were remained to have a poor achievement (Statistics Indonesia, 2020).

This study observed the weak role of DPRD in serving its legislative, budgeting, and supervisory function. Some of which were perceived that in relation to local executive and legislative, DPRD is a part of government regime instead of parliament. This unideal position leads to further consequences for DPRD roles because of its ambiguous position: DPRD is a supervisory body on the one hand, but also becoming a part of regional government on the other one. Contrary to this assumption, Law Number 27 of 2009 normatively mention that the authority and function of central parliament (DPR) and DPRD are not completely different. It just reflects the degree of representation they represent.

The inability of DPRD in fulfilling their normative roles as stated in the law is interesting to be explained. Why do they not able to act their role properly? What kind of factors does result in such a problem? Three main issues related to the role of DPRD in generating regional initiative regulation, undertaking educational budget allocation, and submitting a recommendation to the government, are well explained in this study. Additionally, low of women's representation in DPRD is also being a concern in the discussion.

At least, there are two crucial reasons for examining ideal roles of the local legislature in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB). First, this study may contribute to an academic debate on the presence of local parliament and their non-maximum roles. A flourishing assumption related to its position as the local government regime –that leads the ideal roles to be dysfunctional, needs to be confirmed clearly. Secondly, discussing NTB is completely relevant since it is the province with the worst democratic performance in 2009-2014, as stated by IDI. Four indicators with poor scores regarding DPRD's role as well as women's representation in DPRD, were contributed to this situation. The discussion is limited in the period of 2009-2014 for the "apple to apple" data comparison. IDI indicator was changed in 2015, so that, it is important to have measurement with the same indicators in the mentioned period.

1.1. Literature Review

The study used roles of legislature members as the theoretical perspective, particularly roles of DPRD as local parliament. As its origin, parliament is derived from the word "parler" meaning to talk. Parliament is a place to talk or discussing any problems related to the state (Budiardjo, 2008). The parliament represents people's sovereignty in realizing civil supremacy. An effective parliament depicts high political participation and contestation, applying mechanism of check and balances between the executive and legislative power, as well as implement a good political accountability –portraying strong relation between politicians and their constituents.

Speaking the main functions of parliament or legislature, Rod Hague et al., (2016) stated at least six main functions of them in various countries. In summary, these six functions are including: first, to represent and promote the interests of those who elected them, usually under a party label (representation function). Second, is to debate public issues and provide a public airing for matters of public importance (deliberation function). Third, is to be responsible for reviewing, amending, and approving new laws --whatever the source of bills (legislation function). Fourth, is to approve or reject the annual budget prepared by the government (function of authorizing expenditure). Fifth, is to form the government –generally in most parliamentary systems, government emerges from the from the assembly and must retain its confidence (function of making government). And, sixth, is to be responsible for overseeing or scrutinizing the executive, keeping it accountable (oversight function).

In line with the Hague's conception, Budiardjo (2008) formulated the main functions of the legislature more simply, i.e., legislation and supervision. The function of the legislation refers to the authority of the legislature to stipulate policy and provide laws. To perform this function, the legislature shall be granted with the amendment rights (to modify the draft of laws proposed by the government) as well as the budget ones. Meanwhile, the function of supervision includes authority to control the executive body. For this, the legislature members have some rights to support the function, namely: right to ask, interpellation, inquiry, and motion.

Confirming the above conception, regulation framework of the Indonesia's constitutional system also recognizes the main functions of the legislature. In the local context, particularly at the provincial level, DPRD has three main functions, namely: establishment of regional regulation (function of legislation), budgeting, and supervision. These three normative functions are applied by legislature members as the implementation of people's representation, as stated in Article 96 Law Number 23 Year 2014.

1.2. Some Relevant Studies

Many scholars have already studied the existence of parliament and its roles, both in domestic, regional, and global context. There are at least three domestic studies that are relevant to this research. Hanan (2014) analyzed the relation between the legislative and executive body in Indonesia in the presidential system of multiparty upon reformation era, 1998. He refuted some basic political theories stating that legislature and government would not be able to establish an effective relation. Even, within a multiparty of the presidential system, they are more likely to fail (Linz, 1994; Shugart & Carey, 1992). In Indonesia's case, the multiparty of presidential system does exists and has normally been happening. Despite the fact coupled with political tensions, but there was no deadlock between the legislative and executive in their relations. Mechanism of the collective agreement as to the formal construction by the laws, political party coalition, and culture of consensus are factors of sustaining the relation between the legislature and government. They worked good relatively and be able to come out of the political deadlock.

Sulistyowati (2015) analyzed the performance of provincial DPRD members of Central Java in 2009-2014. The DPRD was quite productive in forming local regulations (*perda)* during the period. There were 67 *perda* have been produced: 16 *perda* in 2010, 5 *perda* in 2011, 17 *perda* in 2012, 16 *perda* in 2013, and 13 *perda* in 2014. However, as the report said, the DPRD was less satisfactory perceived by the people since there were still remaining drafts of *perda* which was already planned but cannot be finished. Their roles in budgeting and supervision functions were also deemed ineffective.

Meanwhile, another study concerning women and politics in NTB was conducted by Yanuarti (2012). She analyzed women's political struggle in NTB amid the marginalization and dominance of patriarchal culture. Based on the 2009 general election result, the study showed the low representation of women in DPRD that is far different from the expectation and national average. Besides, the low of women's participation in politics. According to the writer, this situation was triggered by several factors. Externally, a political party has not opened wide opportunities for women to have a strategic position within leadership level or being policy makers. In the political parties, policy making process and its decision are often disregard women's interests, besides the lack of family and social support for women engagement in politics. Internally, there is a lack of women's interest in participating in politics. Besides, commonly, they do not have the ability to provide optimal time to be engaged in political party activities. The women also have limitations in capital access to support their interest in political activities since patriarchal culture is very dominant in the society.

2. Method

This study was conducted using qualitative approach. Even though the writer applied certain statistical operations in processing data of democracy index collected from Statistics Indonesia (BPS), mainly the research tends to use the qualitative one. Refer to this type of research, the existence of informant is very important to grab information as much as possible from various sources (Moleong, 1993). This effort is important to describe more meaningful of social behavior (Neuman, 2000; Crotty, 1998).

Case study was selected as the research inquiry. While NTB province was chosen as the research locus due to its worst performance of democracy stated by IDI. I also decided to limit the period of study in 2009-2014 considering "apple to apple" data comparison. The data was collected using various procedures of data collection method. Despite, the selection data was conducted considering prominent and appealing specific cases. It is just because impossible to carry out an intensive investigation on all cases (Gerring, 2007).

Data was collected by review of documents and in-depth interviews. Some secondary data collected during this research were include data of Indonesia democracy index, government regulations --both of central and local level, and other's relevant regarding the roles of DPRD. While the primary data were collected by in-depth interviews. Six members of former DPRD NTB members (period of 2009-2014) were selected as the key informant purposively. They are: Lalu Sudjirman (Head of DPRD period of 2009-2014 from Party of Functional Group/*Partai G*olkar), Burhanudin (DPRD member from People's Conscience Party/*Partai Hanura)*, Endang Yulianti and Made Slamat (DPRD member from Indonesian Democratic Party of Struggle/*PDI-Perjuangan),* Johan Rosihan (DPRD member from Prosperous Justice Party/*PKS)*, as well as Baiq Indah Puspitasari (DPRD member from Party of Functional Groups/*Partai Golkar).*

3. Result

3.1. Lack of Women's Representation in DPRD

Representation constitutes one of the main functions of legislature whether at central level (DPR) or local level (DPRD). As women are a group with a considerable amount in NTB, their representation in DPRD membership should become an important consideration. To note, number of populations in NTB Province in 2009 was 4.434.012, consisting of 2.119.538 males and 2.314.474 females (Statistics Indonesia of NTB, 2010). In line with these number, according to voter list issued by General Election Commission (KPU), total voters in NTB for 2009 election were 3.241.948. Female voters were 52 percent (1.681.494), while male voters were 48 percent (1.560.454). This fact reinforces the argument that women's representation in DPRD is crucial due to its larger numbers.

From the candidacy side, there was total of 920 legislative candidates. It marked by 612 of them were male, while women candidates were 308 or around 42 percent (Statistics Indonesia of NTB, 2011). They competed to get 55 seats in provincial DPRD. Based on the voting result on April 9, 2009, 15 political parties succeeded to gain seats of DPRD in NTB Province period of 2009-2014. Out of the 55 elected provincial DPRD, 49 were male and 6 were female, as seen in table below:

Table 1: Female Members of NTB Provincial DPRD (2004-2009)

No	Name	Origin of the Political Party
1	Baiq Indah Puspitasari	Party of Functional Groups *(Partai Golkar)*
2	Istiningsih	Prosperous Justice Party *(PKS)*
3	Endang Yulianti	Indonesian Democratic Party of Struggle *(PDI Perjuangan)*
4	Lale Yaqutunnafis	Crescent Star Party *(PBB)*
5	Wartiah	United Development Party *(PPP)*
6	Romani	Democratic Party *(Partai Demokrat)*

The elected female members of DPRD merely reached 10.9 percent of total DPRD members. The number is lower than percentage for women elected in central legislatures (DPR) that reaching of 17.86 percent. Patriarchal cultures as well as fierce of internal and external competition are one of the main causes of this situation.

3.1.1. Strong Patriarchal Culture

Construction of patriarchal culture flourishes in society. A study of UNDP (2010) noticed that masculinism is one of basic barriers for women to participate in politics. Social values in the society are more likely to require women not to participate in politics or government. Besides, political activities are perceived as male's sphere. Women are positioned to be handier in domestic sphere rather than public.

Culture of patriarchal is deeply rooted in the NTB society. Their religious nature makes "Tuan Guru" as the role model, affecting society's way of thinking. *"As if men possess the world,"* stated Burhanudin, a politician of Hanura Party (research interview, 24-09-20). This was brought into daily political practice. Despite there have been conscientious endeavors to provide gender education, in fact, it is hard for society to deal with the changes. According to Lalu Sudjirman, Head of NTB Provincial DPRD 2009-2014, the existing culture seemingly places women in some narrow circumstances particularly to go out of the house (research interview, 28-09-20). Surely, this significantly interfered women, as political activity is completely dynamic and demands time flexibility. *"I am a man, there is no problem with me staying anywhere. For woman, there is such a limit, unlike man,"* said Made Slamet (DPRD member during interview, 28-09-20). Moreover, as this local culture has been associated with religious doctrine, its influence has been becoming more powerful.

Reputedly, in the NTB society –particularly in Sasak tribal community, there is a social stratification called "Triwangsa." This cultural system has been deeply rooted, addressing that male descendant are perceived as lineage determinants. Females shall be deemed as the second-class in society. Female's names are frequently not mentioned: They are recognized by their identity tied up with their father, husband, and son. This culture indicated the low of women' status in society. Unfortunately, this is exacerbated by patriarchal religious understanding. Commonly, practice of early marriage and polygamy by religious figures, is deemed as a part of Islamic teaching (Yanuarti, 2012).

On one hand, affirmative policy set out by the government through laws has been reasonable. Provisions of 30 percent of women quota in the candidate list (as set forth in Law Number 2 of 2008 on Political Parties) have required parties to endorse women's participation. However, this policy cannot easily lead to increasing women's representative, due to tough patriarchal challenges.

For the female legislative candidates, they deeply felt the patriarchal culture. Endang Yulianti (member of DPRD from PDI-P) stated that parents and husbands are factors influencing women in performing activities in politics. Endang said, *"Whether she is allowed or not, including (among others) her culture; consequently, there is dependence either on parents or husband,"* (interview on 27-09-20). Moreover, financial dependence on husbands may also pose an obstacle to women in politics. This cannot be separated from the management of the household economy in which a husband is assigned as the head of family and accountable for family's economy. Shortly, when a woman participates in politics and to run as a legislative member, she requires extra endeavor due to fierce struggle in the political pathway.

Baiq Indah Puspitasari, Endang's colleague from Golkar Party, felt the same way regarding low acceptance of women in politics. The people seemingly do not believe in women's political capabilities as politicians are more likely to be dominated by men. In addition, female legislative candidates should also tackle with social customs in which political election is determined by husbands (interview, 29-12-20). This situation makes they have more difficult to convince people. Of course, they have done affirmation that female voters may tend to choose female candidates; however, the "drive" of female voters depends on males unfortunately.

3.1.2. "Fighting" Inside and Outside Political Parties

As has been mentioned, rules by the law stated the provision of affirmative action to support women's representation. However, the policies are only adopted by political party just to drop the law's requirement. There are no strenuous efforts from them to implement advance affirmation to improve women's representation in legislature. Female candidates' placement on top running number of the list, for instance, remains to be a dispute in internal of political parties. Pursuant to 2009 General Election, female candidates of all parties obtaining running number 1 of fixed candidate list (DCT) were just 18.3 percent. The candidate obtained running number 2 of DCT by 34 percent, and so forth. Most of female candidates obtained running number 3 within DCT by 61 percent (www.pemilu.asia, 2017). According to Piliang, it is a crucial issue since running number of legislative candidates' placement completely affected voters' psychology (Kompas.com, 2008).

Candidate running number in the list has a significant effect for their electability. Referring to study of Center for the Political Studies Universitas Indonesia (Puskapol UI), there is a tendency that the elected member of legislative in 2009 General Election, most of them were candidates in first, second, and third running number. It happened either for the central and local legislature (Surbakti, et al., 2011).

To illustrate for the position of provincial DPRD, 41 percent of elected women candidates were put in running number one, 20 percent were put in number two, 24 percent were put in number three, and only 14 percent were put in number four. This data showed, despite the 2009 election was held using the proportional system with open list, running number still has a significant effect (Surbakti, et al., 2011). In the context of NTB, five of six female legislators elected in 2009 General Election, were candidate with the running number one, i.e.: Wartiah, Baiq Endah Puspitasari, Endang Yulianti, and Romani. This definitely confirms how significant the running number was. It seems a quite strong correlation between candidate's electability and their running number in the list.

Six elected female candidates of provincial DPRD of NTB coincidentally have a good political backup. They have close relationship with the party elite, or, they have been engaged in politic for a long time. Wartiah, for instance, was the head of NTB provincial board of PPP. Baiq Indah Puspitasari was a treasurer of NTB provincial board of the Golkar Party (besides, she is a daughter of the former NTB Governor Lalu Serinata). While Endang Yulianti (PDI-P), Istiningsih (PKS), and Romani (Democratic Party) were committee of the political party in NTB respectively. Interestingly, Lale Yaqutunnafis was not political administrator of PBB. But, she was promoted as the legislative candidates as she is relative of M. Zainul Majdi or well known as Tuan Guru Bajang, the Governor of NTB at the time.

In addition to struggle for candidacy running number in the internal of political party, women candidates should also tackle with actual tough political contestation, externally. The situation becomes more complicated after the Constitutional Court revoked provisions of Article 214 Law Number 10 of 2008 setting out stipulations of selected legislators. Any endeavor of affirmative action performed ranging from: quota stipulation of 30 percent legislative candidates, arrangement of candidates list accommodating zipper system, were not relevant anymore. Previously, zipper system has been set forth in the law. This provision was canceled since the Constitutional Court's decree on the elected candidates shall be determined by majority votes. Political party's control and contribution to the stipulation of legislative candidates through affirmative actions were in vain. Its further effect, this policy encouraged free competition among candidates and promoted practice of money politics as they had to compete freely to obtain most votes. Financial backup was constituted as an important factor during the competition to acquire the votes as much as possible. More than a few of candidates used any way possible to win, including in prohibited ways.

For women politicians, their endurance to "fight" were often limited. They were unusual to use harshen method, money politics spending, as well as doing fraud. According to Endang Yuliani, fraudulent actions did by politicians for gaining votes as much as possible, did not think of by her. Even though, it played a significant effect to save the votes. If their votes was not properly controlled, it could be leakage and passed to others. Vote buying in the counting process has been a "normal story" from election to election. Women candidates, according to Endang, could not fight against the vote buying (interview, 27-09-20).

Baiq Indah Puspitasari felt the same. Based on her twice election experience in 2009 and 2014, the most sensitive problem was during the votes counting process. Candidates should be “all out” so that the votes collected in the polling station (TPS) was not decreased. As a women politician that upholding morals, she was not wanting to elected in a fraudulent way (interview, 29-12-20).

It is interesting to discuss Baiq Indah. She is a daughter of Lalu Serinata, former Governor of NTB (2003-2008). She did not deny her parent’s influence on her political career. Despite being perceived she could win using the influence of her parent’s support, from her side, control by the political party’s still remained important. We can imagine if Baiq was just a common woman candidate who should fight to collect votes amid fierce internal and external competition. The result could be different. And, she experienced it when participating in the second elections in 2014. Without any political party’s support, she failed to defend his seat.

3.2. DPRD’s Role in Implementing Legislation, Budgeting, and Supervision

3.2.1. Lack of Initiative *Perda*

Legislation is one of the DPRD's main functions. More productive DPRD members in producing local regulation *(Perda),* they are more effective in carrying out their roles. It is important to emphasize the initiative *Perda,* which initially comes from the DPRD members to match with the requirement of local democracy. It is assumed that a better quality of democracy related to the optimum implementation of DPRD's legislation function. Unfortunately, it did not occur to the provincial DPRD of NTB during 2009-2014.

There are three types of DPRD's decision in NTB, namely: local regulation (*perda*), DPRD’s decision, and the decision of the head of DPRD. Number of *perda* produced by provincial DPRD of NTB during 2009-2013 is summarized in Table 2. They produced 54 *perda* within five years, with the average 10.8 a year. Out of the such number, there were two *perda* constituting initiative from the DPRD members, i.e.: *perda* on (i) road utilization and (ii) corporate social responsibilities (Global FM Lombok, 2014).

Table 2: Number of Decisions Produced by Provincial DPRD of NTB (2009-2013)

Type of Regulation/Decision	Year				
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Regional regulation	10	10	14	9	11
DPRD’s Decision	18	24	23	19	16
Decision of Head of DPRD	9	3	1	0	2
Number	37	37	38	28	29

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS) Provinsi NTB / Statistics Indonesia of NTB (2015)

The lack initiative of DPRD members in resulting initiative *perda* indicates the flaws within the legislation function. Whereas, it is very important as the response toward local necessities. According to Burhanudin, lack of DPRD's human resources is the cause of this situation. The DPRD has broad scope of work while its members have limitation in their capacity. So that, the DPRD was completely dependent on local government since the government has a better understanding toward issues in development sectors, technically. In addition, the DPRD members were mostly new --just have been elected and appointed based on the election result, coming from various backgrounds. It was never been easy to unify DPRD members, considering they are local parliament which politically accommodates various interest due to their difference of political affiliation (interview, 24-09-20).

The other issue which hampered DPRD members to promote initiative *perda* is lack of technical support from experts. Unlike DPR as the central parliament who attains support from the experts for its every single member, DPRD does not have this facility. The fact, provincial DPRD of NTB was only provided with experts at fraction level. One fraction is one expert. Regardless numbers of members in a fraction: three, seven, or even ten legislature members; there is only one expert. So, we can imagine: How do we expect such DPRD members to work optimally and resulting initiative *perda?* In a cynical tone, Johan Rosihan –a DPRD member from PKS, engaged us to understand the situation. *"We were left to work by ourselves. We served as the legislature members, becoming experts for ourselves. We were really taking care of ourselves. When will we be able to think about initiative perda?"* said Johan during the research interview (01-10-20).

The DPRD's lack of initiative in proposing local regulation as well as their dependency on local government, are seemingly considered as the common understanding among DPRD members. They felt as the legislature are supposed to be supervising or monitoring government's work. Or, they felt that the legislation function has been completed once they finished discussing local regulation's drafts with the government; even though the initiative came from such local government. The reason was, the government is deemed to be more competent in arranging the draft of local regulation. The existence of state apparatus (ASN) as the core of government resources has been taken into account. The government with their state apparatus has an advanced knowledge and experience to handle various sectors of development continuously (interview with Endang Yuliani, 27-09-20).

Made Slamet conveyed an intriguing point of view. According to him, political parties have contributed with the lack of DPRD's role in resulting initiative *perda.* They have a subjective –and also political reason, in terms of assigning DPRD members. DPRD member's placement was not based on their appropriate area of competence. Political parties have a strong veto when they appointing the elected legislature members into DPRD's body of institutions: The head, the deliberative body, the commissions, the legislation body, the budgeting committee, the honorary committee, or any others. Political parties play an essential role in assigning their representatives in the process of forming the mentioned entire DPRD's institution.

The main relevant questions are: What does the political party's consideration in assigning job for their representative in DPRD? Do they have already consider competency as the basis on the assignment? If so, how long such DPRD members will be occupying positions on the suitable job based on their expertise? Whereas, we really know that there is always rotation among DPRD members. And, in doing so, it is usually occurs based on political considerations. The DPRD members rotation, to somewhat, will have affect to the DPRD members' performance in supporting legislation function. Moreover, if the placement of fraction members is not based on proper competencies, professionalism of such DPRD members will be completely questionable. It is not an exaggeration if DPRD members are called as the "amateur politicians." They would never be a "professional politician" due to the above-mentioned reasons.

3.2.2. Lack Recommendations to the Executive

Supervision to the government is one of the local parliament's main functions. There are plenty of aspects of supervision as referred to the Article 96 of Law Number 23 of 2014. One of which, is that providing recommendations to local government based on people's aspirations they have collected during constituents visits within the recess period, or through public hearings.

Building a good relationship between the local parliament members and their constituents is important. Corresponding such issues, the mandate theory promoted by Ranney (1993) is relevant. According to him, there is a mandate that binding relation between local parliaments (as "representatives") and constituents (the ones being "represented"). The authority of these 'representatives' is provided due to 'mandate' from the 'ones being represented.' Any action carried out by local parliament members as the people's representatives shall be in line with people's aspirations. So that, it is important for local parliament members to have close consultation with their constituents.

IDI measurement recorded the lack provincial DPRD of NTB in terms of supervising function, as presented in the following figure:

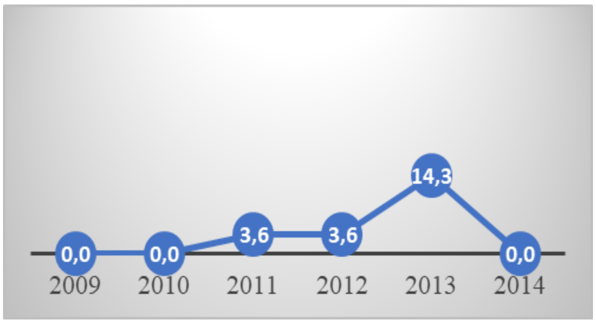

Figure 1: Indicator Scores on the Provincial DPRD of NTB Recommendations to Executives (2009-2014)

Source: Democracy Index of NTB, 2009-2014

The constituent's visit by provincial DPRD of NTB members was carried out quarterly. It was usually six days in every single visit. The visit aims to absorb people's aspirations. After completion of the visit, DPRD members have to develop a report and usually was formed into a compilation one based on the constituency cluster *(daerah pemilihan).* The report then is assumed as the recommendation from provincial DPRD to local government as the executive body.

According to Johan Rosihan, DPRD recommendation to local government will never be effective as long as DPRD's positions are still considered to be a part of local government. Changing of political landscape at the local level which stage in favor of governor's power reinforcement --due to being elected directly by people, make DPRD recommendations is harder to accepted. If any, there is no obligation of the governor to follow such recommendation because this kind of positioning (interview, 01-10-20).

This situation led DPRD members to behave pragmatically. “It's no use, anyway,” said Johan. He made an example of himself when being a member of provincial DPRD of NTB in 2009-2014. He proposed a recommendation draft on the social assistance to protect local rice in Lombok. There was a long political process in DPRD at the time. The process was then cut off due to a regulation from the central government. The regulation stated that rice is a free commodity that may be handled by the Minister of Trade, which means it is under central government authority. By this, Johan felt that DPRD's role is not necessarily strong. It is because of so often such local recommendations have to fall through once encountering the regulations from central government. Consequently, DPRD members tend to behave pragmatically (interview with Johan, 01-10-20). Likewise, Burhanudin also interprets DPRD recommendation to the executive as a mere submission of people's proposal which will then be responded through aspiration fund or *"dana aspirasi"* (interview, 24-09-20). So very pragmatic, and it is happened so far in regards of DPRD members and their constituent's relationship.

Although, it is true that channeling people's necessities is one of DPRD's functions, the meaning of recommendation –as a form of monitoring from local parliament to the executives, is actually deeper than just 'channeling.' If ever the relation between DPRD members and its constituents is built out of pragmatic interest, it would surely strengthen the image of local parliaments are merely as the 'broker' of the government' aids. It is a kind of protracted misunderstanding. Although, we cannot entirely blame the DPRD members due to the high demand from the people toward fulfillment of pragmatic needs. DPRD needs to interpret recommendations in a more essential way as a form of broader supervision to the governance practice.

3.2.3. Suboptimal in Struggling Education Budget Allocation

Budgeting is one of the local parliament's main functions as stated in Law Number 23 of 2014, Article 96. Their partiality on the pro-people budget they arranged indicates a more democratic implementation of budgeting function. Thus, it is important to assess their commitment and effort in allocating government budget, particularly in two fundamental sectors: education and public health. It is important considering the both are basic needs of the people.

This study took education budget as a way of viewing provincial DPRD of NTB's commitment in struggling for education budget. It is specified by the constitution: “The state prioritizes the budget for education to a minimum of twenty percent of the state budget and of the regional budget to fulfill the needs of performing national education” (Article 31 paragraph 4, The 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia). The assumption is that, if the education budget be significantly increased with an appropriate allocation, citizens will be able to enjoy better education.

It is in line with Law Number 23 of 2003 regarding National Education System which specifies that central and local governments shall provide services and then guarantee the implementation of quality education for every citizen without discrimination (Article 11 paragraph 1). Thus, it is important to measure up the extent of local parliament’s commitment toward fulfillment of citizen’s educational rights by allocating budgets using the existing local fund sources. The bigger budget allocation for education as contained in regional budget (APBD), the bigger local parliament’s partiality will be toward people because education is an essential right owned by every citizen.

According to IDI data, the index achievement regarding the role provincial DPRD of NTB in struggling allocation of education budget in the period of 2009-2014 was relatively poor. It was ranging from 5 to 13 percent, as being shown by the following figure:

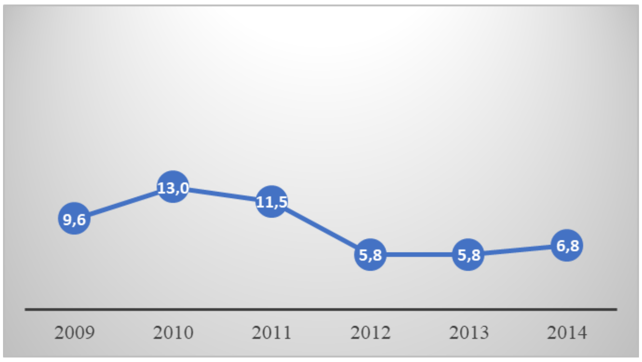

Figure 2: Indicator Scores on the Role Provincial DPRD of NTB in Allocating Education Budget (2009-2014)

Source: Democracy Index of NTB, 2009-2014

The figure indicates that allocation for the education budget within APBD did not even reach 20 percent as specified by the constitution. Burhanudin explained difficulties that was faced by the government due to limited of regional income, while they have enormous number of necessities. By taking such issue into consideration, the DPRD members behaves realistically as they deal with the issue regarding proposal of programs submitted by local government. Therefore, even though the provision of education budget with a minimum of 20 percent allocation is mandatory, a tight fund became a determining factor to the occurring such budgeting politics (interview, 24-09-20).

According to Johan Rosihan, it is impossible to allocate education budget be under 20 percent in the politics of budgeting. It is considering that the regional budget (APBD) is arranged together by DPRD and local government, and then approved by the Minister of Home Affairs. *“All the affirmative budgets in the law will be examined at the regional budget stage, so it wouldn’t be approved if the requirements haven’t been fulfilled. It will be returned back with clarification notes,”* said Johan (interview, 01-10-20). Nonetheless, he understands the perspective on the importance of seeing this educational budget issue in a clearer way. Education budget should refer its allocation under management of education office, and does not belong to the “educational” components of any other departments such as training department, department of capacity enhancement, etc.

It is not uncommon that the education budget (in APBD) comprises all the educational components existing in any department, combined to satisfy such 20 percent allocation requirement, and then submitted to the central government for approval. This type of DPRD budgeting politics should be criticized. APBD must contain the real budget for education sector, according to the provision of law. The government needs to formulate a clearer definition of education budget. *"Never let the visit activities to Jakarta, or any other kind of trip done by such offices, be included in the education budget just because they work under the education office to satisfy the 20 percent requirement,"* said Johan (interview, 01-10-20).

The intention of going back to the essence of education budget allocation is also agreed by Made Slamet. He does not want that such education budgeting, as has been specified out of a good deed in the Constitution, be utilized as a "guise" to accommodate anything irrelevant. It seems to be related to education, but in fact it does not have to do with education (interview, 28-09-20).

The affirmative policy regarding 20 percent budget allocation for education, as specified in the Constitution, should not become a political jargon. It means that governments --both at central and regional level, are obliged to provide a better education guarantee as a fulfillment to citizen's basic needs. The way politics of budgeting that is "outsmarts" the 20 percent of education budget allocation for getting its approval from the central government must be corrected. This phenomenon might be common in many areas of Indonesia. We need a collective movement nationally to advocate this. So that the 20 percent budget allocation for education could to reach its essence.

3.3. Identifying Local Parliament's Ideal Role in Laws

Actually, if we investigate the law, there is no difference between the positions and roles of Central Parliament (DPR) and Local Parliament (DPRD). The following would be the summary of normative provisions from both parliaments according to Law Number 27 of 2009. It is the legal basis for the implementation of the forms and positions of the DPR and DPRD that were elected in the 2009 General Election. The comparison between these forms, position, function, job, and authority, as well as the rights of both of parliaments (DPR and DPRD) is as follows:

Firstly, it is about the form and positions. Both of DPR and provincial DPRD share a similar forms and positions but at different levels. DPR is composed of the members of political parties who participated in general election and elected through such election (Article 68), and it also applies to the composition of provincial DPRD (Article 290). If DPR constitutes a house of people's representatives and serves as a state institution (Article 68), then provincial DPRD is a regional house of people's representatives who serves as the element of provincial government administrator (Article 291).

Secondly, it is about the functions. Both parliaments, DPR and provincial DPRD, have three main functions in legislation, budgeting, and supervision. It is just that, for the DPR, these main functions are carried out within the framework of people's representation (Article 69), while for provincial DPRD are carried out in the framework of people's representation at provincial stage (Article 292).

Thirdly, it is about the tasks and authorities. Due to level differences, both representative institutions are different in terms of tasks and authorities depending on their level of representation. The scope of DPR 's authority is broader than that of the provincial DPRD. For example, the authority to approve the appointment of high offices such as ambassadors, Indonesia Audit Board (BPK), Judicial Commission, etc. (Article 71). This kind of authority is not provided to the provincial DPRD because the representation level is just at provincial stage (Article 293). Nevertheless, both of DPR and provincial DPRD are no different in terms of legislation task implementation. They have an obligation and authority to form regulations with the governments. At central level, DPR cooperates with the president to create laws; while provincial DPRD creates laws with the governor.

Fourthly, it is about the rights. Both of DPR and provincial DPRD are entitled to file interpellations, to conduct investigations, and to convey opinions. But the difference lays on the implementation to these three rights. They are applied on different subjects depending on the representation level.

Taking into account the overview on comparison between DPR and provincial DPRD positions, functions, tasks, and authorities, as well as the rights described above, we can conclude that there is no essential difference between both type of parliaments. It will be an intriguing and important thing to emphasize because provincial DPRD is often imaged as a part of regional government, and so it is included as part of regional regimes of such government instead of parliament one. Notwithstanding this type of dichotomy, the results on confirmation regarding the normative formulations and provisions in both parliaments (according to the constitution) are no different.

4. Discussion: Hoping for an Ideal Role from the Weak Local Parliament

DPRD as the extension of political parties at local parliament, are expected to take roles in implementing basic functions while materializing women representation. But in reality, as depicted in this research, the role of DPRD as the people's representative at the local level, is not as ideal as the expectation.

In spite of supports from the election laws regarding alternative policies for the provision of female candidate's quota in amount of 30 percent, the result of such election did not seem to successfully reach our hope. According to the 2009 general election, the number of elected female candidates to assume positions in provincial DPRD of NTB was just 10.9 percent, very much lesser than that of the DPR at the central level (18 percent). A dominant patriarchal culture has always been with the local community, in which religious people from the main ethnic groups there such as Sumbawa, Lombok, Sasak, Bima, or Dompu became the factors to the women's low electability.

Women were also challenged by a difficult electoral competition, both at internal and external side. At the internal, a strong relation shown by the position of candidate's running number and the position of the elected candidate became an internal struggle where female candidate shall attain "special" positions in such political party to get a top running number. Upon this kind of internal struggle, female candidates have to "fight" with the real condition at the field which is prone to the vote count manipulation.

Female candidates, in a totally open electoral competition, shall encounter male candidates who are instinctively more prepared to "fight" than themselves. Being a "heartless king" is simply not the nature of a woman. This statement was collected from female legislative candidates. They compete, but in a more refined way. If this premise is accepted, meaning that female candidates are more capable in upholding healthier political etiquettes, that women representation will even be more essential than ever. The elected candidates will at least pass the selection through a better morality.

As for the legislation, supervising, and budgeting functions of provincial DPRD of NTB for 2009-2014, these things were also considered as non-optimal. Local Legislative's position as a part of regional government regime would be the fundamental cause to it. Indeed, in Indonesian constitutional system, local parliament serves a part of regional government along with the executive institutions. Politically speaking, that might bring consequence where local legislative's position would not be as strong as the parliaments at the central level (DPR). If our central government recognizes a concept named "Trias Politica" which suggests that state power is divided into three parts: executive, legislative, and judicative with separated authorities; a different story applies to the governance in regions. It was due to, once again, the fact that local parliaments are considered to be part of local government.

A logical consequence resulted by this kind of political position was that the local parliament might attain roles that seem to be ambiguous. On one hand, this position constitutes a form of legislation institution because local parliament members are directly elected by people through legislative election. On the other hand, this position constitutes a part of provincial government administrator with the governor. And here lays the root of the problem. As a part of regional government administrators, provincial governments are dependent on the central in terms of legislation production. As a part of regional government regime, provincial parliament and provincial government are subject to the higher-ranking law, limiting such creativity of local parliament members in promoting initiative *perda.* It is because every initiative will be determined as to what extent does it comply with central government's policies. Further consequence resulted from local parliament and local government's positions, which occupy "one single chamber" altogether, serving as one government administrator, is that the local parliament would not be seen as a regional legislation body anymore but merely an institution that establishes regional rules.

This "ambiguous" position constituted a major obstacle to the Local Parliament in conducting their legislation roles. Every time this local parliament faces a demand to act more productively in producing initiative *perda,* there will automatically be a difficulty to fulfill such demand because, by default, local parliament's position (as a part of regional government) contained political consequences which turn such thing into impossibility. For example, there was a lack of budget for them to work optimally, a lack of support from experts, or a change in the status of this legislative body to a mere institution that establishes regional rules. These issues represent local parliament's "dwarfism" and "helplessness". They did not work the way a parliament supposed to do even though, normatively, provincial parliaments share similar tasks and authorities with central parliament; but with different scope (only at provincial level).

But it is important to note that all these technical issues which serve as the inhibiting factors could not simply abort Local Parliament's normative obligation, which is to be optimal while implementing the legislation functions in their regions. In the context of this study, this function is a hope laid on the local parliament; that they will be able to produce initiative *perda* significantly.

Provincial DPRD of NTB did not seem optimal in fighting for the policy regarding affirmative policy of 20 percent allocation for education budget in APBD. If ever such ratified education budget percentage reached 20 percent, the calculation was not purely for education budget even though the affirmative policy mentioned in the constitution has been supported by a great intention of improving education quality as the basic needs of the people. In practice, all this time, the already ratified 20 percent allocation usually includes other education components in non-educational departments. Budgeting for trainings, staff's capacity enhancement, or any other non-educational components in training departments from regional government have always been included in APBD calculation. Of course, it seems deceptive, and it does not in line with the passion toward such affirmation due to not being directly related to an effort of improving education quality. It does not exclusively occur in the province of NTB but commonly happens in various regions of Indonesia.

The next implication resulted from this ambiguous position is that the role in providing recommendation to the executive seemed to be failing as well. These recommendations, which were submitted by the Local Parliament prior to the visit to the constituent bases during a recess, were not more than just a fulfillment toward project proposals. Constituents were asking for many kinds of financial things, and then the local parliament will try to provide it using aspiration fund. Or, constituent's proposal will be "recommended" to the related financial management departments. Unfortunately, this kind of practice grows even stronger due to our people's pragmatic behavior.

The relation between local parliament and people, which was a kind of pragmatic connection, will never seem favorable in a deliberative democracy. Ideally, local parliament's function in representing people should describe a more substantial relation: It is about how people's aspiration could be absorbed and reflected in the regional policies instead of a mere momentary fulfillment toward financial things.

Indeed, it is easier to build a pragmatic relation instead of imagining an interest aggregation process to be included into a complicated policy. With this scheme so-called aspiration fund, the calculation became easier: The fund will be completely divided for the sake of proposals submitted by constituents. Once we found the formulation, the fund will be distributed and administered: and we are done! On local parliament's side, there was a spending or budget absorption -which is also a part of administrative performance measurement. On people's side, they felt satisfied to attain direct aids as the answer to their short-term and pragmatic necessities that have been proposed. Physically speaking, achievements regarding this pragmatic relation are way easier to measure.

In theoretical context, to practice something that has already existed is very much safer than risking the authorities that have been attained. During such situation, to give up the represented ones seems essentially more logical than losing their positions because, once they lost their positions, they could never implement this representation function anymore, even with the simplest way (White & Cooper, 2015). Although such situation might obviously emphasize the fact that local parliament's role was not compatible with the task of establishing a more essential relationship framework.

5. Conclusion

We need to restate that DPRD as the provincial parliament's position as a part of regional government is the main cause of local parliament's non-optimization in implementing their roles and functions. Them not being recognized as a parliament regime makes their own roles and function to not be as flexible as that of the central parliament, even though our constitution provides both parliament with a similar mandatory, and let our local parliaments to carry out their ideal roles while implementing the legislation, budgeting, and supervising roles according to the representation at provincial scale.

Considering that central parliament (DPR) and local parliament (DPRD) would normatively share the same mandatory, it would not be a mistake if we expect our DPRD at provincial level to work optimally the way DPR does as a representative agency at the central level. Nonetheless, we usually compare DPRD to DPR regardless of the institutional context that is relatively different. Speaking about the implementation practice at the real life, our constitution's mandatory regarding local parliament's normative roles has not been supported by adequate supporting factors. Things like human resources, support and facility (such as an expertise within every member of parliament), funding, etc., have something to do with local parliament's inability to optimally carry out the roles and functions as instructed by the constitution.

But these issues having been declared as the cause of local parliament's non-optimization are more like an "excuse". Normatively, a provincial DPRD should be able to produce initiative *perda* because it is the core activity as a regional legislator at provincial level. Local parliament should also be able to implement the budgeting and supervising functions in a better way once they have the proper support. Local government should be encouraged to allocate budgets for the provision of adequate facilitations -such as for the provision of experts so the local parliament could play the role more ideally as instructed by the constitution.

Regardless of the issue complexity faced by the local parliament, it will never abort the mandatory from the constitution which requires our local parliament to work optimally as central parliament does. Again, normatively, there is no significant difference between these two legislative bodies. But most people have already perceived local parliament as a local government regime, and that local parliament does not reflect the real characteristics of a legislation body while it does not have to be normatively. This kind of perception must be removed and corrected.

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Why We Lack in Basic Sanitation? An Assessment of Challenges in Ajmer and Solution Strategies

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Abstract
Purpose of the study: The paper attempts to find the answer to the question – Why do we lack in basic sanitation? What are the reasons for it? Paper introspects the challenges encountered in sanitation services for Ajmer district in Rajasthan. It identifies the key bottlenecks of the sanitation system to the ground realities of implementation for a non-metropolitan city. The article also outlines the way forward which is suggested to make the sanitation system in the city more available to all. Methodology: The paper is drawn on policy document analysis, urban sanitation policy and other Indian government promotional materials on urban sanitation, Indian municipalities, and a number of public-private partnerships. The paper reviews the extant literature on urban sanitation and thereafter examines challenges met in Ajmer district of Rajasthan. Main findings: It emphasizes the major challenges of access to sanitation, lack of private sector engagement, lack of regulation and standardization, treatment of wastewater and septage, low infrastructure, weak institutional framework etc. The Paper also proposes suggestions for meeting these challenges so that a proper system of sanitation may emerge. Applications of this study: This study will be useful for all those agencies who are involved with sanitation system governance. The paper contributes to the literature by addressing a neglected theme of investigating the challenges and their probable solution strategies about Ajmer district of Rajasthan. The study will provide background of various challenges faced in various cities in Indian perspectives and how they can be dealt by proposed suggestions. This study will be beneficial in the area of sanitation systems, urban governance, etc. Novelty/Originality of this study: This study is significant in highlighting the type of challenges and what could be possible solutions in Indian perspectives with special reference to Ajmer.

Keywords: Urban Sanitation, Urban Sanitation Policy, India, Ajmer, Sanitation Challenges

1. Introduction

The challenges of sanitation exacerbate that many urban residents living in most unplanned and undeserved areas have no access to sanitation. While substantial progress has been made in water and sanitation services but still lack these basic sanitation services. Around 2.4 billion people lack access to basic sanitation services, such as toilets or latrines. (United Organisation, 2020). As the world is going to urbanise more, basic sanitation requirements will also increase stupendously. Well organised urbanization will sharpen the need for sanitation. As per UN Report on The World's Cities in 2018, by 2030, urban areas are projected to house 60 percent of people globally and one in every three people will live in cities with at least half a million inhabitants (The World's Cities in 2018, 2018). Just three countries- India, China and Nigeria- together are expected to account for 35% of the growth in the world's urban population between 2018 and 2050. India is projected to add 416 million urban dwellers, China 255 million and Nigeria 189 million (World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision, 2018). Three out of ten people (2.1 billion people in 2015) do not have access to safe drinking water, six out of ten (4.5 billion people in 2015) do not have access to safely managed sanitation services, and one out of none (892 million people) practice open defecation (Water and Sanitation, 2020).

Water, Sanitation & hygiene collectively known as WASH, is the most important aspect of community well - being as it provides shield to hazardous health impacts, enhances life span and acts as advantageous agent for the economy. To protect the environment and human health, sanitation is currently deployed as way to contain and scientific treatment / process of human excreta, to save water bodies that are major sources of drinking water across regions. Expansion in sanitation services is imperative as Poor WASH is the main attribute for faecally – transmitted infections (FTIs) including cholera and diarrheal disease, which remains the one of the leading causes for mortality among children below the age group of 5 yrs. Safe WASH is a prerequisite for maternal health and new-born babies. Safe WASH practices are quintessential for preventing degradation of water resources which affects access to drinking water, especially poor vulnerable children and their families.

Effective WASH interventions are critical for saving lives and therefore, it becomes the centre of 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals as SDG 6 – "Ensure access to water and Sanitation for all." SDGs were adopted by on 25th September 2015 by 193 countries to end poverty, protect planet and ensure prosperity for all of us part of the new sustainable development agenda (CSR to achieve SDGs, 2017). A total of 17 SDGs aim at 169 targets that are set to be achieved by 2030. Although these goals are not achievable only by government initiatives but also require collaborations between the government, private sector and the civil society.

Sanitation in Rajasthan state has always been a challenge due to water scarcity, difficult terrain, low literacy and geographical widespread. However, change in state sanitation scenario was evident when rural sanitation was devolved to Department of Panchayati Raj and Rural development in 2010 which led to renewed focus on sanitation in rural areas and urban areas was catered by Directorate of local bodies at state level and incessantly, expanding coverage of sanitation services citing associated negative externalities within the health domain and beyond.

According to National Urban Sanitation Policy 2008 (National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008), 'Sanitation' is defined as "safe management of human excreta, including its safe confinement, treatment, disposal and associated hygiene-related practices." Sanitation is one of the critical determinants of the quality of human life which impacts the outcomes for public health, environmental protection and human dignity. Clean and accessible water is one of the most fundamental requisite of the world. We wish to live in world where there is sufficient of fresh water, despite this fact there are millions of people and children who die due to filthy water, poor sanitation, and hygiene. "Water-related diseases, including diarrhea, are a leading cause of death in children of developing countries. However, they can be prevented and controlled by improving access to safe drinking water and sanitation, as well as domestic and personal hygiene" (Water - a shared responsibility, 2006). Gender perspectives are linked to sanitation issues, where women and girls drop from the education system due to inadequate sanitation facilities. By incorporating women, men and children's concerns and experiences, more emphasis can be laid down on skill development, which can increase sanitation sector relevance and impact on society, to meet sector objectives.

It is estimated that 57% of urban dwellers lack access to toilets that provide a full sanitation service chain, including containment, treatment, and end-use treatment and disposal (Asian Water Development Outlook 2016, 2016). As per UN SD Goal 6 of ensuring access to water and sanitation for all across the world. "It targets for safe and affordable drinking water for all by 2030 which requires investment in adequate infrastructure, provides sanitation facilities, and encourage hygiene". It is absolutely essential to restore water-related eco-systems. As per the UN website, facts state that 2.4 billion people lack access to basic sanitation services, such as toilets or latrines (Water and Sanitation, n.d). Countries government have to invest in the sector to facilitate for clean and accessible water.

In India, structuring of the departments of Water and sanitation has been revamped from time to time. Ministry of Water resources, River development and Ganga Rejuvenation, 2014 was renamed as Ministry of Jal Shakti in 2019 with two departments i.e. department of water resources, River development and Ganga Rejuvenation and Department of Drinking Water and Sanitation. The budget speech 2020- 2021 of Finance Minister Nirmala Sitharaman on Feb 1, 2020, announced Rs.30,478 crore (Mahaprashasta, 2020) for Jal Shakti Ministry in comparison to Rs.28,261 crore (India News, 2019) in the budget 2019 -2020, which has been only marginal increase in the budget. Financial budget for water and sanitation sector depicts government and country priority for working in that particular sector.

Literature Review

Although a lot has already been done in the field of sanitation but there are many who still lack in access to basic sanitation. The benefits of tackling the challenges of sanitation are many. Better sanitation services lead to lower percentage of disease burden, advanced nutritional levels, improved quality of life, healthier environment and social and economic gains broadly to society. Astrid Hendriksen and others have stated that "user acceptance of sanitation facilities is fundamental to achieve a sustainable impact, which makes participatory decision-making methodology an essential component of the system of design and implementation. It further argues that sanitation facilities improvements are facing many challenges including lack of user acceptance of innovative technologies but this factor is generally ignored but technical experts and municipal decision makers" (Hendriksen, Tukahirwa, Oosterveer, & Mol, 2012). Djonoputro study in South-east Asia region has developed a typology of challenging environments for sanitation as a means to: assess the scale of the challenges; understand the specific issues involved in improving sanitation; identify, develop or improve sanitation technologies to cope with different environments; and to disseminate the results in the study countries, regionally and beyond. He in his findings has laid down the existing common technical findings and proposed recommendations for it (Djonoputro, Blackett, Rosenboom, & Weitz, 2010). The author identifies that the major challenge is to find ways of creating the same demand for improved sanitation as for an improved water supply. As per him behavioural change and participatory methods can be useful for encouraging involvement in the commitment (Jong, 1996). Bruijne emphasised that "in many situations low cost sanitation is the only solution, because financial resources are limited. Furthermore throws light that in principle, we need to suggest cost-effective alternatives to serve larger numbers of people and deal with a global environmental problem" (Bruijne, 2000).

Not only the low-cost sanitation measures are to be adopted rather urgent need to understand the challenges to seek solutions. Williams and Sauer study focusses on the main blockage in advancing sanitation coverage – identified at Unclogging the Blockages, is the lack of inter-sector coordination among relevant sectors as housing, energy, agriculture and health, as well as public and private actors (Williams & John, 2014). Brands underline the importance of sustainable sanitation, establishing that, raising societal awareness of sanitation problems and exploring barriers to adapt changing sanitation systems. Author identifies challenges for sanitation in the study which are waste water weight, interest losses, sewage sludge, biosolids, human health risk toxics metals and micro pollutants, which are to be meaningfully addressed (Brands, 2014).

Mason, Oyaya and Boulenour have identified challenges of the institutional arrangements for urban sanitation in decentralising context, in Kenya and proposed possible responses. In their study, they listed majorly three key problems in Kenya: overlaps and competition around sector leadership at national and devolved levels; weal incentives for county governments to commit policy attention and finance, despite devolution; and limited regulatory oversight. To proceed further with the review of literature we find that majorly similar kind of challenges across developing nations (Mason, Oyaya, & Boulenouar, 2020). As per study done in Kisumu, Kenya, the main water and sanitation challenges are inadequate, poor and deteriorating water quality, poor waste disposal management system and poor sanitation services (Kanoti, et al., 2020). These are the challenges which we are still facing till date in India as well. Although much has been worked out in this area but still much more is left to be completed for access to better sanitation services. Challenges in regard to waste disposal is a significant cause for poor sanitation services. As per the study based on extensive consultation with urban householders in Africa and Asia. On-plot systems are appropriate for low income urban areas, and should be considered as viable, sustainable technology choices. There has been a significant gulf between the perceptions of professionals and those of the community when regarding the appropriateness of on-plot sanitation in the urban context (Technical brief No.61 : On-plot sanitation in urban areas, 1999). Author discusses the key challenges that continue to marginalise the sanitation sector like institutional framework, cost, monitoring, technology selection etc. Study states that 'sanitation programmes suffer from the unsettling habit of 'reinventing the wheel' in determining their strategies and institutional options' (Shordt & Snel, 2002). Searching for solutions to sanitation few policy recommendations have been suggested by authors. Municipalities should be allocated funds regular monitoring, management of municipal wastewater in line with National and Provincial Environmental Regulations must be ensured etc are some of the long-term recommendations (Khalid, 2020). Country case study of 2010 identified key to the improvement in sanitation services among deprived urban neighborhoods were working in collaboration and developing partnerships, financing water and sanitation improvements, using information to drive local action and scaling up (Mulenga, 2010).

Methodology

The Paper is drawn on policy document analysis, urban sanitation policy, and Indian government promotional materials on urban sanitation, Indian municipalities, and a number of public- private partnerships. The paper reviews extant literature on urban sanitation and thereafter examines challenges met at Ajmer district of Rajasthan and the proposes suggestions to increase the pace for access to sanitation to everyone.

The framework of this paper comprises five parts, starting with the introduction. Section 2 deals with the background scenario of Ajmer, district in the state of Rajasthan, India. Section 3 examines present scheme of sanitation in Ajmer Section 4 discusses the challenges in city sanitation. Section 5 will take up way forward and Section 6 concluding remarks.

2. Ajmer City – Background

Ajmer is situated 130 km from the state capital of Jaipur and 400 km from Delhi. It is the oldest municipality in the state, established in 1869 (Tourism in Jaipur, n.d.). Despite its long-standing history and cultural significance, the city lags on multiple parameters related to Sanitation and Solid Waste Management. In recent years, the city has been selected for major urban national schemes like the Smart City Mission, Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT) and Heritage City Development and Augmentation Yojana (HRIDAY) (The smart City Challenge - Stage 2).

Swachh Bharat Abhiyan emphasizes on management of solid and liquid waste, wherein provision of sanitation is essential to all. With onset of SBM2.0 which primarily focuses on sustainability of safe containment and processing of human excreta is adding another dimension far and beyond, after attaining the threshold level of open defecation free. Recycling and reuse of black and grey water highlights the need for sustainable use of water as a natural resource and its availability.

Key emphasis of WASH initiatives is to ensure availability of the below mentioned support regarding sanitation to each citizen:

- Availability of clean drinking water by water recycling and processing
- Adequate facility for safe excrement,
- Infrastructure for proper containment of excreta,
- Transportation of faecal sludge/matter,

- Processing and disposal of faeces thereof.

To reduce the spread and prevalence of some life-threatening diseases and faecally – transmitted infections (FTIs) due to poor WASH practices, it is imperative that human contact with faeces is prevented through implementation of effective and safe sanitation practices. Thus far, the Government of India has launched various Sanitation programmes since Sanitation has remained a chronic challenge in the developing world. These programmes include" Centre rural Sanitation Programme (CRSP)" launched in 1986, "Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) in 1999 and Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan (NBA) in 2012."

Since these programmes could not be successful and suffered major slippages, Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM) was launched by the Prime Minister Narendra Modi on October 2nd, 2014, the 145th birth anniversary of Mahatma Gandhi with the objective of achieving sanitation coverage pan country in a period of 5 years i.e. by Gandhi's 150th birth anniversary (Swachhata Pakhwada, 2018). Since its inception, SBM has been defining India's urban sanitation success story, outperforming most other flagship urban schemes and managed to spur a countrywide movement in sanitation. Particularly in the state of Rajasthan, Sanitation has always been a bigger challenge due to added factors like water scarcity, difficult terrain and low literacy as compared to many other states of India, centuries old practices have become ingrained behaviour of the residents of state. However positive change in sanitation scenario of the state was perceptible when sanitation strategy was devolved to Department of Panchayati Raj and Rural development in 2010 leading to renewed focus on sanitation in rural areas whereas in urban areas, it was catered by Directorate of local bodies expanding the coverage of sanitation services while acknowledging associated many negative externalities related to health and beyond. The city has attained and retained the certification of open defecation free, the focus is now shifting towards ensuring sustainability of implemented sanitation practices which include safe containment and processing of human excreta.

3. Present structure of Sanitation in Ajmer

Improving in urban sanitation in Ajmer City has become a major challenge. Appropriate drainage system and sanitation facilities are crucial for betterment of community health and hygiene. This section comparatively evaluates the progress made in 2001 to 2011 and current status of Ajmer City on the parameters of drainage facilities, urban household latrine availability, house hold on drinking water etc.

The 2001 census population of Ajmer is 21 lakh 81 thousand 670 and it is expected to rise to about 42 lakhs by year 2021. At present 950 MT solid waste is generated with per capita waste generations rate 0.35 kg/day (Sharma, 2008). As per the Census 2011, total number of urban households were 1,10,234 out of which 1,05,245 households were having latrine facilities, which is 55 %. Solid waste management status in Ajmer, as per Municipal Commissioner of Ajmer, 60 number of wards, 210 metric tonne per day total waste generation, 25% of total waste processing whereas it is targeted to achieve 65%. Swachh Bharat Mission triggers Ajmer Municipal Corporation to achieve acceptable standard of cleanliness through scientific solid waste management. Total number of wards in the city is 60. City targets 65% to process the waste.

The above initiatives result the Ajmer cities in moving towards the achievement of Rankings in Swachh Survekshan. Ajmer city ranking pan country was:

a) 106^{th} Position in Swachh Survekshan 2018
b) 266^{th} Position in Swachh Survekshan 2019

Ajmer achievements in physically constructing individual household toilet and achieved 100% of construction as of 2019 and also achieved 100% construction of community and public toilet. Ajmer Municipal Corporation (AMC) has been participating in Swachh Survekshan from 2017 onwards and has seen rise and fall of rankings since. During its first Swachh Survekshan in 2017, Ajmer Municipal Corporation secured a rank of 226 out of 434 participants (NIUA "Urban Wastewater Management in Rajasthan", 2019). In 2018; AMC secured a ranking of 106 out of 471 cities. In 2019, the city's ranking fell to 266 out of 425 cities. The city got Open Defecation Free

Status (ODF) certification in August 2019 (Swachh Certificate for Open Defecation Free Status, 2020), and has applied for ODF++. The ODF++ status is awarded to cities having smart toilets, no open drainages, and the city should have adequate sewerage treatment plants (STPs).

3.1. Status of Municipal Solid Waste Management

In Ajmer, "the total quantity of Municipal Solid Waste generated is 240 TPD which is collected from 60 wards" (City News - Jaipur news, 2020). Due to geographical barrier there were no provision of transfer stations in the city. The waste is taken to Secondary collection points, where it is collected using a dumper placer bin lifter or tractor and loader. Ajmer Municipal Corporation is carrying out pilot projects in 7 wards where source segregation is being practiced by all the residents of the wards; it plans to expand the same across the entire city. Currently the wet and dry waste is being collected through door to door with approx. 60% efficiency. For the processing of wet waste, a windrow composting facility has been set and Material Recovery Facility (MRF) facility is being used for the processing of dry waste. The city has floated tenders for Information & Communication Technology like IoT collection app, GIS mapping, geo fencing (Ajmer Municipal Corporation Official, 2020).

3.2. Status of Waste Water Management

For management of wastewater management, there are 2 operational Sewage Treatment Plants in Ajmer at Khanpura and Ana Sagar with the capacity of 20 Million Litres per day (MLD) and 13 Million Liters per day (MLD) respectively (NIUA "Urban Wastewater Management in Rajasthan", 2019). These plants cater to around 40% of the city population. A third sewerage treatment plant (STP) is being constructed by the Ajmer Development Authority at Khanpura with the capacity of 40 Million Litres per day (MLD) commissioned to be operational by April 2020 (Ajmer Municipal Corporation Official, 2020).

"Sanitation and its value Chain Sanitation refers to the provision of facilities and services for the safe management of human excreta from the toilet to containment and storage and treatment onsite or conveyance, treatment and eventual safe end use or disposal" (Health Sanitation, n.d.). It is essential to learn the sanitation value chain or the ideal shit flow chart to understand the proper flow of faecal matter. The components of sanitation value chain include, to capture or access to toilets and its infrastructure, storage or collection of faecal matter, conveyance or transportation of faecal sludge, treatment and reuse or safe disposal.

The collection and transportation of faecal sludge is done by empaneled desludging operators, which provide on call services to residents to clean their septic tanks. It is understood that 6 desludging operators make about 2 trips per day (about 5000 litres each trip) coming to around 10,000 liters per day. These desludging operators, using suction machines transport the faecal sludge to either of the sewage treatment plants (STPs). The desludging operator vehicles are installed with GPS facility with an ICT monitoring system. Septage is here co-treated with sewage, as the city does not have Faecal Sludge Treatment Plants (FSTP) and a very few households are connected to sewerage network, which is one of the major challenges faced by the city. After co-treatment, the solid parts of the faecal sludge are used for land application (Ajmer Municipal Corporation Official, 2020).

It is significant to mention that the awareness level about correct design specifications for the construction of septic tanks, as per the Central Public Health and Environmental Engineering Organisation (CPHEEO) guidelines is very low in every individual household (Sanitation for All (An assessment of sanitation services in Ajmer), 2018). Thus, utilization of Information Education and Communication (IEC) and Behaviour Change Communication (BCC) tools to bring about behavior change, and awareness is indispensable (Ajmer Municipal Corporation Official, 2020).

4. Challenges in City Sanitation

Following are the challenges which have been tabulated, during implementation of sanitation strategy for the city of Ajmer:

1. **Access to Sanitation** – The most important question to healthy sanitation is that maximum number of people must be having access to sanitation. While implementing sanitation strategies in Ajmer, it was observed that much of the population in the urban city has been habitually using open urination. Due to inadequate maintenance of community toilet and public toilet, people have not been able to use them. Inadequately maintainenance of community toilets and public toilets was also due to insufficient funds. In order to maintain them in operational, it was necessary that some kind of financial sustainability have to be developed.
2. **Lack of private sector engagement-** Sanitation strategies implementation will accelerate if private sector engagement is more emphasized in the whole picture. Benefits of private sector engagement are many like it will enhance operational efficiency, will allow government to focus on core competencies, risk will be shared, provide access to skills and expertise etc. It becomes a social responsibility of private organisations as well to contribute in national welfare activities. As author indicates that the importance of corporate social responsibility and its role in community service has immense (Khan & Al Mamari, 2016). But in Ajmer there has been lack of private sector engagement. Mainly because of motivation and its connection in terms of profit margins and return of investments. It is also because of the limited capacity to engage the private sector and also because of regulatory concerns. There are challenges for private sector as well when they are engaged for eg: delayed decision making of government, non-standardization and non-transparent tender processes.
3. **Lack of Regulation and Standardization** – There has been absolute lack of regulation and standardization for construction of on-site sanitation system in Ajmer. Although there is much need of legal regulations and standardization. When designing a latrine, it is strongly recommended that local sludge accumulation rates should be measured. As it is suggested that maximum sludge accumulation rates for wastes retained in water where degradable and cleaning materials are used is 40 liters per person per year and wastes retained in water where non degradable and cleaning materials are used is 60 liters per person per year etc. Therefore, designing a latrine is strongly recommended (Franceys, Pickford, & Reed, 1992). In Ajmer no such standardization and regulation were implemented leading situation to be grosser. Private desludging operators must function under some regulatory body to make their work accountable. Lack of on-site sanitation systems data poses another challenge to the establishment of better sanitation facilities in the area.
4. **Treatment of wastewater and Septage** – Septage management in comparison to conventional sewerage system is much better as water requirement is less, capital cost and operational and maintenance costs are low along-with implementation challenges and technical expertise required is also low (Luthra, Bhatnagar, Matto, & Bhonde, 2017). We are aware that sewerage systems serve majorly big cities but the treatment of waste water and better practices for faecal waste and septage management is significant but must be mandatorily implemented. But still in some parts of Ajmer dangerous conventional practices like dumping of faecal waste management in open grounds is highly unhygienic and threatening to health. Biggest challenge is the awareness about the Septage management system or sanitation chain which consists of faecal waste and how it flows from one system to another – from containment to emptying and transport of faecal waste, treatment and disposal & utilization of output for example as manure. Treatment of waste water is characteristic of septage management system. There are different technologies for waste water treatment and can be used for agricultural manure if treated properly.

   Rather this is the major challenge that we lack waste water reuse policy. Some countries of the world like Singapore are using these policies and are managing with shortage of water and other difficulties. Along with this, there is much needed heed to be paid on developing potential for treating waste water and septage. Overcoming these challenges will bring health and prosperity not only to Ajmer but also to the whole country.
5. **Low Infrastructure and Coverage**: There is an important bridge to bring closer the results of better sanitation in the country but low infrastructure and coverage emerges to be one of the major challenges in Sanitation system in Ajmer. More number of sewer networks has direct impact to well being of the people but it seems to be difficult to achieve as it bears lot of financial and operational costing in it. In case these hurdles are being met, space constraint are the one which cannot be met

until and unless government and other institutions provide full fledged support for waste processing and constructing sewer network. The problem is further complexes when waste treatment facilities are in scarcity. Strong need for improving collection and transport of faecal sludge is required in whole of Ajmer district. In order to built and overcome these problems it's absolutely essential to invest energies at enhancing faecal sludge and septage management (FSSM) chain by upgraded treatment and co-treatment facilities. Generally, in this region faecal sludge collection and transportation facilities are not on requirement basis but hover upon norm basis, which actually should not be on, this basis.

6. Improved conditions of waste management do require support from all levels individual, community and governmental support then only objectives can be achieved. Ajmer faced challenges at source segregation, processing, collection and transportation
7. **Weak Institutional Framework and lack of capacity** – Institutionally to set up a proper septage management system, we need to realise that Ajmer is absolutely week in structural institutional framework rather not only Ajmer, but the country itself faces this challenge. For achieving objective of proper sanitation services in any of the area, it is essential to have proper coordination between various governmental and non-governmental institutions and agencies associated in the process. Ajmer and various administrative blocks uni-formerly confront non cooperation and non coordination. Urban local bodies are restricted and restrained by limited technical expertise and potential of capacity building. In order to sway away with these problems, smooth coordination is crucial between all levels vertically as well as horizontally. There is a need for standardized frameworks for administration and execution across all wards.
8. **Sustainable Financing** – Financial planning is the soul of any project and when objective is of better sanitation services then it has to sustainable financial planning. Such planning which can help to find out sustainable means and ways for continuity of such large people interests for a longer duration. If planning at operations and maintenance has not been done in systematic manner then this will not be able to lead to larger interests of sanitation for public. Ajmer district suffers from short term plans and investing on ad-hoc basis, which a wrong methodology for developing basic services of sanitation in the city. Shortage of funds is a major stumbling block in establishing sanitation services. These financial obstacles necessitate call for Partnerships with Private sector organisations and their corporate social responsibility activities.
9. **Sustained Behaviour Change and Awareness in Public** – The most fundamental truth about successful sanitation services establishment is the support of the community in the endeavor. Awareness among people and their dedication to keep up with good sanitation in the city is the biggest support for any city's administrative success. It is indispensable for sustained behaviour to maintain changed perspectives like use of toilets and regular cleaning of sceptic tanks. Lack of awareness about good sanitation practices among public creates the biggest hurdle for achieving the target. A culture of healthy sanitation practices has to be developed. Culture develops through imitation. As author Othman points out "In the theory of imitation, Gabriel Tarde argued that society, which comprises individuals, easily imitate what is close to them, such as parents and family members and later, more authoritative individuals, such as early education teachers" (Othman, 2014). So, in order to maintain hygiene and health, we need to have behavioural change and public awareness program which can make culture of healthy sanitation practices.
10. **Poor data collection and Management** – Implementation of better sanitation practices in the city require proper data analysis and management. Ajmer district insufficient robust data collection and management systems, processes make achievement of objective more arduous whether it is data for ready on-site sanitation systems or sewer networks etc. Data is essential to build a strong framework for proper planning and implementation. It recommends for usage of technical information technology tools for data integration and building capacity for the same.
11. **Lack of Regular monitoring and evaluation** – In the process of establishing better sanitation services in the city of Ajmer, a proper system of monitoring and evaluation has to be set. Proper evaluation system will increase the pace for the change to happen. There is an urgent need for independent assessment to better understand on-ground performance. It is essential to have

monitoring nexus on levels to evaluate the progress chart. It would be best to integrate central monitoring and evaluation framework across all wards of the administrative units in Ajmer.

5. Way forward

Over the years, the Government of Rajasthan has worked diligently to effectively utilise its resources and capabilities towards enablement of the economy to extract value, generate employment and create a cleaner environment for its people. With the help of government's concerted efforts, the State has been successful in achieving an overall rank of 11th in Swacch Survekshan 2019 (Swachh Survekshan 2019, 2019). Safe sanitation with good hygiene leads to the good health and quality of human life, economic as well as social development. The strategy provides the roadmap for government authorities to achieve the vision with a focus on reducing inequalities especially for the women and children.

In order to achieve the desired vision of sanitation and the goals that have been set for the city of Ajmer, the need is to implement the sanitation strategy in a manner such that the required outcomes brought about can be sustained with time. To ensure effective implementation of the strategy and adoption of the concept by the local bodies governing the cities, it is important to make sure that idea of an ideal town is same for both the local governing body of the city and the planner or expert engaged. The purpose of the strategy is to guide for effective implementation in order to realize the goals for city sanitation which are set for the upcoming decade such that Ajmer achieves levels of sanitation and solid waste management like those of model cities.

Few recommendations are suggested to accelerate the pace:

1) Institutional and Infrastructure Mechanism - City needs to strengthen the government infrastructures such as vehicles, compartmentalized bins, tippers, sewage treatment plants (STP) plants in order to meet the requirements of staff. City should establish an internal High-Power Committee for Sanitation, consisting of senior officials and head of departments under the chairmanship of the Municipal Commissioner, to promote inter-departmental coordination and quick identification and resolution of roadblocks.
2) Monitoring & Evaluation - City should use professionals to assist in the implementation and monitor the progress.
3) Private Sector Engagement - City should set up the performance metrics for payments. Cities can improve private player incentives by focusing on payment on observable outputs. This will also help enhance the possibility of better capturing private sector efficiencies in service delivery. For this city can take help from state. City should focus on sustainable financing framework. City shall coordinate with Private sector to garner investments in the priority areas of sanitation, liquid waste management (LWM) and faecal sludge and septage management (FSSM).
4) City reward system - Ajmer should plan to establish their own reward schemes to incentivize local stakeholders such as citizens/RWA/ Colonies/ Markets/ to participate in making city clean, rewarding them through gifts, nominal amount of money for maintaining sanitation services and organizing maximum campaigns related to sanitation for better environment and health of citizens, and for holding Environment Fairs, Health Camps, etc. Along with it the city should also work with health department in schools and colleges.
5) Sustainable Technology
   - E-learning portal - A dedicated E- Learning portal should been developed by the central government. City should follow the portal for strengthening the capacities of the stakeholders.
   - Septage management technology -City should adopt various technologies for Septage collection such as Gulper system, Fecal Sludge Treatment: FSTPs, Co-Treatment and for Energy Recovery, technologies such as Co-composting, Anaerobic Digestion should be adopted.
   - Waste water treatment technology - City should adopt technologies such as decentralized Waste Water Systems for onsite waste water treatment and sewage Treatment Plants for offsite waste water treatment.

- Implementing IT cell - City should establish specific IT Cell, Geographical Information System (GIS) & Global positioning system (GPS) based management information system (MIS) and the control room should be constructed as per best practices of an electronic equipment control room which should have fully air conditioned and firefighting provisions along with provisions for adequate data backup for meeting any eventualities.
- Centralized complaint redressal system with a 24-hour helpline to clear any uncollected or unattended garbage, tracking household compliance, tracking desludging operators, Quick response vehicle, besides provide necessary.

6) Sustainable Financing - City should manage projects through public private partnerships (PPPs), municipal bonds or pooled financing mechanisms in order to meet the huge investment requirement of the sector. City should coordinate with their state government Banks, NBFCs, micro-finance institutions (MFIs).
7) Water Sustainability - Ajmer city shall ensure and monitor the safe discharge of waste water into sanitary outlet. Urban Local Body (ULB) must ensure in establishing sufficient designed capacity of Sewage Treatment Plant as per the number of households connected to sewer. An appropriate de sludging vehicles to be ensured for de sludging of all the sceptic tanks in the city. City shall formalize special IT cell to resolve the complaints regarding chokes, leakage, uncleaning of sceptic tanks in order to connect with the citizens involvement

6. Conclusion

Safe sanitation with good hygiene leads to the good health and quality of human life, economic as well as social development. A proper sanitation provides the roadmap for government authorities to achieve the vision with a focus on reducing inequalities especially for the women and children. In order to achieve the desired vision of sanitation and the goals that have been set for the city of Ajmer, the need is to implement the sanitation strategy in a manner such that the required outcomes brought about can be sustained with time. To ensure effective implementation of the sanitation and adoption of the concept by the local bodies governing the cities, it is important to make sure that idea of an ideal town is same for both the local governing body of the city and the planner or expert engaged.

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The State's Orientation Towards the Integration of Human Resource So That Vietnamese People Can Work Everywhere

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Abstract
Viet Nam has been actively participating in the regional and global integration. It has created favorable conditions for Vietnamese workers to work everywhere. However, Vietnamese workers are facing certain limitations including foreign language proficiency, skills and knowledge of cultures of other countries, etc. In order to have Vietnamese people easily find jobs in foreign countries, international organizations and firms, the Government of Viet Nam need to give orientations and solutions to ensure the essential conditions for Vietnamese workers.

Keywords: Vietnamese Workers, Work Everywhere, Essential Conditions, The State's Approach

1. Introduction

Since Doi Moi, Viet Nam has been proactive in integrating regionally and globally. By February, 2020, Viet Nam has signed thirteen FTA. Twelve of which have come to effect. Viet Nam is negotiating three other FTAs (Appendix 1). Moreover, the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) was officially formed in 31 December, 2015, including 10 countries with more than 630 million people, whose labor force accounts for more than 50% (approximately 322 million people). Viet Nam is currently a member of several international organizations such as WB, IMF, ADB, UNICEF. Viet Nam is currently an ideal destination for foreign investment. Many Vietnamese and foreign experts have forecasted that Viet Nam might become the new "world manufacturer" in coming years.

All of the above means that the labor market will no longer have national borders. Professional Vietnamese workers will have opportunities to find jobs according to their abilities and needs in other countries or to work for international organizations located oversea or in Viet Nam. However, in order to do so, Vietnamese workers must meet certain minimum conditions. Besides, the Government of Viet Nam needs a clear orientation for human resources to ensure these conditions.

This article mainly focuses on: (1) Overview of the essential conditions for Vietnamese people to be able to work anywhere; (2) The current state of Vietnamese workers regarding the essential conditions to be able to work anywhere; and (3) The State's approach to ensuring the essential conditions for Vietnamese workers.

2. Methodology and Data Sources

This article employs synthesis, statistical analysis, interpretation and inductive research methods.

The data used in this article is secondary data provided by publicly available sources, such as:

(1) A survey conducted by Alphabet in June 2016, study conducted by Education First (EF), an international education organization specializing in language instruction, tourism combined with education, cultural exchange, and other academic programs, published by the South East Asian ADN Association in 2014;

(2) Data of the Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs and the General Statistics Office on the labor market of Vietnam in the third quarter of 2019 (Q3/2019);

(3) Some Decisions of the Prime Minister approving: the Vietnam Human Resource Development Strategy for the period 2011-2020; the master plan on human resource development in Vietnam for the period 2011-2020; the National Strategy to protect, care for and improve people's health for the period 2011 - 2020, with a vision to 2030; the adjustment and supplementation of the Scheme on teaching and learning foreign languages in the national education system for the period 2017-2025; and the Vietnam Health Program.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Overview of the essential conditions for Vietnamese people to be able to work anywhere

According to a survey conducted by Alphabet in June 2016 (American Polytechnic College 2019), three factors that determine the success rate for job interviews include: (i) positive attitude; (ii) good skills; and (iii) good knowledge.

Large enterprises highly respect a positive attitude. 93% of enterprises consider this criterion for recruitment. Attitude reflects the tendency of employees to react to the working environment, associated with cognition, emotions and behaviors. Positive attitudes such as eagerness to learn, dynamism, enthusiasm, passion for challenges and hard work are always appreciated by employers. Working attitude is closely related to labor discipline.

Skills are the factor that 46.3% of enterprises expect. The capacity to master a task is referred to as skills. Currently, skills are divided into two groups: technical skills and soft skills. Soft skills include communication and presentation skills, teamwork skills, creative thinking, innovation, working and learning adaptability in the global environment.

37.2% of enterprises based on knowledge when recruiting their employees. Knowledge is defined as the ability to collect data, understand problems, apply know-how, analyze information. These are fundamental skills a person must possess to well perform a job. The more complex the task is, the higher level of knowledge is required. The knowledge will be put into practice based on the unique traits of each business and organization. In addition to common knowledge, businesses and organizations are more interested in professional knowledge (76.7%) than grades (32.6%).

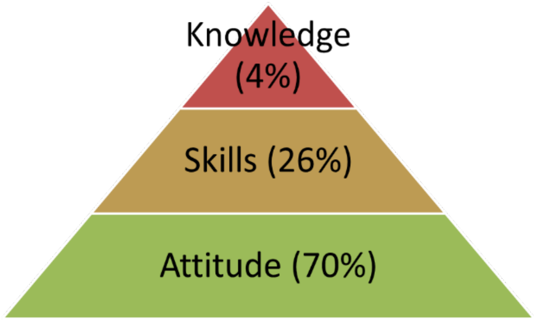


Figure 1: Aptitude triangle (Attitude – Skills – Knowledge) by Alphabet
Source: American Polytechnic College (2019)

Furthermore, in order to work for an international organization or work abroad, some of the following conditions must be met such as foreign language proficiency, knowledge of the host countries' cultures and laws; knowledge or the working culture and regulations of foreign businesses/organizations and fitness/health.

The ability to communicate in a foreign language is essential for those who want to work abroad. According to a poll conducted by Alphabet, 69.8% of Vietnamese enterprises are interested in candidates who can speak a foreign language fluently (usually English). 100% of international firms look for candidates with good foreign language proficiency when recruiting Vietnamese people.

Vietnamese workers face significant challenges due to their lack of knowledge or comprehension of the host country's culture and laws, as well as the enterprises' culture and rules. This lack of understanding is often the basis of many problems and difficulties in the workplace and in workers' lives (for example, in Bulgaria, shaking your head is nodding in Viet Nam and vice versa; in Europe, rubbing heads of other people is a friendly gesture, however in Viet Nam it is considered disrespectful).

Health is also a crucial factor. Even if all of the other conditions are in place, without good health, employees will not be able to work effectively. As a result, many organizations pay close attention to the health of their staff while hiring new employees. For example, many enterprises set a minimum height as a criterion for recruitment.

In summary, Vietnamese people must meet at least the following essential characteristics in order to work effectively everywhere, particularly in foreign countries and international organizations: (i) possessing foreign language proficiency; (ii) having good working knowledge, skills, and attitude; (iii) having an understanding of the host country's culture and laws, as well as the culture and regulations of the organizations or enterprises where they work; (iv) in good physical condition/health.

3. 2. The current situation of Vietnamese workers regarding the essential conditions to be able to work anywhere

3.2.1. Language proficiency

English is now widely regarded as an international language. Vietnamese people must acquire English or local language fluency at a level that supports good job performance when working in foreign nations or international organizations. According to study conducted by EF, people that utilize English effectively usually have a higher standard of living.

Vietnamese people's English competence is on par with the global average. Vietnam has slipped from 41st place in 2018 to 52nd place in 2019.

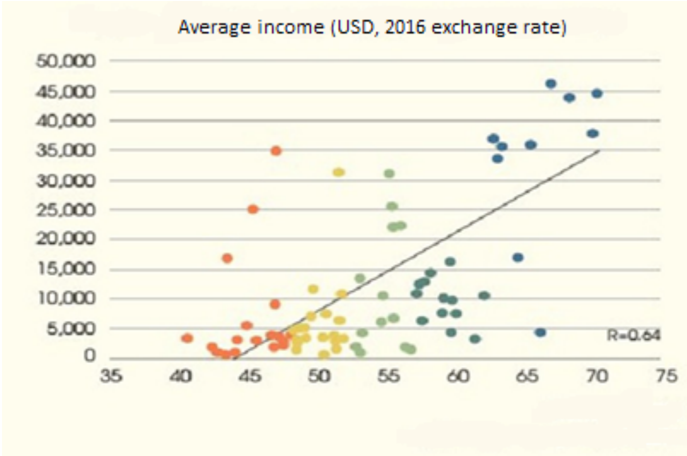


Figure 2: The correlation between English proficiency and level of income

Source: American Polytechnic College (2019)

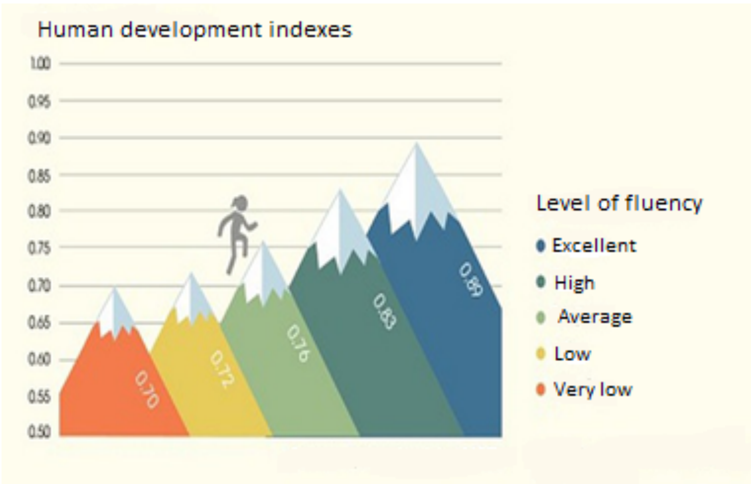
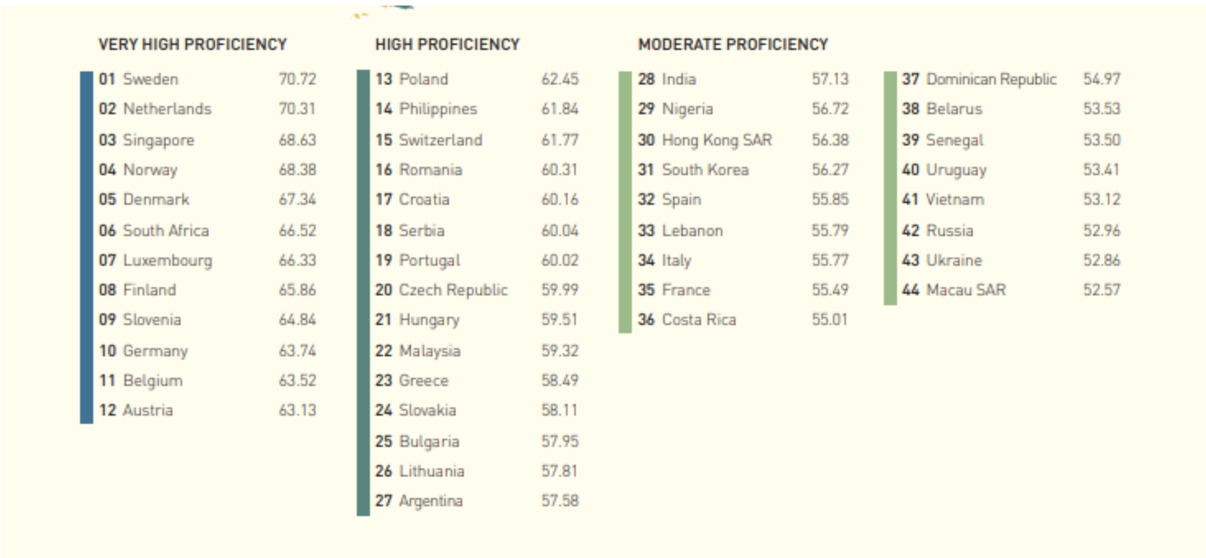


Figure 3: The correlation between English proficiency and quality of life

Source: American Polytechnic College (2019)



VERY HIGH PROFICIENCY		HIGH PROFICIENCY		MODERATE PROFICIENCY			
01 Sweden	70.72	**13** Poland	62.45	**28** India	57.13	**37** Dominican Republic	54.97
02 Netherlands	70.31	**14** Philippines	61.84	**29** Nigeria	56.72	**38** Belarus	53.53
03 Singapore	68.63	**15** Switzerland	61.77	**30** Hong Kong SAR	56.38	**39** Senegal	53.50
04 Norway	68.38	**16** Romania	60.31	**31** South Korea	56.27	**40** Uruguay	53.41
05 Denmark	67.34	**17** Croatia	60.16	**32** Spain	55.85	**41** Vietnam	53.12
06 South Africa	66.52	**18** Serbia	60.04	**33** Lebanon	55.79	**42** Russia	52.96
07 Luxembourg	66.33	**19** Portugal	60.02	**34** Italy	55.77	**43** Ukraine	52.86
08 Finland	65.86	**20** Czech Republic	59.99	**35** France	55.49	**44** Macau SAR	52.57
09 Slovenia	64.84	**21** Hungary	59.51	**36** Costa Rica	55.01		
10 Germany	63.74	**22** Malaysia	59.32				
11 Belgium	63.52	**23** Greece	58.49				
12 Austria	63.13	**24** Slovakia	58.11				
		25 Bulgaria	57.95				
		26 Lithuania	57.81				
		27 Argentina	57.58				

Figure 4: English proficiency ranking 2018

Source: American Polytechnic College (2019)

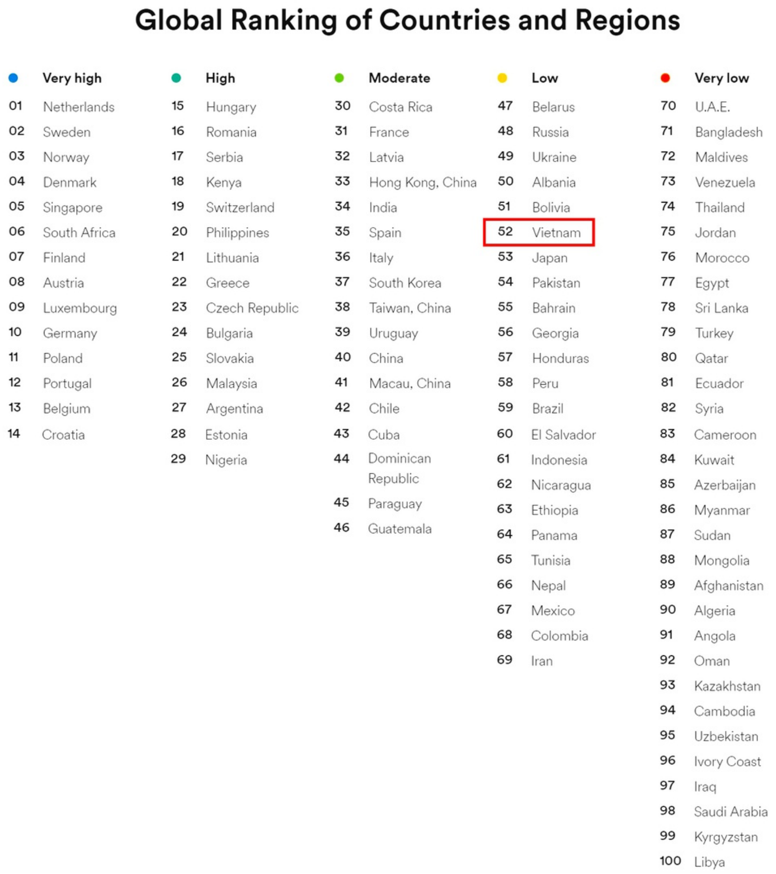


Figure 5: English proficiency 2019

Source: Suong (2019)

In recent years, the English proficiency of Vietnamese people has been declining.

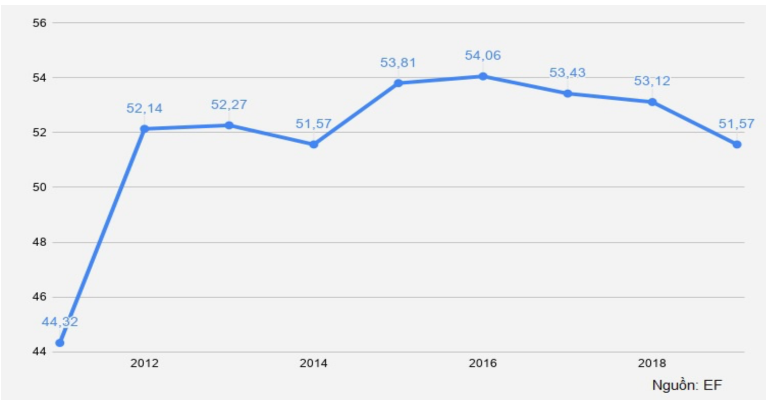


Figure 6: English proficiency of Vietnamese people in recent years

Source: Suong (2019)

The lack of English is a major obstacle for Vietnamese people to obtain a job abroad and in international organizations. It also has a detrimental impact on the country's overall growth.

3.2.2. Knowledge, skills, and working attitude

This short article cannot thoroughly analyze the knowledge, skills and working attitudes of the Vietnamese workforce, but only briefly/generally outlines a few points as follows:

- Although the percentage of Vietnamese workers with professional and technical qualifications has increased every year, it is very slow and still accounts for a small percentage (see Figure 7 below). Vietnamese workers are thought to have high basic knowledge and rapid awareness, but not specialized knowledge.
- Although Vietnamese people usually have adequate knowledge, they often lack technical skills. Knowledge is the ability to fathom. Skills are the ability to apply and practice. When it comes to the comprehension capability, Vietnamese people excel. The results of the OECD's PISA assessment, which has been conducted for many years, have consistently shown that Vietnamese students are among the world's top 10 to 20 in terms of math and science. However, according to the survey made by the World Economic Forum (WEF) in 2018, Vietnamese students can workers hardly meet the job requirements. Viet Nam ranked 110 in the WEF survey, which was lower than that of Laos and Cambodia, the two countries which are considered less developed than Viet Nam. This is an alarming result showing that there is a huge gap between knowledge and skills in the Vietnamese work force (Dan 2020).
- The education and training in Viet Nam lack programs/activities to improve leaners' skillset. As a result, Vietnamese workers take a long time to adjust to their new work environment. This is one of the reasons for the fact that Vietnamese workers often have low salary and find it difficult to join the international work force.
- Labor discipline is generally poor. Vietnamese workers seem to lack working discipline in a multicultural environment. These weakness hampers Vietnamese people to get a job abroad or in international organizations.

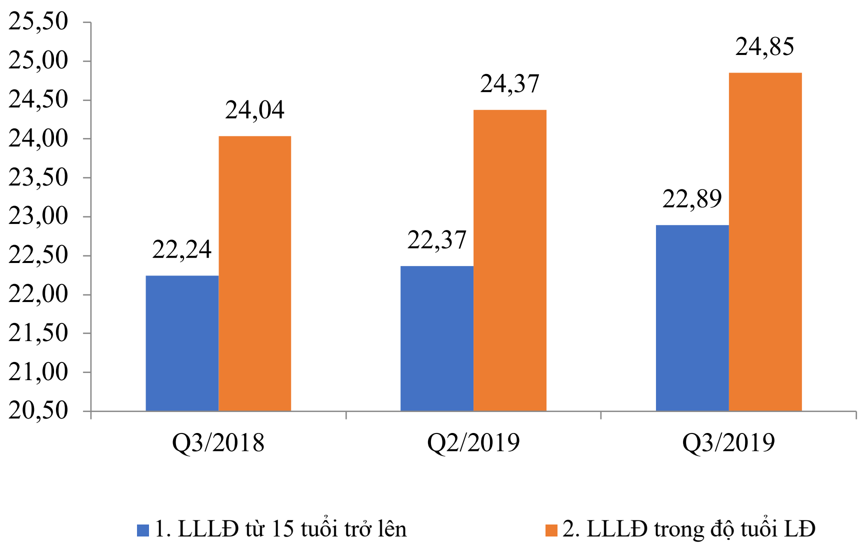


Figure 7: The percentage of trained workers with diplomas, Q3/2018, Q2/2019 và Q3/2019

Source: Ministry of Labor - Invalids and Social affairs and General Statistics Office (2019)

3.2.3. Knowledge of the culture and laws of the host countries

Although certain progress has been made in this regard, it can be concluded that the knowledge of Vietnamese workers about international law, other nations' laws and customs as well as the culture and regulations of foreign enterprises and international organizations are still limited. Typically, the knowledge of Vietnamese workers about foreign is limited to stereotypes. Therefore, many Vietnamese workers in foreign countries suffer challenges in their daily lives as a result of misunderstanding cultural differences as well as a lack of knowledge of foreign laws.

(iv) Health

There are many criteria for assessing human fitness such as height, weight, endurance, disease frequency and so on. Apparently, Vietnamese people are much shorter than foreign people.

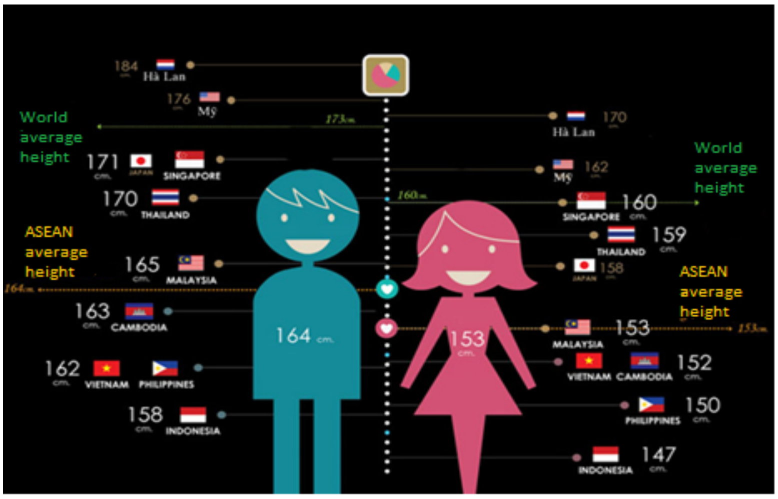


Figure 8: Heights of Vietnamese people in 2014

Source: Hoan (2015)

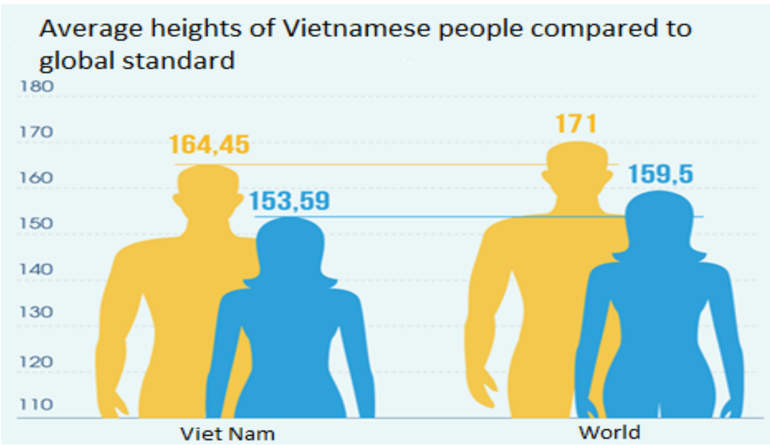


Figure 9: Heights of Vietnamese people in 2019

Source: Hoan (2015)

According to World Population Magazine, the average height of Vietnamese people is 162.1 cm, lower than that of Cambodia (162.5 cm).

Young Vietnamese men are currently 164.4 cm tall, 8 cm shorter than Japanese men and 10 cm shorter than Korean men. An average Vietnamese woman is 153.5 cm tall, 10 cm shorter than the general standard. Vietnamese people have grown taller in the last 30 years, although at a sluggish rate. In the last ten years, they have only grown one centimeter taller.

A study from the National Institute of Nutrition found that the number of persons with hypertension in Vietnam has climbed by more than 1.5 times in the last five years (2013-2018), while the number of diabetes cases has increased by more than 200 percent. In just ten years, Vietnam's obesity rate has risen to 15.6 percent (see Figure 10 below).

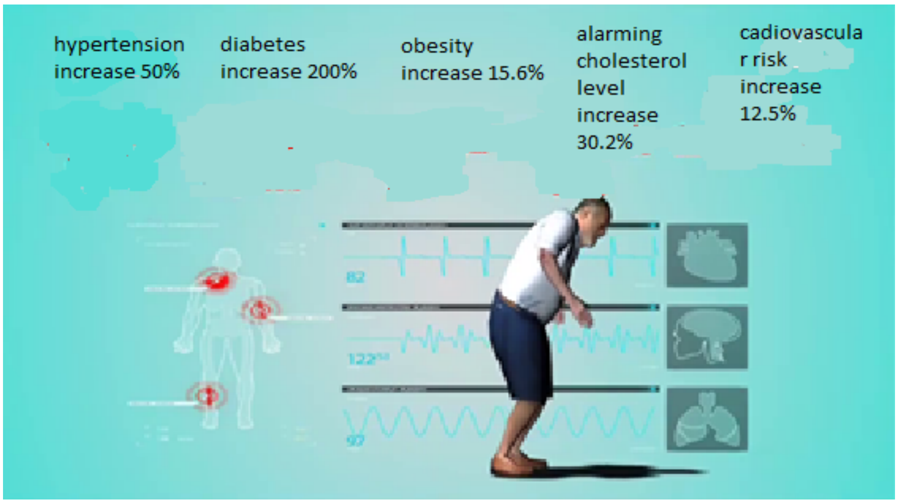


Figure 10: A few common diseases
Source: Vietnam Television (2018)

In general, Vietnamese workers are not physically fit in comparison with foreign workers. Vietnamese laborers frequently only work with short concentration span, fatigue rapidly (Ministry of Labour - Invalids and Social Affairs 2019) due to their lack of physical strength and endurance. It is obvious that fitness is another issue that Vietnamese workers must address if they want to work overseas.

3.2. The Government's orientation in ensuring essential conditions for Vietnamese workers to work abroad

3.2.1. Requirements

In the coming period, in order for Vietnamese workers to be able to work everywhere, human resource development needs to comply with the following requirements:

1. *First*, Viet Nam must have enough human resources capable of working in international organizations, multinational corporations and countries which have good relations with Vietnam, especially economic relations.
2. *Second*, Vietnamese workers must highly adaptable to the unpredictable and rapid changes of the regional and world situation and are capable of devising innovative solutions in the context of the industrial revolution 4.0.
3. *Third*, Vietnamese workers must be qualified enough to participate responsibly and effectively with the regional and international communities to solve global problems (Prime Minister 2011a, 2011b).

3.2.2. General orientation

First, rapidly and forcefully renovate the state management apparatus and human resource development policies.

The human development management apparatus should be improved and completed. The management method should be renewed to enhance the effectiveness of the human development management apparatus. Besides, it is crucial to strengthen the coordination among all levels, sectors and people involving in the human development process. Drastically renew human development policies (such as employment, wage, insurance and social protection) with a focus on policies for high-quality human resources and talents.

Second, financial resources for human development must be ensured.

It is necessary to increase investment in human resource development both by absolute term and by proportion in the total investment. Develop a plan on allocating the state budget focusing on education programs and trainings in accordance with priority objectives. Renovate the support mechanism from the state budget for human resource development by switching from supporting the suppliers to directly supporting the beneficiaries. Increase the mobilization of capital sources for human development from all economic sectors, including foreign capital (such as ODA, FDI and NGOs capital) by promoting socialization.

Third, strongly renew education and training

This topic has received a lot of attention in recent years. Within the scope of this article, the writer only emphasizes the following two issues:

1. An autonomous mechanism for educational and training institutions outside the general education must be implemented promptly and firmly. Universities and vocational training institutes must be autonomous regarding finance, organization, personnel and curriculum.
2. Resolute transformation of the teaching and learning process is required. Switching from passive learning, which consists just of receiving information, to active learning, which includes both gaining information and being creative in learning and expressing learners' ideas. Implement a procedure in which students are allowed to assess (score) teachers at the end of each semester. Anyone who receives a score below the average should not be allowed to tech.

3.2.3. A few specific orientations

1. Enhance foreign language training/education, particularly English. First and foremost, it is critical to effectively implement the Prime Minister's Project on teaching and learning foreign languages in the national education system for the period of 2017-2025, which focuses on implementing the following contents: (i) promulgating and deploying foreign language teaching programs and materials; (ii) innovative testing and assessment in foreign language teaching and learning based in international standard; (iii) increase the number and quality of foreign language teachers; (iv) promote the application of information technology to improve the condition for teaching and learning foreign language; (v) promote communication, international cooperation to build effective foreign language teaching and learning environment; (vi) propose authoritative agency to promulgate mechanism, policies, regulations related to teaching and learning foreign languages; and (vii) promote socialization in teaching and learning foreign language (Prime Minister 2017).
2. Develop educational and training content, programs, and techniques that meet international standards. Promote mutual recognition of training programs, diplomas, and certifications between Vietnam and other nations. Assess and maintain training quality in accordance with international standards (Hoan 2015).
3. Implement feasible policies to attract talented and experienced lecturers and scientists who are Vietnamese living abroad and foreigners into the human resource development process in Vietnam.
4. Increase the practice time and decrease the theoretical teaching time in order to focus on skill training for learners, particularly in vocational institutions. For general training and vocational training, modern and up-to-date equipment is required.
5. Strengthen education and keep abreast of international law, legislation, and culture of countries where many Vietnamese people work or where Vietnam's prospective labor markets are.
6. Increase physical education to improve health/fitness for Vietnamese workers. Effectively implement the National Strategy to protect, care, and improve public health during 2011 - 2020 period, orientation towards 2030 and the Vietnam Health Program. The implementation should focus on the following issues: (i) the authorities at all levels need to be active in making plans and allocate budget to implement the strategy/program; (ii) enhance the responsibility of central and local authorities in coordinating the

execution the policies and activities of the Vietnam Health Program within the scope of their respective domains; (iii) formulating and implementing policies and legal regulations on risk management, health promotion, and disease prevention; (iv) strictly implement the Laws on control of tobacco harms and promote food safety; review and implement mechanism and policies to promote the production, distribution and consumption of healthy and nutritious food; (v) provide the people with public areas and sport facilities; and (vi) promote public transport and non-motorized traffic (Prime Minister 2013 and Prime Minister 2018).

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Appendix 1: Summary of Vietnam's FTAs by February 2020

No	FTA	Status	Partners
In effect FTAs			
1	**AFTA**	Since 1993	ASEAN
2	**ACFTA**	Since 2003	ASEAN, China
3	**AKFTA**	Since 2007	ASEAN, South Korea
4	**AJCEP**	Since 2008	ASEAN, Japan
5	**VJEPA**	Since 2009	Viet Nam, Japan
6	**AIFTA**	Since 2010	ASEAN, India
7	**AANZFTA**	Since 2010	ASEAN, Australia, New Zealand
8	**VCFTA**	Since 2014	Viet Nam, Chile
9	**VKFTA**	Since 2015	Viet Nam, South Korea
10	**VN – EAEU FTA**	Since 2016	Viet Nam, Russia, Belarus, Amenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan
11	**CPTPP** (previously TPP)	Took effect globally as of 30/12/2018, effective for Viet Nam since 14/1/2019	Viet Nam, Canada, Mexico, Peru, Chile, New Zealand, Australia, Japan, Singapore, Brunei, Malaysia
12	**AHKFTA**	Effective in Hong Kong (China), Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, Singapore and Viet Nam since 11/6/2019	ASEAN, Hong Kong (China)
Signed but not yet effective FTAs			
13	**EVFTA**	Signed on 30/6/2019	Viet Nam, EU (28-member states)
In negotiation FTA			
14	**RCEP**	Commencement of negotiation in March 2013, completing negotiations on documents	ASEAN, China, South Korea, Japan, Australia, New Zealand
15	**Viet Nam – EFTA FTA**	Commencement of negotiations in May 2012	Vietnam, EFTA (Switzerland, Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein)
16	**Viet Nam – Israel FTA**	Commencement of negotiation in December, 2015	Viet Nam, Israel

Source: Center for WTO & International Trade.