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REGULATION OF THE WATER BALANCE OF THE COTTON VARIETIES UNDER SALTING CONDITIONS

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ABSTRACT

The article provides information on water balance management in saline conditions of medium-fiber cotton varieties. All physiological parameters studied with increasing soil salinity vary in both species depending on biological and individual characteristics of the varieties, and the salinity of the Bukhara-8 variety against the S-6524 variety is scientifically based. During the transpiration, the water potential of the leaf and the pressure in the xylema are reduced due to water loss. The transpiration of water inside the leaves is largely controlled by the oral cavity. On the basis of both indicators, soil moisture content was maintained at 70% of total moisture content (T.N.S.). In the bottles, different levels of soil salinity were formed by chlorine ion depending on the air dried mass of the soil. Prior to field experiments, saline areas of varying salinity were identified. In both varieties, the intensity of transpiration was lower in the control and experimental variants in the morning hours, higher in the afternoon, and again in the evening. The negative effects of salts have changed the water balance of the cotton and limit the water availability of plants. In saline soils a deep and sufficient analysis of the water balance of plants and their management and water supply is required. According to the obtained data, the cost of day and residual water shortages was higher for S-6524 grade and lower for Bukhara-8 grade. In defining salinity resistance of agricultural plants, it is also recommended to study water deficiency in leaves.

INTRODUCTION

Global climate change, salinization of irrigated areas and population growth, and the expansion of saline areas threaten public health, national economies, and ecosystems [1,2].

Salinity is one of the most common negative environmental factors. Increased levels of sodium chloride lead to osmotic effects of water disturbance, lowering turbid pressure, Ustyurt closure, decreased photosynthesis, and eventually membrane damage and plant destruction [3,4].

The exchange of plants and water between them is important for the physiological and metabolic processes that control the hydration properties of cells and determine the quantity and quality of plant growth.

During the transpiration, the water potential of the leaf and the pressure in the kselema are reduced due to water loss. The transpiration of water inside the leaves is largely controlled by the oral cavity. The degree of dehydration of plants depends on many factors: climate and environment, plant growth stages, and especially irrigation regimes and water quality. In well-watered plants, transpiration is one of the most effective means of controlling leaf temperature [5].

Continuing in the soil-plant environment, the balance between soil and leaf water potential contributes to water flow. Hydrochemical permeability of individual plants and individual components of permeability are key factors that regulate water flow in the soil system and are related to plant transpiration and other physiological processes [6,7].

Maintaining optimal water condition of plant tissues under salinization is to reduce the osmotic potential of the plant to a level that provides water flow from the environment to the plant [8].

In this regard, one of the most urgent scientific problems is the discovery of plant salinity mechanisms. Creation of the necessary conditions for the development of methods for selection, transgeneesis and physiologically active substances in increasing the salinity of plants by enhancing their knowledge in this area.

RESEARCH METHODS

Objects of experiments were Bukhara-8 and S-6524 grades of the group of medium-fiber types of cotton. These varieties are currently planted on a wide area in a number of regions of the country. Alluvial soils were used for experiments. Such soils form the main areas of Bukhara region. The moisture content and moisture content of the soil obtained for the vegetation experiments were determined. On the basis of both indicators, soil moisture content was maintained at 70% of total moisture content (T.N.S.). In the bottles, different levels of soil salinity were formed by chlorine ion depending on the air dried mass of the soil. Prior to field experiments, saline areas of varying salinity were identified. In all field experiments, soil moisture deficit was determined by the determination of soil moisture content, its volume and field moisture content before irrigation, and irrigation was performed.

In order to investigate the effect of salinity on the water balance of regional cotton varieties in laboratory, vegetative and field experiments, indicators such as transpiration rate, leaf water retention rate, total, metabolic and associated water content, and daily and residual water deficit in leaves. The above indicators were studied during flowering stages of cotton varieties. Because,
in natural conditions, this stage of cotton is exposed to adverse environmental factors, such as high temperatures, soil salinity and drought.

RESULTS AND THEIR DISCUSSION

In addition to examining the effects of salinization on the early growth processes of cotton varieties, the turgidity and stability coefficients of cotton leaves grown in all variants were calculated. According to the data, they used this indicator to analyze the degree of resistance of plants to drought and salinity.

When the varieties of cotton are supplied with sufficient moisture, the water exchange is activated or vice versa. In the first case, the plant cells are turgid and the leaves thicken. In some cases, although there is enough water in the soil, there is a case of plasmolysis in plants. One of the main reasons for this is soil salinity, which is often manifested in physiological drought conditions. If soil salinity is affected by drought, plants will be severely affected by water shortages.

According to the obtained data, the degree of turgidity and stability of the studied cotton leaves is directly related to soil salinity. It was noted that the value of these indices was highest in all varieties due to the effects of high salinity. In the control variants of the studied cotton varieties, there was a decrease in the degree of turgidity and the value of stability coefficients compared to the experimental variants. Increase in salinity of leaves was also observed with increased salinity. This correlation also exists with regard to the stability ratio. The more resistance to salinity of cotton varieties is determined by the greater stability factor. It is noted that the yield of Bukhara-8 cotton varieties in the saline environment is higher than that of the S-6524 variety.

It is well known that transpiration is an important physiological process and plays an important role in the water exchange and management of plants. Transpiration is one of the key processes in managing plant water balance. Under optimal conditions, ie when there is enough water, cotton transports as much as possible. As a result, the process of absorbing water and nutrients from the soil increases, and the diffusion of SO2 to the leaf mesophyll is accelerated. In these conditions, photosynthesis is also accelerated and the synthesis of organic matter increases.

Changes in the opening of the mouth affect transpiration and allow the leaves to cool. Accordingly, a decrease in oral permeability leads to an increase in leaf temperature. With increasing osmotic stress under salinity, the rate of transpiration and the heat flux generated in the leaves decreases, resulting in increased leaf surface temperature. As a result, it increases the temperature difference between the experimental and control plants.

According to the data obtained, it was determined that the water evaporation rate of cotton varieties varies with soil salts concentration and humidity. In both varieties, the intensity of transpiration was lower in the control and experimental variants in the morning hours, higher in the afternoon, and again in the evening. The rate of transpiration in this direction is directly related to air temperature and its relative humidity.

In these extreme conditions, it was noted that the Bukhara-8 variety was relatively intense at noon, and the S-6524 variety was relatively slow. Ensuring sufficient water supply for plants in saline environments is critical, as well as enhancing their water balance management.
The degree of water retention of leaves is one of the indicators that characterizes plant resistance to salinity and drought, which affects physiological processes and plant productivity. The water retention rates of the studied cotton varieties varied considerably, depending on the soil salinity.

With the increase in soil salinity, there was a decrease in water loss of leaves of all varieties or an increase in their water retention. However, the degree of such decline varies depending on the biological and individual characteristics of the varieties.

In our experiments it was found that the water level of plants of all variants increased during the flowering phase of cotton varieties. This may be due to the synthetic processes involved in the same flowering process and the formation of reproductive organs. In turn, for this to happen, a large amount of water is required.

In varieties with strong adaptation mechanisms (high water retention), metabolic processes are activated and have the ability to rapidly alter their homeostasis. These characteristics observed in plants vary depending on the influence of environmental factors and the biological and individual characteristics of the varieties.

When plants have sufficient water supply, their physiological and biochemical processes are activated. The high or low water content in the soil is negatively influenced by the above processes. If there is a drought in the saline areas, then the cotton plant will be severely affected by water shortages. And the amount of water that is bound often determines plant resistance to adverse factors.

With the increase in soil salinity, both metabolite water and the associated water content increased in both varieties. In Bukhara-8, the amount of bound water was high. According to the results, increased water content in the leaves is one of the ecological and physiological responses of plants to adverse factors and may be an indicator of protective adaptation to increase productivity and productivity of plants in saline conditions.

Significant differences were also observed between the varieties studied in the above indices. The highest daily and residual water shortages were found in highly saline variants. The decline in salinity was also accompanied by a decrease in salinity. The lowest values were found in saline variants.

The value of day and residual water shortages in cotton varieties studied under soil salinity (weak, medium, strong) varied depending on biological and individual characteristics of plants. According to the obtained data, the cost of day and day water shortage was higher for C-6524 grade and lower for Bukhara-8 grade.

**CONCLUSIONS**

The first negative effects of soil salinization start with the growth and growth of cotton seeds. The strongest adverse effects were observed during the flowering phase of cotton. The negative effects of salts have changed the water balance of the cotton and limit the water availability of plants. In saline soils a deep and sufficient analysis of the water balance of plants and their management and water supply is required.

The more resistance to salinity of cotton varieties is determined by the greater stability factor. It is noted that the yield of Bukhara-8 cotton varieties in the saline environment is higher than that of the S-6524 variety.
According to the data obtained, it was determined that the water evaporation rate of cotton varieties varies with soil salts concentration and humidity. In these extreme conditions, the Bukhara-8 variety was relatively intense, while the S-6524 variety showed a slow rate of transpiration.

With the increase in soil salinity, there was a decrease in water loss of leaves of all varieties or an increase in their water conservation activity. However, the degree of such decline varied depending on the biological and individual characteristics of the varieties.

With the increase in soil salinity, both metabolite water and the associated water content increased in both varieties.

The value of day and residual water shortages in cotton varieties studied under soil salinity varied, depending on the biological and individual characteristics of the plants. According to the obtained data, the cost of day and residual water shortages was higher for S-6524 grade and lower for Bukhara-8 grade. In defining salinity resistance of agricultural plants, it is also recommended to study water deficiency in leaves.

REFERENCES
A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF LIMITED EXPOSURE TO ICT IN THE SECONDARY EDUCATION OF RURAL AND LOW-INCOME STUDENTS IN SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

Sri Lanka has a proud tradition of free education in primary to University levels and the literacy score of the country is very high compared with other developing countries. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is an important emerging field in accomplishing crucial objectives in Education. Sri Lankan government has been taken several attempts to implement ICT educational programs and to integrate ICT education to school education curriculum since the year 2006. However, it has not been achieved the projected standard. Computer literacy level of 39.2% is estimated in the urban population of Sri Lanka recently, and considerably lower percentages are assessed in rural areas (25.5%) and estates (9%). This is very strong evidence that ICT literacy has not spread across the country at the same pace. These differences start from secondary education and the consequences very much affect the higher education and job. The study mainly analyses the effects of ICT education in the secondary level of education through literature survey and by questionnaires and interviews with major stakeholders of ICT education such as officials, heads of schools, teachers, lecturers, instructors and students. I found that there is a large gap between urban and rural areas secondary education in terms of infrastructural facilities, ICT laboratories, qualified teachers, quality of training programmes, and teaching and study materials. I recommend equity in the distribution of physical and human resources and awareness programmes in all the government schools and the improvement of ICT secondary education in terms of curricula, student centred teaching, outcome-based education, special evaluation system, English language, and continuous monitoring.

KEYWORDS: Continuous Monitoring, Curricula, Outcome-Based
1. INTRODUCTION

Information communication technology (ICT) has been described to mean the technology that facilitates the generation, processing, storage and dissemination of information, its essence is to enhance information flow [1]. ICT plays a pivotal role in today’s modern society. The information available on the Internet and the usage of online resources and digital communication devices are now integral features of daily life for most people. Searching for employment; looking up health information; online banking; mapping public transportation routes; these tasks are part of day-to-day life. And ICT has become an essential part of work to guarantee in the world labour market [2, 3]. ICT, therefore, is one of the subjects in the school curriculum from secondary level to University level in Sri Lanka.

The country today has a student population of 4 million students at 10,000 schools with over 200,000 teachers within the country’s education system [4]. After primary education, the junior secondary level lasts for 4 years (Grades 6-9) followed by 2 years (Grades 10-11) of the senior secondary level. Over the last decade, the government of Sri Lanka has set up about 2000 fully-fledged computer laboratories and another 2500 basic computing facilities in schools [4]. This provision of ICT facilities covers only 50% of the schools. At the same time, nearly 100,000 teachers have been provided with basic ICT training and introduction to computer-aided learning (CAL) [4]. However, these training programmes have no followed up mechanism on how these teachers are applying what they have learnt and this approach reduces the overall effectiveness of the training. English language barrier is also the main limitation of the students and teachers who study or teach in native languages.

‗Digital divide‘ is an economic and social inequality with regard to access to, use of, or impact of information and communication technologies (ICT) [5]. The divide within countries (such as within Sri Lanka) may refer to inequalities between individuals, households, businesses, or geographic areas, usually at different socioeconomic levels or other demographic categories. Technology becomes more affordable and internet access seems increasingly everywhere in Sri Lanka. However, the “digital divide” between ‘rich and poor’ and ‘rural and urban’ are still remained [6]. The important features are defined for the rural profile by UNESCO [8] such as distance to towns, Transport infrastructure (roads, buses, taxis), access to services and facilities (electricity, water, sanitation), and the health, educational and economic status of the community. The rich and educated are still more likely than others to have good access to digital resources. The digital differences in secondary education as especially produce important consequences when it comes to higher education and job. For children in low-income/rural school districts, inadequate access to ICTs can delay them from learning the ICT skills that are crucial to success in higher education and working environment.

According to the Computer Literacy Statistics from Department of Census and Statistics – 2018[5], only 22.9 % and 4.9% of households in the rural and estate areas owns either a desktop or a laptop comparing with 39.5% in urban areas and only 25.9 % and 11.1% of computer literacy rate in the rural and estate areas comparing with 38.5% in urban areas. The statistics show that the significant ‘digital divide’ is apparent in Sri Lanka. Based on the observation of ATI-Trinco [7] students and their educational progress we witnessed that some students are facing difficulties in their technological studies while some other students are very comfortable in their studies. Particularly the students coming from rural areas and low-income families are
feeling uncomfortable in using computers and the Internet even though they are being provided with equal facilities. As a consequence, their performance and results also seem to be comparatively poor. Not only students, we observed some of our co-workers and subordinates also facing difficulties in their day to day work in the Institute; Most of them are from rural areas and they had a limited exposure to the technology during their secondary studies.

The major aim of the present study is to examine the relationship between technology exposure in secondary studies and the current higher education and career of a person. This study is implemented on students who were secondary level students from different backgrounds including rural/low-income families and, currently, they are following a technological course in a tertiary level institution, in particular, HND programs at SLIATE. Further, this study is extended towards the employees from different backgrounds and who use ICT as an important part of their work.

The main objective of this research study to examine the relationship between ‘digital divide’ in secondary studies and the higher education and career of a person. It analyses whether or not that the school/home technological experiences and knowledge insufficiently prepared students for future studies or jobs and identify the difficulties in the rural area schools to use ICT and teach ICT are the other specific objectives of the paper. We propose suggestions, within the framework of Sri Lankan infrastructure of ICT, to implement ICT objectives in education aligned with longer-term goals.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Use of ICT in school education was initiated in Sri Lankan schools in 1982. In 2004, Liyanage mentioned in his report [9] that Sri Lanka was a pioneering country in the introduction of computer education into the school system, but after 20 years, Sri Lankans were far behind compared with other developing countries, even now after 35 years.

Currently, the Sri Lankan education system has Introduction of ICT as a subject to the G.C.E. (O/L) and G.C.E. (A/L) curriculum, and introduction of ICT literacy for secondary level [11, 12]. However, there is a large gap between urban and rural areas in terms of infrastructural facilities, qualified academic staffs, and quality of training programmes, teaching and study materials. The crucial factor affecting usage of ICT is language in the rural areas and the low-income families. According to the majority of respondents, as they understand only native languages they have not benefited from services such as the internet and e-mail. [13]. Out of the 70 percent of the rural population, the majority are not familiar with the English language. Therefore, Sinhala- and Tamil-speaking people are disadvantaged. The study of Erandi Harshini Godamanna and Ariyarahtha Jayamaha [10] confirms that Organizational, Educator and Technological Factors act as barriers for effective implementation of ICT facilitated education in national universities of Sri Lanka. At the same time, the expected outcome of ICT facilitated education which is improving the Digital Literacy has not achieved.

The study of Marisa Salanova and Susana Llorens [15] concluded that the positive appraisal partially mediates the impact of technology exposure on work engagement in a sample of 645 Spanish workers who work with Information and Communication Technology. From our understandings, any research, which is systematically analyze the relationship between digital divide effect in the secondary education and the discomfort in ICT use in higher education/working place based on the Sri Lankan studies, has not been published previously.
3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data

The whole data for this analysis collected from (i) 100 ICT based students, who were selected from the higher education and analyze their secondary education environment and economic situation, (ii) 100 ICT based workers, who were selected from the government departments, analyze their secondary education environment and economic situation and identify their ICT usage percentage of their work.

**Student Participants:** The sample (100 students (50 males and 50 females)) of this study selected from HNDIT students of Ampara, Badulla, Dehiwala, Gale, Kandy, Kurunagala, Jaffna, Trincomalee, and Kegalle ATIs randomly under SLIATE in Sri Lanka. The selected students divided into two groups named as SGroup1 (students’ secondary education was in rural areas or they are from low-income families) and SGroup2 (students’ secondary education was neither in rural areas nor they are from low-income families).

**Employees Participants:** The sample consists of 100 workers from Sri Lankan government departments (50 males and 50 females) who used technology as an inherent part of their jobs. They worked in heterogeneous jobs and occupational fields, including clerical jobs, education, and technical and support staff. The common denominator of all the employees is the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in their jobs for more than 50% of their working time. The selected employees divided into two groups named as EGroup1 (employees’ secondary education was in rural areas or they are from low-income families) and EGroup2 (employees’ secondary education was neither in rural areas nor they are from low-income families).

3.2 Survey procedures and Hypothesis

Three types of self-developed questionnaires were organized.

(a) Consists of 20 close-ended questions about the participants’ family background, income level, accessibility of technology and Internet during their secondary education.

(b) Consists of 20 open-ended questions to identify the current problems they are facing in their higher studies. (For students of Advanced Technological Institutes)

(c) Consists of 20 open-ended questions to identify the current problems they are facing in their working environment. (For employees)

The participants of HNDIT students from ATIs and employees from various government departments were completed their questionnaire and returned the questionnaires for collection. All the necessary qualitative and quantitative data from the participants were gathered. The qualitative questionnaire changed into quantitative research data. The questionnaire consists of a series of questions, accompanied by a set of answer choices, which can be assigned a numeric value, making the analysis of the questionnaire results easier and faster.

The quantitative study explores the following hypothesis first:

**Hypothesis1**

H0: There is no significant difference in ICT based educational discomfort at higher education between SGroup1 students and SGroup2 students.
H1: There are significant differences in ICT based educational discomfort at higher education between SGroup1 students and SGroup2 students.

Hypothesis 2

H0: There is no significant difference in ICT based discomfort at working place between EGroup1 employees and EGroup2 employees.

H1: There are significant differences in ICT based discomfort at working place between EGroup1 employees and EGroup2 employees.

3.3 Statistical Data analysis

Statistical data analysis is dependent on the type of data collected and on utilizing an appropriate statistical analysis to answer research questions and to satisfy the purpose, objectives, and goals of the study. The collected data from the participants were quantified with independent variables in each classification of analysis. The variables are decided based on the literature survey and the current questionnaire are listed below:

**Measures of Secondary ICT Education:** Quality of Teaching and Learning, ICT based Resources Availability, Studied Curriculum, Help from Outside (Parents, siblings) and Community linkage, Evaluation Procedure

**Measures of Current ICT Higher Education:** English Language Fluency, ability of ICT Theory Subjects, ability of ICT Practical Subjects, Confidence in the ICT Subjects

**Measures of Comfort ICT use in Work Places:** English Language Fluency, ability of Handling ICT Hardware, ability of Handling software, ability of Handling Data.

We present the results of this study consisting of a descriptive analysis, correlational analysis, statistical assumptions, and ANOVA analysis for the central research question.

Data were analyzed using ANOVA. Levene's test for a p-value (Sig.) > 0.05 for all test here, so that similar variances for each group of measurements can be assumed.

### 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Students SGroup1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students SGroup2</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees EGroup1</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees EGroup2</td>
<td>47</td>
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**TABLE 1: STUDENT AND EMPLOYEES GROUPS AND NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS**
TABLE 2: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF THE DIFFERENT MEASURES OF THE QUALITY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ICT

Research question 1: Is there a difference in mean score of the two groups of students and different measures of secondary education in ICT?

Table 2 illustrates the descriptive summary of the different measures of the quality of secondary education in ICT. In analysis of variance we compare the variability between the student groups to the variability within the groups. Here two factors (Student groups and Variables of Secondary Education in ICT) with 2 levels and 5 levels respectively.

H0: There is no difference in mean score for different student groups and secondary Education in ICT.

H1: There is a difference in mean score for different student groups and secondary Education in ICT.

From the results of ANOVA table, there is strong evidence that the mean score varies with student groups and secondary education (p=0.003 and p<0.001). The rural area students and urban area students are very differently treated in the secondary education in ICT. Further t-test for each variable of secondary education and two student groups, Curriculum and evaluation procedure are performed with no significant differences (p>0.05) between the student groups.

Research question 2: Is there a difference in mean score of the two groups of employees and different variables of secondary education in ICT?

Similar analysis was done with employees’ data, almost similar results were achieved. From the results of ANOVA table, there is strong evidence that the mean score varies with employees groups and secondary education (p=0.004 and p=0.002).
TABLE 3: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF THE PERFORMANCE MEASURES OF THE CURRENT EDUCATION IN ICT

Research question 3: Is there difference in mean score of the two groups of students and different measures of current education in ICT?

Table 3 illustrates the descriptive summary of the performance measures of the current education in ICT. Here two factors (Student groups and measures of Secondary Education in ICT) with 2 levels and 4 levels respectively.

H0: There is no difference in mean score for different student groups and the performance measures of current Education in ICT.

H1: There is difference in mean score for different student groups and the performance measures of current Education in ICT.

From the results of ANOVA table, there is solid evidence that the mean score varies with student groups and measures of current Education in ICT. (p=0.007 and p=0.004). The rural area students and urban area students are very differently performed in the current education in ICT. Further t-test for each measures of current education and two student groups, all the measures showed substantial differences (p<0.05) between the student groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean/STD</th>
<th>English Language Fluency (0-100)</th>
<th>ability of ICT Theory Subjects (0-100)</th>
<th>ability of ICT Practical Subjects (0-100)</th>
<th>Confidence in the ICT Subjects (0-100)</th>
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<tr>
<td>SGroup1</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>45.34</td>
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<tr>
<td>SGroup2</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>69.93</td>
<td>70.34</td>
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<td>11.39</td>
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</table>

TABLE 4: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF THE MEASURES OF COMFORT ICT USE IN WORK PLACES

Research question 4: Is there difference in mean score of the two groups of employees and different measures of ICT use in their work place?

Table 4 illustrates the descriptive summary of the different measures of comfort of ICT use in work places. Here two factors (employees groups and measures of ICT use in work places) with 2 levels and 4 levels respectively.

H0: There is no difference in mean score for different employees groups and the performance measures of ICT use in work places.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean/STD</th>
<th>English Language Fluency (0-100)</th>
<th>ability of Handling ICT Hardware (0-100)</th>
<th>ability of Handling Software (0-100)</th>
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<td>EGroup1</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>51.86</td>
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<td>EGroup2</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>73.19</td>
<td>74.09</td>
<td>75.91</td>
<td>76.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STD</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>10.43</td>
<td>9.99</td>
<td>11.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
H1: There is a difference in mean score for different employees groups and the performance measures of ICT use in work places.

From the results of ANOVA table, there is convincing proof that the mean score varies with employees groups and measures of ICT use in work places (p=0.01 and p=0.009). Further t-test for each measures of current education and two student groups, all the measures showed significant differences (p<0.05) between the employees groups.

Research question 5: Is there any strong relationship between the secondary education of ICT and the current education of ICT?

Figure 1: Scatter diagram of average measures of secondary education and current education in ICT.

Figure 1 shows the relationship between average measures of secondary education and current education in ICT graphically on a scatter diagram. The scatter diagram for secondary education and current education in ICT suggests there is a positive linear relationship between these variables. Pearson correlation coefficient value confirmed this strong positive linear relationship (r=0.93). The equation of the regression line for the data: Current education measure=23.95+0.63 * secondary education measure.

Research question 6: Is there any strong relationship between the secondary education of ICT and the ICT use in work places?

\[ y = 0.629x + 23.951 \]
Figure 2 illustrates the relationship between average measures of secondary education and comfort use ICT in places graphically on a scatter diagram. The scatter diagram suggests there is a positive linear relationship between these variables. Pearson correlation coefficient value confirmed this strong positive linear relationship ($r=0.82$). The equation of the regression line for the data: comfort use of ICT in work places measure\(=38.61+0.43 \times \text{secondary education measure}\).

5. CONCLUSION

We have analyzed a large set of appropriate data to examine the relationship between ICT education in secondary studies and the current higher education and career of a person. We proved that there is a strong positive relationship between ICT education in secondary studies and the current higher education and between ICT education in secondary studies and comfort use of ICT in work places. There must be a large gap between urban and rural areas secondary ICT education.

Further analysis concluded that Quality of Teaching and Learning, ICT based Resources Availability, and Help from Outside (parents, siblings, etc.) and Community linkage for the secondary education of ICT were significantly differed between rural and urban students. Curriculum and evaluation procedure are almost same in rural and urban areas.
The measures of English Language Fluency, ability of ICT Theory Subjects, ability of ICT Practical Subjects, Confidence in the ICT Subjects in the current education of ICT were significantly differed from rural and urban students.

The measures of English Language Fluency, ability of Handling ICT Hardware, ability of Handling software, ability of Handling Data in work places were significantly differed between the rural area secondary educators and urban area secondary educators.

ICT and related technologies and facilities becomes more affordable and internet access is almost everywhere in Sri Lanka. However, the “digital divide” between and rural and urban are still exist, especially in the secondary education level. We strongly recommend to the educational related administrative people to take necessary actions to make sure the equity in the distribution of physical and human resources and awareness programmes in all the government schools and the improvement of ICT secondary education in terms of curricula, student centred teaching, outcome-based education, special evaluation system, English language, and continuous monitoring.

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ABSTRACT

The employment and income generation programmes are of two types such as: (i) self-employment, and (ii) wage-employment programmes. Self-employment programmes usually target the poor and assist them in undertaking income generating activities by providing them with credits. In some cases credit is accompanied by assistance in skill training and marketing. The wage-employment programmes create employment by using labour-intensive methods in constructing infrastructure.

KEYWORDS: Rural Non-Farm Sector; Employment Generation; Poverty Alleviation; Nabard

1. INTRODUCTION:

Employment opportunities in rural areas of Assam may have to rely on strengthening the ability of non-farm agricultural (like agro-processing, post-harvesting) activities to absorb the labour. Diversification into the rural non-farm activities constitutes an average about 45 per cent of rural incomes in developing countries and the ‘push and pull’ factors driving this diversification are bound to persist (Barrett and Reardon 2000). Push factors include changes in technology in agriculture that require less labour, creating labour surpluses and reducing agricultural labour opportunities and pull factors include employment generation in semi-urban areas from industry that raises wage-employment.

The growing population puts pressure on the limited land resources for producing food and limits the capacity of the household. Instead of becoming a resource, the illiterate and unskilled population becomes a burden for the nation. The lack of physical capital and skills constrains the development of the industry and services sector and limits the generation of productive
employment for the rising labour force. Unemployment and underemployment breed social ills like violence and terrorism that in turn hinders development.

2. The Way Ahead:

Md. H. Ansari (2008) in his keynote speech delivered in the Centre on Integrated Rural Development for Asia and the Pacific (CIRDAP) Conference held in New Delhi, said that the redistribution of economic and political power, inclusion of rural areas and rural poor in development, enhancing access to resources and employment in rural areas, focus on non-farm rural activities, education and training activities and agrarian reforms continue to be important areas for public policy. According to him, in Asia in general, and in India in particular, poverty has a rural face. Rural development and poverty alleviation are thus two sides of the same coin.

The government approaches to these two issues have significantly changed in the past two decades. Given the federal structure, land reform legislation is a state subject and has not been pursued in a uniform pattern. Civil society movements like ‘Janadesh’ have therefore sought to mobilize opinion for a national land reform policy and a national land reform commission (Ansari 2008).

On the other hand, the Government of India has developed a noticeably sharper focus on poverty alleviation and rural development programmes and significantly enhanced its expenditure manifold - from Rs. 76 billion in 1993-94 to Rs. 340 billion in 2003-04 and Rs. 1200 billion in the current financial year. The Government’s strategy has focused on five dimensions for targeted poverty alleviation and rural development (Ansari 2008):

- Institute guaranteed wage-employment covering the entire country,
- Promote self-employment,
- Ensure rural connectivity and infrastructure augmentation,
- Facilitate basic amenities such as housing, and
- Provide social security especially for the aged, sick and other vulnerable sections of the society.

Economic reforms of 1990’s that swept the country did not bring any significant change in the economic well-being of Assam. People often argued that the North-Eastern Region of India remains a classic case of financial exclusion. The agriculture sector continues to be dominated by mono-cropping that too by paddy, low level of farm mechanization etc., inhibiting its growth. The industrial development is also almost stagnant in the state. While every other state is making efforts to attract foreign direct investments (FDI), Assam has not received any such investment so far unlike the Government’s white paper dealings.

The rural non-farm sector has tremendous scope for development in a state like Assam. In a survey, NABARD has identified ten sectors for development which includes sectoral schemes like Agriculture, Fish rearing and processing, Rural Retail Trade, Sericulture & Silk Textile, Fibre products, Construction, Small Plantation products, Handloom, Handicraft mainly cane, bamboo and wood products. These activities are to be developed for creation of additional employment in the rural areas. The development Departments like Agriculture, Handloom and
Textile, Sericulture, Fishery, Veterinary, Panchayat and Rural Development etc. are associated with these schemes to implement within a definite time frame.

3. Employment Generation:

The use and value of employment in targeting poverty is neither new nor is it restricted to any one region. Historically, the Poor Employment Act of 1817 in Great Britain represented a major milestone in the development of economic policy to reduce poverty through employment and development (Braun 1995). That Act and similar public interventions in later years in various countries have been largely based on the recognition that small firms are important generators of employment (Hobbs 2000). Hughes (2000) in interpreting the job-generating role of the small enterprises emphasizes the extreme skewness and volatility of the individual small business growth patterns, the low quality and sustainability of many jobs created by the mass micro enterprises. He observed that a relatively few firms exhibiting rapid and sustained growth account for the bulk of sustained job generation in small firms. This is especially so for the developing world where economic reforms are recent and hurried, and availability and access to market information is not uniform and assured. Those small enterprises that are better placed to access resources including information and technology thrive and offer sustained jobs while their disadvantaged contemporaries fizzle out.

Employment can be categorized in two broad categories such as Farm sector and Non-Farm sector employment. Farm sector employment is mainly rural land based crop and livestock farming like fish culture etc. On the other hand, the non-farm sector employment is considered as semi-town based largely encompassing service sub-sector employment, processing, manufacturing and small-scale enterprises. There is a close linkage between the two broad categories especially in developing countries where the non-farm activities play a major role in complementing the activities of agricultural marketing and processing enterprises.

Employment and income generation programmes are of two types such as: (i) self-employment, and (ii) wage-employment programmes. Self-employment programmes usually target the poor and assist them in undertaking income generating activities by providing them with credits. In some cases credit is accompanied by assistance in skill training and marketing. The wage-employment programmes create employment by using labour-intensive methods in constructing infrastructure.

In Assam generating productive employment for the growing labour force remains a dreadful challenge. The capacity of absorbing the incremental rural labour force in agriculture is extremely limited because of (Hossain 1987):

- No scope of expansion of the land frontier,
- The intensity of cropping has almost reached the limit,
- The growth of crop production now depends almost entirely on technological progress resulting in low employment elasticity of output, and
- The need for increasing labour productivity and reducing unit cost through mechanization.

It is true that a dramatic structural change has grown in the composition of rural labour force in favour of rural non-farm activities in Assam. Doubts however continue to persist about the employment generation and growth potentials of the rural non-farm sector due to lack of
information on the types of activities, the nature of their operation and the constraints and opportunities.

4. Unemployment Problems in Assam:

The problems of unemployment refer to the imbalance between the size and growth of labour force on the one hand and the opportunities of the productive absorption of labour offered by the existing economic structure on the other (Joshi and Joshi 1976). In defining employment for statistical purpose, developing countries usually follow the procedure of taking one week reference period, including even part time workers in the categories of employed and classifying as unemployed only those who did not work at all during the reference week and were actively seeking work. Thus to qualify as unemployed one would first have to fail the test of working by not working even a single day during a reference week. Once one could be regarded as not working, one would then have to pass the test of ‘seeking work’ although this latter concept could be subject to a variety of interpretations.

In applying the concept of unemployment the importance of the underemployment problem is also needs to be considered in the context of the economy of Assam. Like unemployment, underemployment also has different aspects and can be measured in various ways. The most widely used criteria in this are time and income, although productivity is also used in some senses. Underemployment is considered as a situation of underutilisation of labour time of persons of labour force leading to inadequate availability of employment and income. It is thus measured in relation to the number of hours worked and/or the size of income received by the employed persons during a given reference period.

Also in the case of women employed in the informal economy, open unemployment is less likely to be revealed since women in such employment may not openly seek a job. Since the productivity of labour in non-farm occupations is higher than the agricultural wage rate, even for the land-poor households, the mobility of rural workers from agriculture to the non-farm sector is contributing to an increase in the productivity and earnings of rural workers. It supports the proposition of the existence of pull factors that the higher productivity and wage earnings in most non-farm activities are luring labour from relatively low-productive, risky, and back-breaking farm activities.

The methods for measuring unemployment and underemployment are explained and suitable indicators for analysing underemployment in this context are put forward. Unemployment can be measured using two methods. The first chooses a norm for the standard hours of employment in a week and those who work less than this norm are identified as underemployed. In the neighbouring country Bangladesh, the Labour Force Survey (LFS) uses 35 hours as the norm for the standard hours worked in a week. Second, to take into account the extent of underemployment, the time criterion index of ‘Unemployment Equivalent’ (UE) can be used. The UE is calculated on the basis of the difference between a hypothetical norm of supply of days over a year and the actual days of employment of a worker (Krishna 1973; Khan et al. 1981; Rahman 1996).

Assam has a predominantly agrarian economy with weak industrial base. Most of the workers are engaged in agriculture and other allied activities such as livestock rearing, fishing, forestry, and plantation and horticulture. The total number of workers engaged in rural non-farm sector was 1.16 million in 1991 constituting 18.6 per cent of the rural work force as compared to 17.7
per cent for the country as a whole. This reinforces the fact that although the agriculture is the major economic activity, the rural non-farm sector provides a potential source for large scale generation of income and employment in the rural areas. Hence, the development of the rural non-farm sector is of paramount importance which calls for adequate credit flow to this sector.

The Industries and Commerce Department of the Government of Assam as well as Assam Industrial Development Corporation are associated with various schemes for industrial development in the state. It has been observed that there is a discernible shift in the Index of industrial production in the state which moved up from 132.46 points in 2002-03 to 125.87 points in 2003-04. However, the contribution of manufacturing sector in the total economy of the state was only 10.1 percent which is not very encouraging. As at end of 2002-03, there were 2695 registered factories providing employment to 96,031 persons. The Annual Survey of Industries (2001-02), reveals that in Assam, under the ‘manufacturing sector’, there were 1423 factories providing employment to 1,12,542 persons. As regards Small Scale Industries (SSI), there were more than 44,000 SSI units in Assam employing 1.85 lakh persons. Under the Pradhan Mantri Rozgar Yojana (PMRY) programme, during the year 2002-03, a total Rs 2684.87 lakh was disbursed to 9712 entrepreneurs in the state.

The employment scenario in the state during the year 2002, revealed that employment in the public sector showed a marginal increase of 0.85 per cent, while that in private sector decreased by 8.48 per cent over the previous year. As per the data available from the Employment Exchanges, the number of job seekers in the State increased to 15.72 lakh as at the end of December 2003 from 15.25 lakh during the corresponding period of the previous year indicating an increase of 3.1 per cent. Of the total registered job seekers, 67 per cent were educated. 54 per cent of the total educated persons had passed SSC and about 29 per cent were graduates. Thus, keeping in view the large scale unemployment problem in the state, self-employment ventures hold the key to faster development. A sizeable portion of job seekers could be motivated to set up their own ventures through various schemes of the state government with financial assistance from banks.

The Government of Assam has formulated the Industrial Policy of Assam, 2003 (w.e.f October 1, 2003) with the objective of increasing the share of the Industrial sector in the State Domestic Product (SDP) from 13.29 percent to at least 18 percent by the end of the five year period ending September 30, 2008. NABARD on its part is implementing a Credit Linked Capital Subsidy Scheme (CLCSS) for technological upgradation of Small Scale Industry. The scheme is meant to promote technological upgradation in 30 specified sectors / sub-sectors for setting up or upgradation of existing units by ‘state or near state of art technology’. Replacement of existing machinery with the same equipment is not eligible for assistance under the scheme. The scheme is being implemented by banks by provision of 15 percent capital subsidy. The maximum subsidy eligible is Rs. 6 lakh for SSI units having investment in plant and machinery up to Rs. 100 lakh.

5. Employment Opportunities in Rural Non-Farm Sector in Assam:

The rural non-farm sector holds the key to faster economic development. It has potential and promise for generating employment and increased income in the rural areas. At all India level, the rate of growth of employment on current daily status basis declined from 2.7 per cent per annum during 1983-94 to 1.07 per cent per annum during 1994-2000. In rural areas, it declined
from 2.4 per cent to 0.67 per cent per annum during the corresponding period. Employment elasticity of output growth in agriculture declined from 0.7 per cent to 0.01 per cent. The situation in Assam is more adverse than all India position.

Fruits and vegetable consumption has high income elasticity. Rising income will ensure that consumption growth will be sustained. It’s not an easy task to provide food and employment for the additional people and the labour force. Among the growing population, the proportion of population in the working age group will continue to grow, putting additional challenge for policy makers for generating productive employment in Assam. In as much as a sizable proportion of employment is available in the rural non-farm sector unlike the farm sector, it is sometimes treated as panacea for the growing twin problems of unemployment and poverty in policy discussions.

It is the expansion of the non-farm sector that has been contributing to increase in incomes of the households who are poorly endowed with assets. Many landless households have migrated to rural towns and cities and found jobs as transport operators or construction labourers. The impressive development in the rural road network in the last decade, coupled with the increase in marketed surplus rice and vegetables and fruits have created employment opportunities in transport operation and petty trading. This is the main reason why the supply of agricultural labour has declined in recent years and farmers have been complaining regarding the scarcity of agricultural labour. The increase in the number of shallow tube wells, pumps, power tillers and rickshaw and rickshaw vans has created jobs as in the operation and repair and maintenance. Last but not the least, many marginal landowning households with some skills for utilizing capital have been able to generate self-employment in livestock and poultry raising, petty trading, and various kinds of personal services.

Post reform period, there is a structural change in the rural non-farm sector which is especially favourable for poverty reduction through employment generation. During 1980s the rapidly increased labour absorption by the rural non-farm sector seems to have taken place in low-productivity activities to which the rural landless, pushed out of agriculture were drawn as self-employed workers. In contrast, during 1990s a less rapid shift of labour force into the rural non-farm sector was pulled in by the growth of wage employment in larger and more productive rural non-farm sector activities. The rural poor therefore found an improved opportunity of more remunerative wage employment in the rural non-farm sector in 1990s as compared to moving into overcrowded, low-productivity rural non-farm sector activities in the previous decade. The various dimensions of employment opportunities in the rural non-farm sector in Assam can be categorised as below:

- **Agricultural inputs related:** Irrigation pumps, fertilizers, spare parts, power tillers, small agricultural implements, threshing machines, and pesticides.
- **Crop output related:** Paddy and jute stores, vegetable shops, fruit stalls, betel leaf and nut shops, rice and wheat stall, oilseeds and spices stores.
- **Livestock related:** Sweetmeat and curds, chicken & eggs, milk trading, butcher shop, cattle trading.
- **Fisheries related:** Fish trading, fish fingerlings trading.
- **Forestry related:** Timber trading, fuel wood trading, bamboo and hogla leaves trading.

- **Agro-processing:** Gur (raw sugar) making, rice and flour mills, oil mills, cheera and muri making, saw mill, fish drying, handicrafts, salt making, goldsmith, furniture making.

- **Construction materials related:** Hardware shops, cement and rod, lathe machine, brick trading, stone and sands, brick field, lock and key business, bamboo fixtures, contractor for road and bridge construction, tin and iron trading.

- **Transport operation related:** Vehicle renting, leasing ferry ghat, trawler renting, repairing rickshaw/van, transport business.

- **Food services:** Tea stall, peddling tea, restaurants.

- **Others:** Cloth shops, readymade garments, tailoring, phone and fax machines, electronics, utensils, glass, cookeries.

Evidence from developing countries can be cited to suggest that the rural non-farm sector generates more employment opportunities even under a hostile policy environment which summarily denies access to institutional credit, tax rebates, input/output price support etc. secondly, it is argued that only a fraction of the capital is needed which creates an additional work place. Thirdly, the rural non-farm sector generates demand for semi-skilled and unskilled workers whose supply is increasing both in relative and absolute terms. Fourthly, the rural non-farm sector plays an important role in recycling waste materials which in many cases provide basic commodities for the poor. Lastly, the rural non-farm sector is believed to generate a more equitable distribution of assets and earnings. The benefits of higher employments and earnings and an improved status and living standard for women is emphasised in this context. In other words the sector is positively geared towards the poor in two senses, it generates employment and earnings on the one hand and cheaper consumer goods on the other.

The State of Assam is traditionally known for its rich Handloom and Handicraft products and the Government is ensuring promotion of this sector through various developmental schemes. For that, the State Government should take all possible steps for getting Financial and Technical Assistance from the Government of India for implementation of various schemes. There is a need to conduct survey on various Handicraft products and registration of Handicraft units time to time, as well as the government should strengthen the Handicraft Research and Design Center, Cottage Industries Training Institute and Cottage Industries Museum for the development of Handicraft Industries in the State. All possible measures should be taken to assist the craftsmen, artisans of various crafts and also the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)/ Co-operative Societies for development of Handicraft Industries in the State. The Government should also take necessary measures to export the Handicraft products to outside the country as well as to participate in exhibitions at various parts of the country to give exposure to the Handicraft products.

There is ample scope for development particularly in the rural areas for processing of cereals, fruits, vegetables, milk, meat and other agricultural products like Jute, Ramie etc. The Government is encouraging the development of Agro and Food processing industries by providing possible basic infrastructure to the industries. The Government of Assam should encourage setting up of Fruit Processing, Vegetable Processing, Spice Processing, Aqua-culture,
Horticulture based projects in the State. Apart from that, Government should also take necessary action to motivate the investors for commercial exploitation and processing and setting up of projects on medicinal herbs, aromatic plants, rubber plantation and processing, Small Tea garden etc. The Government of Assam is very much aware about the viability of setting up of Industries like diversified Jute products and Ramie based Industries in Assam by prospective entrepreneurs, but unlike that there needs some kind of more efficient initiatives from both apex and grassroot levels.

6. Rural Non-Farm Sector Activities in Assam:

The growth of agricultural productivity has promoted a healthy development in the rural non-farm sector by triggering what economists call ‘backward and forward linkages’. Agricultural growth has generated opportunities for employment and income in the rural non-farm sector through its effects on: (a) the demand for irrigation equipment and chemical fertilizers produced and transacted in the non-farm sectors, (b) the demand for services for processing, storage and marketing of additional agricultural produce, and (c) the demand for trade, transport, construction, education and health care services, as farm households spend a larger proportion of additional incomes for purchasing non-farm goods and services.

The examples of such industries are rice processing by dhenki (wooden husker), cloth and gamchha making by pit looms, village pottery, mat and net making etc. The productivity of labour in these industries was very low (Hossain 1984); in most cases lower than the agricultural wage rate. Most of these low-productive industries have already disappeared under competition with improved technologies such as rice mill, semi-automatic and power looms.

The various examples of the rural non-farm sector activities which are related to the Micro and Small Enterprises are cited as below:

- Brick making,
- Charcoal making,
- Marketing transport,
- Public transport,
- Small rural shops (food and non-food),
- Rural restaurants,
- Small bakeries,
- Repair workshops (various items),
- Small business centres,
- Blacksmiths and metalworkers,
- Carpentry workshops,
- Handicraft products (sewing, basket weaving, cloth making, etc.),
- Batik, tie and dye,
- Small lodges (ecotourism), and
- Tours and guides (ecotourism).

Source: (IFAD 2003b).

Though militant groups operating in Assam usually draw a lot of unemployed youth to join them and strengthen their cadres, the various Self-Help Groups who are transforming several youngsters’ lives in several districts of Assam, especially in villages. The Self-Help Groups’
impact is prominently visible in the State’s Jorhart district. Started by educated unemployed people, these SHGs have generated employment opportunities for the village youth and provided a ray of hope for them who are otherwise sought after by militant groups. Bestiary Shams Goan, a non-descript village in Jorhat district is an example of how self-help groups with the available means and resources have generated employment opportunities to enable people to survive. With their individual efforts, these people have showcased how despite a difficult phase of life it is possible to bring change by consistent attempts. Nearly 90,000 Self-Help Groups are active in rural Assam. They are mostly related to the fields of handloom, agriculture, fishery farming, poultry and Dairy. Self-Help Groups have in the recent times got further momentum with the initiation of Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY), a Central Government programme aimed at eradicating poverty in rural areas. The success of the scheme is a testimony to the fact that the people of the region do not want to suffer militancy and do not want their new generation to be diverted towards underground activities because of lack of government jobs.

Floods and Soil Erosion are causing immense suffering to the people of the affected areas and damage to the standing crops including loss of livestock. Apart from floods, the State is also subjected to large-scale erosion of soil, occurrence of hailstorm, cyclonic storm, drought, earthquake, etc. The flood and erosion control measures taken up so far are short-term measures. For effective management of flood and erosion in the valley, long-term measures in the form of storage reservoir in the upper catchments of the river basins and Watershed Management are a must. Suitable strategies may be evolved to address these problems immediately through appropriate measures for the economic resurgence of the State. Although these problems exist in the State, out of the three broad sectors of economy viz., Primary, Secondary and Tertiary, an impressive growth has been observed in case of Secondary sector.

One important phenomenon of the use of government waste land by the landless poor or by the self-help groups for production process is though new, it has tremendous output value. This is practised in Tamil Nadu and got tremendous influence from the disadvantaged section of the people (Vidyanathan et al. 2007). Again in Rajasthan, RUDA is playing a vital role in organising and employing rural people in income generation process. The Assam Government must learn lessons from these institutions and implement it in Assam.

Hence, according to Robb (2002), the issue of Participatory Poverty Assessments (PPAs) use participatory research methods to understand poverty from the perspective of the poor by focusing on their realities, needs and priorities. A participatory poverty assessment is a method to include poor in the analysis of poverty with the objective of influencing policy. The findings are transmitted to policy makers, thereby enabling the poor to influence public policy choices.

7. CONCLUSION:
The rural non-farm sector in Assam has immense potential to generate new jobs with relatively low direct investments, by utilising local skills and resources or by meeting local demands by adoption of simple techniques. Development of this sector would also prevent migration of rural population to urban areas in search of employment and reduce the pressure of increasing urbanisation. Rural poverty and proliferation of urban slums can be arrested only if government is able to move nearly a third of the landless labour in Assam from un-skilled on-farm to skilled non-farm jobs. This will be possible, only if public and private sector give concurrent attention to production, processing, packaging and marketing.
The recent move towards micro-credit system and initiative to set up of Grameen Bank, the tie up with Bangladesh is a remarkable. People often questioned, is India a superpower of poverty? (Das 2008) or is India a paper tiger? (Baru 2006). The real growth will only happen if the partner states of Indian Union will grow equally. The rural non-farm sector is an alternative way of livelihood process when agricultural farming fails in India to engage all the rural poor.

There is no doubt that the rural non-farm sector activities in Assam have assumed a leading role in generating income and employment particularly in rural areas. The detailed profile of the non-farm activities suggest that most enterprises are small, generate self-employment for their proprietors and are mostly engaged in trading activities. They have very limited access to basic factors of production and services. Yet, these enterprises are not low productive residual and last resort type activities in Assam. Most enterprises are full time engagement for their owners and employees. Indeed, age and size profiles of the enterprises suggest that the rural non-farm sector activities provide rich breeding grounds for entrepreneurs in both urban and rural areas. The sector has shown strength over the last decade. Both employment and number of enterprises have grown strongly. Moreover, the desired structural transformation from home-based enterprises to enterprises with permanent structure has been underway. While average labour productivity in this sector is higher than agricultural wage, there are large variations in labour productivity and total factor productivity implying existence of constraints in technological upgrading and large entry and exit costs.

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INDIA AND PAKISTAN: THE KEY PROBLEMS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF RELATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This article examines the causes and consequences of the relationships between India and Pakistan, the political, military, regional and religious conflicts between leading countries in the South Asian region and its impact on geopolitical, economic and social areas in the Central and South Asia region. Relations between the two countries have been studied, as well as interests of the United States, Russia, China, Afghanistan and Central Asia, including Uzbekistan, as a third country. One of the key factors that determine the relevance of the Indian-Pakistan relations in the country is that the deterioration of stability in South Asia has a profound impact on Uzbekistan's interests. The reason is that since the early years of independence Uzbekistan has traditionally close economic and political ties with India and Pakistan. Therefore, Uzbekistan is for and interested in the reconciliation of Indian and Pakistani conflicts. Also, passing through Pakistan to India allows for a short way to go to India and get to the Indian Ocean. The literatures on the subject have been divided into groups according to their territorial and chronological characteristics, and the necessary conclusions are also given. In 2008, the book "The Researches of America" was published about the consequences of the nuclear war between India and Pakistan. Authorities say that although the cost of both countries is not large enough to have a nuclear weapon, their use can lead to catastrophic agricultural and global famine. As a result, about a billion people will die in ten years. According to him, the two countries have agreed to a peaceful settlement of their problems. Shortly after, however, in March 1971, the third major war broke out between them. As a result, the eastern part of Pakistan was separated from Bangladesh. In the summer of 1972, a contract was signed with the leaders of the two countries in Simla, India.

KEYWORDS: India, Pakistan, Kashmir, Central Asia, South Asia, Afghanistan, Regional Security, Terrorism, Religious Extremism.
INTRODUCTION

In the context of accelerating globalization processes and integrating modern-day international relations, security is crucial to the global community. The reason is that geopolitical forces acting at the regional level appear in this process. They play an important role not only in the growth of individual regions, but also in the context of their national security challenges in the process of regional security. These "super powers in South Asia" are India and Pakistan. Because almost all factors that have a negative impact on the security of the region arise because of the contradictory relationships between the two countries. Their uncertainty appears to be the most dangerous threat to mankind in the list of contemporary threats. Both countries have a nuclear weapon. They tested underground nuclear weapons in the second half of the 20th century and then officially announced. Therefore, the escalation of tensions in the relations between the two countries remains dangerous not only for the region, but also for the entire world. South Asia, China, Myanmar, Afghanistan and Central Asia will be subjected to radioactive radiation if they use one another nuclear weapon. In 2008, the book "The Researches of America" was published about the consequences of the nuclear war between India and Pakistan. Authorities say that although the cost of both countries is not large enough to have a nuclear weapon, their use can lead to catastrophic agriculture and global famine. As a result, about a billion people will die in ten years. That's why India and Pakistan's long-term problems are all about the security of the whole world. In addition, at the present stage, we must recognize that in South Asia, the growing threat of sectarian violence threatens such threats as terrorism, drug trafficking and organized crime.

The issue of regional security in Central and South Asia, the Middle East and the CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States) is currently inextricably linked with the level of Indian-Pakistan relations and their "Afghan problem" strategy. The widespread threats such as terrorism, drug addiction, organized crime, religious-ethnic tensions and fundamentalism in South Asia are alarming not only of the Central Asian region, but also of the entire world community because of the escalation of tensions.

The relevance of this topic in Uzbekistan is that the countries, which have become the focus of Central Asia's worst-case scenarios, cross the border with Afghanistan and Pakistan through the region, causing many political, economic and social problems in the region, and destabilizing peace and stability in the region:

- Pakistan's Mesb-i-Mush-Jihad, Dukdas al-Irshad and other non-state religious extremist organizations are calling for more than 100 young people from Central Asia to participate in a variety of training events that help them to create terrorist attacks and devastate their governments, organizing training courses and carrying out their destructive propaganda and propaganda. In particular, Uzbekistan has been fighting for rebels that moving in its southern parts of the country bordering Afghanistan for several years to establish strong ties with the Pakistani terrorist network and to become the focus of terrorism;

- Drug trafficking, which is closely related to terrorism, is also one of the most complex issues facing the region. The extent to which the problem of Central Asia is a problem is illustrated by the fact that Kyrgyzstan has been ranked 3rd in Asia in the last 2-3 years after the Myanmar and Thailand. At present, more than five million people in Kyrgyzstan are engaged in the production; sale or processing of blackberries. The amount of narcotics imported into
Uzbekistan has risen by 11 percent over the last five years. 50-65 percent of the black exported to Afghanistan is exported through Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan;

- the development of organized crime does not only increase the borders of drug trafficking, but also the trafficking of human beings, arms and natural resources. The growing number of such crimes is evident in close proximity to India, Pakistan and Afghanistan, as well as in the Central Asian region. Attempts to commit bribery are largely due to corruption in the countries and a breakdown of economic imbalances due to the large amount of income from them. At the World Economic Forum (WEF) in Davos, 2017, 15 bidders have been declared to have the highest rates of organized crime. Pakistan ranks 10th in this rating. WEF expert noted that organized crime, which is closely linked to terrorism, also causes deterioration of the situation in Afghanistan, not just Pakistan, but also directly affects Central Asia;

- Central Asian countries can not move further than China in trade-economic issues, and in particular, India, because no country in the region has a common border with India. India and Pakistan to resolve their conflicts and come to a compromise will allow Pakistan to travel through India to a short distance through Pakistan and reach the Indian Ocean;

- Speaking at the UNO General Assembly session on January 19, 2018, Secretary-General AntioniuGuterrish said: "The Afghan problem can not be resolved solely by military action. In improving the livelihoods of the population here, deeply rooted issues in the social sphere - ethnic and religious tensions, unemployment and refugees - should be regulated through certain reforms. From year to year, the country's relocation of civilians has been rising due to religious extremism, terrorism, and organized crime. 90% of Pakistan's refugees are Afghan citizens. Central Asian countries are also becoming a safe haven for Afghan refugees, which, in turn, lead to crime, unemployment and widespread poverty.

The main purpose of this study is to study the indirect impact of the Indian-Pakistan conflict on the territorial security, political and economic development of the MJO region, on the increase or elimination of social problems, and conclusions based on local and international research on this issue.

For these purposes, the following tasks have been identified for the study: a) determination of the level of development of relations between the two countries; b) determining the impact of the leading countries of the world - the US, Russia and China; c) consideration of the impact of the threats posed by Central Asia on the problem; d) study the theoretical sources on the subject.

Historical, chronological-problematic and comparative analysis methods were used in the processing and analysis of the data used to write the article:

- based on the historical methodology to study the dynamics of the problem;

- the chronologically-problematic method has been clarified by the factors that led to the escalation of tensions between the two countries, and the work of experts and experts on this subject was studied periodically and divided into groups;

- Comparative analysis methodology has been compared to the efforts and efforts of the parties in solving conflicts, and the necessary conclusions have been made.

The reasons for the escalation of the Indian-Pakistani conflict are analyzed in terms of regional, religious, socio-economic and military aspects. These aspects are reflected in the following cases:

1) The Kashmir problem, which has emerged through the incorrect demarcation of the Great Britain in the distribution of Indian Territory, has been at the forefront of sharp contradictions between the two countries for more than 60 years. This region has resulted in many wars and conflicts between countries (major wars of 1947-48, 1965, 1972, 1999, and the crisis of 2001-2002). Repeated attempts to resolve the problem of land ownership are neither successful nor successful at the international talks in Islamabad. That's why the situation in the region remains unstable.

2) Religion plays an important role for Pakistan, which seeks to preserve its "personality" in front of India. The rise of Islamic fundamentalism has a direct negative impact on India with more than 260 million Muslims. Conflicts between the two countries are deepening as a result of attempts to reinforce religious revivalism. In this situation, the geostrategic location of Pakistan in the South Asia and the Middle East will allow him to rely on the military and economic potential of other Muslim countries.

3) Another important problem in bilateral relations is the use of available water resources for irrigation of river water. The major part of India uses some of the major rivers such as Brahmaputra, Ganga, Jamna, Hindu, Jelam, Chenob, Sal, Tirakol, Maghna, Son and Damodar, and these rivers play an important role in Indian life. Two of them cross the Jelam and Chenob cities of Jammu and Kashmir. In the year 1948, many disputes over the use of rivers have been resolved through the Water Use Agreement. This agreement was replaced with the "Indian River Basin Development Contract" by 1960. According to him, the three eastern banks of the Indian Ocean were assigned to India, and three western streets belonged to Pakistan.

4) The 2nd half of the 20th century has become a centre of international attention due to the rapid development of South Asian countries, particularly India and Pakistan. However, the growth of economic potential in them has resulted in the development of their military operations. The military spending of these two countries is increasing year by year. India ranks number 1 in the top ten in terms of arms imports in 2011 and Pakistan takes the 7th place. By 2016, India has spent $ 51 billion on the industry's budget for this sector, and has ranked fifth after the United States, China, Russia and the United Kingdom, leading the world's largest military spending. Over the past two years, 90 percent of South Asia's military spending is in line with India and Pakistan. This is certainly a matter of concern for the security of the international community. The strengthening of the military capabilities of the two countries does not only exacerbate
tensions in the region, but also threatens regional and international security with the nuclear exchange of India and Pakistan.

Due to the above-mentioned reasons, India-Pakistan relations have experienced a tense period, and this is still not fully solved.

Due to the uncertainty of the Kach-Rann area in the south of Kashmir, in April 1965 the second major war on the claim of possession of the territory was launched. This war was halted in September with the establishment of border lines. On January 10, 1966, the Tashkent Declaration was signed with Indian Prime Minister La'ilBahadurShastri and Pakistani President Muhammad Ayubkhan. According to him, the two countries have agreed to a peaceful settlement of their problems. Shortly after, however, in March 1971, the third major war broke out between them. As a result, the eastern part of Pakistan was separated from Bangladesh. In the summer of 1972, a contract was signed with the leaders of the two countries in Simla, India. According to him, the sides agreed to stop firing on the border areas. However, the Saltoro ridge and the Siachen glaciers were beyond the precise demarcation limits, resulting in a further confrontation between India and Pakistan in 1984.

From the mid 1980's to the end of 1998, relations between the two countries were intensively maintained. At the beginning of 1999, the biggest war in the history of India and Pakistan emerged on the Kargil issue, and that war dates back to Kargil war. In February, the Lahore Declaration was signed with Indian Prime Minister AtalBihariVajpai and Pakistani Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif. However, because of the military coup in Pakistan at that time, some of the declaration requirements were not fulfilled at all.

On February 21, 2001, Pakistan's President Pervez Musharraf offered to hold talks with the Indian government. On July 16, Agra hosted a meeting of the heads of state and ended without success. The process of establishing a peace process has ended with a series of terrorist attacks.

After more than half a century of controversy, in 2004, Islamabad and New Delhi began a comprehensive process of normalizing relations. However, after the massive terrorist attacks in Mumbai, India, in November 2008, a "cold season" began again between the two countries. This terrorist attack has prompted negotiations to resume negotiations between Delhi and Islamabad, which has just become more active. The worst thing is that after the terrorist attacks, a tense situation has arisen in Jammu and Kashmir, periodic terrorist attacks have taken place and catastrophic armed clashes on the Indian-Pakistan border have been rising along with hostages and killings.

On February 25, 2010, Pakistani Deputy Foreign Minister Salman Bashir met with Indian Foreign Minister NerupamaRao and agreed to resume contacts. The main topic of the meeting was the fight against terrorism.

On March 30, 2011, Indian and Pakistani national teams played a friendly match against Cricket in Mogali, India. The meeting was also attended by officials from both countries, prominent art figures and Indian Prime Minister Manmohan Singh and Pakistani Prime Minister YousufRazaGilani. At the official meeting after the play, the sides discussed all the controversial issues and stressed the need for further efforts to resolve the existing problems in the bilateral relations. But unfortunately, on July 13, 2011, three more explosions took place in Mumbai, killing 20 and wounding more than 100 people. Pakistani militants in the Pakistani city of
Lashkari have been suspected of involvement in the blasts by militants from the Mujahideen group in close contact with an extremist group.

The Indian and Pakistani Prime Ministers at the OSCE Summit in Maldives on November 10, 2011, said they were ready to open a "new page" in bilateral relations. The parties acknowledged their willingness to develop a broad format of dialogue and expressed hope that the next round of bilateral talks will be more effective and constructive than before.

On April 8, 2012 Pakistan's President Asif Ali Zardari arrived in India. During the meeting the leaders of the two countries discussed issues of strengthening economic ties, as well as trade, education and culture. A number of agreements and agreements were signed to develop cooperation in these areas.

In September 2013, India and Pakistan Prime Ministers Manmohan Singh and Nawaz Sharif met at the UN General Assembly in New York and reaffirmed their commitment to improving relations. The Pakistani Prime Minister said in his statement that "the principles of the two countries' peace-building have been developed in the 1999 Lakhor Declaration. The document, signed in February this year, is a road map for the peoples of the two peoples to peace, stability and prosperity."

The leader of the Bharatiya Janata party, who won the 2014 election, has succeeded in "demonstrating" the positive in "Pakistan's direction" during his tenure. The 16th Prime Minister of India, Narendra Modi, was the first Pakistani Prime Minister, Muhammad Nawaz Sharif, to visit India to celebrate his victory. The leaders of the two nuclear powers have unveiled a new page of bilateral relations between countries that have more than a billion inhabitants.

In March 2015, government officials met in Kashmir, Siachen, Syrk-Krik and agreed to deal with water use issues. This meeting played an important role in solving the working borders between the two countries. In addition, the ShCO (Shanghai Cooperation Organization) summit in Ufa this year was a unique event for India and Pakistan, for the first time in the history of the Organization was proposed for India and Pakistan to be permanent members. The summit was chaired by Uzbekistan. Former President of Uzbekistan I. Karimov noted that the acceptance of full membership of the two nuclear-weapon states in the ShCO would give a positive impetus to the contradictions between them.

By September 2016, the events began to get worse. Pakistani militants attacked Indian soldiers in Jammu and Kashmir. This has been the largest and most catastrophic attack in the past fifteen years. Indian officials have said that militants have entered Pakistan and that Pakistan has been supporting terrorist organizations in its territory. By the end of the year, mutual relations began to decline again.

But in 2017, a major turning point was made between India and Pakistan. At the ShCO summit in Astana in June of this year, the two countries became permanent members of the organization and heads of states signed the statement of the organization "On combating religious extremism and terrorism".

Pakistani Prime Minister Imran Khan, who won the 2018 poll, called on India's leadership to resolve the Kashmiri issue and other issues by peaceful means. In his statement, "... the best way to fight poverty and improve the living standards of our peoples is to interact and settle conflicts
on a contractual basis." However, his appeal remained open. There was no clear response from the Indian government.

Unfortunately, the standoff began on February 14, 2019, when suicide bomber Adil Ahmad Dar of the Pakistani Islamist group Jaish-e-Muhammad rammed a bus with police from the Central Reserve Police of India in a car with explosives. As a result of this attack, 45 policemen were killed.

On February 15, New Delhi imposed economic restrictions on Islamabad. India abolished trade privileges granted in the framework of the most favored status of the WTO in the amount of more than $2 billion. In addition, the Indian authorities have increased import duties on all Pakistani goods by 200%.

On February 26, 2019, 12 Dassault Mirage 2000 airplanes, accompanied by 4 Su-30 MKI Indian airplanes, crossed the line of control in Kashmir and launched an airstrike with high-precision AGM-142 Have Nap and Spice ammunition at the Jaish-e-Muhammad military camp near Balakot in Pakistan. The operation also involved two aircraft tanker Il-78 MKI, DRLO A-50EI aircraft based on the IL-76 and IAI Heron UAV. India stated that this airstrike was inflicted in response to the attack at Pulvam. According to India, during the attack, about 350 militants were killed. After an air strike, the aircraft returned to the airspace of India without a loss. Pakistani Air Force lifted the F-16 into the air, but by that time the Indian Air Force aircraft had left the attack zone.

The air strike was the first since the Third Indo-Pakistani war in 1971, when the Indian Air Force aircraft crossed the line of control, and the first after both states became nuclear powers.

At the briefing, the press secretary of the Pakistani Armed Forces, Major General Asif Ghafoor, stated that there were no casualties and damage to the infrastructure in Pakistan. He added that the two groups of Indian Air Force planes did not cross the border, and the third group after crossing the border was intercepted by the Pakistan Air Force 3 minutes after the invasion.

On February 27, 2019, throughout the day, there were shootouts along the line of control between the armies of Pakistan and India with the use of small arms and mortars. Pakistani officials reported that at least four civilians were killed and eleven injured. India reported 10 injured Indian soldiers and two damaged apartment buildings.

Pakistani air forces launched an air strike on Nadian, LaamJangar, Kerry in Rajuri district and HamirpurBhimberGalli area in Puncha located in India. According to Pakistan, six non-military targets were hit to avoid human casualties and material damage from India. According to the Indian military, three planes of the Pakistan Air Force crossed the line of control from Nowshera, Jammu and Kashmir, but they were pushed aside by six planes of the Indian Air Force.

During the border conflict on February 27, 2019, an air battle took place between the aviation groups of the Indian Air Force and the Pakistan Air Force. From the Indian Air Force, eight fighters took part in the air battle: four Su-30 MKIs and two MiG-21UPG Kopye (MiG-21-93), two Dassault Mirage 2000 from the Air Forces of Pakistan - 24 aircraft, among which were eight F-16, four Dassault Mirage III, four JF-17 Thunder. The remaining 12 Pakistan Air Force aircraft accompanied the strike group and did not take part in the battle. As a result of the air combat, the MiG-21 shot down one F-16. The F-16 crashed into parts of Jammu and Kashmir’s Pakistan-controlled territory. Representatives of the Pakistan Air Force denied participation in
the battle of the F-16 aircraft, however, representatives of the Indian Armed Forces showed fragments of the AIM-120 missile, which can only be launched from the F-16 multi-purpose fighters of all of the Pakistan Air Forces. The MiG-21 itself in an air battle was shot down by a Pakistani JF-17 fighter, the pilot ejected and was captured. On March 1, 2019, the captured Indian military airman Abhinindan Warthaman was transferred by Pakistan to the official representatives of India.

On March 2, 2019 in Kashmir, during the mutual shelling of the Indian and Pakistani sides, 4 civilians were killed, three more were wounded and several houses were destroyed.

On 4 March 2019, military clashes with the use of small arms and mortars between the armed forces of Pakistan and the armed forces of India resumed in Kashmir. On the same day, the Su-30 MKI of the Indian Air Force shot down a UAV of the Pakistan Armed Forces over a desert area in the northern Indian state of Rajasthan, the latter in turn does not comment on this information.

On March 5, 2019, the Pakistani Navy stated that they had found a submarine of the Indian Navy in the territorial waters of Pakistan, as a result of which it was forced to retreat. Representatives of the Indian Navy called it propaganda and disinformation.

Conflicts between India and Pakistan are among the key issues in the South Asian region, where unstable situation prevails, as the main obstacle to sustainable and sustainable economic and social cooperation not only in South Asia, but also in Central Asia. Different religious and political confrontations, ethnic conflicts and unresolved regional conflicts between the two countries serve as a basis for the preservation of the unstable situation throughout the region and the ongoing strengthening of internal military and local conflicts. Pakistan's attempts to pursue a policy of pursuing a policy of pursuit of support to Pakistan in the pursuit of Pakistan's constant political "games", Russia's geopolitical and economically significant projects with India and Central Asia, and China's territorial disputes with India on the third side, have South-Central Asia markets the desire to become a substitute rather than a solution to the complex situation in the region. As a result, Central and South Asia faces new challenges that threaten security.

Solving the current situation in the region is the solution of the nuclear issues related to the two countries, conducting practical work on the Afghan problem, directly affecting domestic and foreign policy, compromise with the world's hegemonic states, which have their political, social and economic interests in South and Central Asia. And, of course, India and Pakistan, each with its own national-territorial security, sustainable development in its domestic and foreign policy, and the peaceful and prosperous life of its people, their future prospects are crucial for their future prospects.

In summary, the 70-year competition between the two countries in many cases did not produce a positive result, and on the contrary, there were many negative consequences for economic, political and social spheres. More than ever before, a peaceful and innocent population suffered, millions of people lost their loved ones.

Many world political experts have said that India and Pakistan are fraudulent, and they are described as "supporters of peace" without any particular effort or outcome.

It is desirable for these two countries to undertake the following measures in order to cease such recognition, to prevent unnecessary casualties, and to ensure peace in the South Asian region:
1) The issue of Kashmir remains the most active point of disagreement. Therefore, first of all, it is necessary to take concrete decisions on the region and to take joint measures to create a stable environment in the region;

2) The second point of the problem is the growing terrorism in the region. Measures to minimize the negative impact of this situation should be accomplished not by the continual blaming of the two nations, but by the agreements between the states. Only a positive result can be achieved;

3) India's potential to change relations with Pakistan is to develop mutually advantageous economic ties. At the same time, it should be noted that common goals and benefits, along with the "irreconcilable" rivals in the field of security, trade, economic and inter-ethnic relations are also emerging. Cooperation between the two countries in energy sector, construction of gas pipeline from Iran to India through Pakistan as well as implementation of Trans-Afghan gas pipeline project from Turkmenistan to Pakistan and India is an important factor in eliminating conflicts;

4) India and Pakistan should agree on a mutual refusal to deploy nuclear weapons and establish restrictions on the use of ballistic missiles. In this way, the two countries will make a truly contribution to the security of the region;

5) It is possible to build confidence in the region by slowing down the level of traditional weapons at the borders to stabilize the peace process;

6) Ensure mutual trust and international technical oversight of the nuclear crisis, and respect the provisions of the UNO, ShCO, OSCE and other international organizations, to comply with the norms set forth therein, in particular to improve relations between the two countries on the initiative of these organizations and a responsible approach to each of the terms of the agreements and agreements signed on the development path will serve as a necessary basis for promising relations between the two countries.

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WHAT MAKES UP HAPPY WORKPLACES?

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ABSTRACT

Jobs play an integral part of adult life. A large chunk of life is spent by people in their workplaces. Unless a workplace offers satisfaction and happiness to the employee, they are most likely to suffer from burnout, frustration and dissatisfaction and are then likely to quit their jobs. This causes loss of talent for the organizations. To use its workforce to its full potential, organisations must provide them with a conducive work environment. Hence, modern day workplaces should be of nature where workers feel like returning daily and feel happy at while they are at work. Hence, in the discipline of organizational behavior, workplace happiness and happy workplaces theme are highly relevant for organizations today. Considering the dynamic and demanding nature of work today, it becomes imperative to have organisations that can nurture talent and retain its good employees. Mental and emotional wellbeing of the workforce must be supported by the organisations and hence they should focus on employee happiness in the long run. This paper explores the dimensions of a happy workplace as reviewed from the literature. The dimensions identified are then further classified into three categories, namely, organization related, work related and employee related. The paper further discusses the benefits of a happy workplace and concludes with directions for future research.

KEYWORDS: Happy Workplace, Employee Happiness, Employee well-being, Happiness
INTRODUCTION

To sustain life, people take up jobs or pursue professions, making it an important aspect of their life. As a reward for the jobs they do or professions they pursue, one expects either monetary or non-monetary return. In present times, where the world has turned into a global village, work environment has also undergone a paradigm shift. The work environment today is more dynamic and demanding than it was ever before. Organizations of present day seek employees who are willing to work in various work shifts and locations. Integration of global economies seeks organizations to work 24*7. With these changes at the organizational levels, the nature of work has also undergone change. Benrazavi & Silong (2013, p. 129) defines nature of work as “the actual content of the job or work characteristics”. HRM practices adopted by organizations influence nature of work. Despite the fact that work environment is highly demanding and can thus be stressful, greater productivity and better performance continues to remain a desired result from the workforce across the globe. Barney (1991) points out that people in an organization are a unique source of achieving competitive advantage. To be able to use its people to the best, it is important to provide workers with a conducive work environment. Workplaces thus should be of nature where workers feel like returning daily and where they can work happily. Hence, workplace happiness and happy workplaces needs more attention and undoubtedly hold relevance for organizations today.

“Happiness is the meaning and purpose of life, the whole aim and end of human existence- Aristotle”

Numerous studies have been conducted to explore factors that positively enhance employee productivity and improve employee performance, thereby adding to the success of an organization. Amongst many factors has emerged the construct of happiness at work. There are studies (e.g. Quick & Quick, 2004; Rego & Cunha, 2008) that back the idea that happy employees are productive employees. Fereidouni et al. (2013) have shown that unhappiness at the workplace reduces productivity. Happiness has been studied in various disciplines (like-economics, management, philosophy, psychology and sociology) from different perspectives. Most often, Happiness is conceptualized as subjective wellbeing, positive thinking and having positive feelings about health, relationships, work, and overall life (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008; Fisher, 2010; Lyubomirsky, 2008). Happiness at workplace and happy workplaces are two of the various happiness related perspectives that are being explored by management researchers.

Individual actions, organizational actions are the two strategies that Fisher (2010) proposes for increasing happiness at work. Chaiprasit and Santidhirakul (2011) developed a five factor framework of happiness at the workplace. These factors are job inspiration, organization’s shared value, relationship, quality of work life and leadership. According to them happiness at work is experiencing positive emotions emerging from work. Suphaphun et al. (2014) have called it as the well-being of an organization itself. “Happiness at the workplace refers to how satisfied people are with their work and lives” (Sharif and Majid, 2015, pg. 78). A reference is made to the work of Maenapothi (2007) by Trakulmaykee (2016) where Trakulmaykee points out that Maenapothi mentions workplace happiness as “situation in which personnel work happily and efficiently to achieve goals at the personnel and organisational levels” (pg. 24). Though some researchers feel that creating happy workplaces and happiness at work may not be a cost effective deal but Chaiprasit and Santidhirakul (2011) conclude their work by saying that to have
a happy atmosphere at work, money is not a necessary requirement, rather what is more essential is a determination of employees to create a friendly atmosphere, one that increases creative thinking, and freedom for new ideas.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mallick (2016, p.6) says that “Happy workplaces are not just ‘nice to have’ phenomenon”. Workplace happiness focuses on the individual experience of the human condition at work (Albano, 2009). Authors believe that it is a happy workplace which fosters workplace happiness because impact of environment on one’s mood cannot be overlooked. Hence, the paper hypothesizes that happy workplaces are an important ingredient to create and sustain happiness at work. Unless, an employee feels that his workplace is a happy one, he will not feel happy working there and thus organization may lose out on numerous benefits that both happy workplaces and happiness at work results in. Further to sustain long-term happiness at work, it is essential to have sustainable happy workplaces. A branch of literature has also examined the feasibility and discuss the practicability of developing happy workplaces that are significantly different from ‘High Performance Work Systems’ identified in literature.

In the official Conference Proceedings of The Asian Conference on the Social Sciences 2014, Kaewpijit mentions that the idea of Happy Workplace was conceived in Thailand to help workforce have good physical and mental health that shall help employees work happily. The Happy Workplace campaign to support work-life balance of employees that was launched by Thai Health Promotion Foundation seeks to bring a balance between Intelligence Quotient and Emotional Quotient to have a healthy organization. Kaewpijit (2014) characterizes a happy workplace as one where workers take care of each other like in a family. His work is a case study on QTC Energy Public Company Limited. The organization has embedded values like understanding, forgiveness, and opportunities for its workforce to embrace change with ease. Oswald (2002) calls for paying attention to influential factors when it comes to designing a happy workplace. He characterizes happy workplace as one, where workplace control lies in the hands of colleagues or customers, offers equal opportunities at work, gives an option to work from home and allows freedom of minor nature and involves dealing with people. Deriving conclusions from a preliminary analysis of the WERS98 data in his address while accepting the appointment as Professor on the Rotating Chair (for Research in Organization and Management in the Faculty of Economics) in 2004, Peccei said that happy workplaces are those where workers do not feel that they have to work too hard, jobs are not too demanding and offers variety and less control, has a good wage-bargain opportunity, offers job security and their well-being is valued by the management. He says that happy workplaces are not similar to the so called ‘High Performance Work Systems’. Peccei points out that happy workplace has very few temporary workers and mainly employs full time workers with stable jobs. Jobs are loosely structured, but focus is laid on goal-setting. Pay is comparatively higher and also offers non-pay benefits like pension plans, maternity benefits etc. There is open and free communication between workers and management with many family-friendly and work-life balance policies. Environment of a happy workplace can get disturbed when a person with a strong negative disposition joins the group says Gregory (2010). Hence, by keeping people with similar dispositions together, a workplace could become happier place. This also holds value, as conflicts will like to be less when people with similar dispositions work together. Mallick (2016) mentions sensitivity, awareness, thought and a belief (that people are good) as essential ingredients to create happy
workplaces. Nakata (2017) ends his work giving direction to future researchers and urging them to design happy workplaces. The subject of his work is the Japanese workforce and he explores reasons to explain why Japanese workforce is unhappy. The author lists reasons like being poorest sleepers, long working hours and imbalance in work-life balance that adds to the unhappiness of working class in Japan. WHO (2017) in its report titled “Promoting a healthy lifestyle at the workplace-be the change” recommends that promoting healthy and happy workplaces should be made a core business values. The importance of a happy workplace gets highlighted from the WHO report.

Dimensions of Happy Workplace

Each construct is made up of some underlying factors or dimensions. While exploring literature on happy workplaces, a number of key factors that are inevitable to have a happy workplace were identified from a number of previous studies. Based on the dimensions of Psychological Well-Being given by Ryff and Keyes (1995), Albano (2009) identified 6 dimensions of Workplace happiness as meaning, autonomy, behavioural norms, feedback, supportive relations and personal growth. Fisher (2010) discusses the causes of happiness in organizations and divides them into three categories, namely- Environmental causes, Dispositional causes and Person by situation causes. Specific characteristics of job/task related to happiness have been identified and compiled by Fisher from literature. Calling happiness as contagious, Pfeffer (2010) attributes happiness at workplaces to the leadership and organizational culture. Prayukvong (2010) worked on examining Buddhist Economics Approach to Business Management and says that businesses that follow Buddhist ideology, where the ultimate objective is not private profit promote cordial employer-employee relations and can create happy workplaces. Members of such business units care for each other and also provide social services (Prayukvong, 2010). In 2011, a measure of organizational happiness, the Happy Workplace Index (HWI) checklist was developed. It provides insights into factors that if managed well can enhance workplace happiness. By managing these factors a conducive environment will emerge that helps creating happy workplaces. The HWI can be used by managers to improve processes that promote happiness at workplaces (Thummakul et al., 2012). Four dimensions were identified by Hargrove et al. (2013) that must be managed well to create workplaces that are both healthy as well as happy. Demand on Work Load, Work Pace, Job Complexity, and Job Responsibility from employees should be reasonable, so that they do not appear to be a hurdle to employees. Many researchers have supported the idea that loving what one does is likely to add to the success of the person as they will show greater productivity, creativity and will do work of higher-quality (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005, Oswald et al., 2014). According to Suwannaset (2014) employees play a crucial role in creating happy workplaces. These employees have been referred to as employee champions and change leaders in the literature. Suphaphun et al. (2014) posit that the organization must involve eight components to have a happy workplace. These eight components are Happy Body, Happy Heart, Happy Relaxation, Happy Brain, Happy Soul, Happy Money, Happy Family and Happy Society. Based on the MapHR model framework, Kaeodumkoeng and Junhasobhaga (2015) developed a training program that helps promote happy workplaces. The model is based on five factors that enhance happiness in the workplaces. These factors are identified as management (M), atmosphere and environments (A), process (P), health (H), and result (R) and is thus named as MapHR model. The results of their study are in line with previous works that brings us to an understanding that management, atmosphere and
environment, happiness promotion processes, physical and mental health, and organizational results are critical factors that must be looked into well for creating happy workplaces. Some other studies conducted by Florin et al. (2000), Bambra et al. (2009) and Biggio et al. (2013) have explored factors (like organizational climate, organizational capacity, and management, environment, and results of organization) that lead to happy workplaces. “Good business practices with ethics can help create happy workplaces and happy societies (Kittiprapas, 2016 pg. 106)”.

Fig 1: Happy Workplace Framework as proposed by Thummakul et al. (2012) pg. 530
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Based on various dimensions of happy workplaces identified from the literature, they can be broadly clubbed into three categories, namely - Employee centric, Work centric and Organization centric.

| Human Values | Y | Y | Y |
| Faith in People | | | Y |
| Work Load | Y |
| Work Pace | Y |
| Job Complexity | Y |
| Job Responsibility | Y |
| Change Leaders | Y |
| Management | Y |
| Atmosphere and Environments | Y |
| Process | Y |
| Health | Y |
| Result | Y |
| Ethical Business Practices | | Y |
| Employer-Employee Relations | Y |
| Happy Body | Y |
| Happy Heart | Y |
| Happy Relaxation | Y |
| Happy Brain | Y |
| Happy Soul | Y |
| Happy Money | Y |
| Happy Family | Y |
| Happy Society | Y |

When these three core dimensions are taken care of, only then can a workplace boast of being a happy workplace. Below, we present a table that classifies various dimensions identified from literature are grouped into three categories proposed by us.
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**Benefits of Happy Workplaces**

Multiple benefits that a happy workplace results in are discussed by many researchers. “Happy workplaces are beneficial not only to employees but also to employers, organizations, the wider community, and society as a whole.” Kets de Vries (2016, pg, 11).

Low job satisfaction and greater experience of turnover intention is a syndrome from which unhappy employees suffer (Silla et al., 2010). According to Chawsithiwong (2008) creating a workplace where employees are happy helps the organization reap multiple benefits like greater productivity, enhanced product quality, increase in sales and higher customer satisfaction. Further there is decreased absenteeism, less stress among workers and hence fewer occupational diseases are reported.

Happy workplaces are also considered to be productive workplaces, thus when management succeeds in removing negative employee behaviour it can help use positive experiences to get better results like enhanced performance (Bloisi, 2012). Evidence that happiness at work results in better quality work, greater productivity is available in the works of Fereidouni et al. (2013); Suphaphun et al. (2014). Mallick (2016) lists easy and spontaneous performance, enhances employee morale and organizational health as key benefits of a happy workplace. Fernandez (2016) quotes the results of iOpener Institute on midsized companies. Happy workplaces experienced a considerable decline in turnover, cost of sick leaves and showed enhanced productivity and performance. Workers employed in a happy workplace focused more on work and felt energized.
To create happy workplaces, management may adopt some strategies. These strategies seek from employees to change themselves into a specific kind of person who willing give their self to accomplish organizational work (Casey, 1995; Du Gay, 1996). Hochschild (1983) refers to this giving in of one’s private life, time and space and to assume organizational identity as ‘the managed heart’.

Future Directions

Even though literature says that happiness at the workplace is important both for the employees as well as the organizations (Fisher, 2010; Simmons, 2014) yet research on employee happiness and workplace happiness is not well explored (Fisher, 2010). On reviewing literature, we observed that though some models exist on happy workplaces, yet the work in this area is not empirically validated. There is an evident gap in the literature in this respect and must be addressed to by future studies. Pececi (2004) points out that not much research work has investigated and examined which specific HR practices help creating and sustaining workplaces that can be called as happy workplaces.

CONCLUSION

A workplace is like a second home for the employees, so the happier it is the better. For employees, a happy workplace ensures lesser stress, higher motivation, reduced absenteeism and greater engagement with work. The happy workplace concept essentially aims to increase quality of life at work and helps in empowering long-term goal of the organization. A happy workplace is a measure of a “healthy organization,” as it encompasses dimensions like quality of work and employee well-being and life of workers. Having known the benefits of happy workplaces and having identified factors that help create and sustain happy workplaces, it is now evident that happy workplaces should move out from the domain of literature and become a common phenomenon across organizations globally.

Managers, Bosses, Supervisors and Leaders will play a major role in creating happy workplaces. As workers report to them, unless they have well developed mental and emotional capabilities, inter-personal relationship between workers and their superiors will be strained. The greater the strain in this relationship, the more will be difficulty in making workplace a happier one. Further, in a work environment that remains alive 24*7, it is difficult to disintegrate personal life of an employee from his/her professional life. Asiyabi and Mirabi (2012) emphasize that happiness from work spills into the personal life of employees and happiness from homes gets transferred to their workplaces, hence the connection is inevitable and needs to be acknowledged while designing happy workplaces.

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Geopolitics of Central Asia: A Political Analysis of Emergence of Tajikistan

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ABSTRACT

The Central Asian Republics - Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan - since their independence in 1991 are no longer our distant neighbors. They formed part of Turkestan province of the Russian Empire since their conquest and annexation by the Czars in the mid-nineteenth century. After the Bolshevik Revolution in 1918 they set up the Turkestan Independent Islamic Republic but this new entity was destroyed by the Bolshevik army and annexed to the Russian Socialist Federation Soviet Republic by 1925. The Basmachi insurgency persisted until 1929 when it was squashed by the Russian army. In fact the traditional caravan routes through which trade flowed between the Central Asia and the south were almost abandoned during the sixteenth century thanks to the seaborne trade that received impetus with the entry of the European colonial powers into the Indian Ocean. With the imposition of the British colonial rule on South Asia and the control of the choke points of the Indian Ocean by the British navy, South Asia became an appendage of Britain.

KEYWORDS: Geopolitics, Tajikistan, Political evolution, Historical analysis, Central Asia

INTRODUCTION

Soviet authorities suppressed the expression of historical animosities between different nationalities in ethnic or racial terms, so such sentiments sometimes got transmuted into competition in the economic sphere. Tajik-Uzbek relations were a case in point. Being superior fighters, Uzbeks had historically dominated Tajiks, a sedentary community of Persian ancestry. Now, with the prevalence of cotton in both Tajikistan and Uzbekistan, its yields became a yardstick by which the two republics measured their worth. After an indeterminate race for several years following the Great Patriotic War, Tajiks finally established their lead over Uzbeks.
in 1953 with an average yield of 2,810 kilograms of cotton per hectare. Indeed, they set an all-Soviet record.

Moscow’s policy of devoting a greater proportion of sown area to cotton got a boost when Nikita Khrushchev launched his policy of increasing the output of food grains, tea, tobacco, and cotton. By 1956, cotton crops in Tajikistan took up a third of the cultivated area in collective farms, up from one-fifth in 1940.1 Part of the increase in this predominantly mountainous republic—with only 7 percent of its land being arable resulted from encouraging mountain Tajiks, particularly those in the Karategin region, to grow cotton in warm valleys.

Also, by then, the younger Tajiks had acquired a cultural consciousness quite apart from Uzbeks’, thanks largely to Moscow’s policy of developing Tajik historiography. At the same time, because of the introduction of compulsory Russian in 1938, a switch over to the Cyrillic alphabet for Tajik, and a big jump in literacy, Russian had emerged as the interethnic language in Tajikistan.

As for the Russian settlers, their political power outstripped their size. Though accounting for only 13 percent of the population (versus the Tajiks’ 53 percent) in the 1950s, they provided 40 percent of the membership of the Communist Party of Tajikistan (CPT). Culturally, ethnic Russians remained as far apart from the predominantly rural Tajiks as they did from Kyrgyzes or Kazakhs. A rural Tajik man wore a traditional knee-long jacket secured at the waist with a colorful kerchief, baggy trousers, and a skull cap with a paisley design. His female counterpart covered herself with a long jacket of colorful, bright silk, baggy trousers with embroidered cuffs, and a hat embroidered with precious stones under an eye-catching scarf. Village elders wore long cloaks and turbans, and sported beards, thus earning them the generic honorific of aksakals, “white beards” in Tajik.1

**Political Emergence of Tajikistan**

Tajikistan declared its independence on 9th September 1991, soon after the breakup of the former Soviet Union. Area wise and population wise it the smallest republic of the region. Being surrounded by the Turkic speaking population, except from the south (Afghanistan), there was a sense of fear that it would be overwhelmed by the Turks in the region. Soon the Republic embarked on the task of building its own national identity based on race, culture and language and several other components. Language and literature have played very important role in the formation of any national identity. As far as Tajikistan is concerned, in recent years, some Western and Russian scholars have sought to construct a Tajik identity based on the combination of language and religion.

According to this concept, a Tajik is; any Tajikil Persian speaking Sunni Muslim. This definition helps to distinguish Iran’s predominantly Shia inhabitants from their Persian-speaking counterparts in Tajikistan, but it fails to pose a clear and cohesive definition of Tajik ethnic identity. That there are about 8 million people (Tajiks) in Afghanistan, fit this definition of Tajik-identity, but politically they have shown little inclination to identify themselves with their brethren on the north. Generally, the difficulty of establishing a Tajik identity is the principal obstacle to developing a strong sense of Tajik nationalism among Tajikistan's population.

In many respects, this also explains the persistence of a strong regional loyalty that has bedeviled the nation-building process in post-Soviet Tajikistan. Unlike other Central Asians, the Tajiks
have not been able to identify with a historically cohesive political entity. This has led to Tajikistan's marginalization in regional politics and its domination by its more cohesive and big neighbors, especially Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan. Another feature of the population of Tajikistan is that it contains a sizeable percentage of non-Tajiks', largest among them being the Uzbeks but there are also Kyrgyz, Tatars and others.

The relative delay attending the confirmation of Tajikistan’s promotion by the All-Union Congress of Soviets in March 1930 reflected the long drawn-out nature of the battle for the Surkhan-Darya province – the last significant region of Uzbekistan the Tajiks’ claim to which had not been resolved in 1929. During this dispute the Uzbeks again defended their retention of Surkhan-Darya by citing the 1926 census which gave them between 56% and 97% of the rural population throughout the province, and the majority of the urban population in all the towns except Baisun (it should be noted that at the time 95% of the population was rural). According to the Uzbek position, the only rural area where the Tajiks formed a solid mass of the population was Sari Asiyân, and even there they were only 37%. In all other districts the Tajiks formed “isolated islands in amongst the Uzbek areas of settlement and, anyway, between these areas with significant Tajik populations and the frontier of the Tajik SSR there was a zone inhabited exclusively by Uzbeks”. The study commissioned from I Alkin of the Communist University of the Toilers of the East (see above) seems to support the Uzbek case in giving the Uzbeks 74% and the Tajiks 20% respectively. However, the study added that, before 1924, when EKOSA launched an expeditionary examination of the situation in Bukhara and Khorezm (still People’s Soviet Republics at that time), nothing approaching an accurate population survey had been attempted. This had been too late for the NTD.

The argument about Surkhan-Darya came to the first of several critical junctures at the 26 July 1929 Session of the Commission for Tajik questions chaired by Makeev and attended by Khojibäev (for Tajikistan) and Islamov (for Uzbekistan). This was an extremely bad tempered confrontation between the representatives of the two sides, with Makeev vainly trying to keep the peace between them. Islamov annoyed Khojibaev at the outset by trying the diversionary tactic of claiming Kurgan Teppe, which had already been allotted to Tajikistan in 1924, on the grounds that the majority of the population there was Uzbek. Khojibaev’s answer revealed that the Tajiks had learnt a thing or two since 1924, when they had been too modest to claim their rights.

Whereas he admits that the 1926 and 1927 censuses gave the Uzbeks a considerable majority in Kurgan Teppe, now, thanks to the massive work being undertaken by the Party, the figures (not including resettled Tajiks) were: Tajik 30,604; Uzbek 20,000. The skeptical historian is bound to ask how, if Tajik internal immigration is excluded (which, incidentally, we know had already started), this turn-around was achieved. Islamov then tried a further diversionary tactic by venturing to reopen the question of areas surrounding Khojand, using economic, political and ethnic arguments wherever it suited him, without any regard for consistency. Kanibadam and Isfara (with Tajik majorities) should be part of Uzbekistan because of their economic links to Uzbek territory, and Nau (with its Uzbek majority) should also belong to Uzbekistan on ethnic grounds, although it depended economically on Tajik territory.

The exchanges got ever more personal and crotchety. When Islamov referred to the 1926 census results, Khojibäev brushed them aside as “chuzh” (nonsense) and anyway challenged Islamov’s
authority to reopen any questions that had already been agreed. For his part, Islamov pointed out that Khojibaev himself signed the 1926 census statistics for Surkhan-Darya, which indicated that he must have agreed them. At some stage, Khojibaev threw in a charge that Uzbeks in Tajikistan were three times as well treated as Tajiks in Uzbekistan, adding for good measure that Uzbekistan had not yet returned the 500,000 gold rubles which Tajikistan handed over earlier (no further details are given about when and why this money was transferred.

Khojibaev adduced a number of historical arguments to support the Tajik case. Surkhan-Darya had been part of Eastern Bukhara. The Amir had had a summer residence in Dushanbe. The military demographic census carried out by the Russian general staff had described Bukhara as a Persian not an Uzbek state. He too yielded to the temptation to reopen other claims. Samarkand was only 70 km from the Tajik frontier and it was nonsense to say they could not administer it. The Kyrgyz had been allotted Osh, which were miles from Frunze (Bishkek). Even Tamerlane in his diary, held in London, described Samarkand as a Tajik city.

In the period 1866–99, the Russian authorities were preoccupied with organising efficient government and development of the subjugated territories. By the end of the century Russian Turkestan comprised the GGT with five oblasts (administrative regions) and two protectorates: Bukhara and Khiva. Once again the Tajiks found themselves divided by administrative borders. The northern and eastern parts of present-day Tajikistan with the cities of Panjakent, Uroteppa (Istaravshon), Nau, Khujand, Isfara and Tashqurghon were included in the Samarkand and Fergana oblasts, while the central and southern areas remained within the fold of Bukhara. In 1895, firm borders were established between Russian Turkestan and Afghanistan, which have survived until today. Rushan, Shughnan and part of Vakhan were acquired by Emir Abd al-Ahad of Bukhara in return for lands along the Panj River, which became part of Afghanistan. Russia retained garrisons in the Pamir vilayets of Bukhara and subsequently annexed them in 1905.

The Russian Government deemed it feasible to preserve the Emirate of Bukhara intact for a number of reasons. First, it served as a buffer state covering a 1500 km border with Afghanistan. Second, the introduction of Russian administration to a country with a population of two million plus with centuries-long traditions of feudal unrest would be a costly affair with unclear results. Finally, Bukhara was a religious centre, renowned not only in Turkestan but also throughout the world Islamic community. At the end of the nineteenth century, its capital city of 80 000 people had 80 madrasas with up to 10 000 pupils, including students from India, Kashgar, Afghanistan, China and Russia, some 260 mosques and dozens of sacred places (mazors) associated with various Sufi saints. The religious establishment played an important role in local politics, and the appointment of Russian officials there would have alienated Muslims far beyond the borders of Turkestan.

CONCLUSION

Over the decades which followed the creation of the Tajik ASSR, its cultural leaders increasingly called on their imagined forebears to legitimize their special status in Central Asia. The first rivals from whom the new nation had to seek distance were the Turkic neighbors, especially the Uzbeks. The tragedy of the end of “Iranian” Samanid rule was conjured. The more recent tragedy of the Soviet allocation of the two great Tajik cities could also be invoked. Obscure Soghdian forms were used by inventive scholars to give a healthy explanation for what were obviously Turkic grammatical structures in the Persian dialects of Samarkand and Bukhara. Then
it became necessary to define Tajik identity as different from Iranian and Afghan. Not only national but Marxist agendas could be satisfied by stigmatizing the “feudal” or “aristocratic” characteristics of flowery Persian as practiced in Iran in contrast to the pure and genuine language of the Tajik mountains. Anti-religious campaigns were marshalled to point up the backwardness of the Afghans, with whom earlier inhabitants of the region had seen no cultural or ethnic difference. A Tajik identity was constructed but one whose invocation of cultural memory had made it very different from other Soviet identities. Paradoxically, the one identity from which it sought to distance itself most was that to which it was the closest and with which it shared so much – the Uzbek.

The collapse of the Soviet Union might have been expected to offer the Tajiks the chance finally to define their common identity. Sadly, neither the historical roots first located by sympathetic Russian scholars, nor the Soviet Tajik patriotism inculcated by the Party provided the necessary glue. In the chaos and civil war that followed the collapse of the Union and its Soviet identity, all sides no doubt saw themselves as patriotic Tajiks. That is usually the case in civil wars. In Spain, both Phalangists and Republicans saw themselves as true Spaniards. However, issues were at stake that pushed aside the weak buttresses of the laboriously constructed Soviet Tajik nationality. While the Soviet solution had seemed to offer a form of national identity, Moscow had also, perhaps intentionally, built localized power structures that worked against national unity. These contradictions and fissures might have prevented manifestations of nationalism which were unwelcome to an imperial government. They were to prove disastrous in a country that was unprepared for the responsibilities of an independence that had been thrust upon it.

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MODERN ASPECTS OF THE APPLICATION OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES IN THE MANAGEMENT OF THE STATISTICAL INDUSTRY OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN

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UZBEKISTAN

ABSTRACT

This article discusses the modern aspects of the application of information and communication technologies (ICT) in the management of the statistical industry of the Republic of Uzbekistan. The article shows that at present, ICTs are an important factor in the development of industries and spheres of the national economy. An information system has been formed in the statistical industry, which is currently being transformed under the influence of advanced technological solutions, including big data technology, which contributes to the competent adoption of managerial decisions and the effective functioning of the industry in the economic market. According to the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics, the volume of communication and information services for the period from January to June 2019 amounted to 4758.3 billion soums. Data from international experts indicate that the larger the share of ICT in the country's gross domestic product, the more competitive the country is in the global economic market. Thus, the share of ICT in the gross domestic product of South Korea is 9%, in Japan - 5.5%, in China and India - 4.7%, and in Uzbekistan this figure is only 2.2% so far [9]. Currently, intensive work is underway in the Republic of Uzbekistan on the development of the ICT sector. A solid regulatory framework for the ICT industry has been created, almost all government facilities have representative offices on the Internet.

KEYWORDS: Information and Communication Technologies, Efficiency, Competitiveness, Innovative Processes, Quality Of Information Processing And Transmission, Reliability And Transparency Of Information, Remote Information Processing, Digital Economy.
INTRODUCTION

The development and widespread use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in all sectors of the economy and spheres of human life is today a global trend in world development.

The use of modern ICTs helps to increase the competitiveness of countries in the global economic market, improve the living standards of citizens, optimize management processes and develop the social sphere of society. From year to year, ICTs open up wider prospects for improving business efficiency and the quality of life of citizens.

Currently, intensive work is underway in the Republic of Uzbekistan on the development of the ICT sector. A solid regulatory framework for the ICT industry has been created, almost all government facilities have representative offices on the Internet. A whole range of national projects is being implemented, such as Digital Uzbekistan-2030, E-Government, Safe City, etc.

Issues of the effective use of ICT in economic processes are studied by scientists from different countries in various aspects: theoretical, technical, technological, both quantitative indicators and qualitative characteristics of the effective use of ICT are considered [1]. Data from international experts indicate that the larger the share of ICT in the country's gross domestic product, the more competitive the country is in the global economic market. Thus, the share of ICT in the gross domestic product of South Korea is 9%, in Japan - 5.5%, in China and India - 4.7%, and in Uzbekistan this figure is only 2.2% so far [9].

The importance of developing this sector of the national economy is evidenced by the fact that, as part of the implementation of the national program “Years of Active Investment and Social Development”, a new joint venture LLC INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY CENTER, founded by Delta Telecom International I, LLC (USA), was created (51% of the charter capital) and the State Unitary Enterprise Republican Telecommunication Networks Management Center of Uzbekistan under the Ministry of Development of Information Technologies and Communications of the Republic of Uzbekistan (49% of the share capital).

Modern ICTs are an important factor in the development of sectors and spheres of the national economy of Uzbekistan.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A great contribution to the development of the theory of the effective use of ICT in management processes was made by such foreign scientists as N. Vinner, K.S. Laudon [2], O. Mahlup, J. F. Neumann, M. Hammer, C. Shannon, W. Ashby, and others.

Modern management processes involve the use of big data technology, it should be noted that a whole list of works by foreign researchers is also devoted to this subject. A study by N. Couldry and A. Powell [3] is devoted to the analysis of the concepts of “large databases”, as well as to the history of the emergence of large databases, and B. Hesse, R. Moser, and W. Riley study the process of implementing big data in the development of social processes.

A significant part of scientists considers the possibilities, limitations and threats associated with the implementation of big data analysis in public administration practice [4]. However, many note that further understanding of the possibilities of using big data in public administration is
necessary, and it is possible to use the experience of large corporations that have been using big data for a long time to analyze markets, consumer behavior and other processes.

J. Frith emphasizes that when using big data, it is important to remember their interpretation and communication for more optimal processing of information [5].

Russian scientists also repeatedly in their scientific works turn to the study of the effective use of modern ICT in the management processes of various economic objects of the economy. These include such scientists as V.M. Glushkov, A.M. Venderov, S.P. Kutsenko, G.A. Titorenko [6], A.N. Romanov, V.E. Kosarev [7] and others, in whose writings the methodological approaches to the development of ICT in various sectors and spheres of the economy are described. Proceedings of V.V. Dick reflect the methodology for the formation of optimal solutions in economic systems, as well as the tools necessary for their analysis and support.


Despite a significant number of publications, the problem of the effective use of ICT in the management processes of the statistical industry of the Republic of Uzbekistan is relevant.

**Analysis and results**

According to the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics, the volume of communication and information services for the period from January to June 2019 amounted to 4758.3 billion soums. Their growth compared to the same period last year amounted to 8.2%. In the total volume of market services provided, the share of informatization communication services amounted to 5.7% [9].

It should also be noted that currently the most widely used mobile devices. This trend is due to lower prices for smartphones and ease of use of mobile devices in everyday life, an increase in the number of users of mobile Internet.

As can be seen from fig. 1. Today, among the operating systems of Uznet, almost 60% are mobile, 36% are on the Windows operating system, and only 6% are on other operating systems.
Fig. 1. The current ratio of Uznet's operating systems (in%) [9]

In fig. 2. The forecast values of the number of Internet users in Uzbekistan are presented, as well as the increase in throughput of an external access channel to international computer networks.

Another area of development of modern ICTs is the Internet of Things (IoT). One of the first applications in Uzbekistan could be the public services sector, where the installation of electronic meters for metering electricity, water and gas can implement the functions of automatic control of the supply of energy, water and gas supply services. Another direction is all kinds of smart systems and so on [9].

In addition, it should be noted that modern ICTs have great potential for stimulating social development. In particular, more and more modern ICTs are used in medicine, education, and the provision of a huge range of public services.

Thus, modern ICTs help to accelerate scientific and technological progress in the sectors and sectors of the national economy by increasing the volume, quality and speed of processing information flows, converting information into a form convenient for making effective management decisions based on high-quality and reliable data [8].

Figure 3 shows the structure of communication and information services in the Republic of Uzbekistan for January - June 2019.
Fig. 2. Forecast of the number of Internet users in Uzbekistan and the throughput of an external access channel to international networks [9]

As can be seen from this figure, telecommunications services (82.1%) have the largest percentage, almost the same percentage is in computer programming services (5.6%) and publishing services (5.5%), and various communication and information services account for 3.6%, programming and broadcasting services are represented in this structure 3.2% [10].

Fig. 3. The structure of communication services and informatization in January – June 2019, % [10]

Figure 4 shows the percentage of telecommunication services in the total volume of communication and information services in the regions of Uzbekistan for the first half of 2019, in percent.

As can be seen from fig. 4, high growth rates were noted in Jizzakh (99.2%), Syrdarya (98.2%), Samarkand (97.8%), Kashkadarya (97.0), Andijan (96.8), Navoi (96.7 %), Khorezm (96.6%), Namangan (96.4%), etc. The increase in volume can be explained by the influence of a number of factors, such as payment for goods through credit cards, Internet sales, the opening of new
shopping centers, optimizing the functioning of the hotel sector, catering, the expansion of services of educational organizations and the entertainment industry.

Fig. 4. Share of telecommunication services in the total volume of informatization communication services by region of the Republic of Uzbekistan for January-June 2019, in % [10]

The lowest growth rates were recorded in the Tashkent region (92.4%) due to the fact that the information and communication infrastructure in this area is by far the most developed. On average, in Uzbekistan, the share of telecommunication services in the total volume of communication and information services amounted to 82.1%. In turn, in the structure of existing enterprises and service sector organizations as of July 1, 2019, enterprises and organizations providing communication and information services make up 3.1%. [ten].

Management of the statistical sector of the national economy is a dynamic phenomenon in the context of the digital economy, its existence is impossible without the use of innovative technological solutions and ICT tools.

A public administration body implementing a unified policy aimed at the creation and functioning of a coherent progressive statistical information system based on scientific methodology, international standards and rules, taking into account national specifics of development, satisfying the needs of public authorities and management, business entities, citizens and organizations in an official statistical information in the field of statistics in the Republic of Uzbekistan, is the State Committee ie the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics [10].

The State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics provides the organization of statistical work on the basis of the following principles:
reliability, objectivity, impartiality;
- relevance, comparability and stability;
- accessibility, transparency and openness;
- exclusion of any interference with the procedure for collecting, processing and summarizing statistical information [10].

Management of the statistical industry on the basis of compliance with these principles is unthinkable without the effective use of modern information and communication technologies.

The modern information system of the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics includes a whole range of subsystems: specialized specialists, hardware, software that implements data processing using various management methods and models based on special algorithms (Fig. 3.).

![Diagram](image-url)

**Fig. 5.** The generalized scheme of the information system of the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on statistics
As can be seen from fig. 5. The main components of the information system of the Goskomstat of the Republic of Uzbekistan are specialized specialists in the management apparatus, complexes of hardware and software, models and methods for processing statistical information, and teaching materials. The main goal of the information system of the State Statistics Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan is the complete and timely satisfaction of the information needs of end users.

Currently, the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics has a whole range of information systems (Table 1.). All systems, except the information system "Human Resource Management" and the electronic document management system of Goskomstat, are provided for access via the global computer network Internet [10].

**TABLE 1. INFORMATION ON INFORMATION SYSTEMS FUNCTIONING IN THE STRUCTURE OF THE STATE COMMITTEE OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN ON STATISTICS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Information System Name</th>
<th>The main tasks performed by the information system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Human Resources Information System</td>
<td>1. Staff management; 2. Reception, relocation, transfer between departments; 3. Training, retraining and certification of employees; 4. Dismissal of employees; 5. Support for various compensation schemes; 6. Payroll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Electronic library of teaching materials &quot;E-stat Library&quot;</td>
<td>Providing methodological provisions and instructions for organizing and conducting statistical observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Information and analytical system &quot;Gender statistics of Uzbekistan&quot;</td>
<td>The website gender.stat.uz in three language versions - Uzbek, Russian and English - provides users with information on the gender aspect in such areas as demography, healthcare, education, labor, social protection and others. All statistical information on this site is presented in the form of tables and animation diagrams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Automated information system for collecting statistical reports in electronic form &quot;eStat 3.0&quot;</td>
<td>Automation of the process of collecting statistical information from legal entities in the prescribed manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Automated information system for accounting and identification of legal entities based on the USRPO &quot;Reg-System&quot;</td>
<td>The tasks of the information system are the automation of the processes of accumulation, storage, control and analysis of information on legal entities received from registering and other state bodies, as well as the provision of information in the prescribed manner to government bodies and other users</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Base database of electronic</td>
<td>Storage of information on statistical reports of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>№</td>
<td>Information System Name</td>
<td>The main tasks performed by the information system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>statistical reports “Base”</td>
<td>economic entities entering the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan according to the statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Goskomstat electronic document management system</td>
<td>Improving paperwork, automation of information support for decision-making processes, creating a unified system of document accounting, systematization and control of their implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Web Services:</td>
<td>Work in relevant areas using web-technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Consumer price index calculator;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- on-line counter of the population of Uzbekistan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, it should be noted that at present, the information system of the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on statistics has been formed, which is a combination of information resources, information systems, software and hardware and telecommunications facilities of state statistics bodies, providing for the collection, processing, storage and use of statistical information.

ICTs help to accelerate scientific and technological progress in the sectors and sectors of the national economy by increasing the volume, quality and speed of processing information flows, converting information into a form convenient for making effective management decisions based on high-quality and reliable data.

In addition, it should be noted that ICTs provide new methods, forms and tools for developing scientifically sound and maximally competent management decisions.

Modern experts consider not only the positive, but also the negative aspects of the impact of ICT on economic and social processes.

So, the following are called as negative consequences of the introduction of ICT:

- Reduction of personal space and information inequality;
- Loss of user anonymity when using computer networks;
- The problem of computer ethics and the growth of computer crimes;
- Unification of cultures.

But, despite the presence of shortcomings, ICTs in the era of the formation of the digital economy have many positive aspects:

- Free access to various sources of information;
- Distance and continuity of education;
- Improving the quality of life of people with disabilities;
- Creation of own information arrays and their transfer to any user.
In fig. 6 shows the main directions of the impact of ICT on the statistical industry of the Republic of Uzbekistan.

**CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATIONS**

Modern ICTs have enormous potential for stimulating social development. In particular, more and more modern ICTs are used in sectors and areas of the national economy and provide a huge range of public services.

Thus, we can say that the formation of a digital economy allows us to talk about the formation of a new management paradigm, based on the strengthening of the role of science as a leading productive force, generating more and more new knowledge and due to the following factors:
tendencies towards differentiation of management, problems of information compatibility, process globalization and improving the social sphere of the national economy.

As recommendations for further improving the use of modern ICT methods and tools in managing the statistical industry, it is necessary to develop a methodology for integrating IP, as the need for processing more and more information is growing every day.

REFERENCES


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9. www.stat.uz - the official website of the State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics
ABSTRACT

The content of the restructuring process in the regions is presented in economic, social and organizational terms, and the methodological approaches to its definition are revealed. Factors determining the peculiarities of the restructuring in the regions were identified, the systematized indicators of the financial and economic condition and the order of its implementation were described. Organizational and economic problems of restructuring were revealed in the regions and measures for their solution were identified. In our country, theoretical, methodological and practical aspects of restructuring were carried out by economists GK Saidova, MN Abdullaeva, B. Berkinov, A. Berdikulov [8-11] and others. However, in these studies, the problem is generally treated as a microeconomic category for restructuring and has not been thoroughly researched at the level of dissertation research. To date, the theoretical and methodological model of restructuring has not been fully developed and acceptable for practical application. This is the ability to create, develop and maintain a long-term competitive advantage of an economic entity in the segmented goods market. As a result, their liquidity, solvency and profitability are maintained. Regional restructuring requires the use of regional restructuring resources and a system of mechanisms differentiated by investment and entrepreneurial activities. The regional investment program for the socio-economic development of Namangan region for 2009-2012 is based on these growth processes in the industrial sector, mitigating the negative impact of the global financial and economic crisis that began in 2008 and the government’s anti-crisis measures.

KEYWORDS: Region, enterprise restructuring, structural changes, the project of restructuring, the factors of restructuring, operational restructuring, strategic restructuring, emerging risk factors in the restructuring process.
INTRODUCTION

The effectiveness of structural transformations in the context of globalization processes and economic transformations in the context of a deepening competition environment largely depends on their regional organization.

This can be seen on the example of restructuring of separate industries.

The prevailing view of restructuring in the economic literature at the level of industry or individual enterprise (companies) can be explained by the following:

- High level of integration of the economic system in developed countries in the sectoral and regional context;

- in countries such as the United States, Canada, Russia, and Brazil, although there is a territorial dispersion (which in the US and Canada experience can be interpreted as the regional economic independence), these countries are in the form of a federal organizational structure;

- The processes of restructuring have been studied in the economic literature on the example of large companies and corporations, and these companies are transnational;

- The restructuring of regional economies is often carried out at the sectoral level. This can be explained by the example of the restructuring of the East German economy ("New Federal Lands") implemented in Germany in the 1990s.

It is therefore advisable to consider in this study the processes of restructuring regional economies as an example of industrial production, which is central to the economic system.

Before analyzing the financial and economic situation of industrial enterprises of Namangan region, it is necessary to briefly describe the socio-economic potential of the region and its role in the distribution of labor in the country.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of restructuring and related processes is reflected in the scientific work of a number of domestic and foreign scientists. Methodological approaches to the problem of restructuring R. Andersen, D. Braun, L. Vodachev, P. Gerhard, A. Alpatov, A. Bachurin, V. Mitskevich, II Mazur, V.D Shapiro, A. Tutundjyan, N. Ekimova, AK Nagoeva [2-7].

In our country, theoretical, methodological and practical aspects of restructuring were carried out by economists GK Saidova, MN Abdullaeva, B. Berkinov, A. Berdikulov [8-11] and others. However, in these studies, the problem is generally treated as a microeconomic category for restructuring and has not been thoroughly researched at the level of dissertation research. To date, the theoretical and methodological model of restructuring has not been fully developed and acceptable for practical application. At the same time, the more recent and more universal conceptions of restructuring have been undermined by new research that has not been fully implemented into production, with management requirements or the current level of technology and technology. This work differs from the above studies by identifying the role of restructuring in regional economic growth and enhancing its effectiveness, justifying and improving its regional features and mechanisms.
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Systematic analysis, mathematical and statistical methods, comparisons, grouping, graphs were used during the research.

Analysis and results

Namangan region accounted for 1.7% of the country in 2018, 8.3% of the country's permanent population, 7.7% of the employed in the economy, 4.5% of GDP, 2.5% of industrial output, 7.3% of agricultural production, investments in fixed assets - 6.6%, foreign investments - 9.0%, construction - 4.1%, services - 4.1%, including retail trade - 5.9%, wholesale trade - 3.7%, with 1.7% of exports and 4.8% of imports (2018).

In terms of per capita GRP production, the region has relatively high economic growth rates, almost 2 times lower than the national average (0.52 for the last 5 years). In particular, the GDP growth rate for the past five years has been 8.7% on average (7.4% of the national average), compared to 12.0% for industrial products and 20.9% for fixed capital investments. (Annex 1). At the same time, Namangan region is still far below the national average for production of goods, services and investments. In 2013-2018, industrial production and gross domestic product per capita in the region were 2.9 times lower than the national average and 1.9 times less than in the attracted investments. The per capita agricultural output was 8.3% lower than the national average. Light industry (35.6%) and foodstuffs (28.4%), machinery and metal processing (6.2%), construction materials (4.5%), energy (4.5%) and industry (4.6%) are the main sectors of the industry. 4.1%), forestry and wood processing (3.4%). The enterprises with foreign capital are 103 enterprises, which make up 1.9% of the enterprises of the Republic.

In 2018, the number of industrial enterprises in the region is 4,445, of which only 41 are the largest or 1.1%. At present, 97.1% of existing industrial enterprises are economic entities.

In addition, 73.1% of industrial output is produced by local enterprises, and 26.9% - by state-owned enterprises. In this regard, the regional index is 1.4 times higher than the national average, and is the second largest city in Tashkent after 76.5%. This indicator is, first of all, a high share of consumer goods in industrial production of Namangan region (69.6% of total industrial output, 1.8 times higher than the national average, and the second in Andijan region (71.3%)). Secondly, the regional small business sector has a high share in the sector's production (34.4%, which is 1.3 times higher than the national average). Thirdly, the high level of private domestic investment and commercial bank loans is high in the regional industrial sector.

Analysis of the data shows that the GRP in the region has a stable growth rate (8.7% on average over the next 5 years) and it is closely related to the development of the sectoral structure.
TABLE 1 DYNAMICS OF GRP GROWTH AND CHANGES IN THE STRUCTURE OF GRP IN NAMANGAN REGION (IN %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gross regional product, bln. soum</td>
<td>171,6</td>
<td>475,7</td>
<td>791,4</td>
<td>1872,5</td>
<td>3759,2</td>
<td>7154,0</td>
<td>18141,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth rate, in percent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of basic sectors in GRP, in percent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>industrial production</td>
<td>10,0</td>
<td>9,6</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>6,7</td>
<td>9,9</td>
<td>14,1</td>
<td>11,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>construction</td>
<td>7,2</td>
<td>4,2</td>
<td>6,8</td>
<td>6,4</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>6,0</td>
<td>4,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agriculture</td>
<td>44,7</td>
<td>37,6</td>
<td>45,8</td>
<td>33,9</td>
<td>34,8</td>
<td>31,5</td>
<td>48,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transportation and communication</td>
<td>12,6</td>
<td>23,3</td>
<td>6,8</td>
<td>8,6</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>8,6</td>
<td>5,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trade and catering</td>
<td>8,7</td>
<td>7,9</td>
<td>8,6</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>7,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>16,9</td>
<td>17,5</td>
<td>22,6</td>
<td>36,0</td>
<td>29,3</td>
<td>30,5</td>
<td>21,2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The table is compiled based on data from the Namangan Region Department of Statistics*

In contrast to the period before 2012, GDP in 2013-2017 includes gross agricultural output (4.5% annually, 18.7% gross), construction (6.8%), transport and communications (3.3). The share of trade and public catering increased by almost 10% year-on-year, and industrial production grew by an average of 7.8% per year, more than 1.3 times during the five-year review period. It is evident that the share of industry is the highest in ensuring the growth trend of GRP in the region. However, the share of industrial production in the region in GRP decreased by 5.2% in 2005-2009, or by 1% annually. The share of industry in GRP increased by 10.9% per annum in the post-2009 period, or doubled over the past 8 years.


It should be noted that over the past years, the emphasis on the development of agricultural processing sectors, including the light and food industries, which retains a dominant position in GRP, has been instrumental in the effectiveness of the programs.

“Within the regional programs adopted by the Government of the country, great attention is paid to the development of light industry. The program for 2013-2015 envisages production of light
industry products with the deep processing of 17 cotton fiber in the region. Some 11,237 new jobs were created.

According to the analysis of the structure of consumer goods production, consumer goods production in the region during 2010-2014 is 2.7 times, including foodstuffs 2.1 times, non-food products 2.7 times, light industry products and increased by 3.9 times. "2.

The growth rates of light industry products for the last 5 years remained stable at an average of 14.1%, while their share in the gross regional product was 38.4%, however, due to the diversification processes in the sector and the shortage of raw materials, the figure dropped from 39% to 35.7% in 2013-2016, and in 2017 the share of the industry in the gross regional industry reached 40.0%.

The analysis shows that the level of resource utilization in the light industry of the region is very low. Thus, the region produced almost 76,000 cotton yarn in 2015, 68.5 thousand tons in 2016, and 56.7 thousand tons in 2017, but only 6,100 tons of cotton yarn was produced in 2017 alone. This is only 10.7% of the 2017 Cotton Fiber. At the same time, according to statistics, it is 4.5 times more than in 2016. In 2017, the production of ready-made silk fabrics was only 84,000 m2 and increased 3.5 times compared to 2016. At the same time, following the policy of diversification of agricultural production in recent years, cotton production in the region has increased by 25.5% over the last three years, cotton production by 22.3%, cotton production by 7% reduced. Accordingly, in recent years the growth rates of light industry in the region have been driven by finished products - yarn, finished knitwear. The Uztex Uchkurgan spinning and knitting company, part of the Uztex company, launched in 2017, specializes in the production of modern cotton and mixed yarn, woolen fabrics and finished products, with a total capacity of 16.5 thousand tons of yarn a year. Production of 7 thousand tons of linen was made. In 2018, the plant will process 38% of regional cotton fiber.

More than 2000 years in the environment of sustainable macroeconomic growth and economic modernization.
Growth rates of food production in the period 2008-2017 remained stable at 14.1%, while the share of the region in the volume of industrial output was 38%. Meanwhile, food production in 2018 fell by 2.7 percent compared to 2017. The slowdown in food industry production in 2018 was due to a decrease in vegetable oil production (crude oil production decreased by 7.7%, refined oil by 12.5%), and vodka (by 16%). In the structure of enterprises, production decreased by 6.9% at JSC "Namanganvino", by 3.8% in the joint venture "Nestle-Uzbekistan" and by 0.2% in the JSC "Uchkurgan grain products".

The diversification processes in the industry have declined from 39% in 2013 to 35.7% or 8.5% in 2018 due to raw material shortages as well as institutional reforms in recent years.
The food industry, despite being the second largest in the gross output of the industry after light industry (38.5% for 2001-2018), has more than doubled its growth rate.

If the focus is on the analysis of Figure 2.6 above, the share of the food industry in the production of gross industrial products and consumer goods can be divided into two periods. In particular, the period from 2008 to 2008 was characterized by a rapid increase in the share of the sector, and accordingly, the gap between the share of the industry and consumer goods tended to grow. Thus, the share of food industry in the gross regional industrial production increased from 35.8% in 2001-2005 to 40.4% in 2006-2008, or increased by almost 5 points. This is primarily due to large-scale localization in the early 2000s, modernization of industrial enterprises, broad activities of joint ventures and small business and private entrepreneurship, and, secondly, industries such as chemical, machine-building and metalworking, building materials, tendency to decline in the activity of enterprises.

Period 2 - post-2008, during which time the share of the industry tended to decrease, especially in the structure of consumer goods. This can be explained by the large-scale modernization, diversification of industrial production observed in the region since 2009, including increasing the volume and range of consumer goods on the basis of increasing the mobilization of local resources into the economy and the implementation of regional state programs.

A more in-depth look at the food industry in this case study can be attributed to: First, the peculiarities of the territorial structure of industrial production in the Namangan region. The
share of industrial production in Namangan was 47.1%, 9.7% in Namangan region, 8.7% (14.1%) in Uchkurgan district, 8.5% (5.5%) in Turakurgan, 7.1% in Uychi, 4.8% in Uzbekistan. The area of Pop district. The lowest polarity is in the districts of Yangikurgan (1.2%), Chortoq (1.7%), Mingbulak (2.3%), except for Namangan, where the polarity is 8.1 times. Despite the traditional "polarization" of industrial production by regional structures, the share of Uchkurgan district, which is the industry's "pole", dropped by 8.7% or 1.6 times from 14.1% in 2017 to Namangan district. and released him. The share of Turakurgan district, which currently occupies 5.5% of the regional industry in 2017, increased by 8.5% in 2018, or increased 1.5 times.

Currently, the total number of industrial enterprises in Uchkurgan district is 94, in Turakurgan - 130, in Chust - 159, and in Kosonsay district - 169. It is noteworthy that there are 3 large industrial enterprises in each of the districts in this sample. Clearly, the volume of industrial production is primarily related to the sectoral specialization, not the number of enterprises in territorial units. In Kosonsoy 13.9%, Turakurgan 12.4%, Chust 20.2%, Uchkurgan 60.2% industrial products.

Secondly, the degree of localization of industrial enterprises operating in the region. This indicator, first of all, is characterized by the development of raw materials, resource base of the food industry, production capacity, and quality of labor resources. Namangan region has a total of 390,400 hectares of agricultural land, including 152,600 hectares of pastures and 199,000 hectares of irrigated land. The total area of gardens is 21.9 thousand hectares. The volume of gross agricultural output made up 1332,050 bln. soums (2018), with an average annual growth of 5.7-6% over the last 10 years, but decreased by 0.5% in 2018. Decrease in gross output of the sector was due to the decrease in production of cereals (14.9%), potatoes (7.0%), vegetables (2.1%), grapes (8.9%).

The share of livestock in the gross agricultural sector was 39.5%, which is 1.4 points higher than in the previous year. This is due to a decrease in the production of basic agricultural products, as seen above. The average yield is 50.3 c / ha, potatoes - 177.4 c / ha, vegetables - 228.5 c / ha, melons - 204 c / ha, fruit - 59.4 c / ha, , 5 t / ha.

Transformation of the Namangan Engineering and Economic Institute into the Namangan Engineering and Technology Institute from 2011 on the basis of the government resolution creates additional conditions for the formation of a qualified labor force in the field of food technology.

Thirdly, the degree to which industrial enterprises are provided with consumer markets. As you know, the main part of the food industry is households. At present, there are 2699.0 thousand people living in 514 settlements of Namangan region. This represents 8.3% of the country's population. Unlike other regions of Uzbekistan, the level of supply of food industry enterprises with consumer markets is significant, given the interconnectedness of the provinces and districts in the Fergana region, the density of the population, and the proximity of the Tashkent region, which is a kind of "pole" in the consumer market. positive character.

Fourth, the potential of the food industry in the region's export potential. As of 2017, the region's total exports are expected to be 196.7 million, and in 2018 - 237.6 million. Or increased by 20.8%. At the same time, the share of exported foodstuffs in the region fell from 37.3% in 2017 to 33.0% in 2018, or decreased by 11.5%. However, it should be noted that the share of this
sector in the structure of imported goods in the region decreased from 12.9% in 2017 to 6.8% or almost 1.9 times.

**CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATIONS**

These considerations not only show the prospects for the development of the food industry within the Namangan region's industrial complex, but also indicate the need for regional restructuring. Restructuring of any scale is a set of measures for optimal systemic change in order to adapt the structure of economic activity (assets, property, finance, management, staff, etc.) to the ever-changing internal and external environment. Restructuring should be aimed at ensuring the “strategic stability” of economic entities. This is the ability to create, develop and maintain a long-term competitive advantage of an economic entity in the segmented goods market. As a result, their liquidity, solvency and profitability are maintained. Regional restructuring requires the use of regional restructuring resources and a system of mechanisms differentiated by investment and entrepreneurial activities. This approach creates conditions for identifying, activating growth points in the regions and creating new opportunities systems. Natural and climatic and resource potential of the regions, specialization directions, level of social and economic development, condition of infrastructure development, innovation-investment and entrepreneurial activity of the economic system influence the processes of restructuring in the region. In this context, any restructuring is of a regional nature.

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WOMEN EMPOWERMENT IN BANGLADESH: A POLITICAL SCENARIO

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ABSTRACT

The paper is an attempt to analyze the situation of females in Bangladesh and perspective of their empowerment in terms of political participation. Women empowerment and development is a multi dimensional approach. Inequalities between men and women; and discrimination against women have been a sensitive issue all over the world. The political participation of women has been recognized internationally as a significant measure of the status of the women in any country. In recent year’s women’s participation in politics and decision making has given important attention through the world. Women remain underrepresented in decision making process. Women in Bangladesh are living in quite an inferior life standard as compared to that of the women in India and other South Asian countries. The challenge and opportunities will be discussed in this paper A historic declaration was signed by 189 countries in Beijing in 1995, 24 years ago which sets the agenda for realizing women’s rights and women empowerment. There have been many achievements in women empowerment perspective but still many serious gaps are remaining. This paper attempts to analyze the status of women empowerment in Bangladesh. In a patriarchal system the father or in his absence the next male kin is the head of the household by this system both economic control and decision making power are vested in hands of man. Women role in political participation is also depend on the decision of family whether they will participate in this field or not. The empowerment of women means the development of women as a very aware person who is politically aware, financially productive and capable of intelligent discussion in those cases which affect them.

KEYWORDS: Women Empowerment, Discrimination, Political Participation, Decision Making
INTRODUCTION:

In Bangladesh there were 71 million women female according to 2011 census. Gender inequality exists in different form of variables that are sex ratio, Literacy level, health and nutrition differentials, child infanticide etc. Patriarchal social system exists in Bangladesh. Women are therefore dominated by this patriarchal system. The society of Bangladesh’s patriarchal tradition based on class and gender division. In a patriarchal system the father or in his absence the next male kin is the head of the household by this system both economic control and decision making power are vested in hands of man. Women role in political participation is also depend on the decision of family whether they will participate in this field or not. Women empowerment also exists in political participation of women in politics. Political participation includes voting, election campaign and role in policy issues and contacting political representatives. Participation in politics is a multi dimensional concept. Female participation is essential in every field of society for the better development of the any nation. Without the full and active participation of female at all levels of decision making the goal of gender equality and peace cannot be achieved.

WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

The empowerment of women means the development of women as a very aware person who is politically aware, financially productive and capable of intelligent discussion in those cases which affect them. The situation of women in Bangladesh has not progress in a few hundred years. Empowerment is the method of internal and external change. The internal process is the confidence to understand the person’s understanding or decision making ability and to solve their problems. Eternal change finds expression in ability to work and practical knowledge, information, skills abilities and the ability to apply other new resources acquired the process. A source book World Bank “empowerment and poverty reduction” broadly defines women empowerment as the “expansion of freedom of choice and action”. World Bank defines “empowerment as the process of enhancing the capacity of individual or group to substitute or result and to change those choices in the desired result1 the empowerment of women includes the increasing of political, social educational, gender or economic strength of individual and communities. Empowerment of women is important for sustainable development and human rights for everyone. Whole family got benefited buy the empowered women. Empowered women are financially independent, self reliant and able to face any difficult situation, they can actively participate in development of nation they can also actively participate in decision making process.

FEMALE POLITICAL PARTICIPATION IN BANGLADESH

Participation in politics or elections is an important instrument to facilitate democracy in the society. But for the equitable participation in political process women are still fighting. At the time of Bangladesh’s foundation, some conditions were possible for women’s involvement in party politics and democratic movements. In Bangladesh the female participation in politics at national, divisional and local levels will be discussed systematically as under:
Female Political Participation at National Level in Bangladesh:-
After the independence in 1971, the Awami league formed the first national government of Bangladesh under the leadership of founding father Sheikh Mujibur Rahman to review the country’s political history. At initial stage its secular socialist beliefs received the support but it also faced resistant from the military. Mujibur Rahman was assassinated in 1975 by a junior officer and a succession of coups followed. An era of guided democracy was initiated during (1975-1981) when the general Zia ur-Rehman established the Bangladesh National Party. The notion of Zia-ur-Rehman’s power coincided with the onset of the United Nation’s Decade for women (1976-1985)and the second five year plan (1980-1985),in which emphasizes was given on need to incorporate women in development strategies into development planning.² In 1991 election manifesto, the Awami League took a stand against policies which promotes gender specific discrimination, a commitment was expressed to women’s social and economic independence, and facilities and training to enable women to join the skilled labour force was also promised by the government. Likewise, Bangladesh National Party promised to unify women in national development efforts guaranteed them to respectable role in every aspect of national development and implements all convention of the United Nations on women.
Bangladeshi women’s movement was grown out of the country as a nationalist movement. With a affiliation to some leftist parties the left leaning Mahila Parishad was formed in 1970, with 25,000 members in 1998, it is still the largest women’s organization. Issue of reserving parliamentary seats for women was the major struggle of the women’s movement.
In 1973 and in 1979 elections very low representation of women was seen when parties nominated very few women to contest seat. In 1973 parliamentary election only 0.3 percent of women made up of the total candidates. In 1986 when women contested general seat, the percentage rose by 1.3 percent to 1.5 percent in 1991 elections. Women’s participation in the political and national movement has been very low.³ Various positive measures have been taken by the government to increase the women’s participation in decision making bodies but the gender gap is still remains intact. At the various level of local government and in public service reservation for women is exist but these quotes may not be filled.
Women are often seen as political appointees serving particular interest group, or else they adopt a passive role. Women who have achieved leadership position have often done do largely due to their connections with powerful men. Because of lack of illiteracy and ignorance of the law prevent women from claiming what legal rights they do have. The construction of women as dependants and the norms of purdah mean that they are unlikely to approach outside authorities without male mediation. Socio economic constraints prevent women from exercising their legal rights because of limited options. Not only the right to vote, but actual women participation within the parliament also indicates women’s involvement in the decision making process. Currently very few Bangladeshi women can be found in positions of political leadership in both central and local government structure. Bangladesh is the only country where both the head of the government and leader of the opposition are women. The women in Bangladesh should enjoy a distinct advantage in advancing their rights of political participation for getting equality. Yet it does not depict the real picture of women’s participation in politics. Despite being the female leader at the top, women have been excluded from the government and politics and are subject to domination and discrimination in the political platform. In addition, existing laws are incapable of protecting women affected by violence and economic deprivation. Women’s contribution in the party hierarchical is quite low. More than 56 women candidates contested in 2001
Bangladeshi parliamentary election in different constituencies. A record number of nine female candidates ran for election as independent candidate, but not surprisingly they were all defeated due to lack of party sponsorship, campaign money, and group support. Rising high level of campaign costs and pre and post election violence are the harsh reality of Bangladesh parliamentary election. In parliamentary election women candidates generally do not have full fledged campaign strategy, sufficient volunteers, and a broad network. Because of all these reasons women of Bangladesh are disadvantaged and discouraged when competing for political office against men. By the male counterparts money play a dominant role in politics and elections everywhere, muscle power, black money and violence that characterized the national elections in Bangladesh poses an extraordinary barrier to women’s participation in politics.

**TABLE-1: ELECTED WOMEN’S MEMBERS TO THE BANGLADESH PARLIAMENT (1973-2019)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Election/Parliament</th>
<th>% of Women candidates</th>
<th>Won in Direct seats and by-Elections</th>
<th>Total elected women</th>
<th>Reserved Seats</th>
<th>% of women in the parliament</th>
<th>Tenure *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Parliament 1973</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.8 (out of 315 seats)</td>
<td>2 years 6 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Parliament 1979</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0+2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.6 (out of 330 seats)</td>
<td>2 years 11 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Parliament 1986</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>5+2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.2 (out of 330 seats)</td>
<td>1 year 5 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Parliament 1988</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.31 (out of 300 seats)</td>
<td>2 year 7 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth Parliament 1991</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>8+1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.81 (out of 330 seats)</td>
<td>4 year 5 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth Parliament 1996</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>13+2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.03 (out of 330 seats)</td>
<td>12 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh Parliament 1996</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight Parliament 2001</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13.62 ((out of 345 seats)</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ninth Parliament 2008</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>19+1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20 (out of 350 seats)</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenth Parliament 2014</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19.71 (out of 350 seats)</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleventh Parliament 2019#</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>350</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


A political scenario of women elected members to the Bangladesh Jatiyo Sangsad (National Parliament) during 1973-2019 is discussed below. The Table-1 shows that in 2008, the Bangladesh Parliament had the highest representation of women (20%) including the reserved sets. In the 1988 parliament, the provisions for 30 reserved seats for women were not maintained, which result in fewer women representation in the parliament. The debate for the reservation for women in parliament is still continued. The election commission of Bangladesh observed that whether the present system of reservation of 30 seats for women in the parliament should be continued in its present form of some other suitable system should be revised. 34 women leaders demanded that there should be at least 100 seats in the national parliament where women representatives would be elected by the direct voting of the electorate.

Newly elected Bangladesh’s eleventh parliament has a record number of 22 directly elected women MP’s. In 2008 there were 19 directly elected women, MP’s, in 2014 parliamentary election there were 18 directly elected women in the house. The number has now increased to 22 in 11th parliament election. Besides the reserved seat for women for women MP’s there are directly elected women MP too. There are total 22 members in eleventh parliament, among them 19 are from ruling Awami League, two from Jatiya Party, and one from Jatiya Samajtantric Dal. At first there were 15 reserved seats for women in parliament then 30 and 45 and now it is rose by 50 in present.

**TABLE-2: WOMEN IN POLITICAL PARTIES OF BANGLADESH (2014)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Name of the high level committee</th>
<th>Total member</th>
<th>Women member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh Nationalist party (BNP)</td>
<td>National standing committee</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Executive committee</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh Awami league (AL)</td>
<td>Presidium</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Central Executive committee</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jatiya Party (JP)</td>
<td>National standing committee</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Executive committee</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaat-e-Islami</td>
<td>Mojlish-e Shura</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mojlish e- amla</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh Communist party</td>
<td>Presidium</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Central committee</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Table-2 has presented the scenario of women representation in political parties of Bangladesh. A close examination of Table-2 revels that Bangladesh national party (BNP) standing committee has been organized by 14 members where women position remain only one as compared to their Central Executive Committee, only 11 positions were carried by the women among 164 members. This scenario is heavily burdened with Bangladesh Awami League, where five women have been elected to one of the 36 members, and the number of women participation in the central executive committee between 201 members is only 6. In reality women
environment of women empowerment has not been created various obstacles are still there in the society.

**Women’s Participation in Local Level Politics in Bangladesh**

The two prominent women are the head of major political parties in Bangladesh. The wife of a former president of Bangladesh, Begum Khalida Zia entered into politics without any experience after her husband was killed in a political coup. The current Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina is the daughter of the former president and first prime minister of the Bangladesh. They both are become leader during crisis period and they successfully occupied the top leadership position in the two largest parties.

**Union Parishad**

Union Parishad is the oldest and lowest tier of rural local government in Bangladesh. A According to Local Governance Ordinance 1983 the union means a rural area declared as a union under section-3 (GOB, 1990). It has been functioning for more than hundred years in various names and forms. It is run by the local representatives where the voters of the Union Parishad directly elect them. UP’s are responsible for the economic, social and community development at the local level. According to local government Act, 2009, a union is divided into nine wards, each UP consists of a chairman and nine members in the general seats- one from each ward. Three seats have been reserved for women members who are elected by the voters of the concerns three wards.

**Women’s Representation in Local Government**

Without the active participation of women the goal of equality development and peace cannot be achieved. Local government institutions cover a large scale livelihood, health and development programmes related to women. Presently women participation in local government institute is low and not satisfactory in Bangladesh. For the first time in 1973 local government election only one woman was elected as a chairman. In 1988 UP’s election, the number of women candidates for chairman was 79 and women member were 863. Among them only one UP chairman was elected. In 2001 Union Parishad elections, 102 women candidates contested in UP chairmanship position countrywide where only 20 of them were elected. However in the 1997 and 2003 Union Parishad elections, the number of women candidates who contested for the position of UP chairmanship is 232 and 102 respectively.

The Table: 3 provides figure of the elected female chairman and members to the Union Parishad of Bangladesh during 1973-2011. From the data it is clear that women are not represented at even the lower local government bodies like Union Parishad in Bangladesh. The trend to contest in the general seats or chairmanship position is still very low. Reservation system ensures participation of women only on the reserved seats. Without the women’s reserved seats very few women candidates are contested for general member seat or chairmanship.
TABLE 3 WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN UNION PARISHAD ELECTION (1973-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Election</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Union Parishad</th>
<th>Women Chairmen Candidate</th>
<th>Elected</th>
<th>Women Member Candidate</th>
<th>Elected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>4352</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>4352</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>4440</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>4440</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>863</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>4443</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1135</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>4443</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>43967/456*</td>
<td>12882/110*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>4443</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>43764/617*</td>
<td>12684/85*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>4493</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9th</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>4498</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13494</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Md. Wali ullah.,(2018) Local Government in Bangladesh: Women’s Participation and Empowerment

(*) Women contested and elected to the general seats.

Women are not getting encouragement from the major parties and at the society level. Awami League government started holding the all local government elections on the party basis that will be a great barrier for women’s effective participation in the local level. Due to male dominant and corrupt political culture local women are not politically active. Women role as a politician and decision makers are not accepted in the community they face strong social and cultural barriers to entering in to local government. According to UN-Habitate, mostly local governments are based on patriarchy system. The structure of local government is designed for and by the men.

Female Participation in Voting

Voting is the one form of political participation for women. Casting vote is a powerful weapon in the hand of women; it can be wisely used to elect candidates. The right to vote is an indispensable part of democratic process, it remain incomplete if one have not the voting power. It is a right which is protected by law. In the last parliamentary election (2018) it was observed that about 50.43 percent of male and 49.56 percent of female voters had cast their vote during the election. Total Number of voters was 104,190,573 where male voters were 52,547,294 while female voters were 51,643,279.

From the Table-4 it can be observed that between 2007 July and 2008 August a total of 8,11,30,973 voters were registered and for the first time in Bangladesh history over fifty percent of those registered were women, where male voters were 49.04 percent while female voters were 50.83 percent. Female in Bangladesh did not participate in political rallies as they are not well educated and number of Muslim female said that they feel shy to go out publically and they do not participate in campaign because of restrain tradition, patriarchal boundation or fear of violence. Due to cultural and religious factor the level of female participation is low in Bangladesh.
### TABLE-4 AN OVERVIEW OF LAST ELEVEN PARLIAMENTARY ELECTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliamentary Elections</th>
<th>Date of polls</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3 March 1973</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3,52,05,642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>28 Feb 1979</td>
<td>2,00,34,717</td>
<td>52.22</td>
<td>1,83,29,141</td>
<td>47.77</td>
<td>3,83,63,858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>7 May 1986</td>
<td>2,52,24,385</td>
<td>52.68</td>
<td>2,26,52,594</td>
<td>47.31</td>
<td>4,78,76,979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3 March 1988</td>
<td>2,63,79,944</td>
<td>52.90</td>
<td>2,34,83,885</td>
<td>47.09</td>
<td>4,98,63,829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>27 Feb 1991</td>
<td>3,30,40,757</td>
<td>53.13</td>
<td>2,91,40,986</td>
<td>46.86</td>
<td>6,21,81,743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>15 Feb 1996</td>
<td>2,37,65,752</td>
<td>42.32</td>
<td>2,32,38,204</td>
<td>41.38</td>
<td>5,61,49,182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>12 Jun 1996</td>
<td>2,87,59,994</td>
<td>50.70</td>
<td>2,79,56,941</td>
<td>49.29</td>
<td>5,67,16,935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>1 Oct 2001</td>
<td>3,86,84,972</td>
<td>51.57</td>
<td>3,63,15,684</td>
<td>48.42</td>
<td>7,50,00,656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>29 Dec 2008</td>
<td>3,97,87,636</td>
<td>49.04</td>
<td>4,12,44,820</td>
<td>50.83</td>
<td>8,11,30,973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>4,61,23,318</td>
<td>50.16</td>
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<td>49.85</td>
<td>9,19,66,290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>30 Dec 2018</td>
<td>52,547,294</td>
<td>50.43</td>
<td>51,643,279</td>
<td>49.56</td>
<td>104,190,573</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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(#) Female Representation in the 11<sup>th</sup> National Parliament Election of 2018: A Case Study of Bangladesh., Assignment, University of Barisal.

The growing number of women political activists and elected officials are emerging exclusively at the sub-national levels. Still women are facing structural barrier in variety of cultural and equal partnership. Registering in voter list is also a challenge for women. One factor which obstructs women’s registration is the difficulty in obtaining a national identity card, an essential step to vote. Lots of women voters at villages and women in the hill tracts are deprived of their voting rights. Women face harassment physical impairment and financial pressure during campaigning. Women prevented from attending meeting with their male counterparts due to social and cultural behavior. Fatwa by religion and local leaders also prevent women from voting in remote areas of Bangladesh. In some of the areas of Bangladesh, door to door campaigning is done to involve the women in voting. Various voter education programmes were also started for women to teach the importance of voting and to encourage them to come out and to vote.

An increase in women’s basic education is assumed to be a contributing factor in increasing women’s political participation. Through basic education women are more exposed to the public sphere, and hence more aware of the world beyond her home e.g. issues like Government, public authority and services. A number of aspects of the voting process or election management affect the turn-out of the number of women voting. Easily accessible polling stations positively contributed to a higher turn-out of female voters, since women’s mobility outside their homes are limited due to conservative cultural factors. Law and order conducted around elections and the
presence of women electoral staff at polling stations is important to women voters. It is also an asset to have election staff which speak the local languages and understand the local culture especially in areas inhabited by indigenous communities where languages other than the Bangla (official) language is spoken. It is generally believe that poor people sometimes may be paid to vote for particular party. Women voters of this category may tend to be more affected by this than male since they are to a higher degree dependent on male patronage systems and hierarchy both within and outside the family. Women participation also influenced by the violence at polling booths, intimidation and threats during voting and after voting long queues at polling booth. language barriers at the polling stations, hindrances in gaining access to local authorities caused extra problems especially for women from ethnic or religious minorities, the army being in charge of voter registration in some sensitive areas reduced the will to register as voters.

**CONCLUSION**

Today the empowerment of women became one of the important concerns of 21st century. In our day to day life we see how women become victim of various social evils. Female empowerment is the important instrument to expand the resources of women and to make strategic life choice. The political parties which are male dominate are not interest to involve women in their local branches. Even, no women received a positive signal from the major political parties to contest for the chairmanship position, as this position is considered important and strategic for the party. Female unequal status in society gives them unequal access in every field. Steps taken for the reservation of women in parliament help to promote participation numerically but it is quite not ensured practically. As elected women member’s participation remains insignificant, as they are not given any specific duties. At local level lack of awareness over their roles and responsibility they are face discrimination and biases by male elected colleagues. There is serious need to overcome all these barriers to fully empower the women in all over the sphere of life.

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FEATURES OF APPLICATION OF RESTRUCTURING MECHANISM IN THE REGION

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ABSTRACT

Prospects for restructuring in regions and innovative ways of implementing them are outlined, taking into account the requirements of innovative development. Practical suggestions and recommendations have been developed to achieve economic growth and increase efficiency by improving the mechanism of restructuring the regional economy. In particular, if restructuring of economically insolvent enterprises aims at financial and economic recovery, it envisages a systematic transformation of enterprises in a sustainable activity phase into market changes. At the same time, reforms in the regional classification mean not only the development of an independent economic system formed within the regional context, but also the management of micro processes. In a word, all tax revenues, except for the above two types of tax revenues, remain in the regional economy. In view of the above, the need to restructure the economy of Namangan is based on the diversification of the regional economic sectors, including industrial production, strengthening of integration processes between the sectors of the economy, and further strengthening of financial stability. In this case, the restructuring process will include: improving the structure and management functions; elimination of technological backwardness of economic activity; improvement of financial and economic policy. The process of deepening the economic reforms of the country demonstrates the need for a comprehensive and uninterrupted continuation of the structural transformations and diversification processes carried out in the national economy.

KEYWORDS: region, enterprise restructuring, structural changes, the project of restructuring, the factors of restructuring, operational restructuring, strategic restructuring, emerging risk factors in the restructuring process.
INTRODUCTION

Any restructuring process, regardless of its form and method, requires gradual implementation based on individual approaches, depending on the financial and economic condition of the enterprises. At the same time, strategic restructuring, which is envisaged by economically insolvent enterprises, does not exclude partial restructuring of financially stable enterprises. Accordingly, the restructuring of the region’s economy should be balanced in all units, regardless of their financial and economic status. In particular, if restructuring of economically insolvent enterprises aims at financial and economic recovery, it envisages a systematic transformation of enterprises in a sustainable activity phase into market changes.

The effectiveness of structural reforms in the economy is largely dependent on the extent to which these reforms occur in the economic structures. Particularly, regional structures are of particular importance, firstly, that each separate region is “a systemically functioning part of the national economy as an independent organized economic system”[1] and, secondly, the geographical factor of increasing resource mobilization in the economy. Thirdly, it is explained by the fact that the state policy in the sphere of reforming and developing economic sectors is always regional. At the same time, reforms in the regional classification mean not only the development of an independent economic system formed within the regional context, but also the management of micro processes.

Literature review

The study of restructuring and related processes is reflected in the scientific work of a number of domestic and foreign scientists. Methodological approaches to the problem of restructuring R. Andersen, D. Braun, L. Vodachek, P. Gerhard, A. Alpatov, A. Bachurin, V. Mitskevich, II Mazur, V.D Shapiro, A. Tutundjyan, N. Ekimova, AK Nagoeva [2-7].

In our country, theoretical, methodological and practical aspects of restructuring were carried out by economists GK Saidova, MN Abdullaeva, B. Berkinov, A. Berdikulov [8-11] and others. However, in these studies, the problem is generally treated as a microeconomic category for restructuring and has not been thoroughly researched at the level of dissertation research. To date, the theoretical and methodological model of restructuring has not been fully developed and acceptable for practical application. At the same time, the more recent and more universal conceptions of restructuring have been undermined by new research that has not been fully implemented into production, with management requirements or the current level of technology and technology. This work differs from the above studies by identifying the role of restructuring in regional economic growth and enhancing its effectiveness, justifying and improving its regional features and mechanisms.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Systematic analysis, mathematical and statistical methods, comparisons, grouping, graphs were used during the research.

Analysis and results

Namangan region currently has the lowest rates of industrial production among the regions of the country. Thus, the share of industrial production in GRP (11.7%) is higher than in the Andijan
region (25.0%), with only Surkhandarya (6.9%) and Jizzakh (8.9%) regions. 2.1 times, and almost 1.8 times behind the Fergana region (20.6%).

If 2001-2018 focuses on the dynamics of the share of industrial production in the Namangan region in the sectoral production of Fergana region and in the gross industrial output of Uzbekistan, by 2008 the share of the region's share in relation to both basic indicators can be traced. This situation in the regional industrial production is explained by the following reasons:

**Fig 1 Changes in the share of Namangan region in the volume of industrial production in the Fergana Valley and in Uzbekistan, in%**

First, the process of diversification of industrial production in the region until 2009 is slowing down. In particular, a number of machine-building machines (Namanganmash, Namanganagromash, Mexmash, repair plants in Turakurgan, Uchkurgan, Chust districts), electrical engineering and instrumentation ("Namangan Electrical Equipment", "Electrotherm", "Barion"), which play an important role in the regional industry. , chemistry ("Carbonam"), food ("Namangan Canning", "Sweet", Namangan "Cool drinks", Namangan "Nafosat" meat enterprise, "Uchkurganpivo"), textile and light industry (Atlas JSC, Namangan) textile enterprises, JSC "Notuqimachi", Uychi spinning factory, "Our clothing company," East "and" Camelot "shoes enterprises) enterprises in their efforts. As a whole, the capital of the region is heavily capital-intensive, high-tech heavy industry sectors have declined, and the level of industry capitalization in the region has led to one-sided diversification in the regional industry.
Secondly, the activities of most joint ventures established with foreign investment during these years have failed. In particular, joint ventures Kosonsoy-tekmen, Asnamtekstil, Pop-fen, Kasmir-Deri, created in the late 1990s, namely Nam-Kon, Yanis, which are part of the food industry. Joint ventures like Marvel Dj, Nam-bum in the printing industry, medical syringes from the pharmaceutical industry have been ineffective, and many of them have stopped their operations. In particular, the activity of joint ventures in the field of mechanical engineering and metalworking, electrical engineering and instrumentation, building materials industry, leather processing and footwear production in light industry has not been effectively established.

Third, the industry's lagging behind other sectors of the economy, particularly in the exchange and consumer sectors (retail, public catering, social and household services, etc.) is a feature of the region's economy. The level of industrial capitalization can be attributed to the pace of technical equipment of operating enterprises, the level of renewal, and, secondly, the creation of new enterprises, including small businesses, and, thirdly, the performance of new technological lines.

The analysis shows that the average number of business units operating in the region is 16% lower than in the neighboring Andijan region and 33.5% in the Fergana region.

Fourth, despite the fact that there are positive factors in the business and management system in the region, such as the current legislation, liberalization of state and public administration in the region, insufficient attention has been paid to creating a favorable business and attractive investment climate in the region.

The regional industrial and economic development program adopted in 2009 accelerated the growth rates of industrial production. During this period, the share of the region in the national and regional indicators has a positive growth dynamics of 17-18% (Figure 2).

**Fig 2 Changes in the share of subsidies and subventions to the local budget of Namangan region in the total cost, in %**

![Graph](image-url)
In fact, the post-2009 period can be regarded as a new phase of development in the economy of the Namangan region. During this period, the growth rates of all sectors of the economy were accelerated. At the end of fiscal year 2011, subsidized expenditure of the local budget was 1.7%, and in 2012 subsidies to the local budget ceased.

If you look at the dynamics of the indicators in Figure 2.8 above, the share of subsidies and subventions from the central budget increased by 2009, including the share of subventions in the regional budget of 25.3 percent in 2005-2009. The share of subventions attracted to the local budget in the post-2009 period was 31% in 2010 and 27.1% in 2011, which is 16.6% lower than the average share before 2009 (Figure 2.8). This trend can be seen in the dynamics of the share of subsidies in the total budget expenditures attracted to the Namangan region’s economy from 1996 to 2009 and at present. Thus, the analysis shows that the share of subsidies in the structure of local budget expenditures in 1996-2009 sharply decreased from 17.1% to 1.7% in 2011 (Fig 3).

If the budget subsidies are the money allocated from the central budget to the lower budget to cover the difference between the expenditures and revenues of the regional budget and it is worth noting that the financial situation of the region after 2010 is on the way to recovery.

As the share of budget subsidies in the region tends to decline, it remains an important source of funding for local budget expenditures, including the subventions being actively involved in the implementation of targeted state programs in the regions of the country, and the central government transfers its commitments to local authorities.

As mentioned above, the positive results achieved in recent years do not indicate that the financial state of the region has reached full recovery. If we analyze the norms of national tax deductions to the budgets of the regions in 2009-2010, it is provided that all types of state taxes in Namangan region, except for the excise tax on taxes and subsurface use taxes, are allotted to the regional budget. In a word, all tax revenues, except for the above two types of tax revenues, remain in the regional economy. In view of the above, the need to restructure the economy of Namangan is based on the diversification of the regional economic sectors, including industrial production, strengthening of integration processes between the sectors of the economy, and further strengthening of financial stability.

The process of deepening the economic reforms of the country demonstrates the need for a comprehensive and uninterrupted continuation of the structural transformations and diversification processes carried out in the national economy.

The demand for the economic development of the country requires innovative technology and technology to be replaced in as little as 8-10 years, and in the more developed countries in the shortest possible time, which, along with the above-mentioned processes, is an urgent issue of economic modernization.

The State Committee on Demonopolization and Development of Competition of the Republic of Uzbekistan deals with the issues of restructuring. Over the past 6 years, the Committee and its regional offices have developed and successfully implemented programs for the financial recovery and restructuring of 836 large enterprises, many of which are effectively operating out of economic turmoil and bankruptcy.
In a time of economic competition in a market economy, restructuring is a periodic need for the economic entity. Regardless of the purpose, it is possible to achieve the expected results through a careful thought of each step and methods of restructuring and the effective implementation of the implementation mechanism.

Successful restructuring needs to be properly formulated. The goal, in turn, is dictated by the overall strategy. Strategy is an important direction of the activity of the subject and it is the process of accomplishing its planned purpose.

The strategy selection process is carried out only after studying the current strategy of the economic entity and consistently analyzing the product type and volume.

No one is protected from negative consequences during the restructuring project. There are a number of significant risks for entities that may adversely affect the implementation of a restructuring program. Factors influencing the implementation of restructuring programs include:

- incorrect choice of restructuring method. The choice of the method of restructuring is based on the purpose and strategy of the economic status of the subject. If a decision is made to carry out rapid restructuring, the following methods may be used: First, the restructuring of the property owned by the subject, such as rent, conservation, liquidation, registration and disposal of assets, and secondly, the restructuring of the debtor's debt, that is, the debt repayment, the deferral or installment payment finish with and more. The important thing is to choose the most effective and convenient way for a subject to properly analyze it;

- Preliminary assessment of the results of restructuring. It is difficult to determine where the actual results of structural changes are manifested in practice. Sometimes the results of restructuring, which have been demonstrated for a short period of time, are perceived by its management as the final result. In this case, the whole process may not be justified. To address this, a short-term restructuring of the restructuring program should be carefully planned, detailing its target indicators and clearly identifying the deadline for the final results;

- Lack of managerial skills. There are two ways to solve this problem. This will be done through recruitment of a new management team or through trainings and special seminars on managers' priorities and goals for restructuring. In both cases, it is necessary to recruit highly qualified specialists from outside to identify and address this problem;

- Misappraisal of the resources required for restructuring. Often, the complex process of restructuring is poorly evaluated. That is why, for a short period of time, a small group of specialists will be involved in the implementation of the project, and the funding will be low. This is due to the above three factors;

- insufficient activity of participants in the restructuring process. This risk not only represents the diversity of interests of the entity's employees in structural changes, but also implies conflicts of interest and conflicts of interest between managers and owners during the restructuring process. To control this problem, the restructuring program should be implemented from top to bottom, not from bottom to bottom. The important role is played by the capacity and activity of the enterprise owners. It is important that their activities in this process are reflected in the interests of managers and employees;
- emergence of negative social consequences. The emergence of negative social consequences in the process of restructuring is a common occurrence in market economies. It is reflected in the reduction of mass positions in the economic entities in which it operates, and the dismissal of employees in liquidation.

CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATIONS

It is quite natural that the restructuring methodology, which is widely used in developed countries, also engulf our markets. This is because implementing restructuring programs can dramatically increase the competitiveness of a subject and even eliminate the negative effects of economic development.

In economic terms, restructuring is an effective market tool for enhancing the competitiveness of the entities, and the strategy for their development is considered as a comprehensive software tool for enabling the market to function in response to changing market conditions.

We understand restructuring as a purposeful process of improving the structure and management functions of entities to improve their financial and economic policies and technical and technological backwardness in order to increase productivity through the efficient use of resources and the role of entrepreneurial activity.

From a dialectical point of view, restructuring is seen as an ongoing process of forming an effective strategy for the development of a subject and a mechanism for its implementation.

Market relations and development of science and technology require improvement of production, economic performance of the subjects through the reform of organizational and managerial structure.

Under the conditions of a market economy, producers are faced with the need for a comprehensive restructuring of their activities, that is, restructuring, as demand for goods (services) changes. In this case, the restructuring process will include: improving the structure and management functions; elimination of technological backwardness of economic activity; improvement of financial and economic policy. These measures should ultimately lead to improved production efficiency, competitiveness of products (services), increased labor productivity, lower production costs and overall financial and economic performance.

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INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AMONG SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS STUDENTS IN RIVERS STATE, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to find out the influence of emotional self-concept on the academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Rivers State, Nigeria. The population of the study consisted of 42,624 SSII students. Self-concept was conceptualized as emotional self-concept. The Ex-post factor research design was used. Stratified and systematic random sampling technique was deployed to obtain a sample of eight hundred (800) SSII students in twenty three (23) secondary schools. Data was collected using Students Opinion Questionnaire and academic performance of students in Mathematics and English language (SPME). A trial test of the instrument gave a reliability estimate between 63 to 94. Seven hypotheses were tested at 0.5 alpha levels using One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Fisher’s Least Significant Difference t-test where appropriate. The results obtained showed that emotional self-concept. It is necessary to improve the emotional skills of students to engender emotional self-concept, eliminate anxiety, increase the emotional resilience of students in the school and motivate students to perform better and these should be the core counselling activity of the school counselors.
INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

It has been observed in Nigeria and of course globally that, individuals grow up from children to adult largely through school. In school, they learn and acquire knowledge and skills necessary for their functionality in the society as adults. The progress they make as they move from lower to higher classes and levels in the education system is measured through a system of examinations. So in school, children are expected to perform creditably well in their various examinations. However, observation of what is happening in the Nigerian schools in general, and schools in the Rivers State in particular is far from the expected. When studied, results of past Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) released by the West African Examination Council (WAEC) for students in the Rivers State presents a dismal picture.

Of more concern is the fact that in recent times, instead of improvement, one is observing sharp decline in students' West African Examination Council (WAEC) achievement especially in key subjects like Mathematics and English language. For example, when WAEC released its' May-June 2014 WAEC Examinations results, only about 31.28% of the candidates obtained credit pass in Mathematics and English Language. In August 12, 2014 at WAEC office at Yaba, only 31.28%, obtained credits in five (5) subjects and above, including Mathematic and English language. Comparing 2012 and 2013 WASSCE results, there was a marginal decline in the achievement of candidates as 38.81% was recorded in 2012 and 36.57% in 2013.

This development has become a source of serious concern to educators, parents, policy makers and government officials and has widely become a subject of National discourse. Such dismal achievements are counterproductive for the Nigerian society. First, it has increased the rate of school dropout and has limited secondary school graduates access to higher education.

The odd fact is that, when children drop out of school; they become a burden to the society. When individuals drop out of school, they have limited access to employment, so many get easily recruited into criminal gangs, thus end up being a nuisance to the entire society. In Rivers state, most drop outs turn to militancy, and robbery even terrorism.

Academic achievements, the subject of discussion among parents/guardians and form the bases of academic debate and stakeholder are interested in it. They form the Centre of educational policy. According to Igwe (2004), "academic achievement, it is of great concern to parents/guardians throughout the world. It is a subject of discussions and debate among scholars. It is one of the most vital educational policy and is one of the indicator stakeholders are interested in. Students' achievement is very important because, it appears to be the major criterion by which the effectiveness and success of any educational institution could be judged and a fundamental criterion by which all teaching-learning activities are measured, using some standard of excellence and the acquisition of particular grades in examinations that measures candidate's ability, mastery of the content and skills in applying the knowledge acquired to a particular situation".

Viewed this way, informed people are really restive about poor examination achievement in the state. In response to the situation, schools have been organizing extra classes and tutorials involving extra hours of drills to help students improve on their achievements. Parents most times engage private lesson teachers to help their children in such key subjects like Mathematics and
English language. Inter school competitions are now frequently organized to expose students to higher challenges, and raise their problem solving abilities as an equipment for better school achievement. Research efforts have made tremendous recommendations to address the problem of poor achievement. However, inspire of the steps so far taken, the problem of students’ poor academic achievement still persists.

The focus in this study is therefore to find out if poor academic achievement among secondary school students was influenced by emotional self-concept. Self-concept as used here refers to the individual's image of himself or herself. According to (Spinthall and Collins (1995) it refers to "the composite of ideas, feelings, and attitudes that organizes our notions, sentiments and approach about issues". It is seen as being associated with academic achievement because Isangedighi (2007) views it as one's image of himself, thus occupies a central place and directs behavior, when one wants to determine its relevance in explaining students' academic achievement. A positive academic self-concept and emotional stability could generate self-confidence and may influence academic achievement. Therefore, self-concept which has to do with how an individual sees himself serves to direct behaviour and if possible could drive one to work hard and consequently perform well academically. In essence, in emotional self-concept is a concept of behaviour and when one sees himself in a positive light emotionally it could influence one's behaviour towards his studies and therefore, influence his academic achievement.

It is also a pointer to knowing what schools should do to tackle poor achievement of students in examinations. (Spinthall and Collins, 1995). This could be a ground for students' perception about examinations in the school system and a means for tackling poor achievement.

Theoretical Framework

**The Canon Bard Theory on Emotions (Walter Cannon and Philip Bard: 1927)**

The Cannon-Bard theory of emotion, also known as the thalamic theory of emotion, is a physiological explanation of emotion developed by Walter Cannon and Philip Bard. Cannon-Bard theory states that we feel emotions and experience physiological reactions such as sweating, trembling, and muscle tension simultaneously.

More specifically, it is suggested that emotions result when the thalamus sends a message to the brain in response to a stimulus, resulting in a physiological reaction.

According to the Cannon-Bard theory of emotion, we react to a stimulus and experience the associated emotion at the same time. The Cannon-Bard theory differs from other theories of emotion such as the James-Lange theory of emotion, which argues that physiological responses occur first and result and are the cause of emotions.

The James-Lange theory was the dominant theory of emotion at the time, but Harvard physiologist Walter Cannon and his doctoral student Philip Bard felt that the theory did not accurately reflect how emotional experiences take place.

William James's theory suggested that people first experience a physiological reaction in response to a stimulus in the environment.

Cannon's work instead suggested that emotions could be experienced even when the body does not reveal a physiological reaction. In other cases, he noted, physiological reactions to different
emotions can be extremely similar. People experience sweating, a racing heartbeat and increased respiration in response to fear, excitement, and anger. These emotions are very different, but the physiological responses are the same.

Cannon and Bard instead suggested that the experience of emotion was not dependent upon interpreting the body's physiological reactions. Instead, they believed that the emotion and the physical response occur simultaneously and that one was not dependent upon the other. Relevance: this theory suggests and supports the view that emotional instability such as the fear of examination, emotional problem from family background, attitudes of aggressive lecturers and other forms of extreme emotions with attendant physiological consequences can interfere with the students intellectual capacity to benefit from the impartation of knowledge from teachers and impact negatively on their performance in school subjects.

**Purpose of the Study**
The purpose of the study is to investigate emotional self-concept and academic achievement of secondary school students in Rivers State of Nigeria, and to determine if this factor have influence on the student's academic achievement. Specially, the study is to find out the proportion of students who high or low self-concept and to determine the influence of:

1. Students' emotional self-concepts on their academic achievement.

**Research Question**
The following research question was stated to guide the study.

1. To what extent does emotional self-concept influence students' academic achievement?

**Statement of Hypothesis**
The following hypothesis was formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance in the study:

1. Emotional self-concept has no significant influence on student's academic achievement.

**Assumptions of the Study**

1. Students' self-concept is a measurable constructs, and vary across individuals.
2. Students' achievement in senior public secondary school is a measurable construct, and vary across individuals.
3. Population of the study is normally distributed.

It was assumed that subjects are in the right frame of mind when responding to the questionnaire.

**SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**
This study is of benefit to teachers, parents, education policy makers, school administrators and counselors. Through reading the study, teachers should be aware that helping students to develop positive emotional self-concept is a way of shielding them against academic failure. Through this study, education policy makers should realize that emotional self-concept is associated with learners' capability to come up with enviable academic performance. Such awareness could guide the policy makers in ensuring that policy guidelines generated by them allow for funding of programmes
necessary in building appropriate emotional self-concept that equips learners for performance in schools.

The school administrators would be clear that much needs to be done to create atmosphere necessary for positive emotional self-concept development and to inculcate appropriate value system to students for the assurance of self-preparation for academic success. Finally, this study provides guidance counselors and psychologists the awareness of re-engineering their strategies by mounting seminars and workshops on students' emotional self-concept. When they become aware of the findings they should become more informed and their progressively expanding knowledge to help bring about improvement in their guidance services.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study could have gone beyond the variable covered and extended to observe the influence of the independent variable and its specific or distinct effect on the two subjects discussed under academic performance. For instance some aspects of mathematics are Trigonometry, Algebra, Calculus etc. and for English: Comprehension, Essay Writing etc. A wider study can investigate how each of the aspects of these subjects are influenced by the independent variable. Rivers State is also a highly volatile area in terms of kidnapping, see pirates attacking passenger boats and spontaneous outbreak of political violence and this could a times lead to closure of some schools. Some of these issues were difficult for me to overcome during collection of data in the three educational zones. Such limitations may have impacted negatively on the outcome of the results of the study. I also had limitations in controlling both the independent variables and other intervening variables because of the design and that could limit the confidence placed on the outcome of the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature was reviewed under the following subheading:

Emotional self-concept and academic achievement

Emotional self-concept is the individual feeling of appropriate to the learning situation which enable him/her to cope with the learning environment through emotional stability. Werf, Minnaert and Kuyper (2010) investigation the relationship between emotions in the classroom and academic achievement revealed that "learners'competence and value-belief appraisals determined the nature of achievement emotions". They found that "gender differences in mathematics related emotions".

Liebert and Harris (1967) revealed that "value system determined the level of motivation with which the learner approached tasks in school. Motivation could be intrinsic (from within) or extrinsic (from external factors). Appraisal of a task as important to the learner for its own sake (intrinsic) or for a reward, a better job or admission to higher level of education (extrinsic) determined the learner's emotions in any given situation and had a bearing on achievement. These observations have important implications for education because higher levels of competence beliefs were generally associated with higher levels of positive emotions (enjoyment, happiness, hope and pride) while lower beliefs were associated with negative emotions (anger, anxiety, hopelessness)".

Sanchez and Roda (2011) on the correlation of emotional self-concept and academic achievement reported that "strong and negative emotions such as anxiety and depression were associated with under-achievement because they tended to reduce motivation to work while positive emotions
such as excitement, enjoyment and happiness raised motivation and satisfaction leading to better academic achievement”.

Summary of literature review

The review of literature shows that generally, positive emotional self-concept leads to increase school work in particular thus is capable of moderating school achievement and concluded by Dambuzo (2005) that "self-concept and achievement were determinants and consequences of each other".

However, the present study filled some gaps in the research process in terms of the study variables, the research area in terms of cultural environment, the subjects for the study, some of the independent variables and the methodology. Not much study has been carried out in Rivers State with respect to emotional self-concept and the fact that the problem of poor achievement still persists means that there is still much to be done. From observation, most researches have centered on physical, academic but with inconsistent results.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This was presented under the following subheadings: Research Design Area of the Study Population of the Study Sampling Procedure Sample Instrumentation Validity of the instrument Reliability of the instrument Procedure for data collection Procedure for data Preparation and Scoring Procedure for data analysis Operational definition of variables

Research Design

The research design adopted for this study was the ex-post facto design. Kerlinger (1986) defined the ex-post facto as "a systematic empirical enquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of the independent variables because their manifestation has already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulatable. Inferences about relations among variables are made without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent variables".

The choice of ex-post facto design was to investigate the direct influence of self-concept and values orientation on academic achievement of senior secondary school students without any manipulation. Therefore, data were collected accurately and objectively without any manipulation to determine the influence of the independent variables (self-concept and value orientation) on the dependent variable (academic achievement).

Research area

The research area was the Rivers State of Nigeria. Rivers State is one of the 36 states in Nigeria. It is also one of the states in the south-south geopolitical zones of the country. It is perceived by the indigenes as the Treasure base of the Nation. It is an oil rich state with oil related economic activities flourishing and attracting many young people into these activities. Unfortunately, this is also a source of distraction to many young people of school age who give little attention to their studies as a result of their involvement in these activities. Some young people also look for other means of making quick money, like kidnapping as a means of livelihood. From observation, many young people no longer find academics very interesting, leading to poor achievement in school subjects.

The general self-concept and values orientation is that of making quick money through oil related activities, militancy and the attendant vices of many young people. This situation has
created a moral deficit among adolescents, impacted negatively on their interest in education. Rivers State is bounded on the East by Akwa Ibom State, to the west by Delta State and Bayelsa State, on the south by the Atlantic Ocean, and to the North by Abia and Imo States. The state lies between longitudes 6°27' and 7°19' east of the Greenwich Meridian and latitudes 4°25' and 5°38' north of the Equator. The state is a multi-ethnic geopolitical area.

Rivers State is made up of twenty three local government areas. The population density is high in a some towns especially in Port Harcourt. Areas such as the central and western parts (Riverine Areas) have very low density of population due to the limited dry and safe land in the area for settlement and agricultural practices. There are over seventy-five (75) industries which among them include: Agip Company, Taxaco, Elf, Michelin, Western African Glass Industries, Metro plastic, pabod Breweries etc. There are many higher educational institutions in River state. Among these institutions is the University of Port Harcourt, Rivers State. University of science and technology, the Bori Polytechnic, Rivers state university of Education Rumuolumeni, the Federal College of Education, Omoku and of course recently Federal Polytechnic of oil & Gas, Bonny, Rivers state.

**Population of the study**

The population of this study comprised of all the 220,608 public secondary school II students in the state during the 2011/2012 academic session. There are 244 public secondary schools spread over the 23 Local Government Areas of the state (planning, Research and Statistical Department, Ministry of Education Port Harcourt, 2012). The population distribution is shown in Table 1.

**Sampling Technique**

A multi-stage procedure of sampling was used in the study. In stage one, the stratified sampling techniques was used to stratify the state into three senatorial districts which is also referred to as the education zone. A simple random sampling was also adopted to sample 50% of Local Government Area (LGA) in each of the zones. Hence, four LGAs were selected from each zone making a total of 12 LGAs. The second stage
Involves the selection of schools from each of the LGAs. A systematic random sampling was used to select 20% of schools in each local government. This amounts to 27 schools altogether. Stage three involves the selection of students. The selection of subject (students) for the study involves systematic random sampling of 12.3% of the SS2 students of 800 was aimed at. Table 2 shows the summary of the sample distribution. The zones are shown in table 2

1. Rivers East: this senatorial zones comprises eight LGAs which includes: ogu-bolo, Okrika, Etche, Emohua, Port Harcourt, Obio/Akpor, Omuma and Ikwerre.
2. Rivers South: This comprises seven: Khana, Gokana, Tai, Eleme, Oyigbo, Andoni and Opobo Nkoro.

These gave rise to 23 LGAs in the state. From each of the senatorial districts, 50% was randomly selected which made up the 12 LGAs for the study. The 12 LGAs are: Okrika, Port Harcourt, Ikwerre, Etche, Eleme, Gokana, Degema, Asari-Toru, Tai, Khana, Ahoada-East and Akuku-Toru. Within the (12) LGAs, twenty seven (27) schools will be selected out of one hundred and twenty two (122) representing 20%. From this 12.37% of the students in SS2 were randomly selected to form the sample for the study. The rundown of this is thus shown on Table 2.

3.5 Sample

The sample for the study was made up 800 senior secondary school two (SSS2) students which were randomly selected from twenty Seven 27 secondary schools. The sample distribution is as shown in Table 3.

Instrumentation

The data for this study was collected in two phases. The first phase involved the use of the questionnaire in collecting from students, information about their self-concept and values orientation, while the second phase involved the extraction from their school records, their individual scores in Mathematics and English Language in their SSI promotion examination. The scores were subsequently standardized.

The instrument for the first phase of data collection was titled Students' Self-concept and value Orientation Questionnaire (SSVOQ). It was constructed by the researcher with the help of supervisors. The questionnaire has three parts. Part A elicited information from the subject about their demographic data such as educational zone, local government and name of school, Part B part of the Questionnaire is 42 items of 4 point Likert type scale that measures the subjects' self-concept and values orientation. This scale has seven sub-sections each consisting of 6 items. Section A measures the respondents physical self-concept while section B, C and D measure respectively emotional, social and academic self-concept. Sections E, F and G measure respectively the respondents' religious values orientation, moral values orientation and social values orientation. The least score a subject can make in each section is 6 and the maximum score is 24.

Academic achievement was the student scores in Mathematics and English Language in first team 2011 academic year. The score were measure over one hundred (100).
### TABLE 2 SAMPLE SCHOOLS USED FOR THE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>L.G.A</th>
<th>No of Schools</th>
<th>No of Sample Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rivers East</td>
<td>P/Harcourt</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ekwerre</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Okrika</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Etche</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers South</td>
<td>Eleme</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tai</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gokana</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Khana</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers West</td>
<td>Degema</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asari-toru</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Akuku-toru</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ahoada</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 3 SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/NO</th>
<th>L.G.A</th>
<th>Sample Schools</th>
<th>SS2 Student Population</th>
<th>Sample 12.37%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rivers East</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Port-Harcourt</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ikwerre</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Okrika</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Etche</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rivers South</td>
<td>Eleme</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tai</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gokana</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Khana</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rivers West</td>
<td>Degema</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asari-toru</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Akuku-toru</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ahoada east</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>6468</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Validity of the instrument

The instrument was given to four experts in educational psychology, test and measurement and research and statistics for face validity. The experts studied the instrument and made helpful corrections which had been effected and the corrected versions of the scales approved as being valid for the purpose they were constructed.

Reliability of the instrument

The reliability of the instrument was established through a trial test using 80 students. The students were from two schools in Rivers State which were not included in the study. The trial testing was carry out to establish a test-retest reliability. In the test-retest process, the first administration of the instrument was followed by a second one after 14 days. The data was computed using the Pearson's product moment correlation analysis. As presented in Table 4, the test-retest reliability indices range from .63 to .94

Procedure for data collection

The researcher personally visited each school selected and upon obtaining permission from the school authorities administered copies of the questionnaire to the students' with the help of a trained assistant. The respondents were told at each point of administration, that the exercise was conducted for academic purpose, and whatever information supplied would be treated as confidential. This was to allay their fears concerning the risk of participation.

Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to respondents and instructions read to them. At the end of the administration, 800 completed copies of the questionnaire were retrieved for coding. Then for academic achievement, the researcher extracted from each school examinations records SSI promotion scores in mathematics and English language for the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4 TEST RE-TEST-RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT (N=80)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s/no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents in the sample were classified into three groups based on their scores on the variables emotional self-concepts and religious, moral and social values orientations).

Academic achievement on the other hand is limited to students' achievement in Examinations in Mathematics and English language. Those who scored half standard deviation below the mean were classified into "Low emotional self-concept", those who scored between half SD below and above the mean were classified into "moderate emotional self-concept", and those who scored half SD above the mean were classified into "high emotional self-concept".

Procedure for data preparation and scoring

The questionnaire data collected was coded using a key appropriately developed for the purposes. The demographic data on gender was coded using nominal scale. For the Likert type scale, the items were coded thus:

South Asian Academic Research Journals
http://www.saarj.com
Strongly Agree 4pts
Agree 3pts
Disagree 2pts
Strongly Disagree 1pt

For negative items, the coding was reversed
For values orientation, the items were coded thus:
Completely true 4pts
True 3pts
False 2pts
Completely False 1pt

Both self-concept and values orientation negative items the coding was reversed from 1pt to 4pts.

**Procedure for data analysis**

The hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance. Research question one. What proportion of secondary school students in Rivers State have positive emotional self-concept. Descriptive statistics were employed. Descriptive statistics were employed

**Hypothesis One**

Emotional self-concept has no significant influence on students' academic achievement.

Independent variable: Emotional self-concept (categorized into high, moderate or low)

Dependent Variable: students' academic Achievement

Statistical Technique: One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

**Operational Definition of Variables**

Emotional self-concept: Refers to the individual feeling of appropriate to the learning situation which enable him/her to cope with the learning environment through emotional stability. Therefore an individual feeling of fear happiness, anxiety of depression may define his/her emotional self-concept and in turn his/her achievement. It measure by items 7-12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 5 SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter is presented under the following sub-headings:

4.1 General description of the data/variables
4.2 Presentation of results.
4.3 Discussion of findings
4. i General description of the data/variables

The study was aimed at determining if self-concept and values orientation have influence on academic achievement of SSII students in River State of Nigeria. Aspects of self-concept considered in the study included physical, emotional, social, academic and emotional self-concepts and values orientation covered religious, moral and social values orientation. The aspect of academic achievement was measured in point of view of students' achievement in English language and mathematics generally taken as being control in school learning.

The data generated in the study generally were summarized using mean scores and standard deviations, as well as percentages to show the proportions of the subject at each level of the study variables. The mean scores and standard deviations of the subjects are shown in Table 5 while the proportions of the subjects at the various levels of self-concept and academic achievement are shown in Table 5.

As presented on Table 5, the mean score for overall self-concept is 17.60. The standard deviations for overall self-concept and its various units ranged from 11.84 for overall self-concept, to 3.71 for emotional self-concept.

### TABLE 6 PROPORTIONS OF THE SUBJECTS WHO WERE HIGH, MODERATE AND LOW IN THE STUDY VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Self-Concept)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Emotional self-concept</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>41.63</td>
<td>33.87</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Examination achievement)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mathematics achievement</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>33.88</td>
<td>32.75</td>
<td>33.37</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>English language achievement</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>33.63</td>
<td>38.37</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Overall achievement</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>30.94</td>
<td>33.19</td>
<td>35.87</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hypothesis two**

Emotional self-concept does not significantly influences students' academic achievement. The independent variable in this hypothesis was emotional self-concept (categorized into low moderate and high), while the dependent variable was academic achievement represented by scores in Mathematics, English Language and overall (sum of the two subjects scores).

The results of the One-Way analysis of variance presented in Table 9 show that the F-values of 8.520, 7.999 and 11.592 for Mathematics, English Language and overall achievement respectively are each greater than the critical F-value of 3.02 at 0.05 level of significance and 2, 797 degree of freedom. With these results, the null hypothesis is rejected in each of the three instances. This implies that there is a significant influence of emotional self-concept on the subjects' academic achievement in Mathematics and English Language as well as in the overall result.
In order to clearly understand the pattern of the influence of emotional self-concept on academic achievement, a Post Hoc multiple comparisons was carried out using Fisher's Least Significant difference (LSD) analysis. The results of the Fisher's LSD One-Way analysis are presented in Table 10. As presented in Table 10, there is a significant pair-wise mean difference in Mathematics achievement between students' with high emotional self-concept and those with moderate emotional self-concept (MD=3.260); the table also shows a significant pair-wise mean difference between students' with high emotional self-concept and those with low emotional self-concept in Mathematics (MD=3.199). A further examination of the Table also shows a significant pair-wise mean difference between students' moderate emotional self-concept and those who had low emotional self-concept (MD=6.460), regarding Mathematics achievement.

When it comes to achievement in English language, the results show, that there is a significant pair-wise mean difference between students with high emotional self-concept and those with moderate emotional self-concept (MD=3.780). Also students' with high emotional self-concept and those with low emotional self-concept differed significantly in English Language achievement (MD=3.316). A significant difference is also observed between students who had moderate emotional self-concept and those who had low emotional self-concept in respect of English language achievement (MD=7.097).

Regarding the overall students' achievement, the results presented in "table 11 shows that there is a significant pair-wise mean difference between students' with high emotional self-concept and those with moderate emotional self-concept (MD=2.611). Also when compared, students' with high emotional self-concept are superior to their counterparts with low emotional self-concept (MD=3.698). Students who had moderate emotional self-concept were also superior to those with low emotional self-concept with regards to the overall achievement (MD=6.309).
TABLE 7 ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic achievement</th>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>4804.573</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2402.286</td>
<td>8.520</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>224711.302</td>
<td>797</td>
<td>281.946</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English Language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>4527.078</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2263.539</td>
<td>7.999</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>225528.171</td>
<td>797</td>
<td>282.971</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>230055.249</td>
<td>799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall academic achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>18593.995</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9296.998</td>
<td>11.592</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>639197.188</td>
<td>797</td>
<td>802.004</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>498391.049</td>
<td>799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not Significant at .05 level; critical (f) 2,797 = 3.02 23
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>-3.260*</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3.198*</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.260*</td>
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<td>.035</td>
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<td>Moderate</td>
<td>-6.459*</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>-2.611</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3.697*</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>2.611</td>
<td>.058</td>
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<td>Low</td>
<td>6.308*</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>-3.697*</td>
<td>.015</td>
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<td>5.872*</td>
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<td>-12.76828*</td>
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* = P-values are significant at .05 level (critical t = 1.96).
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Emotional self-concept and academic achievement the findings revealed that "emotional self-concept has a significant positive influence on academic achievement of students. This implies that, learners' emotional stability is a valuable factor in school learning and achievement". The finding is in line with that of Sanchez and Roda (2011) who established that there is "a significant relationship between emotional self-concept and academic achievement. They reported that strong and negative emotions such as anxiety and depression were associated with under-achievement because they tended to reduce motivation to work while positive emotions such as excitement, enjoyment and happiness raised motivation and satisfaction leading to better academic achievement". The findings also confirm those of Ahmed et al. (2010) whose finding revealed that 'learners' competence and self-appraisals ranking determine the nature of learners' achievement. This finding was also supported by Strongman (1996) who discovered that emotional stability among students enhances their academic achievement significantly.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher's interest was to research self-concept, values orientation and academic achievement among senior secondary school students in River State. This chapter is presented under the following sub-headings: Summary of the study Conclusion Recommendations Suggestions for further research

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to determine if emotional self-concept, have a significant influence on academic achievement of senior secondary students in River State. Self-concept was looked at from the perspective of emotional self-concept. The subjects' academic achievement was looked at from perspective of Mathematics and English Language achievement.

One research question was posted to focus on this study. The research questions was subsequently converted into one null hypotheses which was tested in the study.

Literature review was carried to address the relationship examined in the study. The type of research design involved in the study was the ex post facto design. The research area is of Rivers State. The population of the study was 42,624 SSII students in Rivers State. Stratified random sampling technique was adopted with senatorial district, local government areas and schools as bases for stratification. The sample size was 800 SSII students who were proportionally drawn from 27 secondary schools under study.

The instrument used for data collection was a questionnaire titled Students' opinion questionnaire (SOQ). The SOQ constructed by the researcher. The questionnaire was given out to three experts in educational measurement and evaluation to examine for face validity. A trial test was conducted to test the reliability of the instrument using 80 SSII students. The test-retest reliability estimates ranged between .63 to .94.

In data collection, the researcher visited each of the study schools and with cooperation of some class teachers, administered copies of the questionnaire to the subjects. Data collected were analyzed using One-Way analysis of variance (ANOVA), with associated Fisher's LSD multiple Comparism test used for post hoc One-Way analysis. The results of the data analyzed
revealed that: 1. High and moderate emotional self-concept does significantly influences students' academic achievement than low emotional self-concept

CONCLUSION

On the basis of these findings, the following conclusions are made: That emotional self-concept has significant influence on students' academic achievement in Mathematics and English Language. This implies that the higher a student's emotional self-concept, the higher his or her academic achievement. In other words, the students with high emotional self-concept perform better than their counterparts with moderate and low emotional self-concept. Secondly, the higher a student's values orientation, the higher his or her academic achievement.

And secondly, it was concluded, that high and moderate emotional self-concept, does significantly influence academic achievement of secondary school students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made. 1. The findings of this study revealed that high and moderate emotional self-concepts do significantly influence academic achievement. This means that generally, high and moderate students' emotional self-concepts enhance or improve their academic achievement. Therefore schools should pay quality attention to the emotional self-concepts to avert anxiety, depression, lack of confidence and self-appraisal that can affect their academic achievement. In addition, students who have poor emotional self-concepts need to be counselled to correct the mal-adjustment arising from low emotional self-concept. Counseling can offer students the basic tools to improve their emotional self-concept and regain their self-confidence in academic achievement.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following areas for further research have been suggested.

1. Further research could be conducted to find out what aspects of Mathematics achievement such as algebra, trigonometry, linear regression, calculus and English language such as composition, lexis and structure and essay writing that is influenced by emotional self-concept,

2. The replication of this study with the same variables could carried out in different secondary schools to ascertain the validity of the present findings and conclusion.

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