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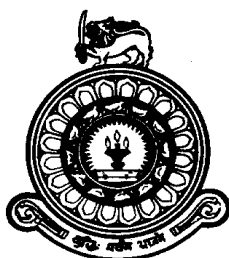


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Nayani Melegoda¹ and Chaminda Padmakumara²

¹Dean, Faculty of Graduate Studies, University of Colombo

²Department of International Relations, Faculty of Arts, University of Colombo

Abstract

South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) is one of the prominent regional organizations in the world in many aspects such as the largest population and the biggest workforce. Since its inception in 1985, SAARC follows the principles of making decisions by consensus; and non-discussion on contentious bilateral issues. According to the SAARC Charter member states are 'desirous of peace, stability, amity and progress in the region through strict adherence to the principles of the United Nations Charter and Non-Alignment (Ahmed and Bhatnagar , 2008). Somehow, one of the greatest barriers for the SAARC has been recurring inter-state conflicts between member states, which have posed significant challenges (ibid).They are the dilemmas such as overlapping goals and conflicts among its members that make regional cooperation a challenge. The SAARC countries at present experience various security challenges. Peace and Security for the region is one goal that all members would want to achieve amidst insecurity, terrorism and environmental challenges in this century. However, what the 18th SAARC Summit evidently shows is the desire of SAARC to achieve deep cooperation through functional areas.

Although vast literature on regional integration has been established, most of them are Eurocentric. Therefore it is worthwhile to examine how such theories can be discussed from the non-European perspectives. In this context, Functionalism has great relevance to understand regional settings out of the Europe. Functionalism as a theory supports the idea of growing interconnectedness and interdependence between nation states located in a specific region (Singh, 2017). David Mitrany, the pioneer of Functionalism specifically mentioned world peace can be achieved through efficient administration of limited resources and use of experts than politicians. More importantly, the core assumption of functionalist theory in this sense is that, as nation's states gets interdependent and interrelated to each other the possibility of bilateral or even regional conflict between nation states gets reduced or even eliminated to a large extent.

With the growing geostrategic, geo political importance of the region, it is important to revisit the working of SAARC and embark on an academic discourse on how to make regional cooperation more effective. The Indian Ocean today has become the gateway not only to Asia but to the rest of the world. SAARC as a functionalist organization for Peace would achieve what we need most in the region, deep peaceful cooperation .Primarily, based on the above key theoretical assumption of Functionalism; this paper aims to investigate its application to study the role of SAARC in maintaining the regional peace and security. Further this paper draws insights from its last summit; 18th SAARC Summit to further scrutinizes the functional utility of the organization.

Key Words: *Functionalism, Regional Cooperation, SAARC, Peace*

Background

International Organizations and Institutions have become a way of life in South Asia since the end of World War II. The scholarship on the International Organizations is extensive, the case studies of the European

Union and Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) amongst the success stories of the numerous international organizations that exist today. The International Relations theorists developed various theories on formation of regional and international organizations. Earlier the theories on International Society and Regime theory addressed the study of international regimes to theorize international governance. Since World War II, there is a rapid growth of many organizations for economic, social, cultural partnerships around the world. Not to be left behind the South Asian countries too came up with a plan for regional cooperation through an international /regional organization.

The World Bank in 2017 reported that despite its shared history, culture, and geography, South Asia is the least economically integrated region in the world. But with greater cooperation, the region can better develop, share resources, and foster a sense of common destiny and mutual belonging among its people (World Bank, 2015). In 2012, the Indian Council of World Affairs and Association of Asia scholars organized a two-day conference that brought together scholars and academics from all the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) nations. The agenda didn't focus on how to resolve political disputes or reduce political tensions but to discuss a way forward or to reclaim its space in the world, regional integration is a must, and the time has come for SAARC to help transform South Asia in the same way that the European Union has changed Europe. Indian National Security Advisor at the time, Shivshanker Menon said: "We have a moment in history which we should seize if we wish to transform South Asia," stated during the opening address to the conference in 2012(The Diplomat, 2012). There were many other scholarly gatherings in the region on how to make SAARC a more successful regional organization since that time and continues every year in the academic debate. The success

of SAARC so far since its inception in 1985 is the record of 18 summits to its credit is not a small achievement for a region with diversity in all spheres. As argued by Ashish Singh, despite the socio- cultural similarities, relationship among SAARC nations are characterized by mutual distrust and hostilities (2017) .Therefore, this paper examines the utility of Functional perspectives to achieve peace in South Asia through SAARC while mainly adopting the qualitative research methodology, reviewing the existing scholarly literature.

Genealogy of functionalist approach

The theory of Functionalism in International Organizations dates back to early 20th century, when Paul Samuel Reinsch, a pioneer of the study of International Relations published a textbook in 1900 articulating on global interdependence. Writing further in 1907 on International organizations Reinsch identified key features of functionalism such functions that derive from common interests and global necessities. Functions specify the powers of the organization; Functions specify the limits of their (members) proper action; functions help to distinguish organizations from their member states. Above all, member states can be wrong - they could fail to live up to their obligations but given functions or powers; - they could make use in the best possible manner and by the use the best experts of the world. Later during the World War II era David Mitrany in an article titled “Functional approach to World Organization” published in *International Affairs* (1948) and further outlined the theory of functionalism in his book titled *A Working Peace System* (1966).

It is in the early twentieth century when international relations scholars recognized the need of global interdependence. As early 1907 scholarly writings on practical responses to practical problems, new unions,

cooperation with other nations in the matters of administering certain economic and cultural interests, organizations with administrative structures, and meeting among members were discussed. The early scholars who talked about functions of an organization, functions deriving from common interests and global necessities, functions that specify the limits of proper action, functions specifying the powers of an organization, functions that distinguishes organizations from member states. These were the concepts that Paul Samuel Reinsch and David Mitrany articulated in their academic writings. A successful functional organization that was established during a destructive world war was the first specialized agency (later) of the United Nations, International Labour Organization.

The theories on functionalism developed further as rational functionalism was developed by Robert Keohane (1984) drew from functionalist approaches that emphasized the efficiency reasons for agreements among regime participants, and that International Organizations providing a way for states to overcome problems of collective action, high transaction costs, and information deficits or asymmetries. John Mearsheimer (1994-95) provides a useful definition of institutions as “set of rules that stipulate the ways in which states should cooperate and compete with each other.”

Martin and Simmons (2002) conclude that there is a broader debate between the constructivist and rationalists on theoretical orientation of International organizations. Accordingly, a distinction between those who view international institutions as rational responses to the strategic situations in which actors find themselves, versus those who insist on a subjective interpretation of social arrangements. Further, scholars from various approaches are showing willingness to drop assumption of unitary state actors and to engage systematically in the world. For the rationalists, this has

meant looking to domestic institutional conditions that make it rational to delegate authority to international institutions. For others working from a more sociological point of view this means drawing a wide array of transnational actors that have been empowered by democratization or international institutions(Simmons and Martin , 2002).

Functionalist Cooperation

Functionalism today has emerged as the dominant theory of the law of the international organizations. The fundamental idea of public institutions should serve the common good. The idea of international / regional organizations not serving the common good is unthinkable. The work of Paul S. Reinsch is examined by Jan Klabber in the context of Institutional Law in an article written in 2014 (Klabbers, 2014). According Klabber who gives a brief history of the career of Reinsch states that Reinsch was already a Professor of International Politics when he embarked on his writing on international organizations. First Reinsch wrote on the virtues of internationalism, as practical responses to practical problems. That the new unions would not threaten national sovereignty. Reinsch states that [countries] while fully reserving their independence actually found it desirable, and in fact necessary, regularly and permanently to co – operated with other nations in the matter of administering certain economic and cultural interests (Ibid, p. 665).

It is interesting to analyze the writings of Reinsch at the beginning of the 20th century before the origin of the League of Nations, as he describes the structure of an organization and functions outlining the functionalist approach. He stated that the unions have an administrative organ, and, typically, the tasks of these organs are presented as administrative nature: collecting and disseminating information, preparing future meetings. Thus

Reinsch laid the foundation of the design, the discussion on functions and organs of organizations came next. What is interesting is that Reinsch is an early scholar who recognized the value of international organization for peace in the world. He stated “the political nature of international organizations is channeled away from their concrete effects on member states and instead linked to their contribution to world peace. Organizations are not so much a – political but are political on higher level and for a good cause: They contribute to world peace – if “world peace” an ambition shared by statesmen (Ibid, p.658). A University Professor turned diplomat he had a positivist outlook on the cooperation of international organizations.

David Mitrany (1948), discussed cooperation among technical experts in a functional area will result in the creation of an international agency that will push nations to cooperate rather than wage war. Mitrany who was employed at the British Foreign Office during the World War II, and later as a Professor at Princeton University published his work titled *A Working Peace System* (1966) in which he advocated the significance of functional cooperation

Functionalist alternatives for cooperation

Functionalism is a theoretical approach which emerged towards the middle of the past century as an alternative to federalist designs concerning the organization of international system” (Alexandrescu , 2007 , p.20). Further Functionalism looks at the human nature and development in a very positive manner in comparison to state –centric paradigm of “power politics” or realist way of account of world affairs. According to Functionalism human beings have to rationally decide about what their needs are” (Kurt, 2009, 44).

In this point of view, it is clear that functionalism has suggested a need centric approach to the world politics instead of power centric approach. “The distinctive characteristic of functionalism is the fact that economic and social problems produce their own resolutions; the usefulness and efficiency of concrete, issue –specific (technical) cooperation and its outcomes legitimized international cooperation”(Ibid , p.45). Accordingly what functionalists centrally believe is issue –specific or technical cooperation that derive from non-political domains or where the politics play at threshold level and its effects would sustain international cooperation. In other words, it is a low political agenda that look for the most appropriate “spark” for a cooperative framework which can incrementally move forward. Similarly functionalism is all about how to be organized cooperatively with a functional necessity. In the other way, it is a way of gradual process that initiates a cooperative attempt upon the “most desired and essential needs” of the nations. Therefore this study argues that functionalism is a “pathway approach” to international or regional cooperation. Likewise it is a functional logic that explains how to look for a “strategic preparation” which is based on technical needs of nations that would ultimately establish a long way for cooperation among nations. This raises several questions for the discussion; does functionalism absolutely ignore the political dimension in the cooperation? If not, to which extent it appreciates the political aspect? Answering to these questions, it would be misleading to say that functionalism is an “absolute anti- political framework” for advancing cooperation among nations. Hence it would be more appropriate to understand it as a framework through which cooperation can be successfully intensified gradually moving from low political sphere to certain degree of politics. David Mitrany, the pioneer of functionalism “identify the manner in which states could be drawn closer together in order to develop some fields

which ignored the limitations of political geography. This approach is called functionalism because it refers to the need of confer a functional / operational character to the relations between protagonists” (Alexandrescu , 2007, p,25).

As suggested by Mitrani, functional necessity would be the best strategy to draw the states which are inherently power laden. “The theorist of the functionalist approach to international relations spoke about the efficiency of transferring a part of a country’s economic sovereignty to international executive agencies serving a clearly defined purpose”(Ibid). In this view, functionalism has proposed an agenda through which nation-states go for cooperation with international agencies based on specified purposes at the lowest political cost.

A variation of functionalism, namely neo-functionalism, became an idea to reckon with due to the experience of the post-World War II integration of Europe. As explained by Ernst B. Haas (1958), over and above technical issues, it is political parties, interest groups, and the views of political elites that influence cooperation. A spill-over from one functional area to another is also likely but conditional on the additional factors.

Other prominent scholars who developed the theory along neo-functional lines are Philippe C. Schmitter, Joseph S. Nye and Robert O. Keohane. Writing on “After Hegemony: Transatlantic Economic Relations in the Next Decade” Keohane in 1983/84 raised the question of “How could it be possible for several independent, self – interested states to cooperate effectively, without a dominant power to devise a strategy and provide incentives for others to comply with its designs?” Answering his own question he refers to cooperation without hegemony. He outlines

four conditions that must be met for cooperation to be feasible (Keohane , 2015 , 86). These conditions make rational for functionalism as well as when Keohane refers to “Institutions are also important, since they reduce transaction costs, provide information, and may increase the probability that the same actors will continue to interact with each other in the future”(Ibid , p.87). Rational functionalism in cooperation is further strengthened when Keohane states that in the demise of hegemony increases the need for international regimes and institutions. The institutions are particularly important as they increase the chances that frequent future interactions will take place (Ibid, p.91). His work explains that functionalist approaches emphasize the efficiency reasons for agreements among regime participants. This approach provides the states to overcome problems of collective action and high transaction costs.

John J. Mearsheimer, a Professor in Political Science who does not believe that institutions are effective, writing on “The False promise of International Institutions” provides a valuable definition of international institutions as “set of rules that stipulate the ways in which states should cooperated and compete with each other” (Marsheimer , 1994/95, p.8). Mearsheimer, a neo- realist does not believe that institutions are effective nor they prevent war. He states that genuine peace, or a world where states do not compete for power, is not likely, according to realism. At the same time he says that realists also recognize that states sometimes operate through institutions. However, they believe that those rules reflect state calculations of self – interest based primarily on the international distribution of power such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) (Ibid , p.13).

There are many scholars who have contributed to the various theoretical stands of international organizations and institutions. However this paper is limited to adopting functionalism to make SAARC a more successful organization to bring sustainable peace to South Asia. None of these objectives can be realized by South Asian countries alone. All South Asian nations require optimal way of engaging with regional cooperation. Therefore, the central concern of this study is to explore the utility of functional approach to achieve peace in South Asia. Hence the following case studies splendidly indicates the growing evidence of continuing threats to peace in South Asia, pandemics along with resurgence of ethno-nationalist conflicts in the region

Intra – Inter Conflict³ case studies in South Asia

Afghanistan: a fragile political destiny

A landlocked country in South Asia, Afghanistan was the last to join the SAARC. It gained independence from the British in 1919. The monarchy in Afghanistan was abolished and the military that took over the country declared it a republic in 1973. The Soviet Union whose support was extended to Afghanistan before the coup was more apparent since 1973. When in 1979 with the support of the Soviet troops another military coup took place it signaled the beginning of the intrastate armed conflict in Afghanistan where around one million people died in the ensuing war. The armed groups, opposing against the government, organized by exiled leaders carried out a fight against the Soviet backed government. These groups were called Mujahideen. When the Soviet Union withdrew its troops in 1988 and the diverse groups who were active in the political life of Afghanistan started

³ The following is from the University of Uppsala, Department of Peace and Conflict Studies, Uppsala Conflict Data Program, see <http://ucdp.uu.se/>

competing for power. Conflicts, mostly violent by nature took place among the shifting alliances. With growing discontent among the people of the warring warlords in the 1990's a new actor suddenly emerged in Afghanistan, The Taliban. They controlled the government from 1996 – 2001. They established strict Islamic State based on Pashtun approach to Sharia law.

In 2001, the United States intervened Afghanistan following the September 11 attack on US soil. Taliban were removed from government. In 2002, a democratic system was installed by the new administration as the Taliban withdrew into the mountains along the border with Pakistan. Conflict resumed with Taliban as the primary insurgent group, fighting between local leaders led to several non – state conflicts. Afghanistan has been a secondary warring party to the USA in the government conflict against Al – Qaida since 2002 and much of the fighting has taken place in Afghan territory up to today.

Bangladesh: quest for democracy

Bangladesh became independent in 1971 after seceding from Pakistan. The independent Bangladesh was a parliamentary democracy until 1975. From 1975 to 1990 military dictators ruled Bangladesh. There have been armed struggles by the tribal groups, an intrastate armed conflict between 1974 and 1992.

Since middle of 1990's the multiparty democracy prevailed with much rivalry between the political parties resulting in elections becoming violent events. Rioting and clashes have led to non –state conflicts in the 2000's. In 2007 a caretaker military government promised to revert to multiparty

politics and the election that followed in 2008 Awami League had a landslide victory.

A democratic form of government has prevailed amidst much conflict and violence. There have been country wide bomb attacks by the Islamic militants in the country. Since October 2017, The Rohingya Muslims who have fled military action in Myanmar's Rakhine state has sought refuge in the country is estimated at one million (Uppsala Conflict Data Program, n.d.)

India: multiple dynamics of conflict

India has experienced inter – state conflicts over borders with both Pakistan (Kashmir) and China. In 1948, 1965, 1971 and 1999 when the conflicts reached the intensity of war. In 1962 India – and China went to war (Ibid).

According the country summary published in the Uppsala Conflict Data Program, India experienced number of intra – state conflicts primarily where claims were made on ethnic or religious groups to separate or become independent states. This has been so especially in India's northeast, where rebel groups based mainly on tribal communities have fought the government in Assam, Tripura, Nagaland and Manipur. The government has also fought Sikh insurgents over Punjab/ Khalistan, and various insurgent groups over the Kashmir area, which is also claimed by Pakistan. Regarding government power the Indian government has confronted several Communist groups, such as the Maoist Communist Centre (MCC), the People's War Group (PWG) and the Communist Party of India-Maoist (CPI-M). Most of these conflicts have taken place both in the Cold War and post-Cold War eras (Ibid).

Tensions between the large number of ethnic and religious groups that populate India have also given rise to a number of non-state conflicts.

Primarily these have centered on the Hindu-Muslim divide, but conflicts have also been recorded between tribal groups (such as Assamese against Biharis) and different factions of rebel groups (such as clashes between different organizations in Nagaland) (Ibid).

Nepal: hope for peace and democracy

Highly centralized Rana era brought down in 1951 by an alliance of the monarchy and the intellectual elite, backed by Nepal's powerful neighbor, India. In 1959, the first ever multi-party elections took place and the center-left Nepali Congress Party (Congress) won with a landslide victory (Ibid). Few months later the monarchy took over declaring that the parliamentary democracy a failure and went on to ban political parties in the country sparking an intra – state conflict. Nepali Congress Party in 1960-1962. Congress led a guerrilla force of about 3,000 enlisted and the attacks were launched from the Indian border region as Congress had the support of India. The centrality of Indian support was also made evident in the way the conflict ended; Congress called off the armed campaign on the request of Nehru, who was facing an inter-state conflict with China and needed to garner the Nepali king's cooperation. With the end of the Congress insurgency, the royal palace was free to instate its new form of governance in 1962 called the panchayat (village councils), a party-less system modeled on some form of 'guided' democracy. The panchayat structure collapsed in 1990 after a watershed campaign launched by a broad-based democracy movement and constitutional monarchy under multi-party democracy was introduced. However, the democratic system was quickly tarnished in the general populace's eyes as the political elite in the capital squabbled for power and failed to address the structural issues and injustices in Nepal. Against this backdrop, the CPN-M (Communist Party of Nepal – Maoist)

launched an intra-state conflict against the government in 1996. As the CPN-M quickly controlled large parts of Nepal's rural areas and managed to mobilize (some by coercion) a vast number of rebel fighters, the fighting was more or less sustained for a decade. Within the context of this conflict, both the government and the CPN-M have employed one-sided violence.

In 2006, the major political parties, in cooperation with the CPN-M, organized massive countrywide demonstrations for the restoration of democracy, forcing King Gyanendra to relinquish power. On April 24, 2006, the monarch reinstated the parliament with a prime minister from the Nepali Congress Party.

Narratives of Civil War of Sri Lanka

Since independence from the British in 1948, Ceylon renamed Sri Lanka 1972 remained a democracy. There were several incidents of ethnic based conflicts and violence in the country, the first was the outbreak of violence in 1956 at the introduction of "Sinhala only" act (Ibid). Another intra-state conflict that took place was over government power, began in 1971 when the Janatha Vimukthi Peramuna (JVP) took up arms against the government of Sri Lanka. The JVP was a communist group, which sought to topple the government in favour of a communist state. This conflict took place in stages, first in 1971 and then in 1989-1990. A sizeable youth population lost their lives as a result of this conflict.

Intra-state conflict broke out in 1983 as Tamil militant groups intensified actions against the government of Sri Lanka after several years of low-intensity conflict. Among the Tamil people of Sri Lanka, the dominant Tamil group soon became the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE), which devoured its weaker opponents within the Tamil community. Yet, the Tamils

from the estate sector remained separated from the LTTE. Several rounds of negotiations to resolve the conflict, and several announced ceasefires, have failed to settle the conflict over the status of what many Tamils feel is their righteous 'homeland'. In May 2009, after a period of intensive fighting, the government declared that the war was over. Almost the entire political and military leadership of LTTE had been killed and the group recognised defeat after nearly 30 years of civil war and conflict. Around 70,000 to 80, 000 lives were lost in this ethnic conflict.

Since the end of war in 2009, the civil society from that time and the government that came to power in 2015 began in earnest to promote reconciliation and sustainable peace among the diverse population in Sri Lanka. In 2011, and again in 2018 there were serious obstacles for the reconciliation measures when violence erupted between Sinhala – Muslim communities in several places in the country.

Above case studies have been presented in brief while there is much more to be said in detail. The idea is to present a summary that is relevant to the discussion. Also it is noteworthy to identify while all countries (except Bhutan) underwent periods of intra conflicts in the country, few of those have become major Inter Conflict and War in the region. This has affected the way forward and the economic and political success of SAARC.

Challenges for Peace in South Asia

There are many challenges for peaceful regional cooperation in South Asia, most of these are non – traditional security challenges while what is stated in the previous section are the traditional security threats for peace in the region. Apart from the country case studies, the traditional security threats are challenge for peace in South Asia. Among them, nuclear arsenal, absence

of no – first use policy of nuclear arms in Pakistan, terrorism, unregulated floating armories in the Indian Ocean and maritime piracy are some of them. The number one priority for SAARC would be to obtain no first use of nuclear policy implemented as a Regional body. At present two rivals in the region, both possess Nuclear weapons. Both countries have gone into war with each other previously.

Hence the no first use of nuclear weapons is an important pledge that needs to be in place. In India, normal nuclear doctrine from January 2003 includes a no first use pledge, albeit with caveats, and this has been emphasized by numerous Indian officials. Its diplomats have often advanced the country's commitment not to use nuclear weapons first as proof of the country being a “responsible” state and thereby a way to resist any pressures to sign any treaties that would affect its nuclear arsenal. It would seem then that the NFU is a core element of India's nuclear weapons posture (Hagerty , 2015).

Among the non - traditional security challenges in South Asia, one would be the use of the Indian Ocean. Apart from the SAARC countries there are around 18 other countries in the Indian Ocean. For all of them, there are serious issues relating to environmental governance. The significant increase in garbage disposal into the sea, particularly non bio –degradable plastic items, has raised sea pollution levels in the Indian Ocean. SAARC should be able to step in here to address the issue as a functionalist organization. Next is, SAARC should in its economic integration implement policies on economic activities, SAARC countries (except 3 member states) are surrounded by the Indian Ocean. SAARC should take into consideration the increased political will to look at the Indian Ocean regions as a whole new frontier for economic dynamism. The fish stock in the Indian Ocean would be an ample supply to the region and world if proper use is made in fish

harvesting. But no proper fishing policies are in place. Questions such as what fishing rights do outside countries enjoy, overfishing are some of the challenges to be resolved. The peaceful use of the Indian Ocean will ensure an abundance of food supply for many countries in South Asia. SAARC has had only very limited success in deepening economic cooperation due to tensions between major economics in the region.

On the Indian Ocean, it has a wealth of mineral and energy resources, hitherto unexplored. SAARC could be in the forefront with other Indian Ocean regional groupings such as Indian Ocean Rim Association (IORA) and The Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation (BIMSTEC) in implementing policies of economic cooperation.

Water security is another challenge for peace in South Asia. Ensuring state cooperation for water security is another priority for SAARC. In the context of environmental governance, drinking water is an issue for many of the South Asian countries except Sri Lanka and Bhutan.

18th SAARC Summit: Peace through functional collaboration

Ensuring regional peace requires greater cooperation among South Asian nations while addressing political vulnerabilities deriving from a multiplicity of factors. What is evidently present in contemporary South Asia is these vulnerabilities are mainly shaped and motivated by political factors such as mutual mistrust, asymmetries embedded in regional politics, bilateral disputes among nations and domestic political conditions. Hence both domestic and regional politics can determine peace in South Asia. As discussed in this paper, this political complexity of achieving peace can be successfully addressed with the functionalist alternatives. Therefore, this

study explores the functional agenda embedded in 18th SAARC Summit and its utility to sustain peace in the region.

Looking at the declaration of the 18th SAARC summit from the functionalist lens, it is clear that the declaration has given substantial attention for a functional agenda through which region can move forward cooperatively. As viewed by the leaders, building connectivity through roads, railways and enhancing the cooperation in the field of energy is crucial to upgrade the regional cooperation in South Asia (SAARC Summit Declaration, 2015). Apart from that, SAARC leaders have agreed to “identify regional and sub-regional projects in the area of power generation, transmission and power trade, including hydropower, natural gas, solar, wind and bio- fuel, and implement them with high priority with a view to meeting the increasing demand for power in the region(Ibid). In addition to this prominent functional scheme, the declaration has looked for a cooperative mechanism in the areas of agriculture, poverty alleviation, environment, blue economy, health, education, youth women and children. Moving beyond, effective collaboration in the aspects of science and technology, tourism, culture, media, combating terrorism and promoting good governance are some of other expectations of the declaration (Ibid). Given the large number of policy interests, this study suggests three main categories that classify the agreed cooperative endeavors in the declaration.

- *Absolute functional areas* – energy sector cooperation, connectivity agreements, technology
- *Socio-economic and welfare areas* –agriculture , poverty alleviation, environment, blue economy , health , education , tourism , culture , media

- *Political and security areas* - combating terrorism and promoting good governance

Hence this paper argues that *absolute functional areas* are mostly compatible with the functionalist agenda as political sensitiveness is relatively less in these areas. Somehow *Socio-economic and welfare areas* are still attached to country's individual political agendas. Henceforth the political sensitiveness is relatively high and SAARC member countries may have multiple frameworks to achieve such goals appealing to their own domestic political atmospheres. The third category; *political and security areas* seems to be more political sensitive spaces to which member countries are very conscious in terms of their national sovereignty. Therefore the degree of cooperation in this sector will be hardly determined by the political will of the member countries. What further is, it is apparent that proposed cooperative agenda by the 18th SAARC summit can be hierarchically arranged according to the degree of "political sensitiveness" and the "common functional necessity" in different sectors.

Particularly, "one of the key inputs needed to sustain and accelerate economic growth in the region is increasing access to energy, as there is strong direct relationship between economic growth and energy demand. Upward social mobility associated with faster economic growth further accentuates the demand energy" (Asian Development Bank, 2011). Further Asian Development Bank reveals that cross-border electricity transmissions, regional trade in energy sources such as electricity, petroleum and natural gases are the best incentives that can accelerate the regional cooperation in the region (Ibid). Indeed South Asia is a vast powerhouse in terms of its market potential (one-third of humanity resides in this area) and in terms of richly endowed natural resources (e.g., the water of Nepal, natural gas of Bangladesh, coal of India) and qualified human resources" (Bhatia, 2004,

p.7). For an instance Bangladesh is the largest natural gas producer in Asia 2012 and it has increased natural gas production by annual average of 7 percent over the past decade (US Energy Information Administration data, 2015). Moreover “despite having potential the highest commercially feasible hydropower potential, Nepal has harnessed about 1 percent, far below the level of every other South Asian Country”(Ibid , p.8). Concurrently India had approximately 47 percent of proved natural gas reserves at the beginning

| | <i>Absolute Functional Areas</i> | <i>Socio-economic and welfare areas</i> | <i>Political and Security areas</i> |
|--|---|--|--|
| Political Sensitiveness | Relatively less ↓ | Relatively high ↑ | ↑ High |
| Common Functional Necessity | Relatively ↑ high | Optional | Low ↓ |

of 2014 counting 34 percent for on shore reserves and 36 percent for off shore reserves(US Energy Information Administration data, 2015).

Figure 1: Grid Analysis on Functionalist Scrutiny for 18th SAARC Summit Declaration

Source: Authors

This statistical analysis proves how South Asian counties are potential for energy sector cooperation with their available and unexplored resources. Hence below grid analysis further demonstrates the relevance of suggested functional agenda adopted by the 18th SAARC summit in the light of their political sensitiveness and common functional necessity.

According to the above grid analysis, what is clear is that *absolute functional areas* associated with energy cooperation, connectivity agreements and technology are more compatible with the functionalist prospect of cooperation as their political sensitive is relatively less and functional necessity is considerably high. Therefore it can be argued that the 18th SAARC declaration is partially fitting to the functionalist framework in terms of *absolute functional areas* through which the SAARC mainly can accelerate its regional cooperation with higher expectations. Secondly it can look for *socio –economic and welfare areas* and perhaps *political –security areas* at the last.

Focusing on this partial compatibility of the 18th SAARC declaration with functionalist agenda, it is also noteworthy to have a brief critical account for what is absent in the 18th SAARC summit from David Mitrani’s points of view. The following tabulation clearly indicates where the 18th SAARC summit can be positioned in the light of David Mitrany’s functional agenda.

Figure 2: David Mitrany’s Perspectives and the 18th SAARC Summit Declaration

| Mitrany’s functional suggestions⁴ | 18th SAARC Summit | Remarks |
|--|---|--|
| Identification of functional alternatives for cooperation | Reasonably present in the declaration ranging from energy to environmental aspects. | More ambitious and wide array of functional alternatives are identified hence hierarchical consideration or prioritization is needed |
| Highest possible degree of active forces and opportunities for cooperation | Can be found under a categorical analysis e.g. <i>Absolute functional areas</i> | Such active forces and opportunities are merely presented instead of categorizing them based on the degree of potentials for cooperation |

| | | |
|--|---|--|
| Specific selection and separate organization of interests | Several functional suggestions and interests can be identified instead of well-focused or specified one | Specification and organization of such interests is needed |
| Incremental progress of functional cooperation | A framework that ensure such incremental progress in cooperation is absent | How proposed functional activities can be gradually enhanced through a proper mechanism. |
| Ramification process to attribute the autonomy for functional agencies | No such clearly defined ramification process in the declaration | It requires specified functional agencies with certain autonomy |

Adopted from (Mitrany , 1966)

As analyzed by the above table, it is clear that 18th SAARC summit is partially compatible with the functionalism as it demonstrates some deviations from functionalist agenda in terms of specification of functional interests and a framework through which cooperation can be incrementally achieved. In other words the 18th SAARC summit has provided more ambitious and wider functional alternatives being further deviated from what really functionalists have emphasized. Therefore what absence in the 18th SAARC summit declaration is clear identification of functional areas along with specified functional interests through which South Asian nations can accelerate regional cooperation. Further, the 18th SAARC summit declaration has not properly answered the questions of how to initiate the functional cooperation and how to progress the cooperation systematically through a gradual mechanism. Similarly, the 18th SAARC declaration has paid little attention to an appropriate “functional logic” on which South Asian regional cooperation can sustain.

Conclusion

From a socio –economic perspective, South Asia today, is one of the most dynamic regions in the world, with a population of 1.67 billion people and economic growth of 7.1 percent over the last decade. The World Bank stated in 2012, that South Asia will play an important role in the global development story as it takes its place in the Asian Century. It has the world's largest working age population, a quarter of the world's middle-class consumers, the largest number of poor and undernourished in the world, and several fragile states of global geopolitical importance. With inclusive growth, South Asia has the potential to change global poverty through functional cooperation while waving a path for sustainable peace.

In the context of promoting regional peace, South Asia is a region where several major religions that promote peace were born and spread to the world. A region with a rich heritage and culture, South Asia has enormous potentials. The powerful non state actor who preached non – violence and had a mass following from around the world is a South Asian. It is a region that was successful introducing the Indian Ocean Peace Zone proposal in 1975, A UN resolution in the height of Cold War. In contributing to World Peace today, South Asia leads the way in United Nations Peacekeeping. World's largest troop contribution to UN Peacekeeping comes from South Asia with India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nepal among the top 5 troop contributors.

Yet the historical political tensions resulting in mistrusts cross border conflicts and traditional and non - traditional security threats have marred successful regional integration and SAARC a somewhat failed body. Therefore, the study has suggested an acceptable hierarchy of functional areas in which contemporary SAARC can achieve effective cooperation in the functional terms with the minimum interruption of political sensitiveness.

As argued by the paper the 18th SAARC declaration should be located in a domain where the functional utility is higher for member states with positive storylines. Then the cooperative agenda proposed by the 18th SAARC summit will be more pragmatic and effective. So that, SAARC can sustain Peace in South Asia as a functionalist organization while prioritizing functional necessities derive from common regional interests. Further, these functional necessities should be specifically recognized and appropriately integrated in a low political domain.

Hence, this paper explores several prospects for SAARC to be a more effective regional organization to achieve regional peace .Firstly; South Asia has to collectively address the factors influencing both intraregional relations and its relations with the outside world. Thus, SAARC cannot afford to ignore the both traditional and non-traditional security challenges arising from the above context. Secondly, SAARC has to identify a common functional framework through which its members can gain variety of gains. More specifically, economic gains can be the priority of such framework with the emphasis of necessary social and political cooperation. As the third point, SAARC needs to incrementally develop a cooperative plan for regional peace based on common functional necessities. Particularly, SAARC Summits can serve as effective forums where the SAARC leaders can afford for consensus building and enhancing mutual trust for ensuring peace in the region. Finally, SAARC members should adopt an approach to make sure that both domestic and regional issues are not a deterrent to achieve regional peace and cooperation. To elaborate, SAARC members should strategically ignore their bilateral disputes which are largely shaped by socio- historic and geographical factors and promote functional collaboration among the nations. As history evidently shows South Asia has more often been a source of conflict which has hampered the regional

cooperation in many ways. Therefore, cultural and communal similarities of the region along with functional necessities can serve as an appropriate basis for establishing peace in the region.

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Legitimate Social Change and Metaphysical Nonviolence

N. Wijegoonawardana

Department of History, Faculty of Arts, University of Colombo

Abstract

This paper deals with metaphysical nonviolence foundation, as a necessary support for more effective social change. First, this paper intends to elucidate how Mahatma Gandhi's metaphysics of nonviolence influenced and contributed to the development of 21st century legitimate social change. Gandhi's metaphysics is understood as a maximal and universal rejection of violence and war. His influence on Western thought is most often represented. Recent history suggests that use of nonviolence as a strategy has the power to even overthrow dictators. Gandhi's influence in terms of political strategies that do not need a metaphysical or religious foundation, portray how pacifism can be exercised in even the most culturally restricted contexts. Furthermore, an examination of Gandhi's metaphysical foundation through his nonviolent philosophy and practice illuminates striking links with the modern theories of revolutions. The methodology will mainly be based on archival research and follow a narrative analysis form. Hence this paper will argue that the use of metaphysics of nonviolence can achieve legitimate social change through pacifism in the 21st century.

Key Words: *Metaphysical Nonviolence, Legitimate Social Change and Violence.*

Introduction

Non-violence today has turned into a more imminent requirement than at any other period of world politics. In the antiquated circumstances when science and innovation were in their infancy, the world could bear to be violent. Yet, in the mid-twentieth century, when the world has been isolated into two

warring camps, the need of non-violence was pivotal. This situation created another discussion which comprised of peace, exchange, and open verbal confrontation, opportunity for information, open exhibitions, choices, race of authorities, and both individual and aggregate types of activity.

Nonviolent action can be defined as a form action that does not involve violence or force. The fundamental standards of nonviolent resistance include an abstention from utilizing physical power to accomplish a point, yet additionally, a full engagement in opposing abuse and some other types of injustice. It would thus be able to be connected to restrict both direct (physical) violence and structural violence. Peacefulness is surely typically characterized as being contrary to physical violence, which could be depicted as "the utilization of physical power against another's body, against that individual's will, and that is relied upon to exact physical damage or passing upon that individual" (Bond 1994, 62).

This definition does not infer in any case that all activities without violence must be peaceful. Peacefulness may be portrayed as an immediate substitute for savage conduct. It infers deliberate restraint from expected violence, in a setting of conflict between at least two adversaries. One favorable position of the term peaceful protection over the broader peacefulness is this accentuation on cognizant and dynamic resistance to viciousness. The term 'common protection' is likewise generally utilized about the unarmed, non-military character of peaceful developments (Sémelin 1993, 27). Thus, this paper aims to elucidate how metaphysics of nonviolence can be employed as a tool in the struggle against violence in the 21st century world. Biographical accounts and sequential events of key struggles in world history are used to articulate a narrative analysis of the influence of nonviolence in the 21st century world.

Mahatma Gandhi, with his South African experience, was essential to developing the idea of nonviolence through *satyagraha*. Truth and non-violence are the twin pillars on which rested the entire framework of Mahatma Gandhi's glorious life and work. Gandhi opened a new era of nationalism within the Indian independence movement by portraying the nationalist protest in the language of nonviolence. Mahatma Gandhi presented a particular empathy related to the processes of decolonization in the twentieth century.

Gandhi comprehended that a peaceful world request is not just an otherworldly duty with respect to people all around. Rather, that it should be regulated both politically and financially in a democratic manner at all levels of administering. Peaceful protection and conflict transformation methodologies share a typical responsibility to "social change and increased justice through peaceful means" (Lederach 1995, 15). The teachings of conflict management and resolution initially emerged from peace developments and social equity activism (Dukes 1999, 169). Nonviolent protection ought to rather be seen as a vital part of contention change, offering one conceivable way to deal with accomplishing peace and equity, using different techniques for strife intercession concentrating on discussions, critical thinking and the rebuilding of agreeable connections. It is particularly pertinent for the early transitional phase of asymmetric conflicts, as a methodology for enabling grievance gatherings searching for valuable and effective approaches to accomplish equity, human rights and democracy without a plan of action to use violence. Albeit peaceful activity has additionally been supported as a national system of regular citizen based safeguard and deterrence against outside hostility (Roberts 1967).

Although Gandhi gives important details of peace education, he is better suited for filling in as an impetus testing us to reevaluate our perspectives of violence and nonviolence. Such a reevaluating, widening, and extending of our suspicions, ideas, and perspectival introductions can profoundly affect how we approach peace education. Gandhi obviously is extremely worried about violence in the more normal feeling of plain physical violence. He commits impressive regard for distinguishing such violence, attempting different ways to deal with conflict determination, and giving peaceful choices. This is clear in his numerous works and battles coordinated at war, obvious fear mongering, flare-ups of class and standing violence, and Hindu-Muslim mutual psychological oppression. In any case, for Gandhi, such genuine plain violence constitutes just a little piece of the violence that must be tended to by peace education.

Gandhi's way to deal with education stresses both the multidimensional idea of violence and the basic viciousness of the norm. Instructive violence cannot be isolated from semantic, financial, mental, social, political, religious, and different types of violence. These many measurements of violence commonly fortify each other, and give the topic and test for peace education. For instance, dialect, inside or outside the classroom, can fill in as a vicious weapon used to control, mortify, scare, threaten, mistreat, misuse, and overwhelm other individuals. "Peaceful" circumstances, free from basic violent clashes, might be characterized by profound mental violence. In his investigation of what "ordinary" was, Gandhi much of the time dissects how the structures, qualities, and objectives of such instructive models incurred extraordinary mental and social viciousness on colonized Indians. Not at all like most savants and other people who receive moral and otherworldly methodologies, has Gandhi put an essential accentuation on fundamental material needs and the "ordinary" financial condition. Over and over, he

utilizes "violence" as synonymous with abuse. He was mindful to unequal, unstable, violence influenced relations in which a few, who have riches, capital, and other material assets, can abuse and command those lacking such financial influence. Gandhi relates to the situation of starving and devastated individuals and with the predicament of laborers, specialists, and other people who are impaired and overwhelmed. He stresses that such a financial condition is not the aftereffect of heavenly plan or a permanent law of nature, it includes human-caused persecution, misuse, mastery, shamefulness, and enduring. Clearly, joining such worries of monetary conditions widens and fundamentally changes the idea of peace education. Gandhi presents that peace education must emphasize the developmental preparing and socialization of youthful youngsters. A great many people don't consider colleges and classroom instructing as violent, however Gandhi contends that "typical" college training is exceptionally rough, regarding both multidimensional violence and the violence of the norm⁵.

Gandhi's influence on Western thought

Gandhi is recognized globally as an exemplar of utilizing nonviolent techniques to implement social change. One of the most valuable contributions of Gandhi's approach to violence is that it has been embedded in Western thought and broadened its focus.

Martin Luther King's name has become undoubtedly linked to that of Gandhi, but the African American interest in Gandhi much precedes King⁶.

⁵ See for more details: Douglas Allen, Mahatma Gandhi on Violence and Peace Education: *Philosophy East and West*, Vol. 57, No. 3, Ninth East-West Philosophers' Conference (Jul., 2007), pp. 290-310

⁶ This description of African American views of Gandhi relies heavily on Sudarshan Kapur, *Raising Up a Prophet: The African-American Encounter with Gandhi* (Boston, 1992). W. E. B. Du Bois quoted E. Franklin Frazier; see "The Negro and Non-Resistance," *Crisis*, 27 (May 1924),

In the activities of A. Philip Randolph, James Farmer, and Bayard Rustin, though at a closer approximation of how Gandhi's ideas would be diffused among black Americans to create an activist ethics before King's full-bodied embrace of satyagraha in the decade from the mid-1950s until his assassination appeared to claim Gandhi's prescient observation in 1936 that it may be through the African Americans that the pure message of nonviolence will be delivered to the world. "King would deliver his most famous sermon, would have agreed with the prospective assessment that it was the most significant civil rights demonstration since Gandhi led the Indians to freedom (D'Emilio 2003, 54). The entire Gandhian apparatus was centered in the idea of self-suffering, and King remained true to the ideal. He often cited Gandhi, "Rivers of blood may have to flow before we gain our freedom, but it must be our blood Stride towards Freedom and Where Do We Go from Here? boldly set out his conviction that in Gandhi's life and struggle were to be found the cues that African Americans could follow with success" (Lal 2009, 09).

Sudarshan (1998) a historian who has delved deeply into the African American "encounter with Gandhi" reaches much stronger conclusions, arguing that the receptivity to Gandhi among early black leaders germinated in the following generation's heady embrace of Gandhian strategies of nonviolent resistance. From Thurman, and the faculty at Howard, James Farmer, one of the principal architects of the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), whose members consciously dressed "themselves in the garb of Gandhian philosophy" as they embraced a spiritual nonviolent politics, imbibed the teachings of Gandhi" (D'Emilio 2003, 54).

58-59. On discussions of colonialism among African Americans, see Von Eschen, *Race against Empire*, 31-32. King's indebtedness to earlier black and white interpreters and popularizers of Gandhi, see Miller, *Voice of Deliverance*, 86-111.

Gandhi had established contemporary political reasoning, by accounting for the "obligations" which would put him at extraordinary chances with activists and spectators for whom the idea of obligations is not even remotely part of their political vocabulary. Gandhi's unfazed suspicion towards history outfits a significantly more sensational case of his disavowal of the liberal customs of learning of the cutting edge west and of the classes of thought marshaled by current information frameworks.

One of the many people whose lives were influenced by Gandhi's example was Mexican-American social justice advocate Cesar Chavez. He was one of the 20th century's most admired opponents of socio-economic, racial, gender, and anti-immigrant discrimination. From a very early age, Chavez found inspiration and guidance in the writings of Gandhi, and later in life was able to adapt Gandhi's principles of non-violence and civil disobedience to the context of the struggle for farm workers' rights. Like Gandhi, Cesar Chavez's decades-long immersion in a struggle to overcome systematized injustice convinced him of the central importance of applying the values of respect, fairness and compassion to all, without qualification, and without prejudice. Throughout this long struggle for equality and civil rights, Chavez strictly followed Gandhi's principles of non-violence.

Nelson Mandela a firm believer of Gandhi's nonviolent ways of protesting, took into consideration how he could never reach the standard of morality, simplicity, and love for the poor set by Gandhi. In addition, he also recognized had once said that "Gandhi was a man that didn't have many weaknesses which was one of the significant reasons that made him great. Gandhi remained committed to nonviolence; I followed the Gandhian strategy for as long as I could, but then there came a point in our struggle when the brute force of the oppressor could no longer be countered through

passive resistance alone” (Pal 2003, 23). Gandhi and Mandela both used nonviolent acts to secure major political achievements, which illustrations world once again that Mandela followed his path. Both leaders have been recognized for their drastic improvement in world peace as people now look up to Mandela as well both men embraced unity, brotherhood and hope as cornerstones of their views of humanity. In both cases, inner revelations guided them to adopt non-violent approaches to social change, projecting deeply held personal beliefs for the sake of mass change. In South Africa, particularly, the brutal methodologies of the African National Congress (ANC) were considered piece of and corresponding to the conflicts being pursued, to a great extent through peaceful strategies, in the townships (Schock 2005, 158).

Not many nonviolent campaigns have remained altogether steady with a strict nonviolent protocol. Much of the time, nonviolence has been utilized to different degrees in mix with more traditional styles of asymmetric battle. For example, in Burma, Chile, the Philippines and Nepal, equipped and peaceful protection continued in synchronization. In addition, there is a typical example among a few noteworthy nonviolent campaigns of turning to guerrilla strategies when nonviolence is esteemed unsuccessful. This was the situation in Palestine and in addition in Kosovo, where a noteworthy common protection campaign all through the late 1980s and mid 1990s was totally dissolved with the ascent of the Kosovo Liberation Army, which prompt changes in approach by the Yugoslav government and the global group.

Nonviolence and Legitimate Social Change in the 21st Century

Towards the start of the twentieth century, with Gandhi's rebellious battles in South Africa and India, massed peaceful activity rose as a reasonable method for political and social change. While cases of peaceful activity can be found all through the twenty first century, as Gene Sharp whose magnum opus was *The Politics of Non-Violence* records, just in the most recent century has peaceful activity rolled out noteworthy commitments to political improvement (Stephon & Chenoweth 2008,20). In later decades, the Gandhian technique for vital peaceful activity was connected and developed in a developing number of nations.

Cases of major non-violence victories are numerous in the twenty first century. The energy of peaceful protection was shown significantly in mid-2011 in the unarmed upheavals of Tunisia and Egypt, as a huge number of individuals filled the boulevards to oust dug in fascisms. The "velvet unrest" of Central and Eastern Europe in the late 1980s cut down the Berlin Wall and cleared away socialist administrations over the locale (Anders 2013, 340). The "general population control" development of the Philippines finished the tyranny of Ferdinand Marcos in 1986 (Sherrill, 2006). Peaceful protection was definitive in the last phases of the South African opportunity development that finished politically-sanctioned racial segregation. Peaceful developments cleared through Latin America in late decades, finishing military fascism in Chile and democratizing governments all through the landmass. Peaceful power prompted the toppled of Slobodan Milošević in Serbia in 2000 and was felt in the Rose, Orange, and Tulip "unrests" of Georgia, Ukraine, and Kyrgyzstan in 2003-2005 (Kotsovilis, 2012). Mass common defiance in Nepal finished the government and reestablished democracy in 2006 (Lawoti, 2012). The techniques for peaceful protection

have realized noteworthy political change and social change on each mainland.

Late experimental examinations affirm the prevalence of peaceful activity as a technique for accomplishing noteworthy social change. An examination distributed in 2008 in *International Security* inspected 323 verifiable cases of protection campaigns over a traverse of more than one hundred years to decide if violent or peaceful techniques work better in accomplishing political change (Stephon & Chenoweth 2008, 20). Each case included an escalated conflict, once in a while enduring quite a while, in which major sociopolitical developments attempted to increase particular concessions from government adversaries. The investigation by Stephan and Chenoweth (2008) utilized the most thorough insightful techniques to analyze deliberately the key effect of violent and peaceful strategies for political battle. The outcomes conclusively approved the more noteworthy adequacy of peaceful activity. The discoveries demonstrate that peaceful strategies were twice as viable as rough means in making progress in real protection battles. In the cases analyzed, peaceful means were effective 53% of the time, contrasted with 26% when violence was utilized (Chenoweth 2008, 21). Furthermore, the key factor in clarifying this outcome, as indicated by Stephan and Chenoweth (2008) is that peaceful campaigns are better ready to withstand the constraint that unavoidably faces real protection battles, and may even make such suppression advantageous for them. At the point when the adversary violently curbs a trained non-violent campaign, the peaceful resisters may profit politically. This is the thing that César Chávez distinguished as the "peculiar science" of peaceful activity. At whatever point the enemy confers a crooked demonstration against peaceful nonconformists, said Chávez, "we get ten times paid back in benefits"(Sandoval 1997, 114). Unjustified suppression against restrained

peaceful activity can start a thoughtful response among outsiders and in the positions of the adversary. This may start steadfastness moves and increment bolster for the peaceful campaigners, while undermining the authenticity of the enemy.

Above variables explain how Gandhi's metaphysics of non-violence comprehends a maximal and all-inclusive dismissal of violence and war by displaying authentic occasions which happened in various regions.

The developing suitability of nonviolent options to war is established in the rise of new potential outcomes for settling and changing conflicts. The improvement of new learning and practice for the anticipation of violent clashes requires an expanded elucidation of the simply war classification of "final resort." If elective methods for settling differences and staying away from violence are accessible, this changes the ethical math of war and takes out the support for falling back on outfitted violence in practically every situation. The rising components of contention change and vital peace building show that gatherings to a contention can discover a method for settling differences on the off chance that they are truly attracted.

Gene Sharp (1973) contended that peaceful activity has nothing to do with religious or good standards. It is just an ideal type of political activity with critical down to business focal points. It works superior to violence and is a more viable and less expensive method for accomplishing social change. Sharp recognizes the significance of education and a readiness to give up. He perceives that misery can be a method for beating lack of concern and justification, yet he rejects the dispute that religious standards of pacifism are essential elements of viable peaceful activity.

Democratic peace hypothesis has been approved by observational investigations demonstrating a solid relationship amongst democracies and peace. Developing popularity based social orders never take up arms against each other. As Bruce Russett and others have demonstrated, techniques to progress unpretentious democracies can counteract war. Empirical investigations likewise affirm the connection amongst peace and monetary reliance: increased exchange streams between countries are related with lessened recurrence of war (Kriesberg 2003, 141). Solid experimental confirmation additionally demonstrates that states taking an interest together in universal organizations are less inclined to take part in military threats toward each other.

Worldwide organizations collaboration in taking an interest in states as well as participate in an extensive variety of peacemaking endeavors in globally weak areas. The United Nations (UN) is most dynamic in such manner, and its engagement in the interest of conflict counteractive action and peacemaking has duplicated significantly since the finish of the cold war. Since 1990, as per an investigation by the Human Security Center, UN preventive discretion missions have extended six fold, peacekeeping operations have quadrupled, and the utilization of focused assents has expanded strongly (Human Security Center, Human Security Report 2005). A RAND Corporation ponder found that a considerable lot of these UN peace building missions are successful in (Dobbins, 2005), bringing about legitimate social change.

Nongovernmental gatherings and common society associations additionally take part in an extensive variety of peace building exercises, for the most part from a base up point of view. Together, these numerous endeavors at various levels aimed at avoiding conflicts are diminishing the frequency and force of

war. Worldwide press reports concentrate on the numerous disappointments of global peacemaking, yet there are likewise numerous triumphs. Universal foundations and associations are adapting more about what works in forestalling equipped violence, and their expanded engagement in emergencies around the globe has bettered and anticipated many conflicts.

Conclusion

Gandhi's impact regarding political systems that do not require a metaphysical or religious establishment, depict how pacifism can be practiced in even the most socially confined settings. Besides, an examination of Gandhi's metaphysical establishment through his logic of non-violence and practice elucidates stark connections with the advanced speculations of upheavals. Real social change inside genuinely democratic social orders, obviously, is dependably nonviolent. World insurgency through world law implies establishing real world democracy without a precedent for history. This essentially involves actuating native support in overseeing as well as altering worldwide financial aspects to one that encourages all-inclusive development.

Therefore, the analysis above reveals that in order to achieve legitimate social change powers who has control over the engines of destructions have to wholly renounce their use, with full knowledge of the implications. Only then can the metaphysics of non-violence proceed in generating permanent peace.

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Enhancing Community Resilience via Sustainable Management of Abandoned Paddy Lands in Bentota, Sri Lanka

Ranjana.U.K. Piyadasa², T.K.G.P. Ranasinghe¹ and H.M.M.S.D. Herath²

¹Department of Environmental Technology, University of Colombo,

²Department of Town and Country Planning, University of Moratuwa,

Abstract

Salt water intrusion (SWI) and coastal salinity are major causes for abandoning the paddy lands in Sri Lanka. More than 80% of paddy lands in left bank of Bentota River basin have been progressively abandoned due to contrasting degrees of saltwater intrusion by intimidating for agriculture, fishery, tourism and ground water in the area. This study was conducted applying the toolkit for the Indicators of Resilience in Socio-ecological Production Landscapes and Seascapes (SEPLS, 2014) through stakeholder perception based approach. Indicator scores and trend analysis indicate that there is a negative trend in resilience capacity of Bentota landscape in terms of abandoning the paddy lands. Several issues in contradiction of the utilization of abandoned paddy lands and the location specific land management strategies for utilizing abandoned paddy lands were identified by consulting prospective stakeholders of the area for enhancing community resilience without undermining their eco-social basis. New technological innovations as outcome of recent research and development initiatives can be introduced and promoted among the stakeholders in the area who would be the pillars for regaining the successive agriculture in Bentota area by enhancing the land productivity of abandoned paddy lands towards the sustainable land management.

Key words: salt water intrusion, degradation of paddy lands, community resilience

Introduction

Salt water intrusion has been identified as the main problem for abandoning the paddy lands in Bentota area and out of the 2524 ha of paddy lands cultivated in year 1983 only 245 ha of paddy lands have been cultivated during year 2013. The loss of annual income from agriculture due to the salt water intrusion and land degradation in the area can be assessed as 3,624,000 USD during year 2017 that making huge threat for local economy of the area. Therefore, 52% from the total population was economically not active with the reduction of agricultural sector in the area. However, the Bentota river basin is below the agricultural production capacity level and no any strategy has been implemented or introduced so far regarding utilizing these vast amounts of abandoned paddy lands in the area. Therefore as the case study for this research, Bentota Divisional Secretariat Division (DSD) area situated in left bank of Bentota river basin was selected to identify sustainable land management strategies for utilizing abandoned paddy lands while enhancing community resilience without undermining their eco-social basis. This paper explains the important literature for highlighting the research problem and the details of SEPLS toolkit which applied in this study as the main method for data collection and analysis. Finally remarkable findings of this study are explained as development initiatives which can be promoted among the prospective stakeholders in the area for regaining the successive agriculture in Bentota area.

Literature Review

According to Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) definition, resilience is the 'ability of a particular social or ecological system, of absorbing troubles while maintain the same structure and mode of operation,

the ability of self-organization and the ability to adapt to stress and changes' (IPCC, 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to understand how an environment system organizes and transforms over time, being able to change and adapt without undermining its eco-social basis. Enhancement of the community resilience of an agricultural system means acting concretely in order to reduce its vulnerability while enhancing its adaptiveness in case of environmental degradation processes as well as its ability to face risks and instability.

The term 'sustainability' has been defined as the development which fulfills the requirements of present without compromising the capability of future generations to meet their own needs, as an accepted mutual goal in the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in 1991. The 'Sustainable Land Use Management (SLM)' concerns on solutions that go far the technologic commendations by counting on the social participation and policy dialogue aspects in to consideration (Dumanski, 1994). The lately suggested "multi-level stakeholder approach to SLM" affords for encourage local level participation and also consents the presence of other stakeholders in the land use planning which is negotiated via common agreement (Hurni,1997).

Sea water intrusion has been identified as the main problem for declining of paddy cultivation in the coastal belt of wet and semi wet areas of Galle, Kalutara, Colombo and Gampaha Districts in Sri Lanka and a similar situation has also been reported in Jaffna, Mannar, Puttalam and Trincomalee districts of coastal part of the Dry Zone of Sri Lanka (Sirisena, 2010). In this situation more than 50% of paddy lands in coastal river basins of Sri Lanka (around 0.115 million hectares) have been abandoned and converted into other unproductive enterprises (CCD, 2006).During dry season, salt water

intrudes into lands up to 50 cm above mean sea level in the coastal belt of Sri Lanka and as a result of that rice growing soils in the coastal belt of Sri Lanka are salinized annually, making rice growing extremely difficult (Dimantha, 1977).

The Bentota area is predominantly an agricultural land and out of the 2524 hectares of paddy lands cultivated in year 1983, only 245 hectares of paddy lands have been cultivated during year 2013. Correspondingly, 637, 124 and 49 hectares of abandoned paddy lands have been converted to marshy lands, grasslands and scrubs during last three decades. It is depressed to identify 1385 hectares of abandoned paddy lands still remaining without utilizing for any purposes. Sirisena et al (2010) identified that except use of salt tolerance rice varieties, other management practices are difficult to adopt in coastal paddy lands. Silva (1977) showed that constructed salt water exclusion structures in the early 1970s were not a solution to control salt water intrusion. The saltwater intrusion in to major tributaries located in left bank of the river basin is higher during dry periods and threatened to the livelihood of that area (Piyadasa and Dineshika 2013, Piyadasa and Wijesundara 2014).

Methodology

Participatory approach was considered as the core of the entire study. With the participation of multiple strata community and government sector stakeholders, this study was conducted using the toolkit for the Indicators of Resilience in Socio-ecological Production Landscapes and Seascapes (UNU-IAS, Biodiversity International, IGES and UNDP, 2014). The SEPALS toolkit claims having the prospective to be one of the most effective tools for “not only measuring, but also raising awareness of the concept of resilience in the field of sustainable development” (Yeboah,2014). The toolkit was

translated in to local language where the necessary descriptions and analytical questions were changed in order to adapt the toolkit to the local setting. The findings are grounded on the community understandings followed with a comprehensive literature review, field visits and observations of the areas in interest. Following the toolkit of SEPALS methodology, the historical transformation, present context and the future trends associated with the development of the area followed in the resilient assessment community workshops was directed to capture the diverse details with reference to the 20 indicator under five major performance criteria (Table 1). Accordingly, several community resilient assessment workshops and focused group discussions were conducted covering Pahalagamhaya and Gonagalapura Agrarian Services areas in Bentota DSD. The analysis was carried out on identifying the possible challenges for the landscape combining the outcomes of all the conducted workshops. The results of the analysis were interpreted based on the dynamic environmental, socio economic and physical context of the Bentota area as a socio economic production landscape centered on the paddy cultivation of the area. The analysis was carried out as an integration of the cover-ups indicated in Table 2.

Results and Discussion

Contextual overlay of Bentota area in terms of its current land use pattern was analyzed using ‘participatory mapping’ tool, which is a very productive tool that can be applied to identify existing land use pattern of the area. Land use pattern and related spatial factors of the area was updated by consulting community members representing various strata of the society related to paddy cultivation at stakeholder meetings. The gathered information was digitized using Arc GIS software to create existing land use map of the area

especially including the cultivating and abandoned paddy lands. Table 1 indicates the twenty indicators under five major performance criteria which the community members participated in scoring exercise following the discussion forum. The participants were requested to assign the level of resilience of their landscape in an order of 1 for lower level to 5 for higher level for each indicator, where the overall results have derived a spectrum of perceptions held by the community regarding the performance level of their own landscape. As illustrates in Table 3, the Bentota DSD expresses lower level near to moderate level in each indicator of the five major performance criteria in concern.

Under the performance criteria one, the Landscape/ Seascape diversity & ecosystem protection, the uses of agricultural lands are changing time to time due to the change of economic value generated via market demand of the pertaining production and income generated from the cultivation trends in Bentota area. According to the community participants, the profitability of paddy cultivation is unpredictable and lesser than other Commercial crops. For example, the productive period of a paddy land ends in six months after harvesting one time. But the productive period of a proper Tea or Cinnamon cultivation extends up to more than fifteen years and if it is Rubber cultivation the productive period will be not less than twenty years. Agriculture in the area is severely facing the issues related to lack of labor forces. Especially the Paddy cultivation and Rubber cultivation are being rapidly collapsing at present due to lack of labor force and higher production input costs underlined. Hence mostly the local cultivators are profit oriented and selecting the most profitable crop at the given movement without considering the Land Suitability or any other environmental factors before converting their Agricultural Land use at the present time. Due to these reasons the participants have allocated the marks ranging from low to

moderate where the future of paddy cultivation is at the most risk according to their perceptions. Under the indicator Ecosystem Protection, the participants indicate that the development activities along the Dedduwa lake side and along the coastal belt plus the less concern of the community have led to the degradation of the natural ecosystems of the region. Due to the lack of ecosystem protection, the Bentota River increasingly faces salt water intrusion and most of the paddy lands are abandoned as a counter result as well.

Under the performance criteria two, Biodiversity (Including Agricultural Biodiversity), the participants explained a very negative trend to the future of the area's paddy cultivation. In past decades the farmers got together and dredged the canals running via their paddy lands using manual labor and simple equipment in a way compatible to the environment while considering the proper proportionate depth and width of the canals during 1960's. But the Canal Dredging projects conducted by the Department of Irrigation nowadays are despondently questionable due to the incompatible technical mechanisms that are utilized in the process Eg: Polkadalagoda, Hipanwatta . Using machines usually tend to dredge the canal deeper than required therefore salt water is easily intruding in to the paddy lands. Due to this the productivity of the paddy lands has severely reduced and paddy lands are tending to neglecting in long term. Local Farmers indicate that it was possible to harvest more than 100kgs rice per cultivated paddy acre previously but this has been heavily reduced in half due to salt water intrusion. And also, the deeper and wider canals are attracting crocodiles which have become a massive threat for the community either sides of these canals. Siltation in paddy lands from the siltation of canals is also another issue for abandoning the paddy lands in Kandemulla and Maha Induruwa area since year 1970 and still relevant institutions are failed to provide proper

solution due to lack of cooperation among them. In manual dredging, the farmers repaired the either sides of the canal banks using the dredged soils as an access path along the canal for their paddy lands. Due to mechanical dredging these access ways are not facilitated and blocked where the farmers are unable even to take a Tractor to the paddy fields. And also, people illegally cultivate along the canal reservations and this also leads to block the access ways. All these activities have severely undermined the level of community resilience as well as the landscape resilience of the area especially in terms of paddy cultivation.

The third performance criterion knowledge and innovation indicates 2.85 of the mean rating value which also is lower than moderate level. The modern technological inputs and knowledge extended to all the cultivators equally by the Agrarian officers assigned for all the cultivations. Ex: Rubber, Tea, Coconut and paddy. Traditional Knowledge transfer to the future generations is rarely observable in Bentota area due to the lack of interest in Younger generation to engage in paddy cultivation. Ownership of the canals belongs to various institutions such as Irrigation Department, Minor irrigation Department and Divisional Secretariat. Some of the canals are neglected because nobody takes the responsibility and this leads to conflict of interest among the institutions and among the farmers as well. Though there are local paddy varieties used by local farmers at present the knowledge is rarely passed to the next generations. Especially the community stressed on the point that no one to preserve the local paddy seed varieties which are highly resilient to the local weather conditions and also even for the salinity levels as well. But the peers among the farmer communities still believe that the traditional ways of thinking, working and the lifestyle would be a proper solution for the frustrations faced by the younger generation in contemporary society. But the participants have assigned the highest performance value of

3.09 mean rating to the fourth performance criteria Governance and equity indicating that Socio economic infrastructure, Human Health & environmental condition, Income diversity, biodiversity based livelihoods and Socio- ecological mobility are moderately equal to everyone in the society. Under the fifth criteria Livelihood and Wellbeing, people describe that with the introduction of open economy in the country during year 1971, more job opportunities in various industries, garment, hotels etc were opened up. People tend to tap those opportunities and their interest to engage in paddy cultivation and related activities gradually decreased since new jobs are ensured steady income not like the paddy cultivation which always make instability in income. Paddy cultivation has faced declining while the following income generation activities are popularized in the region at present especially among the Young generation.

According to the discussion followed by the score card activity, the performance criteria 'Landscape diversity and ecosystem protection' of the Bentota DSD is facing multiple issues comparative to the other considered performance criteria. At the same time other than the Governance and equity none of the rest performance criteria exceed moderate level performance as denoted in Mean Rating of Figure 1. The results of the assessment thoroughly agree with the observations of the study area that the community of the area is in a considerable level of disappointment regarding addressing the Paddy cultivation related increasing issues of the area. Community efforts in this regard also do not have a significant impact in solving the rapidly complexing paddy fields abandoning problem.

The statements made by the community participants during the workshop were analyzed using the Nvivo 10 Word Cloud, Tree Map & Cluster Analysis in order to identify the most stressed points discussed under the

forum. Accordingly, the paddy cultivation was the foremost discussed topic while issues were conjoined with water, land and knowledge related matters as well. Salt water intrusion in to paddy fields, non-renovating of water canal network, huge spread of *Wel Attha*, *Diyapara* and *Beru* species and legal barrier for utilization abandoned paddy lands for other crop cultivation are observed as high priority issues. Lack of skilled laborers for farming, high initial cost and poor paddy harvest, availability of high water saturated paddy lands and poor maintenance of sluice gates and culverts are observed as moderate priority issues. Few farmers indicate the poor accessibility and no entrance for their paddy fields in order to take the vehicles in to paddy lands as a low priority issue.

The community participants expressed their opinion on future development trend of Bentota DSD (Figure 2) under each in 20 indicators by stating whether the future development would be downward trend or upward trend or no change in future. Community participants believe that there will not be upward development trend in all indicators excluding the indicator of Innovation in agriculture & Conservation Practices. Communities believe that the new technological innovation in agriculture and conservation practices will be developed and helpful in future if they tend to cultivate abandoned paddy lands towards the enhancement of land productivity. Future development will focus to survive from the area itself in terms of agricultural production of paddy, coconut, local vegetable and fruits by introducing suitable strategies for optimizing the land productivity of abandoned paddy lands in future. Preservation the marshy and abandoned paddy lands in high and moderate flood affected areas is necessary to compromise its nature as flood buffers.

Irrigation canal system in the area needs to renovate for supplying irrigation water for paddy cultivation by enhancing proper connectivity among separate small canals, lakes, river and proposed water retention ponds. A massive requirement exists for the renovation of Marine Dam (*Karijja Wella*). High water saturated and abandoned paddy lands (*Hal Kumburu*) in the area are feasibly suggested to convert as water retention ponds which enable to avoid flooding, water pollution, land degradation and to promote inland fishery and entertainment places for people to gather and enjoy. There available multiple opportunities to cultivate *Kirala*, *Kekatiya*, *Pothuwila*, *Olu*, *Manel*, *Lotus* as aquatic flora cultivations in the abandoned paddy lands and wasted marshes where *Beru* and *Diyapara* destroying the ecosystems. Floating farm tradition would be possible to introduce for additional crop cultivations in abandoned paddy lands without distressing its role on acting as flood buffer and there will not be any legal barrier for this type of crop conversion. Salt tolerance paddy varieties (*Pokkali*, at 354, *Nona Bokra* and at 401) would be encouraged to cultivate in saline water intrusion area by ensuring the expected harvest through an illustration of successful practical case.

Farmers who prefer to do traditional and organic farming should be encouraged by providing incentives and a proper market for their products. Practical knowledge related to traditional farming must be transferred to the younger generations by introducing a proper education mechanism related to productive agriculture. There should be a method to share the traditional knowledge among the farmers across the regions of the country as well. The reintroduction of rush and reed species to household paddy fields for processing into value-added handicraft products is essential for enhancing the local economy by utilizing abandoned paddy lands in the area. Bottle Caps used for *Aurveda* medicine were produced using species *Kirala* and

Wel-aatha until year 2000 and currently these industries are fading away due to lesser demand. If this industry exists it will naturally control the spread of *Wel-aatha* trees which has become a severe threat for abandonment of paddy lands.

This study highly recommends that soil condition of several abandoned paddy lands is suitable for cinnamon cultivation where spreading ‘*Beru*’ trees. Deployment of coastal abandoned paddy lands for coconut cultivations is productive and toddy and coconut honey industry which was very rich and popular in the area during 1980’s can be promoted again towards the higher local economy. There is a requirement to amend the paddy land policies to be directed towards the removal of the existing constraints on the conversion of abandoned paddy lands into other more profitable uses in areas where paddy cultivation has become increasingly unprofitable, dispelling the myth that paddy cultivation ensures food security at the level of the household for its entire labour force.

Conclusion

According to the overall assessment of landscape level community resilient capacity, the diversity and protection of the Bentota region is facing multiple issues comparative to the other considered measures. The community participants indicate below-moderate level resilience capacity for the paddy cultivation related landscape in Bentota and they are in a considerable level of disappointment regarding addressing the paddy cultivation related increasing issues of the area. Community efforts in this regard also do not have a significant impact in solving the rapidly growing paddy fields abandoning problem due to SWI. This study identified several issues in contradiction of the utilization of abandoned paddy lands in the area. Salt

water intrusion in to paddy fields, non-renovating of water canal network, spread of *Wel attha*, *Diyapara* and *Beru* species and legal barrier for paddy lands conversion are observed as high priority issues. Lack of farming labourers, high initial cost and poor paddy harvest, high water saturated paddy lands and poor maintenance of sluice gates are observed as moderate priority issues. Comparative to the precedent studies and pre-workshop observations these results are highly compatible where the necessity of strategic intervention in sustainable land use management is highly in request for this area. Hence several land management strategies were identified to utilize abandoned paddy lands and to enhance community resilience in the area by overcoming those identified issues.

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Table 1: The SEPLS 20 Indicators List

| Performance criteria | Indicators |
|---|---|
| 1. Landscape diversity & ecosystem Protection | 1. Landscape/ Seascape diversity 2. Ecosystem Protection 3. Ecological Interactions between different components of the Landscape/ seascape 4. Recovery & regeneration of the Landscape/ seascape |
| 2. Biodiversity (Including Agricultural biodiversity) | 5. Diversity of Local Food System 6. Maintenance & use of local crop varieties & animal breeds 7. Sustainable Management of Common Resources |
| 3. Knowledge & Innovation | 8. Innovation in agriculture & Conversation Practices 9. Traditional knowledge related to biodiversity 10. Documentation of Biodiversity Associated Knowledge 11. Women's knowledge |
| 4. Governance & Social Equity | 12. Rights in relation to land /water & other natural resource Management 13. Community based Landscape / Seascape Governance 14. Social capital in the form of cooperation across the Landscape 15. Social Equity (including gender equity) |
| 5. Livelihoods & Wellbeing | 16. Socio Economic Infrastructure 17. Human Health & Environmental Condition 18. Income Diversity 19. Biodiversity – Based Livelihoods 20. Socio- Ecological Mobility |

Source: Compiled by using UNU-IAS, Biodiversity International, IGES and UNDP; 2014

Table 2: Analysis and Interpretation Methodology (Centered on Paddy Cultivation)

| Exercise | Analysis Method |
|---|--|
| 01. Community Mapping Exercise | Contextual Overlay Analysis: Consider common pattern using Arc GIS software by digitizing the identified spatial factors |
| 02. History Line Preparation | Critical Life Event Pattern Analysis (CEP)- comparison of the major life events and discuss regarding the possible patterns in emergence of contextual issues related to sustainable land use management |
| 03. Socio-ecological Production Landscapes and Seascapes (SEPLS) 20 Indicators Forum | Nvivo 10 – Word Cloud, Tree Map & Cluster Analysis – Identification of the most frequent discussed issues and pertaining reasons |
| 04. Socio-ecological Production Landscapes and Seascapes (SEPLS) 20 Indicators Scoring exercise | Socio Economic Production Landscape Indicator Data Capture Tool and Trend Analysis using Excel and Statistical methods |

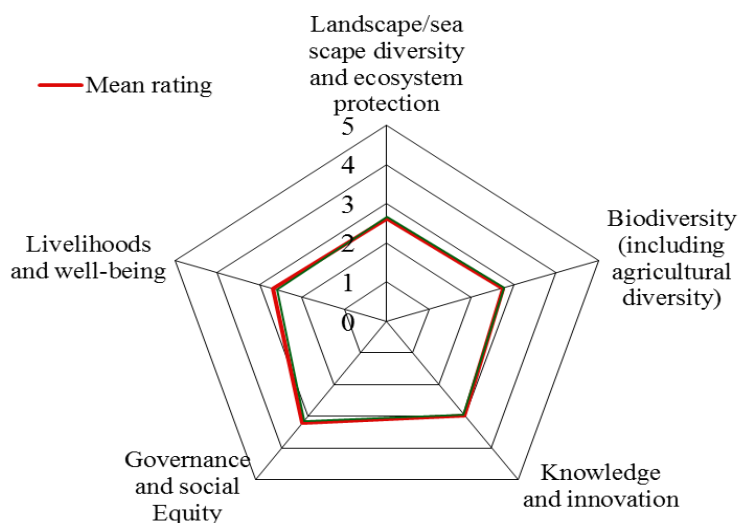
Source: Compiled by Authors

Table 3: The SEPLS scoring results for Bentota area

| Performance Criteria | Lowest third | Mean rating | Highest third | Standard dev. |
|--|--------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|
| Landscape diversity and ecosystem protection | 2.55 | 2.76 | 2.89 | 0.50 |
| Biodiversity (including agriculture) | 2.44 | 2.98 | 3.68 | 0.77 |
| Knowledge and innovation | 2.42 | 2.85 | 3.25 | 0.73 |
| Governance and social Equity | 2.93 | 3.09 | 3.13 | 0.57 |
| Livelihoods and well-being | 2.82 | 2.79 | 3.51 | 0.56 |

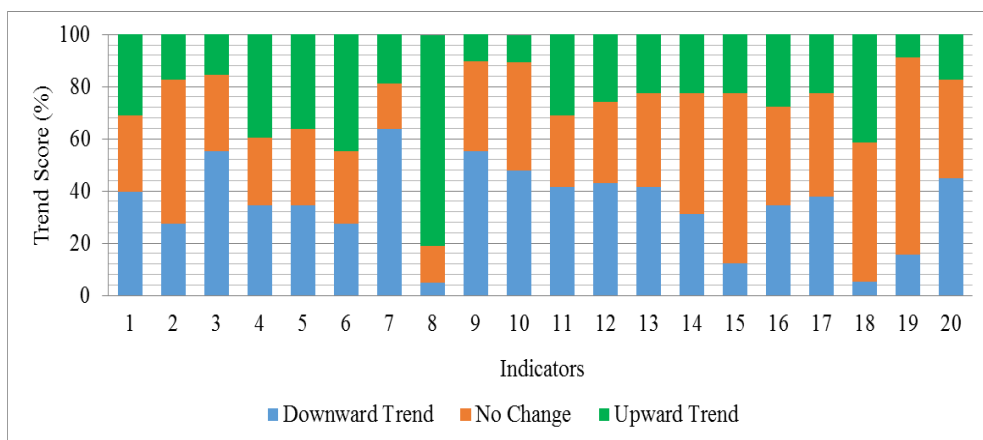
Source: Compiled using the SEPLS scoring in Bentota area, 2017

Figure 1: SEPLS performance chart



Source: Generated using Community Assessment results, 2017

Figure 2: The Future development trends of SEPLS performance



Source: Generated using Community Assessment results, 2017

Socio-Cultural Aspects of Solid Waste Crisis in Sri Lanka

MTM Mahees

Department of Sociology, Faculty of Arts, University of Colombo

Abstract

The contemporary societies are facing various environmental issues and challenges due to massive development projects, changing consumption pattern and environmentally harmful attitude. The present human culture continues to dominate and conquer all aspects of nature in an alarming manner. As a result, the so called modern or postmodern man has to experience the extreme climate change, natural disasters, loss of biodiversity, human-wild life conflicts, waste crisis and environmental poverty. The waste crisis (generation, health risk, management and its politics) is one of the leading and threatening socio-environmental problem to Sri Lanka. It is important to understand the hidden and subjective cause of solid waste crisis of Sri Lanka through sociological analysis of socio-cultural factors. The main objective of this paper is to analysis the social and cultural aspects of solid waste generation and disposal in Sri Lanka. The paper is based on the study carried out in four DS divisions of Kandy District and existing secondary data and related literature. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected from shop-owners (n=150) and households (n=200) through 350 questionnaire survey and 30 in-depth interviews. This paper has focused more on the qualitative aspects of solid waste crisis of Sri Lankan by exploring the underlining socio-cultural causes of the crisis. The symbolic consumption pattern and its impact on rapid waste generation, higher degree of food waste and development of throwaway society, the cultural notion of dirt and its link with solid waste issue, social class and waste management, socio-ethnic belief and practices and gender aspects of waste generation and disposal are the key sociological factors that found be determining the solid waste crisis of Sri Lanka.

Key Words: Solid Waste, Social Environment, Gender relationship, Socio Ethics

Introduction

The solid waste crisis is not a mere environmental problem but social problem too. Although solid waste crisis is mostly based on socio-economic, cultural and political aspects, the relevant field is still under the influence of engineering and technical discourse and solutions in Sri Lanka. Sociology and environmental sociology can play a leading role in understanding the underlining and subjective facets of the solid waste crisis in contemporary Sri Lanka. From generation to sustainable solid waste management needs to be addressed through the factors such as attitude, consumption, life style, notion of purity and gender relation which are broadly analyzed in the discipline of sociology. Thus, anthropologists and sociologists are more concerned about cause and pattern of waste generation more than solid waste management process.

The main objective of this paper is to analyse the social and cultural aspects of solid waste generation and its impact on solid waste management. This paper attempts to explore the relationship between factors such as social class, cultural values, notion of pollution and consumption with solid waste generation and management by using secondary data and field data collected in four divisional secretariats in Kandy District. The primary field data were collected from the exploratory study carried out at four Divisional secretariats of Kandy district, Harispattuwa, Akurana, Pujapitiya and Pathadumbara. The observation, questionnaire survey and in-depth interviews were used as major data collection tools. For this purpose, 350 questionnaires were administrated on households (200) and shops (150) located in four Divisional Secretaries based on simple random sampling method. The questionnaire survey was aimed to gather socio-economic, family and attitudinal information related to waste generation and

management. Thirty (30) in-depth interviews were used to collect more qualitative on the basis of purposive sample method. The existing knowledge and information on solid waste generation and management were reviewed from sociological perspectives. The data were quantitatively and qualitatively analysed.

The solid waste is becoming a major problem in the developing countries though the countries still generate much less than developed countries when per capita figures are compared. According to the feasibility study report for Municipal solid waste disposal (2017), the per capita solid waste generation (kg/day) of selected world cities are New York (1.8), Singapore (0.87), Colombo (0.85), Rome (0.69), Jakarta (0.60), Manila (0.50) and Calcutta (0.50). It is also important to note the different level of per capita generation of solid waste (kg/day) in Sri Lankan local authorities, Municipal Councils (0.60), Urban Councils (0.60) and Pradeshiya Sabas / Village Council (0.40). Sri Lankans generate approximately 0.62 kg of solid waste per day on average. The total solid waste generation of Sri Lanka is from 8000 to 15000 metric tons per day and average garbage production is around 4.5 million metric tons per year. However, it is only around 40% solid wastes collected by local authorities from the average production of 12400 metric tons per day (Bandara, 2008).

According to National Policy on solid waste management, there are three categories of solid waste in Sri Lanka, they are municipal solid waste, health care solid waste and hazardous solid waste. A proper analyzing of composition of solid waste is very important to critically understand the nature of solid waste generation and confront the challenges of sustainable solid waste management. The present and average categories of municipal solid waste is bio-degradable waste (short term) 68.4%, bio-degradable

waste (long term) 2.5%, polythene/plastic waste/ shopping bags 9.2% metal waste 0.9%, wooden waste 3.5%, glass waste 4.1%, paper waste 6.6% and other waste 5% (NSWMS, 2010). The moisture content of municipal solid waste is also very high in the range of 70 – 80% on a wet weight basis. Primary components on a weight basis are compostable organics; food and garden waste accounting for 89.2% (Gunaruwan & Gunasekara, 2016). According to these statistics, more than 60% of solid waste is food waste and culture of consuming food and life style of Sri Lankans could be critically analysed by food waste. Solid waste is closely related to market economy and class structure of a society. Who generate waste and who suffer by those waste and discrimination in waste management are based on the socio-economic and cultural aspects of solid waste generation and management.

Although there are many solid waste management systems such as composting, recycling, land filling, open dumping, incineration and energy recovery in the global level, Sri Lanka as a developing country mostly follows land open dumping method and minor level composting strategy too. The open dumping practice causes many socio-economic and institutional problems due to poor infrastructure facilities. In the meantime, Sri Lanka is attempting to go for land fill strategy with the support of technical and engineering advice related to this method (Werellagama, 2000). Solid waste is a growing problem in Sri Lanka aggravated by the absence of proper management systems. Development and implementation of a national strategy for solid waste management in Sri Lanka is essential to reduce environmental, social and economic problems associated with the present disposal practices.

It is clear that there is a huge gap between solid waste generation (average generation is 12500 metric tons per day) and proper solid waste management

(only 40% or 5000 metric tons are managed) in Sri Lanka. The unmanageable or uncollected solid waste has been creating many socio-cultural and political problems in Sri Lanka. Sometimes this amount of waste is improperly dumped or illegally disposed and left alone causing many crises in society and among the institutions. Today waste management has become the core business of local authorities of Sri Lanka and the Municipal and Urban councils spend their larger portion of fund towards the waste management. The solid waste crisis and its related issues such as spread of dengue epidemics have politically challenged the existence of government and creating many contradictions among the state bodies (central, provincial and local). The recent disaster of Meethotamulla incident is a very good example for politicization of solid waste management in Sri Lanka.

The definition of waste can be very subjective; what represents waste to one person may be valuable to another. However, waste must have firm legal definition. There are many different terms to describe the diverse types of waste including “controlled, household, industrial, commercial, special, active and inactive”. In such cases, firm definitions of waste have financial and legal implication for business, local authorities and government.

According to McDougall et al. (2001), waste can be categorized by a magnitude of schemes, by physical state (solid, liquid, gaseous), and within solid waste by original use (packaging waste, food waste, etc.), by material (glass, paper, etc.), by physical properties (combustible, compostable, recyclable), by origin (domestic, commercial, agricultural, industrial, etc.) or by safety level (hazardous, non-hazardous). The household and commercial solid waste are often referred to be Municipal Solid Waste.

The legal definition of a solid waste is not based on the physical form of the material, but on the fact that material is a waste. Thus, solid waste are defined as “ any garbage, refuse, sludge from a wastewater treatment plant, water supply treatment plant, or oil pollution control facility, and other discarded material, including, solid, liquid, semisolid, or contain gaseous material, resulting from industrial, commercial, mining, and agricultural operations and from community activities (Environmental Protection Agency, 2001).

Social aspects of waste

Waste is very much related with our day to-day life. It is possible to understand the social life of people through the cross-cutting of waste generation. John Scanlan, in his influential book ‘On Garbage’, has examined the role of the idea of waste in making of modernity. In particular, he has identified the material and intellectual productions of waste as a product of enlightenment conceptions of efficiency, productivity, and “right use” a moral economy of waste that lies at the heart of modernity. Scanlan (2005) shows that waste has been a central category in the operation of modernity, where the useful is constantly (re)valorized by its distinction from the useless. He places waste at the heart of the ideological operation of modernity, as the means by which value is both produced and contested.

Another crucial insight comes from the work of Zsuzsa Gille (2007) who wrote ‘From the Cult of Waste to the Trash Heap of History’ has developed a “sociology of waste” that suggests the possibility of a systematic study of the relations between the material reality of waste and its socio-cultural construction. Gille has theorized the existence of “waste regimes,” particular modes of valorizing waste and of disciplining subjects in relation to waste.

For Gille, waste is as much a social process as a material object, a process in which social relations determine how waste acquires or loses value.

The present society mostly depends on the consumption rather than production, whether it is production based or consumer based society, waste is the final outcome of both process. Societies produce more waste than goods and 98% of the original materials used in the production of, or contained within, the goods made in the USA become waste within six weeks of sale (Hawken, 1994). The social factors such as life style, neighborhood, social class and family size have played crucial role in determining solid waste generation of this study. According to Guan et al. (2002), the changing life style through consumption pattern in the developing countries causes many environmental issues such as waste generation. Life style is having close correlation with waste generation, the life style of food practice (dining out and home cooking) is found significant in generating waste (Mahees et al, 2011). According to the respondents' views relationship between life style and solid waste generation are strongly related. The life style mainly includes consumption, entertainment and social gathering of people. The Table No 1 presents the views of both households and shop-owners in this regard.

Table 1 Life style and solid waste generation are related

| Response | Households (%) | Shop-owners (%) |
|----------|----------------|-----------------|
| Agree | 136 (63) | 70(47) |
| Neutral | 35(17) | 53(35) |
| Disagree | 39(20) | 27(18) |
| Total | 200(100) | 150(100) |

Source: Field Data, 2010

According to above Table, 63% households and 47% of shop-owners agreed that life style is related to solid waste generation. Only 20% of households disagreed with this statement and majority of shop-owners (53%) had either neutral or disagreement with the statement of 'life style is related to solid waste generation'. On the other hand, if the 'neutral' opinion of shop-owners is calculated into disagreement, there could be less or no different between household and shop-owners in this regard. However, in general the degree of agreement of households is higher than the shop-owners in terms of solid waste generation is related to life style. The difference between households and shop-owners in terms of life style and solid waste generation are related is found significant ($p= 0.002$) with the Chi Square value of 19.41. Households feel this relationship subjectively whereas shop-owners get it mostly in an objective manner. Consumption of excessive foods (fruits, vegetable, packed or bottled items), preference of offering meal for others, purchasing of reading materials, urban neighborhood and competition of following modern life style are the foundations for the positive link between life style and solid waste generation.

The social aspect in terms of waste generation and disposal is one of the most important sociological factors emphasizing the subjective and underlining characteristics of this environmental crisis. Waste is a social reality and different according to societies and represents a cultural and social value for individuals in the society. The concept of 'throwaway society' is very useful in understanding the solid waste crisis in the present world including the waste problem of Sri Lanka. When a society is influenced by over or unnecessary consumption and producing more garbage, it is a kind of throwaway society. The basic meaning of throwaway society is that people consume more and more goods and use them for little period and throw them away without using them for a longer period or

society does not have any social value of reusing those things. People in the contemporary society always prefer to buy symbols or signs more than goods and services. The present consumers are more concerned about sign value more than the use or exchange value. The many of consumer products that are found in super markets or shopping malls are well and attractively packed with polythene, plastic, cardboard or any other hard materials. These symbolic consumptions always end up in waste because of throwaway society. One can clearly observe it when he or she looks at a garbage site anywhere in a town or city in Sri Lanka. It is further proved by the study of Mahees et al, (2011) concluding that the family size and food consumption of urban community always positively correlated with solid waste generation in Sri Lanka.

According to Martin O'Brien (1999) discourses surrounding pre-packed food products highlighted the relations between the material nature of waste and the changing character of modern capitalist production. Packaging was presented by industry as a desirable innovation that was both modern and hygienic. But packaging was also an essential factor in overcoming the established taboos of a hygiene-obsessed society, an obsession which made the development and spread of the supermarket distribution system possible.

According to Beall (2006), in South Asia, social relations intersect with the management of waste in a very particular way. All over the world, waste workers are stigmatized and are likely to be from marginalized groups such as ethnic or religious minorities or rural migrants. The low social status of people dealing with rubbish is compounded in South Asia by association of this work with caste. It is a socially marginalized group who mainly represent the waste collecting community in Sri Lanka including the study area and they have been experiencing various socio-cultural issues and

challenges due to their marginalized position in SWM hierarchy. For example, some shop-owners are not interested in selling or serving foods to waste collectors at their hotels. The term used to call waste pickers in Sri Lanka is demeaning and discriminating socially and culturally. Even the term “scavenger” used by English speakers cause severe damage to people who are engaged as waste collectors. The lower social dignity and poor facilities offered to waste collectors and health and sanitary related problems encountered by these workers always discouraged their proper and active involvement in SWM in the study area. Moreover, although the majority (65% Muslims and rest is Sinhalese) of people in the study area are Muslims, there is not even a single person involved in SWM process done by local government authority. Only very few low socio-economically marginalized Sinhalese and Tamils belonging to plantation community and low caste groups are engaged in these sanitary related works. The zero representation of Muslims in the SWM community always created wrong picture about the waste collectors in study area. However, there are considerable numbers of Muslim sanitary workers involved at SWM process in many other Muslim majority local authority areas such as Kalmunai, Sammanthurai and Akkaraiapattu.

According to Ulrich Beck and Elisabeth Beck (2005), the institutionalized individualization with influence of globalization and changing economic power has eradicated collective responsibilities, social rights and cohesion. The middle class which constitutes a sizeable percentage of India’s population, and their behaviors have a significant impact on environment. Wealthier groups in India, especially in urban areas, make higher demands upon environmental goods and capacities through their ability to command more resources such as per capita water and electricity, consumer products and their greater waste production, including vehicle emission and garbage

(Buck, 1993 and Panch, 1993). This type of individualization could be observed from rich class of the study area that has very poor concern on collective responsibilities in terms of environmental behavior. According to in-depth interview (Conducted in four Kandy DS divisions) findings, two types of purity practices are found among the middle and upper middle class business community of study area depending on their cultural notion of dirt and clean.

- 1 Private purity

- 2 Public purity

Here the private purity refers to individualized attitude and practices in terms of sanitation and removal of individual waste out of their household or shop's premises without any concern over outer environment. People who are concerned only about their individual (domestic or commercial) environment or private purity always dispose their solid waste wherever they can dispose out of their premises. The similar behavior could be observed even in Colombo metropolitan areas where some people are only concerned about their individual purity and throw the waste in common or public places. They always consider that their waste should not be in their back yard which is known as NIMBY (not in my back yard). The illegal or unethical disposal of waste into public places by households or shop owners in Colombo and some other cities is a serious moral issue in term of environmental attitude and behavior of people. Sociologists must earnestly think about the collective environmental sentiments of city dwellers in terms of waste disposal. Today from time to time, solid waste dumps are seen everywhere in Colombo is matter of collective conscience of people and urban governance of Sri Lanka.

The notion of dirt and solid waste

Where do Sri Lankans build their toilet? Is it inside the house or outside the house or else at the corner of their garden? And where do they keep the food waste until they dispose? All these depend on the notion of dirt or pollution. Even in the modern society, some people do not like to use water closet (commodes) toilet due to the fact that personal or cultural notion of dirt. Another example is that cleaning and preparing a dead body for the final ritual could be usually performed by undertakers but in Muslim community it is done by close relatives. While it could be a cultural pollution to one community, it is a compulsory ritual service for another community. Thus, solid waste generation and disposal are also linked with the concept of dirt and it is very much cultured behavior.

Anthropologists have been very much interested in pure (sacred) and impure (profane) regarding food, hygiene, sexuality and other social behavior. The idea of pollution is supposed to be operating as a response to violation of social and cultural boundaries in two ways. First, characterizing something as pollution seeks to influence the behavior of others, and second, the label of pollution can defend general views of the social order (Nagle, 2009). However, present anthropologists and sociologists attempt to use the 'idea of pollution' developed by early anthropologists to define even the environmental pollution.

Pollution has always had dual meanings: a broad reference to all sorts of effects upon human environments, and a narrow focus upon natural environments. In fact, until less than a century ago society applied the term to human environments more often than natural environments. Mary Douglas was one of the most important writers to explore the concept of pollution in

the twentieth century. Douglas considered the nature of pollution ideas in the context of traditional native cultures based on ritual cleanness.

The classic study on the notion of pollution is found in Douglas's *Purity and Danger: An Analysis of Concepts of Pollution and Taboo* (1966). Marry Douglas and Aaron Wildavsky elaborated these views sixteen years later in *Risk and Culture* (1982), which investigated "the sudden, widespread, across-the-board concern about environmental pollution and personal contamination that has arisen in the Western world in general and with particular force in the United States. Douglas and Wildavsky identified two senses in which people employ the term pollution: a technical sense of typical of air and water pollution "when the physical adulteration of an earlier state can be precisely measured and a nontechnical sense connoting moral defect in which "pollution is a contagious state, harmful, caused by outside intervention, but mysterious in its origin. These latter pollution beliefs "uphold conceptual categories dividing the moral from the immoral and so sustain the vision of the good society.

"Dirt implies two conditions: a set of ordered relations and a contravention of that order. Then, dirt is never a unique or isolated event. Where there is dirt there is system. Dirt is by-product of a systematic ordering and classification of matter, in so far as ordering involves rejecting inappropriate elements. It is obvious what is clean and dirt depends on a system of classification and the location of that matter within that system (Wuthnow et al., 1984).

According to Marry Douglas (1966) and Beall (2006) what makes things dirt or clean is based on the moral order of a society which periodically renews and reaffirms its basic relations and collective sentiments. Dirt is always socially constructed, cultural and relative. The attitude towards dirt and clean

depends on the factors such as age, gender, education level, religious background and neighborhood. For example, the pollution towards the pork and beef is very much religious and cultural which could affect even the waste discourse.

The elderly people who live in a congested neighborhood have poor preference of storing or composting solid waste within their premises due to cultural notion of dirt. As a result, some elderly persons are not interested in even having a toilet inside their house. This cultural notion of dirt affects the solid waste generation at houses and shops. Also, it is important to understand the gender and ethnic perceptions with regard to cultural notion of waste. For example, some women do not prefer to keep a composting bin inside their house (premises) because of worms and flies found in the composting bin. Sometimes these women have tended to pour kerosene or put some chemical to their composting bin in order to control these worms without knowing proper function of them. However, the cultural notion of middle class people has changed positively with the impact of increasing female education and economic development. Thus, it is very significant to have subjective and broader understanding of notion of dirt and clean of a community to introduce or implement any of the SWM strategies. Unfortunately, nowhere in Sri Lanka, the notion of dirt of respective community or social groups is taken into account in the process of developing and practicing a SWM plan.

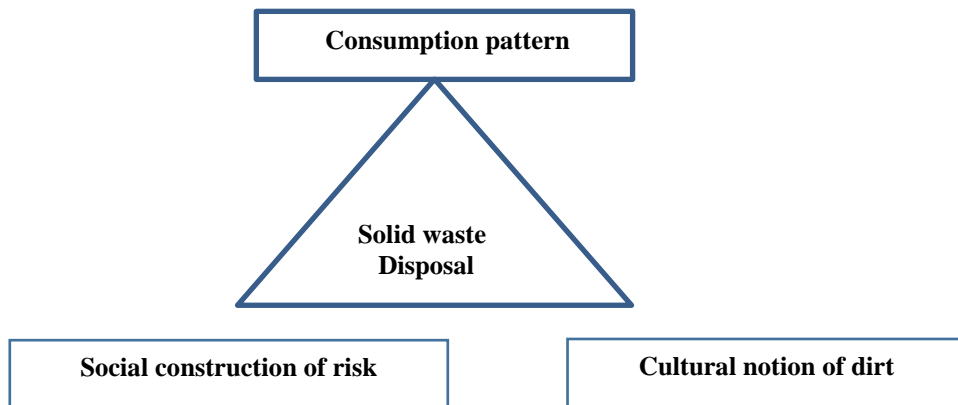
Culture and solid waste

The term culture basically refers to commonly accepted pattern of behavior that includes language, symbols, belief, customs, values, norms, sanctions, skills, capabilities and all material thing produced by man. The cultural construction of social realities or environmental health issues is another

significant cultural aspect of this study. According to Peter Berger (1966), the reality or knowledge is socially (culturally) constructed. He further states that ‘sociology of knowledge will have to deal not only with the empirical variety of knowledge in human societies, but also with processes by which any such knowledge comes to be socially established as reality’.

The socially constructed perception of people regarding solid waste disposal and their impact on health issues is found significant in this study. The perception of average people and their local knowledge have to be taken into consideration equal to scientific discourses. However, these local knowledge or culturally constructed realities cannot be proved on statistical or quantitative ground, but need to be understood subjectively and qualitatively. Since culturally constructed social realities are more powerful than scientific realities, it was very difficult to make people understand the negative impact of solid waste disposal. The long-established beliefs and cultural values related to environment is very vital to understand the solid waste crisis. Some believe that some environmental health diseases such as diarrhea, hepatitis and dengue fever break out due to divine wrath, not because of environmental pollution. At the same time, they believe that nature is creation of God and polluting nature (environment) is almost like bringing contempt before the God. For example, when it is found difficult to control dumping garbage besides the roads or in public places in urban area of Sri Lanka, people temporarily keep statues of god or Buddha close-by those dumping sites in order to prevent improper waste disposal. However, according to the in-depth interview findings, there are three major cultural factors that influence the solid waste disposal practice of people. These three factors as part of everyday life functioned as a cultural circle that determine to influence the generation and disposal practice of waste. It was a cultural model developed through this study which is presented as follows by the

Figure 1. Cultural Circle of Waste Disposal



Ethnicity and race are two important concepts determining environmental concern and attitude. The socio-cultural and political functions of these two factors are almost equal to each other. Race is a kind of unique cultural pattern or behavioral type based on physical characteristics, eg African American culture (Black) and Anglo American culture (White). The concept of ethnicity which mainly functions in Sri Lanka instead of race is cultural not biological. Ethnicity is a distinct cultural tradition shared by a group of people who identify themselves on the basis of commonality such as religion, ethnic origin, language and other cultural practices. The ethnic background of a person largely affects his or her neighborhood arrangement, consumption patterns, eating habits, group enjoyment and socio-cultural functions (wedding, funeral and puberty ceremonies). For example, the food habit and entertaining family functions of one ethnic group is rather different from another ethnic group. And cultural festival such as Kandy Perahara, Fasting period of Muslims and Christmas cause to generate different nature of solid waste in different amount in different areas. In a broader context,

the ethnicity of a person influences his or her environmental attitude in terms of generation and disposal of waste.

According to Morrissey and Manning (2000), there is a close relationship of race and ethnicity with environmental attitude. Many studies of black and white differences in environmental concern have often found race to be a significant predictor of attitude towards environmental issues (Tylor, 1989). For example, a survey in a metropolitan Virginia area found African American to be less environmentally concerned than Anglo Americans (Caron and Sheppard, 1995). However, in another sociological study of Caron (1989), he states that black and white do not significantly differ on their level of environmental concern.

According to Mahees & Silva (2011), ethnicity is found significant in determining environmental attitude of respondents about solid waste generation and waste disposal. The relationship between ethnicity and environmental attitude of shop-owners is positively correlated in the study done in Kandy and they further pointed out that Sinhala shop-owners are more concerned about the environmental issues of solid waste than Muslim shop-owners. However, it is not general situation throughout the country.

The high price for business premises and extremely competitive business environment made these Muslim shop-owners more business oriented through rational profit maximization process. They often attempt to take the maximum utility of business lands because of limited land resources. Sinhala shop owners have been having close connection with physical environment compared to Muslim shop-owners. These respondents are interested in environmental issues and are concerned about environmentalism due to their positive awareness towards the environmental crises.

It could be possible to witness different composition and amount of waste generation and disposal even in Colombo city depending on the different socio-ethnic neighborhood. The social security and religious cohesion based on rituals has always promoted ethnically made population or housing density in Colombo. It has indirectly aggravated the crisis of solid waste disposal. However, the impact of ethnicity on the solid waste crisis must be further analysed through a separate qualitative study.

Gender relationship and waste

Term gender basically refers to social and cultural differences between man and woman. This difference is socially constructed and functioned on different level of cultural and political power. Everything in the human society is influenced by the gender relationship and gender difference is not a problem only to women but also challenge and issue to me in the day today life. Even the waste is classified or identified based on the gender factor. For example, in normal gender based society, a used tire may be resource for a man whereas it could be a waste for woman on the other hand; ragged cloth may be recourse for woman and waste for a man.

The gender relationship of any particular society is another crucial cultural factor that can have huge impact on environmental attitude and action. Since women maintain closer relationship with environment (Sirisena, 2010) and women can function as an agent of social change in terms of environmental issues (Mahees et al., 2008), women are expected to control solid waste generation of domestic sources. Even this study reveals that women can have a control over the generation of SW. It could be witnessed by Table 2.

Table 2 : Women control waste generation

| Response | Total (%) |
|-----------------|------------------|
| Strongly agree | 105 (52) |
| Agree | 79 (40) |
| Neutral | 9 (4) |
| Disagree | 7 (4) |
| Total | 200 (100) |

Source: Field Data, 2010

According to Table 2, 52% of the respondents of household questionnaire survey strongly agree that women can control domestic solid waste generation and another 40% of respondents agree with this statement. In general, 92% of the respondents are of the view that women can control SW within their household premises and it is only 7% of households who disagree with this statement. Women as domestic managers, main determiner of food consumption and leading socializing person of children can have manageable control over generation and management of SW with the support of men in any cultural context.

Women have the capacity of controlling solid waste generation by the three steps that could be practiced within household. They are (1) cutting off unnecessary consumption being economically rational (2) adapting or promoting environmentally friendly behavior through socialization process (3) improving technical knowledge in order to implement practical SWM system. Thus, according to these three dimensions, women can control consumption pattern through rational and economical purchasing of food, technological management of available food and changing of behavior related to over-consumption. However, though gender is crucial in solid waste management process, it should not be misinterpreted that women

should be responsible for minimizing and managing solid waste at domestic level.

Gender relationship also plays a crucial role in SWM process. Women or widows who are under the urban poverty in many developing Asian countries make their means of living out of waste and even in Muslim countries such as Indonesia, Muslim women may not feel free to pick waste in public places but are likely to do the work of sorting, cleaning and packing waste (Fatimah, 1982). Many the street and dump pickers are women and children but the traders and managers of waste recycling industries are men in many developing countries (Furedy, 1990). Even in Sri Lanka women who work in the local authorities and other private environmental service companies are highly disadvantaged, they are generally paid less and treated unequally compared to men. According to Sakurai (1986), women waste pickers or street cleaners in Latin America and Asia are not having an opportunity of social mobility and usually subject to sexual abuse. However, according to study of gender perspective in community participation solid waste management by Vineeshiya & Mahees (2016), the role of women has been very much successful proper community participation solid waste management at all level.

It is also worth mentioning that people are fighting as social or environmental movements specially in the developing world against the development projects or some environmental problems. In most of these grass roots collective environmental actions or environmentalism women are the leading actors and as a result, these movements are known as eco-feminism. (Mahees, 2010). At present, most of the waste disposal projects violate fundamental rights of the economically and politically powerless people, they have become the victim of modern solid waste management

projects. Thus, new grassroots level and female lead movements are emerging against the nuclear waste, large scale industrial waste disposal, hazardous clinical waste disposal and illegal or unethical waste transportation. Even in Sri Lanka, there were lot of social protest against Gohagoda (Kandy), Bluemendal, and Meethotamulla dumping sites and some projects (Dompe, Meepe & Aruwakkado/ Puttlam) are under the influence of public protest mainly lead by women and politically motivated men. It is thus obvious that women can play crucial role in minimizing solid waste generation, educating the community against waste crisis and promoting sustainable end environmentally sensitive waste management project.

Conclusion

Solid waste generation and sustainable waste management is a threatening problem to Sri Lanka. This crisis needs to be understood and solved on an interdisciplinary platform and sociological involvement is very much crucial in this regard. The political economy and its impact on changing pattern of society totally influence the waste generation pattern. The consumer culture which promotes symbolic consumption under the modern or postmodern social conditions is directly related to the crisis. The hyper-reality which is based artificial desires more than the real needs of people promote the consumer culture and leading to a throwaway society. This is obviously indicated by the 60% of food waste and re-usable material found in the waste. The waste generated by one social class may be the want for another social layer or livelihood for many others. On the other hand, the social class based solid waste crisis has been creating environmental discrimination and social protest or movements against some solid waste management project in Sri Lanka. The cultural attitude and psychological perception of dirt are very

important in solid waste disposal practice of people. The cultural theory of dirt introduced by Marry Douglass is very much applicable and useful in planning socially accepted solid waste management project and community participation in waste management. The unbiased socio-cultural strategies need to focus on ethnicity, livelihood, urban neighborhood, and cultural food practice to minimize the waste generation. The power relation centered around the cultural regimes and urban political ecology are important determinants in this regard. Finally, the gender relationship plays a vital role from waste generation to sustainable management. It does not mean that women must be responsible for controlling and managing the crisis. The grass root social knowledge and community participation are related to gender aspects of the sustainable management of solid waste crisis to a greater extend.

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Triangulation Approaches in Finance Research

N.J.T.K.G.P.Dewasiri¹, Dr. Y.K. Weerakoon Banda² and Dr. A.A. Azeez³

¹ Faculty of Graduate Studies, University of Colombo.

² Department of Finance, University of Sri Jayewardenepura.

³Head, Department of Finance, University of Colombo.

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to critically and comprehensively review the ways and means of using triangulation in finance research to overcome the current drawbacks arisen from a single approach. Employing systematic literature review method, the findings divulged that the finance based research studies on quantitative methods, behavioural and proxy variables should be further validated through triangulation approaches, thereby increasing the validity, completeness, confirmation, and confidence over findings, minimizing the inherent weaknesses of single-method approaches, and avoiding contradictions over explanations. This study is the first comprehensive review of the uses of triangulation in finance research and it demonstrates how, why and under what circumstances can triangulation be meaningfully integrated and implemented to provide a deeper and comprehensive understanding of finance phenomena.

Key Words: *Triangulation approach; validity; completeness; confirmation; finance research; proxy variables*

Introduction

Quantitative research methodology has been one of most popular approaches to finance research over the past thirty years. Baker et al. (2011) noted that empirical studies in finance tend to rely on a large number of financial observations, resulting in robust statistical power and analysis if cross-sectional variation, and identify the fact that “researchers have limited ability

to deal with non-quantifiable issues” as major problem in the discipline. Dewasiri and Weerakoon (2016) recently argued that most of finance studies (68%) in the last decades have used proxy variables in behavioural models. For instance, Jiraporn et al. (2015) investigated the relationship between managerial ability (measured through proxies) and dividend policy. Wang et al. (2016) tested the catering theory of dividends by applying a proxy for investor’s demand or preference. We argue that real behaviours may be very distinct from what is captured by proxy explanations, and hence further investigation is required to achieve more consensual accounts of financial behaviour.

Quantitative approaches have been predominant in recent finance research, and as a result few scholars have highlighted the importance of supplementary approaches. For instance, Burton (2007) identified the importance of qualitative approaches in finance, highlighting early financial studies (Lintner, 1956) based on qualitative data.

Turner et al. (2013) conducted a study based on secondary data on traded companies in the London Stock Market between 1825 and 1870 to investigate the “dividend puzzle” (namely, the puzzle of why companies pay dividends). However, it remains debatable whether their results derived from the use of proxy variables are valid in explaining the behavioural decision to pay dividends. Moreover, investigation of dividend puzzle is still remaining as a controversy issue in finance even though it is investigated for decades through quantitative approaches. As stated by Frankfurter et al. (2002), it is unable to understand the dividend puzzle simply analysing the secondary (market) data. As Bruner (2002) stated “The task must be to look for patterns of confirmation across approaches and studies much like one sees an image in a mosaic of stones.” Shih (1998) emphasized that confirmation of

findings as the common objective of triangulation in a quantitatively weighted research whereas Green (2007) epitomized that completeness and cohesiveness as the rational for utilization of triangulation approach in a qualitatively bounded research. Here, we argue that confirmation of the findings of two different approaches or methodologies pave the way towards a completeness, cohesiveness, validity and generalizability of the findings than a single methodology in finance research as supported by Baker et al. (2011). Accordingly, this study will contribute to the finance research phenomenon by filling this methodological gap emphasizing the ways and means of using triangulation as an alternative approach in finance research in order to minimize inherent weaknesses of a single approach. We also point out that employing proxy variables hinders the completeness and validity of financial studies.

Triangulation has been recognized for some time as a potential solution to this issue and it could be identified as a powerful approach that facilitates confirmation and validation of findings through two or more methods / sources in a single study. In particular, Denzin (1970) argued that the more intensive the use of triangulation, the greater the confidence in observed findings. Decrop (1999) identified triangulation as a state of mind where creativity is required from researchers, and urged them to generalize the use of triangulation as a way of obtaining sound and valid results. After Denzin (1970), triangulation is becoming a widely accepted approach as a way to enhance the robustness of the analysis and interpretation of findings of various research studies.

Triangulation can be used as an effective tool when there are contradictions over the findings derived from the application of a single method. Jakob (2001) argued that “often the purpose of triangulation in specific contexts is

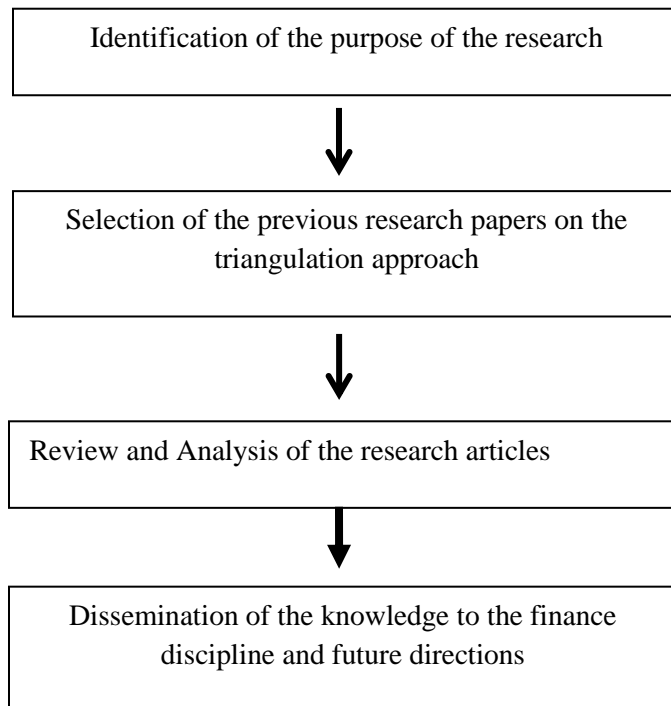
to obtain confirmation of findings through convergence of different perspectives. The point at which the perspectives converge is seen to represent the reality”. Other scholars such as Bruner (2002), Baker et al. (2011), and Dewasiri and Weerakoon (2016) have also strongly recommended triangulation in finance research, but failed to elaborate on specific details and potential implications.

The lack of studies based on empirical mixed methods in finance, the contradictions of the findings of quantitative approaches on financial issues (such as dividend puzzle, capital structure puzzle) and scarcity of theoretical and methodological articles on the triangulation approach in finance research have motivated our study. By addressing the gap in the literature, we comprehensively and critically review and discuss the ways and means of utilizing triangulation in finance research, while at the same time not presenting it as an ultimate or “takeover” approach.

Research Methodology

The Systematic Literature Review approach has been utilized to review and critically analyze the previous research papers related to the triangulation approach. Figure 1 reflects the strategy adopted for the systematic literature review (SLR).

Figure 1. The Strategy used for the Systematic Literature Review



The first step of the SLR involves identification of the relevant key words, time period, and databases for the literature search. Accordingly, the researchers proceeded with the literature search on EMERALD, SAGE, EBSCO, SCIENCE DIRECT, TAYLOR & FRNACIS, WILLEY, OXFORD, GOOGLE SCHOLAR, and other databases following keywords: triangulation, data triangulation, methodological triangulation, investigator triangulation, theoretical triangulation, mixed method, multi method, along with finance. This study spans a time period around eight decades. The year 1934 is considered as the initial year for data base search since Kelley and Kreys' (1934) study is considered as the earliest application of triangulation approach. Accordingly, the articles published in refereed, peer reviewed journals, full text papers published in English, and articles with the key

words with its title, abstract, or key words were selected for the literature review. The researchers conducted the database search in April 2018 and included the articles which satisfied the aforementioned criteria and the database search is resultant with 41 research articles (N=41) for a further review.

The History of Triangulation Approach in Research

In recent years, the application of multiple methods and approaches to a single phenomenon has received significant attention in social science in general. In fact, there are as many different versions of triangulation as there are articulate proponents of the approach. Even though Kelley and Kreys' (1934) study is the first attempt of triangulation, it is believed that Campbell and Fiskel (1959) laid the foundation of "triangulation" in social science research (Jick, 1979) by arguing that more than one trait and method are needed to increase discrimination and convergence of results, proposing what they called a multi trait-multi method matrix. Webb et al. (1966) emphasized the application of unobtrusive (non-reactive) measures instead of interviews, questionnaires and manipulative experiments, in order to avoid their inherent weaknesses. Denzin (1970) identified four forms of triangulation: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theoretical triangulation and methodological triangulation. Jack and Raturi (2006) emphasized five triangulation approaches, adding multiple triangulation to the list as an approach including multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data, and methodologies in a single study.

So far, triangulation has been applied in a limited number of studies. Jick (1979) combined qualitative and quantitative approaches and emphasized of the multiple advantages of triangulation; increasing the confidence of

findings, suggesting new ways to capture research problems, and synthesizing theories applied to the same phenomenon. He demonstrated the use of triangulation by investigating the impact of job insecurity on turnover through multiple methods; surveys, co-worker observations, qualitative interviews, archival sources, and unobtrusive methods. His multiple methods provided consistent and convergent results; however, problems may arise when there are discrepancies across findings. Shih (1998) identified two main reasons for implementing triangulation: completeness and confirmatory purposes. Jack and Raturi (2006) also pointed out that triangulation engenders completeness, confirmation and contingency, and recommended its application to finance research.

In the following, we focus on four triangulation approaches discussed by Denzin (1970), pathways to integration into finance research, benefits, and ways of overcoming potential weaknesses.

Data Triangulation

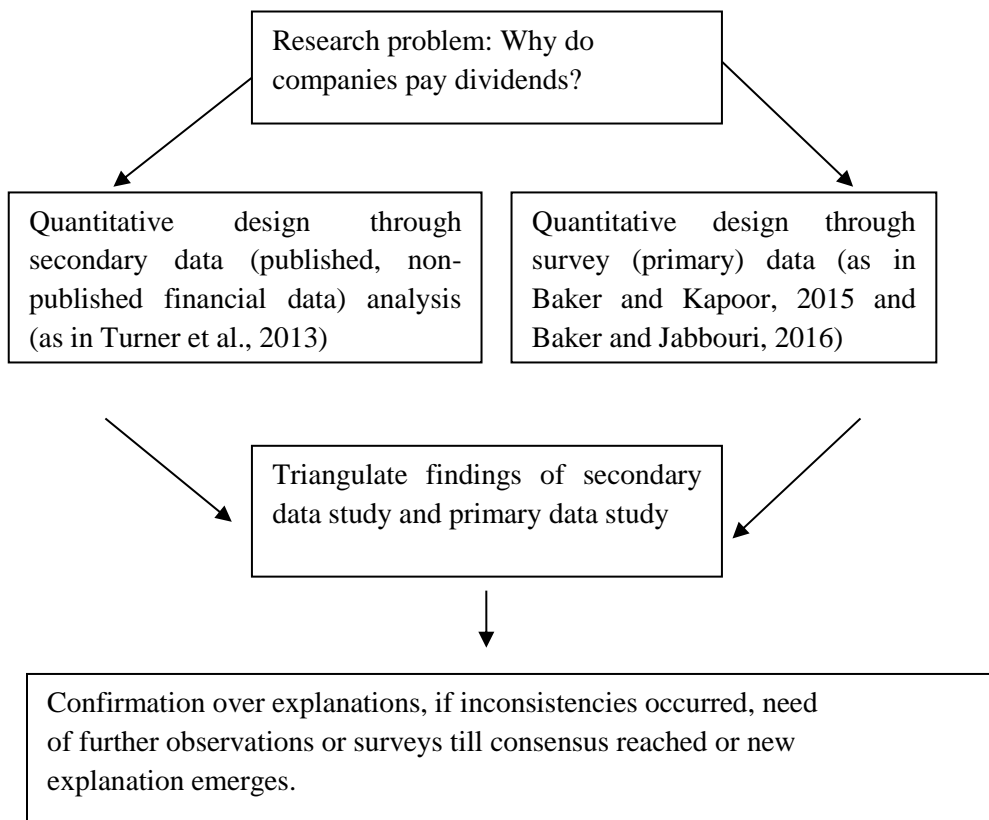
Denzin (1970) defined data triangulation as the use of data sources on time, persons and space in a single study. Data sources may vary due to the time of collection, place, and settings (Denzin, 1970; Mitchell, 1986). The study by Kelley and Krey (1934) was one of the earliest applications of data triangulation and relied on two data sources (peer judged by students and the world; association test scores) to test four traits; courtesy, honesty, poise and school drive. There are instances where data are collected concurrently (longitudinal studies) and simultaneously implemented, and therefore cannot be considered under time triangulation. Kimchi et al. (1991) emphasized that studies conducted under time triangulation are based on data collected at different times, and aim is to identify similar findings. Similarly, studies conducted under data triangulation focused on variance in situations, subjects and places with the purpose of increasing the confidence over findings.

Denzin (1978) and Jick (1979) identified the data triangulation under the “within the method triangulation” approach where two methods in the same tradition are being carried out for complementary and confirmatory purposes. Fielding and Fielding (1986) emphasized that the weaknesses in one data source could be compensated by the strengths of another, which results in increased validity and reliability over findings. Banik (1993) identified the nature and increased amount of data available for interpretation as the main benefits of data triangulation, while Burr (1998) emphasized comprehensiveness and convergence as its main benefits.

How to proceed with data triangulation?

Turner et al. (2013) presented a single-method investigation of the dividend puzzle (why do companies pay dividends?) through a secondary analysis of financial data. They applied a quantitative methodology and proxies to explain and test current dividend theories. Even though their results were consistent with the signaling hypothesis, they revealed contradictions in the catering theory and prospect theory, and provided little support for the agency and liquidity hypotheses. To solve those inconsistencies, we suggest triangulating the findings from secondary data with primary data (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Possible application of a data triangulation.



Source: Authors' own.

It is also possible to observe person variation in the data, and include both investor's and management's views regarding the same phenomenon; this case can also be included in data triangulation. Further, it is conceivable to investigate different contexts (settings) in developed and developing markets. After reviewing all available possibilities, we derived three forms of data triangulation: sequential data triangulation, concurrent data triangulation and multiple data triangulation.

1. Sequential data triangulation: Data collection and analysis occurs in two phases. One data type or source is followed by another, and interpretation is based on the entire findings.
2. Concurrent data triangulation: Data collection and analysis of two data types occurs concurrently in two phases, minimizing the time required compared to the sequential approach. The preliminary objective of this method is to achieve confirmation while reducing the inherent weaknesses of one data type or source.
3. Multiple data triangulation: More than two data sources to investigate the same phenomenon can be named “multiple data triangulation”. It can also be applied to a sequential or concurrent process.

The weaknesses of data triangulation are investigator or respondent biases, difficulties in dealing with big data sets, and the additional cost and time requirements. These weaknesses could be minimized but not easily eliminated. It is possible to classify surveys and interviews where the people under investigation are aware of the experiment. However, situational and personal biasness in the results could still result from other reasons. As Webb et al. (1966) suggested, it is possible to use unobtrusive data sources (archival records like memos, simple observation, videos, recordings) to achieve more comprehensive and complete data triangulation.

Methodological Triangulation

Campbell and Fiske (1959) laid the foundations of methodological triangulation by identifying the multi-method technique as an important tool to achieve validation and convergence. Denzin (1970) interpreted this approach as “between or across methods triangulation”, a view later supported by Jick (1979) and Thurmond (2001). Jick (1979) defined this

approach as the most popular method of methodological triangulation, as it is based on the use of multiple methodologies (qualitative and quantitative) to investigate a similar phenomenon. The second version of methodological triangulation is known as “within-method triangulation”, where multiple data collection is carried out less than one method, thereby achieving higher internal consistency or reliability (Denzin, 1970). The use of the within-method is strongly recommended by Jick (1979), since a quantitative method (such as in a survey) allows the acquisition of multiple scales or indices of a single concept. It is thus possible to identify this approach as a type of data triangulation. Within-method triangulation is also identified as a useful cross-validation tool by Onwuegbuzie et al. (2010). In a qualitative study, the within-method is able to combine in-depth interviews and separate observations in the same study. Methodological triangulation also reduces deficiencies and biases which could derive from a single method approach. Additionally, the strengths of one method could compensate for the weaknesses of others.

Unlike other triangulation approaches, methodological triangulation has been applied to management research areas such as marketing, human resources, operations management and business administration, but very rarely to financial studies. The problem often starts at the first step of analysis: namely to choose between to apply the qualitative or quantitative method first, or both concurrently.

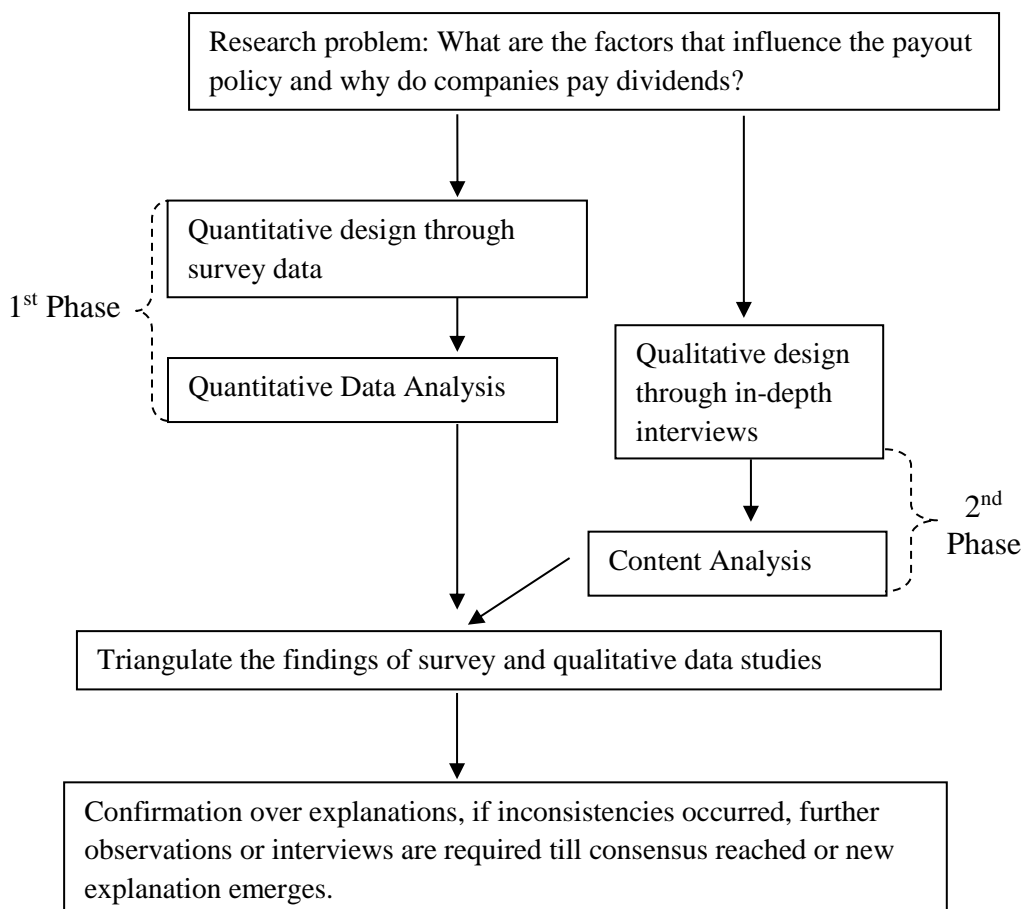
Creswell (2009) emphasized four important factors when planning a mixed method procedure; timing, weighting, mixing and theorizing. Timing refers determining when to conduct qualitative and quantitative data collection, and whether to proceed with sequential or concurrent phases. If sequential phases are the preferred choice, the decision whether to proceed firstly with

qualitative or quantitative study in the research process will depend on the researcher's intention. When qualitative data are collected first, the intention is to explore the phenomenon with a large sample. When data are collected concurrently, implementation should be simultaneous (Creswell, 2009). Weighting refers to whether priority is given to quantitative or qualitative design, which depends on factors such as researcher's interest, audience and purpose of the study. Mixing refers to establishing how to mix data collection and analysis based on multiple methods. According to Creswell (2009), mixing could occur in three phases: connected mixed methods, integrating data and embedding data. In the connected mixed methods, either qualitative or quantitative data collection or analysis occurs first, followed by as is followed by the other approach. In the integrating stage, researchers proceed with qualitative and quantitative data collection concurrently, followed by simultaneous analysis. Under the embedded method, the aim is to collect one type of data, while the other type only provides supporting information. Theorizing (or the "transforming lens") refers to the use of theoretical perspective to guide the entire research study: this entails the operationalization of concepts, the sampling procedure, data collection methods, determining potential implications of the study, among other aspects. Turner et al.'s (2013) exemplifies a study guided by multiple perspectives including signaling theory, catering theory, agency theory, liquidity hypothesis and behavioral explanations. Even though these four factors (timing, weighting, mixing and theorizing) do not exhaust all the possibilities, six major methodological designs were derived from them by Creswell (2009):

1. Sequential Explanatory Design: Quantitative data collection and analysis takes place, followed by qualitative data collection and analysis. Finally, an interpretation of the entire analysis is conducted by the researcher. It

is useful when researchers show a strong quantitative intention. For instance, Brave et al. (2005) conducted a study through sequential explanatory design to investigate the payout policy. Since the researchers have strong quantitative leaning and unexpected results have arisen within the paradigm, Brave et al. (2005) proceeded with the sequential explanatory design by surveying 384 financial executives followed by 23 qualitative in-depth interviews. The application of mixed methodology is appropriate for their study since the research questions embedded with both qualitative and quantitative aspects (why and what). The drawback of this method is the time involved in the two separate phases, but it contributes to confirmation, completeness and convergence of results.

Figure 3. Possible application of a sequential explanatory strategy



Source: Authors' own.

2. Sequential Exploratory Design: Qualitative data collection and analysis takes place first, followed by quantitative data collection and analysis, and finally, by an interpretation of the entire results.

Jiraporn et al.'s (2015) study exemplifies this approach. They investigated dividend policy and managerial ability through a quantitative study using proxy variables, and results showed that more talented managers are more likely to pay dividends. Since it is a new investigation in dividend policy which required further validation and confirmation, we suggest that the next step should be to proceed with a qualitative study (interviews) followed by a study of quantitative method (survey), which could provide sound support for a new hypothesis.

3. Sequential Transformative Design: Sequential data collection guided by a strong theoretical backing.

There are numerous theories explaining the dividend puzzle, but Turner et al. (2013) only addressed a limited number such as the information asymmetry, catering, agency, prospect theories and liquidity hypotheses. Their study could have rested on a stronger theoretical framework by amalgamating also the life cycle, free cash flow theories and rent extraction hypotheses, which also attempt to explain the dividend puzzle.

4. Concurrent Triangulation Strategy: In order to achieve analytical convergence, confirmation and corroboration, both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis should occur concurrently.

Creswell (2009) argued that through this strategy the inherent weaknesses of one method could be offset by the other.

Since there is no consensus regarding the best proxy for corporate social performance, and contradicting results in the findings, Soana's (2013) study should be readdressed under the concurrent triangulation strategy. This would require qualitative interviews and field survey concurrently, thereby offset the weaknesses of one method through the other.

5. Concurrent Embedded Strategy: Unlike the concurrent triangulation strategy, the concurrent embedded strategy focusses on a single phase of both qualitative and quantitative data collection. This approach therefore is less time-, effort- and value-consuming than the mixed method. Priority is given to one method based on researcher's primary aims, while the other method plays a supporting role.

An embedded strategy instead of concurrent triangulation results in a supportive role by the qualitative strategy.

6. Concurrent Transformative Strategy: Both quantitative and qualitative data collection occurs at the same time in a single phase, and mixing of evidence occurs during the connecting, integrating or embedding stages.

Wang et al. (2016) carried out a study to investigate the catering theory using a proxy variable to explain the investors' demand or preference. Since their study is driven by a theoretical model and further confirmation is required to explain investors' preference (behavioral explanation), we recommend the concurrent transformative strategy where the researchers could have data collection at one phase (qualitative interviews of the investors, quantitative survey on

investors) and mixing data during the connection, integration or embedding stages.

Theoretical Triangulation

Theoretical triangulation refers to the application of multiple theories or hypotheses concurrently, with the purpose of explaining the same phenomenon (Hopper and Hoque, 2006). The intention is to apply multiple lenses and indicators in conceptualization, to provide sound theoretical support to research design and analysis. Hopper and Hoque (2006) warned that no single theory could enjoy an explanatory monopoly. Lounsbury (2008) argued that researchers tend to use multiple theories to obtain a diversity of actors and practices in their studies. As Hoque et al. (2013) argued, plurality in theory provides complementarity, which adds to the depth and richness of the studied phenomenon. At this point, we emphasize two major paradigms, namely historical sociology and sociological history (Fischer 1995). Rowlinson and Hassard (2013) described historical sociology as historical neo-institutionalism, and sociological history as neo-institutionalist history. They interpreted historical neo-institutionalism as a ‘theory-driven’ approach, and neo - institutionalist history as ‘story-driven’. Even though researchers in neo-institutionalist history are classified as story-driven (drawing on history to illustrate theory, as is frequently the case with finance researchers), Kieser (1994) proposed that theory could be advanced through the integration of history, as exemplified by the rent extraction hypothesis developed by Shleifer and Vishny (1997) from the free cash flow hypothesis of dividends (Jensen, 1986). Rowlinson and Hassard (2013) argued that neo-institutionalists should focus on applying theory to illuminate history, instead of focusing on historical data to elucidate theory.

When conducting theoretical triangulation, the major problem is deciding which theoretical perspectives are suitable for the study. There are both competing and complementary theories of a given phenomenon. Regarding the dividend puzzle, there are two major competing theoretical perspectives; dividend relevance and irrelevance. By merely looking at the theoretical assumptions (related to the social reality) and appropriateness, researchers could proceed by combining complementary theories (signalling theory, free cash flow theory, catering theory, agency theory, life cycle theory among others) for confirmation, rejection or modification of the argument. Hoque and Hopper (1997) identified an alternative approach, namely to conduct a pilot study based on different perspectives, and to select the most appropriate theories explaining the research puzzle.

Moreover, Hopper and Hoque (2006) identified two types of theoretical triangulation guiding research. Theories with similar epistemological assumptions are called “within-same tradition”, but the problem arises with “out of the tradition” arguments. Hoque et al. (2013) argued that the core assumptions regarding ontology, epistemology and human nature provide the rationale for the particular ways of implementing theoretical triangulation in practise. They argued that proper justifications are required when selecting multiple theories, and that they are particularly useful when researchers hold multi-layers of insights on the phenomenon. Finally, we emphasize the four interrelated selection criteria of theories in triangulation introduced by Covalleski et al. (2003) for deciding between competing and compatible explanations. First, variable names and meanings should be in line with the theories; second, explanations of causal process with different perspectives should be consistent; third different theoretical perspectives should be based on the same unit of analysis (individual or firm level); and fourth theories should entail causal-model forms. Furthermore, if researchers proceed with

multiple sources of data (data triangulation), they are able increase the accuracy of their judgments and will be closer to attaining consensus over explanations.

Investigator Triangulation

Thurmond (2001) described investigator triangulation as a type of triangulation which requires more than one observer, interviewer, investigator or data analyst whose primary responsibility is to collect and interpret data without prior discussion with others. Eventually the findings are amalgamated based on the consensus amongst the investigators. Denzin (1970) argued that this approach provides greater credibility to observations while increasing trust over findings. The benefits of investigator triangulation are: establishing cross-investigator confirmation, minimizing intrinsic biases of investigators, strengthening validity and reliability, and ultimately increasing the robustness of findings. It is important to notice that reduction in bias may sometimes undermine the objectivity of findings, as it may be caused by a resistance to new or unknown facts. It is thus suggested to match investigator triangulation to one or more alternative triangulation methods, and to allocate experts on qualitative and quantitative methods as investigators. Hence, it is possible to conduct any kind of triangulation study (data or methodology) by selecting two or more experts on qualitative and quantitative methods as investigators, thereby overcoming the gaps arisen from a single method. When multiple triangulation methods are used in a single study, it is known as “multiple triangulation”.

How to proceed with data analysis in a triangulated research?

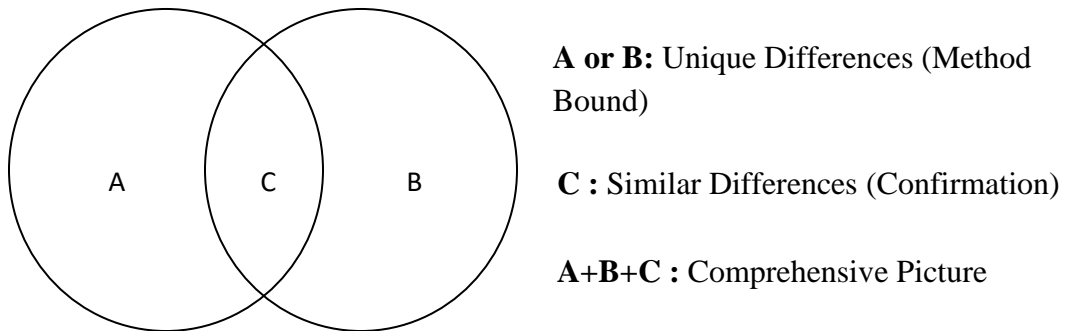
Researchers should revise their conceptual framework to include data, investigator, methodological or multiple triangulation, and thereby achieve outcome higher level of theoretical pluralism. Each question or objective in a

study should be investigated with the aim of achieving confirmation and comprehension of the findings of each strategy (Thurmond, 2001). The seminal study by Dunning et al. (2008) was based on a mixed method approach to quality of life (QoL) and rested on a different philosophical paradigm (geography). They employed a sound methodological approach combining face to face qualitative interviews and a quantitative survey. They properly proceeded with confirmation and comprehension procedures according to stated research questions and objectives.

Confirmation is defined as the convergence of two data sets based on the operationalization of two available approaches. Even though researchers use various statistical tools for confirmation of findings derived from two methodological approaches, problems have arisen when quantifying qualitative data, such as single case findings (outliers), or a non-existing or non-identified code (Thurmond, 2001). In order to avoid such difficulties, Mitchell (1986) introduced “conceptual validation” as an alternative approach whereby logical patterns of relationships among variables are investigated in both quantitative and qualitative methods. Then revised hypotheses are generated and tested in order to overcome gaps derived from the mixed methodology. Mixing of qualitative and quantitative findings leads to increased comprehension, which accelerates the understanding of the phenomenon (Morse, 2003).

The difference between confirmation and comprehension is demonstrated by Mitchell (1986) as shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Confirmation and Comprehension.



Source: Adapted from Mitchell (1986).

Even though confirmation refers to similarities of findings (or similar differences), comprehension refers to the total findings (which also include unique differences). If there are unique differences in findings, the two methodologies must be revised in terms of the dimension and indicator level characterizing the whole research process, including wording, coding and conceptual validation. Mitchell (1986) observed that confirmation and comprehension of concepts are not mutually exclusive, which corroborates Dunning et al. (2008) observations. Sometimes, the lack of confirmation may lead to increased insights on the phenomenon, which would not have been achieved from a single method (Dunning et al., 2008)

Conclusion and Practical Implications

In this study, the ways and means of applying triangulation approaches in finance research have been comprehensively and critically reviewed. In addition, we highlighted its benefits, modes of reducing weaknesses, and importance of congruence, completeness and divergence. As a concluding remark, we argue that applying triangulation may promote a consensus on prevailing issues in financial phenomena that remain after decades (such as the capital structure puzzle). Moreover, we suggest that finance researchers

should justify their selection of relevant methodology, eliminate convenient methodology selection biases, and minimize the inherent weaknesses of the selected methodology.

In summary, it is possible to apply the triangulation approach to finance research in five ways: data triangulation, methodological triangulation, theoretical triangulation, investigator triangulation and multiple triangulation. Despite numerous challenges and issues faced by researchers, it is possible to propose a creation of a new hybrid discipline in finance research merging incongruent binaries within the same tradition. This new discipline would contribute to reducing the quantitative-qualitative methodological divide, while bridging the gaps between dissimilar areas in finance.

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Importance of Regional Integration for Economic Development; Comparative Study of ASEAN and SAARC

K.M.Hashan Viraj Wijesinghe

Postgraduate Student, Department of International Relations,

Faculty of Arts, University of Colombo

Abstract

Today we are living in such a highly complicated and interdependent world where no country can remain isolated. Since the end of the Second World War, regional cooperation and integration has become a common phenomenon across the world. SAARC and ASEAN have been two such regional groupings which have been created with the prime objective of attaining greater economic cooperation and integration. However, in terms of achievements, SAARC and ASEAN remain at completely two different levels. On one hand there is Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), which has made great strides in terms of regional cooperation while there is also South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), whose own future is at doubt. Against this backdrop, the study looks into how well ASEAN has able to perform in terms of regional cooperation and integration, while it also looks into where SAARC has underperformed with special focus on economic cooperation. The main objective of this study is to understand the importance of economic cooperation and integration for economic development. A comparison would make it possible to better understand the dos and don'ts of becoming successful in regional economic integration. This is a desk research based on secondary data. As this study is based on economic aspect of regional integration, it shall take in to consideration aspects like trade volumes, investments and tourist arrivals etc. the study has underscored the importance of enhancing intra-regional trade, investments and tourism and the role of the leader within a

regional entity as the main pillars of intra-regional economic success, while it also calls for the opportunities of initiating inter regional cooperation.

Key words: *Regional Integration, ASEAN, SAARC, Economic Development*

Introduction

Today we are living in a highly globalized and sophisticated world where no country can remain isolated. Thus, regional cooperation and regional integration have occupied greater prominence and relevance in contemporary world politics. Especially since 1945, the number of regional grouping or organizations grew significantly. Regional cooperation has been identified as one of the main strategies which can be used to solve common political, economic, scientific and socio-cultural issues faced by countries in a particular geographical area. Looking at various regional organizations which are there today, we can observe that the formation of regional set ups has been greatly successful in bringing historically hostile countries on a common platform. The classic example for this would be the European Union (EU). According to Chowdhury & Mamta, cooperation among the neighbors not only strengthen the economic and financial sectors via optimal utilization of natural and human resources but also enhances greater political stability and social and cultural cooperation between member nations (2005, p.24). Looking at the overall performance of any regional organization, statistics show that the establishment of such organizations has enhanced the volume of trade and investment which have eventually contributed towards greater economic success of the vast majority of countries around the world. Regional economic cooperation occurs in various forms and degrees, and is in general aimed at increasing cross border linkages and deepening interpenetration of economic activity for the mutual benefit of economies within a geographic region (UNCTAD, 2007, p.53). In fact, intra- regional

trade expansion is one of the efficient ways of integrating to the much larger international economy as the countries become more competitive both in terms of input use and cost effective production of output (Chowdhury & Mamta, 2005, p.24).

Thus, this particular study shall focus on the economic impact of regional integration. For this purpose, the study shall make a comparative study of two regional organizations, namely, South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) and Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). The main rationale behind choosing ASEAN for this study is considering what all major regional set ups have achieved so far, their willingness to work together as a single entity, ASEAN has maintained high standards. Looking at the current situation in the European Union (EU) which was used to consider as the champions of regional integration, its future remains doubtful. Especially with the United Kingdom's decision to leave the EU, the future of the organization is now in uncharted waters. In contrast, ASEAN is marching forwards with great success. Today, ASEAN is the role model we can look into when it comes to regional integration in the developing world. The rationale behind selecting SAARC for the study is multidimensional. First, as a regional grouping, SAARC has not been successful, especially in terms of economic integration. It's more fragile and its own existence has become doubtful. Against this backdrop, on one hand there is ASEAN, a role model for regional integration and on the other hand, there is SAARC, which has not been able to attain the success of regional integration. A comparison would make it understand the dos and don'ts of becoming successful in regional economic cooperation and integration. As given in the topic, this study shall be limited to the economic aspects of regional integration. Regional integration can be attained in both political and economic spheres and such integration could benefit wide areas of

interests which include political, economic, socio-cultural etc. under economic integration the study shall focus on the inter dependent nature of trade, investments and tourism sectors of economic integration.

Problem Statement

At its inception, both the regions were facing with very identical issues which include both intra-regional as well as inter-state issues. At those times, both the regions were drenched in suspicion, turmoil and political instability. From an economic perspective, high levels of poverty and unemployment, stagnant economic growth rates, low level of international trade were common to both regions. However, ASEAN has come long way since then. Today the region of Southeast Asia, through ASEAN has able to achieve great economic stability and prosperity showcasing how economic cooperation can benefit both individual states as well as the entire region. On the other, there is SAARC, which is lagging behind in all spheres of regional cooperation. Thus, a comparative study of ASEAN and SARRC would help answer the question how economic cooperation can benefit both individual states as well as the region.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study will be **to analyze, evaluate and understand the importance of regional integration for economic development of both individual states as well as the region as a whole.** Apart from that, the study shall also attempt to; (1) Understand how ASEAN has become successful as a regional entity amidst various intra-regional and external issues, (2) Evaluate and understand the reasons for the underperformance of SAARC as a regional organization in the context of achieving economic integration for economic development and (3) Identify

the opportunities and strategies which SAARC can use to enhance intra-regional economic relations which would eventually assist the region to attain great economic success.

Methodology

This particular study is a comparative study of two regional organizations namely, SAARC and ASEAN. A qualitative research in nature and the data will be collected through secondary means including book, journals, reports, surveys, websites, newspapers etc. As this study is based on economic aspect of regional integration, it shall take in to consideration aspects like trade volumes, investments and tourists arrivals etc. the study shall compare SAARC and ASEAN under these economic criteria, how they have performed in order to understand the level of integration they have attained while it also focuses on the level of impact made by these numbers on the economic development of individual states belong to SAARC and ASEAN in order to understand impact of regional integration on economic development of both individual countries and region as a whole.

Literature Review

Today, regional integration has occupied a prominent place in world politics. While forms of regional theory were already in existence, specific study of the phenomenon began with a focus on Europe in the early 1950s, shortly after the end of the world war 2 (Kolovos,2010,p.03). Regional economic cooperation occurs in various forms and degrees, and is in general aimed at increasing cross border linkages and deepening interpenetration of economic activity for the mutual benefit of economies within a geographic region (UNCTAD, 2007, p. 53).According to the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), regional

cooperation brings many of the same benefits as multilateralism, but on a small scale. First, it enables participating countries to overcome the small size of their domestic markets and achieve economies of scale and greater specialization in production, thus increasing the competitiveness of their products. Secondly, access to a larger market enables developing countries both to expand existing industries and to set up new export industries, diversifying exports and reducing their vulnerability to setbacks in a specific product market. Thirdly, regional cooperation can enhance the capacity of developing countries to meet emerging challenges, including the application of new technologies. Fourthly, it is increasingly clear that regional trade facilitation measures offer significant benefits by reducing the cost of transactions across international borders and removing non-border obstacles (UNESCAP, 2004, p.24). According to the United Nations Development Program, regional economic integration is much broader than efforts simply to liberalize trade. It can also include investments in regional infrastructure, harmonization of regulations and standards, common approaches to macroeconomic policy, management of shared natural resources, and greater labour mobility (UNDP, 2011, p.03). With regard to the regional integration of ASEAN, strengthening regional ties in Southeast Asia-the potential benefits of larger markets of 570 million people that bring about economies of scale and reduced transaction cost will enhance the competitiveness of the region (Tanaka, 2009, p.02). Making a comparative study of SAARC and ASEAN, Siddika concludes, from regional stability and security, ASEAN is now moving to regional economic integration and cooperation which is another step of their success. Neither in terms of economic cooperation nor in terms of promotion of peace and understanding there have been no signs of regional cooperation in SAARC (2013, p.73)

Analysis

Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation are two regional set ups came into existence at different times periods for both identical and different reasons. Looking at ASEAN, which was created in 1967 by its founding members namely, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand came into being at a time when the whole of Southeast Asian region was drenched in political instability, suspicion and insecurity. It was a time when the entire region was overshadowed by a number of severe intra- regional conflicts and domestic upheavals created largely due to communist insurgents. ASEAN's primary purpose was to create an environment by which each state's survival could be ensured through the fostering of regional stability and limiting competition between them (Siddika, 2013, p.72). Today, ASEAN has become one of the most successful regional organizations in the world and undoubtedly the most successful one in Asia. Its membership has expanded to ten with Brunei, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Vietnam also joining the grouping. Today, ASEAN has the 6th largest economy in the world and 3rd largest in Asia, with a combined GDP of US\$ 2.55 trillion. Furthermore, ASEAN share in the world GDP has almost doubled from 3.3% in 1967 to 6.2% in 2016. Over the past two decades, ASEAN has been the leader of East Asian trade, economic and security integration. ASEAN has been the only organization constantly focused on regional integration (Kurlantzick, 2012, p.04). ASEAN as a regional grouping is striving to attain the objectives of accelerating the economic growth, social progress and cultural development in the region, promoting regional peace and stability, promoting active collaboration and mutual assistance etc. On the other hand, SAARC, established in 1985 with seven member states namely, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka today has a total

membership of eight with Afghanistan joining the grouping in 2007. The main objectives of SAARC includes, promoting the welfare of the people of South Asia and improve their quality of life, accelerate economic growth, social progress and cultural development of the region, promote and strengthen collective self- reliance among the countries of South Asia etc. Looking at both of these regional groupings, the objectives are more or less the same. Moreover, being geographically located with close proximity (Image 1) both the regions encounter similar economic issues like poverty, unemployment etc.

Image 1: Geographical location of South Asia and Southeast Asia.



Source: <http://mrethiergeo.weebly.com/south--southeast-asia.html>

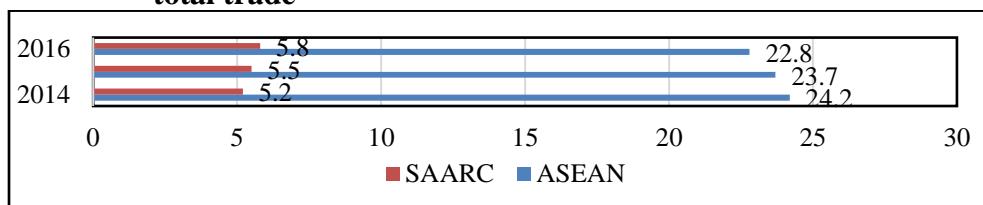
However, the level of economic success attained by these regional groupings has vast differences. While ASEAN has attained so much success in terms of economic integration, SAARC's progress is not any means satisfactory. Comparing the economic statistics, especially trade, investments and tourism, ASEAN has performed, exceptionally well compared to SAARC. As given in the Table 1, compared to SAARC, ASEAN has performed well or rather outplayed SAARC in terms of intra-regional trade, intra- regional Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) and intra-regional tourist arrivals.

Table 1: Intra- Regional trade, Investment and Tourist arrivals in SAARC and ASEAN.

| | Movement in Trade and Investment | | Movement in Capital | | People movement | | |
|--------------------|----------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| | Trade (%) 2016 | FDI (%) 2016 | Equity Holding (%) 2016 | Bond Holding (%) 2016 | Migration (%) 2015 | Tourism (%) 2015 | Remittances (%) 2016 |
| Within Sub Regions | | | | | | | |
| Southeast Asia | 22.8 | 23.7 | 7.4 | 7.9 | 34.1 | 69.5 | 14.3 |
| South Asia | 5.8 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 2.2 | 26.2 | 11.9 | 9.2 |

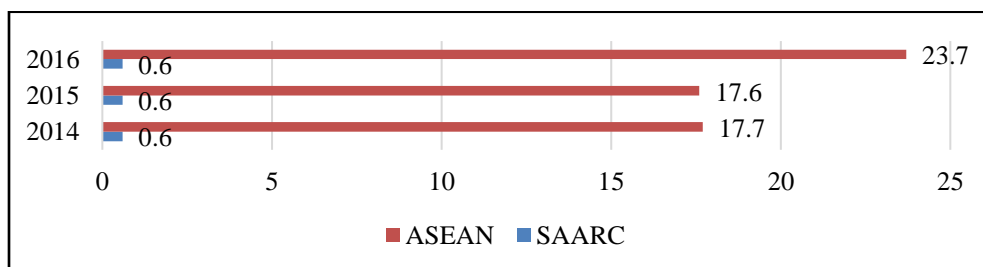
Source: Created by Author based on Asian Economic Integration Report 2017- Asian Development Bank

Graph 1: Intra regional trade of SAARC and ASEAN as percentage of total trade



Source: Created by Author based on Asian Economic Integration Report 2017- Asian Development Bank

Graph 2: Intra regional investment of SAARC and ASEAN as a percentage of total investment inflows.



Source: Created by Author based on Asian Economic Integration Report 2017- Asian Development Bank

As given in Table 1, the volume of intra-regional trade as a percentage of total trade in Southeast Asia in 2016 stood 22.8% while the corresponding figure for SAARC was just 5.8%. Here what matters is the consistency. Looking at graph 01, intra-regional trade continues to remain at a consistent position. In other world over the last few years, more than 1/5 of Southeast Asian trade has been intra-regional. When it comes to intra-regional investments also ASEAN is far ahead of SAARC. Looking at the statistics, the volume of intra-regional investments as a percentage of total investments in Southeast Asia in 2016 was 23.7% while the corresponding figure for South Asia was under 1%.

When it comes to trade, the intra-regional trade among the ten Southeast Asian countries is defined and shaped by the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) which was signed in 1992 ASEAN Summit in Singapore, while South Asian Free Trade Area (SAFTA) which was signed in 2006, replacing South Asian Preferential Trade Agreement (SAPTA) plays the main role in enhancing trade in South Asia. Going back to ASEAN FTA, it is important to understand how individual states are been benefitted through enhanced intra-regional trade relations.

Table 2: Top 10 export partners of Thailand 2016

| Country | Export Volume (US\$ Billion) | % of total Thai exports |
|--------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| United States | 24.4 | 11.4 |
| China | 23.6 | 11 |
| Japan | 20.4 | 9.6 |
| Hong Kong | 11.4 | 5.3 |
| Australia | 10.2 | 4.8 |
| Malaysia | 9.5 | 4.5 |
| Vietnam | 9.3 | 4.4 |
| Singapore | 8 | 3.8 |
| Indonesia | 8 | 3.8 |
| Philippines | 6.4 | 3 |

Source: Workman, D. (2017, February 06). Thailand's Top Trading Partners. Retrieved November 22, 2017, from <http://www.worldstopexports.com/thailands-top-import-partners/>

The above Table 2 indicates the top 10 export partners of Thailand. Looking at the table, out of the top 10 partners of Thailand, five are from the Southeast Asian region (as Bolded) and taking as a whole ASEAN region remains the main export market for Thailand (Table 3). This is a classic example to show how intra-regional trade has a positive impact on the economic success of individual states of the grouping.

Table 3: Top 5 Export destinations of Thailand (growth/share)-2016

| No | Country/Region | Amount | Share (%) |
|-----------|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| 01 | ASEAN 9 | 54.7 | 25.4 |
| 02 | USA | 24.5 | 11.4 |
| 03 | China | 23.8 | 11.1 |
| 04 | EU (27) | 22.0 | 10.2 |
| 05 | Japan | 20.6 | 9.6 |

Source: 2016 Economic Review Thailand. (2017); Netherlands Embassy Bangkok

This can be better understood through a comparison with a country which has low level of economic integration.

Table 4: Top 10 export partners of Sri Lanka- 2016

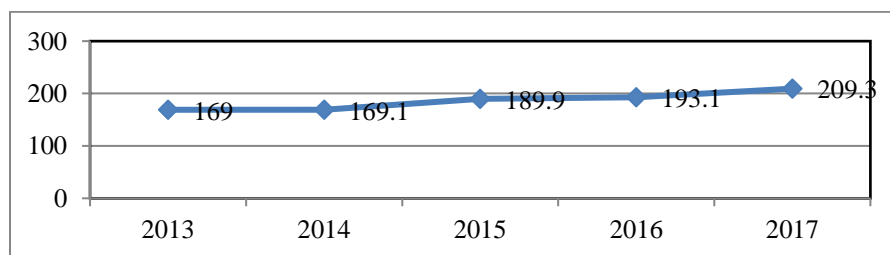
| Country | Export volume (US\$ million) | % of total Sri Lankan exports |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| United States | 2,810 | 27.3 |
| United Kingdom | 1,044 | 10.1 |
| India | 554 | 5.4 |
| Germany | 500 | 4.9 |
| Italy | 430 | 4.2 |
| Belgium-Luxembourg | 338 | 3.3 |
| United Arab Emirates | 234 | 2.3 |
| China, People's Republic of | 211 | 2.0 |
| Netherlands | 208 | 2.0 |
| Japan | 202 | 2.0 |

Source: Central Bank of Sri Lanka Annual Report -2016

The Table 4 indicates the top 10 export partners of Sri Lanka in 2016. Looking at the main export partners of Sri Lanka, there is only one country

from the region of South Asia (India). Looking at a glance, compared to Thailand, Sri Lanka has low level of intra-regional trade. Furthermore, according to the Central Bank, Sri Lanka's total value of exports to SAARC region remains only 8% of its total trade. Strengthening intra-regional trade has a number of advantages for an economy. To begin with, it essentially increases the volume of trade. Secondly, it diversifies the export markets. Comparing Thailand and Sri Lanka, out of the latter's total exports, more than 1/3 goes to two countries. However, on the other hand, strengthened intra-regional trade has helped Thailand to diversify its export markets. The benefits of promoting intra-regional trade are reflected by the continuous growth in the export sector of Thailand (Graph 03).

Graph 03: Thailand merchandise trade with world. (Euro billion)

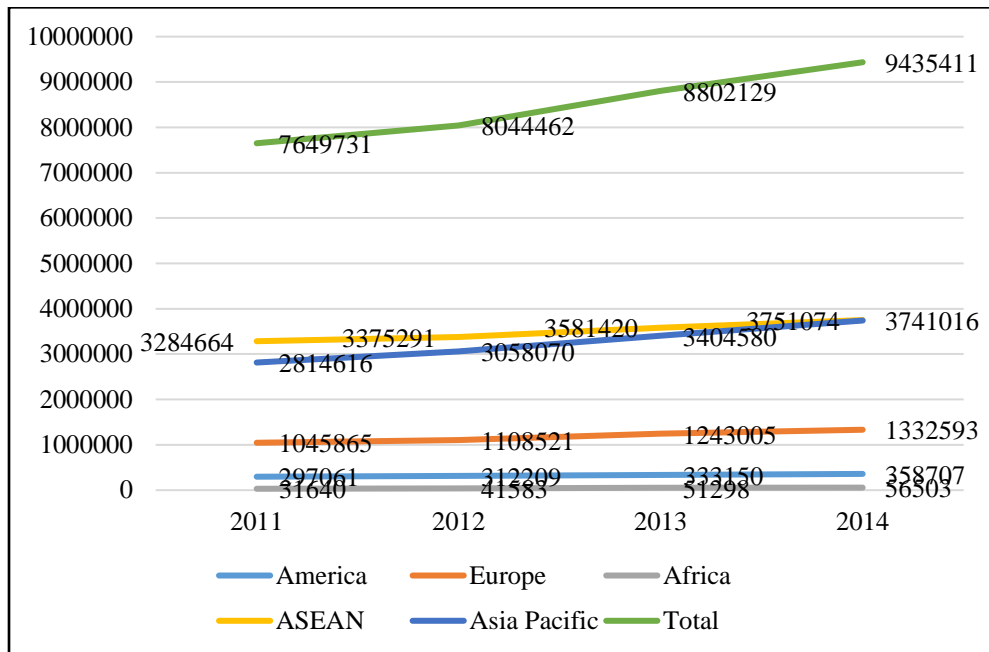


Source: European Commission Directorate General for Trade.

As shown in the above graph, the export volumes of Thailand have continued to grow fuelled by the strengthened intra-regional trade.

When it comes to tourism sector also, economic integration plays a critical role. This can be understood by evaluating Indonesia's performance in tourism sector.

Graph 04: Number of Foreign Visitor Arrivals to Indonesia by Country of Residence, 2011-2014



Source: Statistics Indonesia <https://www.bps.go.id/linkTabelStatistik/view/id/1388>

As indicated in the Graph 04, out of the total tourist arrivals of 9.4 million to Indonesia in 2014, 3.7 tourists have come from the ASEAN region. As a whole, ASEAN region is the largest tourists generating region for Indonesia, representing almost 40% of total tourist arrivals to Indonesia. Today, Indonesia has become a leading tourist destination in the world and its contribution to its economy is immense. For instance, the total contribution of Travel and Tourism to the GDP of Indonesia was USD 57.9 billion (6.2% of GDP) in 2016 (Table 5), and was forecast to rise by 4.3% in 2017. As given in the table below, in terms of travel and tourism's total contribution to GDP, Indonesia remains on the top with a value above the world average.

Table 5: Travel and Tourism's total contribution to GDP -2016 (US\$ Billions)

| Country | Value |
|------------------|-------------|
| China | 1000.7 |
| India | 208.9 |
| Australia | 136.2 |
| Thailand | 82.5 |
| Philippines | 60.1 |
| Indonesia | 57.9 |
| World Average | 57.3 |

Source: Travel & Tourism Economic Impact 2017 Indonesia-World Travel and Tourism Council

It is also important to underscore the success achieved by ASEAN in terms of strengthening its economic ties with the rest of the world. Over the past few years, ASEAN members have proliferated FTAs and broader Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) to facilitate trade and investment with key economic partners- and allow firms to boost competitiveness. As shown in Table 06, by the end of 2013, a total of 90 FTAs involving ASEAN countries were either signed, being negotiated or proposed (ADB, 2014, p.18)

Table 06: Status of ASEAN Free Trade Agreements (As of July 2013)

| Type | Signed | Under Negotiation | Proposed | Total |
|--------------|-----------|-------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Multilateral | 9 | 5 | 4 | 18 |
| Plurilateral | 2 | 10 | 3 | 15 |
| Bilateral | 29 | 14 | 14 | 57 |
| Total | 40 | 29 | 21 | 90 |

Source: ASEAN 2030: "Toward a Borderless Economic Community"- Asian Development Bank

Another prime reason for the success of ASEAN, which has gone low key, has been the role of Indonesia. Indonesia is perceived as a natural de facto leader of the International Organization of ASEAN since its establishment in

1967 (Putri, 2015, p.188). The reasons which have made Indonesia, the natural leader of ASEAN are obvious. It may be the geographical size, population, size of the economy, possession of resources; Indonesia is far ahead of the rest of the ASEAN (Table 7). It is also important to note that, Indonesia is the only ASEAN member in the G20.

Table 7: ASEAN population and economy by country (2016)

| Country | Population | | Economy | |
|------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| | In million | % share of ASEAN | GDP in billion (USD) | % of total ASEAN |
| Brunei | 0.423 | 0.07 | 11.40 | 0.45 |
| Cambodia | 15.762 | 2.47 | 20.02 | 0.78 |
| Indonesia | 261.115 | 40.89 | 932.26 | 36.49 |
| Laos | 6.758 | 1.06 | 15.90 | 0.62 |
| Malaysia | 31.187 | 4.88 | 296.36 | 11.60 |
| Myanmar | 52.885 | 8.28 | 67.43 | 2.64 |
| Philippines | 103.320 | 16.18 | 304.90 | 11.94 |
| Singapore | 5.607 | 0.88 | 296.97 | 11.62 |
| Thailand | 68.864 | 10.78 | 406.84 | 15.93 |
| Vietnam | 92.701 | 14.52 | 202.62 | 7.93 |

Source: ASEAN economies infographic: comparison of ASEAN economies by nominal GDP <https://aseanup.com/asean-infographics-population-market-economy/>

Despite the overwhelming strength it possesses, its foreign policy has been designed in such a way it cooperates with the rest of ASEAN rather than dictating the terms. That's what has made Indonesia's role so unique. Looking at the economic aspect, Indonesia is a larger market for the ASEAN countries' exports. Indonesia also plays a vital role with regard to enhancing the regional integration process of ASEAN. In fact, improved *role and leadership in politics and security, economy, socio-culture, and cooperation with dialogue partners in the process of integration of ASEAN community*, was a strategic objective Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Indonesia which was expected to achieve from 2010 to 2014. Thus, Indonesia's leadership and role would always be vital for the success of ASEAN.

Findings and Suggestions

Considering the information and statistics, the study found the positive relation between regional integration and economic success of individual states. Being in a regional grouping would make a country economically vibrant and stable. When it comes to regional economic integration, there are several factors which have to be taken in to consideration. To begin with, economic integration would have less stability and sustainability unless the regional groupings possess the below criteria. First and foremost, the members within a grouping should trust and understand each other. This is something which we see within ASEAN and do not see in SAARC.

When it comes to trade and investment, trade facilitation plays a pivotal role. Trade facilitation can be simply identified as all the steps that can be taken to smooth and facilitate the flow of trade (OECD, 2005). As the definition suggests trade facilitation is a key aspect of economic development and integration. Effective facilitation for trade and investment is pivotal for successful economic integration. When it comes to ASEAN, its desire to facilitate trade is reflected in a number of documents and agreement including ASEAN charter, ASEAN Vision 2025: Forging Ahead Together, ASEAN Economic Community Blueprint 2025, ASEAN Trade in Goods Agreement (ATIGA) etc. As described in ASEAN Trade in Good Agreement and the ASEAN Economic Community, ASEAN trade facilitation shall focus on the following areas.

- i. Customs and Transport facilitation.
- ii. Transparency of trade regulation and procedures.
- iii. Standards and conformance
- iv. Private sector engagement and business facilitation

When it comes to South Asia, trade facilitation remains at a very poor level. This can be understood by referring the Table 8.

Table 8: Number of documents required for import and export-2014

| South Asia | | | Southeast Asia | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Country | No .of documents for import | No. of documents for export | Country | No .of documents for import | No. of documents for export |
| Afghanistan | 10 | 10 | Indonesia | 6 | 3 |
| Bhutan | 11 | 9 | Myanmar | 8 | 8 |
| India | 5 | 3 | Philippines | 7 | 6 |
| Maldives | 9 | 7 | Singapore | 3 | 3 |
| Nepal | 11 | 11 | Brunei | 5 | 5 |
| Pakistan | 5 | 5 | Cambodia | 9 | 8 |
| Sri Lanka | 7 | 7 | Lao PDR | 10 | 10 |
| Bangladesh | 7 | 5 | Malaysia | 4 | 4 |
| | | | Thailand | 5 | 5 |
| | | | Vietnam | 8 | 5 |
| Average | 8.1 | 7.1 | | 6.5 | 5.7 |

Source: by author based on <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/IC.IMP.DOCS>

Table 8 is a good example to show the differences exist between ASEAN and SARRC when it comes to facilitating trade. As given in the table, the average number of documents needed in SAARC region for import product is 8.1 while the corresponding figure for ASEAN is 6.5. Meanwhile, when it comes to exports the average number of documents needed in the SAARC region is 6.5 while the corresponding figure for ASEAN is 5.7. Looking at a country like Singapore, it requires a minimum number of documents for import-export procedures. In return, this has helped the country to enhance trade volumes and become successful in world trade.

Considering the level of economic integration which these regions have able to achieve, there is so much which SAARC should do to promote regional integration while ASEAN too has space to enhance regional integration. The study finds that much more can be achieved by ASEAN and SAARC

working together. There are so much reasons and justifications that will encourage a SAARC-ASEAN platform. Some of the major reasons which support strengthening SAARC-ASEAN cooperation includes; geographical proximity and historical ties between the two regions, shared social and cultural identity, existence of SAARC and ASEAN, success attained by ASEAN, existing ASEAN-India relations, willingness of state leaders to work on a common platform and strong and resilient economic progress attained by the two regions. Among these positives, the willingness of state leaders is an encouraging factor for strengthening SAARC- ASEAN relations. No cooperation can be attained in any field unless the leaders are willing to commit for that. As far as strengthening SAARC-ASEAN relations are concerned, there is greater willingness from the side of state leaders in both the regions to strengthen ties with each other. Two of the best examples are the adaptation of Act East Policy by the current Indian premier Narendra Modi, and the speech delivered by the Prime Minister of Sri Lanka at the Indian Ocean Conference on 1st September 2016, at Shangri La Hotel, Singapore.

Making his opening statement at the ASEAN-India Summit 2015, the Indian Prime Minister stated;

“As always, ASEAN is providing both inspiration and leadership for regional cooperation and integration. And from India’s perspective, ASEAN values and leadership will remain central to integration across Asia and Pacific.”

Delivering the inaugural address on “Global Power Transition and the Indian Ocean” at the recently concluded Indian Ocean conference, Sri Lankan premier told;

“The cooperation and coordination between ASEAN and SAARC including Ramayana connection has given us strong cultural affinities. We have similar Governmental institutions and commercial practices. The English language is a link language. We have a huge cohort of youth more regionally conscious than their parents”

Furthermore, at the recently concluded 69th sessions of the World Health Organization (WHO) regional committee of Southeast Asia, Ranil Wickremesinghe proposed a common health program for countries in South Asia and ASEAN states. He opined;

“ASEAN and SAARC can join together to set up one common health program because diseases in countries such as Cambodia may be common to Sri Lanka as well. We can get together and provide a better health service and better life for our people in our regions”.

Against this backdrop, SAARC-ASEAN regional platform would be a better prospect in terms of strengthening and enhancing regional cooperation. SAARC in particular can be greatly benefitted through such an initiative.

Summary and Conclusion

Considering what has been discussed in the study, it is clear that regional economic integration boosts economic prosperity of both the region and individual states alike. As discussed, ASEAN countries have able to achieve great deal of success through integration. It can be trade, investment or tourism, ASEAN has done a commendable job as a regional grouping. Regional integration, as discussed should be dynamic, and ASEAN has been dynamic in its approach since its inception. It is moving forward. For example, as discussed they have widened the scope of integration from trade to investment and other areas. This is one major positive aspect which can be

observed in ASEAN. ASEAN countries have greater understanding and cooperation compared to SAARC which is reflected by the volumes of intra-regional trade, investments and tourist arrivals. As noted, one-fifth of ASEAN investments are made within ASEAN region. This is something SAARC has failed to do. Thus, in order to promote regional economic integration and yield results from that, any regional set up should focus on key areas like; mutual understanding and cooperation, connectivity, trade facilitation etc.

One key area which needs further study will be to discover areas where ASEAN and SAARC can work together. As said, leaders of the regions, SAARC in particular has understood the importance of these regional set ups working together. Thus, further study is required in that area. It can be a great platform for both regions, South Asia in particular to discover new paths and avenues of regional cooperation. As said before, people of both regions face identical issues, which need collective solutions. Thus, intra-regional cooperation would certainly help both regions to be benefitted alike. Furthermore, intra-regional tourism has been one of the major aspects which have enhanced tourism in Southeast Asian countries. Thus further research can be carried out in how South Asia can promote intra-regional tourism as well.

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