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Goal 16 of Agenda 2030 -Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions: A Case Study of Sri Lanka

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Abstract

The world community restated its commitment to sustainable development by advocating the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) at the United Nations Sustainable Development Summit on 25th September 2015. This agenda is an action plan for people, the planet and prosperity. Therefore, this paper deals with 2030 agenda sustainable development goal 16 as a necessary support for achieving peace, justice and building strong institutions in Sri Lanka. The aim of the study is to provide a comprehensive and detailed understanding of Sri Lanka's the current status and progress of Sri Lanka in relation to the SDGs goal 16 of Agenda 2030. The research problem will therefore seek to identify the unexplored challenges that need to be addressed in order to improve the implementation in goal 16 of the 2030 Agenda. This study will also discuss initiatives to achieve the goal 16 of SDGs in implementing the 2030 agenda. To ensure optimal reflection and evaluation, this paper uses a mixture of qualitative and quantitative data collection for analytical methods. Hence this paper argues that, it is essential to strengthen law enforcement institutions and appropriate monitoring mechanisms to ensure peace and justice in Sri Lanka.

Key Concepts: 2030 Agenda, SDGs goal 16, Peace, Justice, Strong Institutions and Sri Lanka

Introduction

2030 agenda for Sustainable Development adopted by the UN in September 2015 takes into account the role of local and regional governments in respect of the new Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which now replace the old Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), for the period 2015 to 2030. In this context, the new consensus that has emerged is that paths and strategies for development and public welfare are no longer appropriate, and governments and global institutions must therefore explore more appropriate strategies and paths for development.

Therefore, this study aims to provide a comprehensive and detailed understanding of Sri Lanka's current status and progress with respect to the SDGs 2030 goal 16 Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions in Sri Lanka. Goal 16 measures broad concepts that cannot be adequately captured by a single indicator. Therefore, the research problem aims to identify unexplored challenges faced so far in the implementation of goal 16 of the 2030 agenda. Also this study will discuss initiatives taken to achieving SDGs 16 goal in implementation of the 2030 agenda. This paper uses a mix of qualitative and quantitative data collection for analysis methods to ensure optimal reflection and evaluation. Both primary and secondary data collections tools will obtain from national and sectoral policy documents, statistical data and review of literature on SDGs. The SDG 16 goal much crucial since Sri Lanka confronted many setbacks as a result of the war that lasted almost three decades.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) declared by the United Nations in 2000, which Member States were expected to pursue in order to address the persistent problems of human development and persistent or even increasing political conflicts. The SDGs imply a transformation of social, economic and environmental conditions in across countries.

> The 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 169 targets which are announcing demonstrate the scale and ambition of this new universal Agenda. They seek to build on the Millennium Development Goals and complete what these did not achieve. They seek to realize the human rights of all and to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls. They are integrated and indivisible and balance the three dimensions of sustainable development: the economic, social and environmental (2030 Agenda Preamble, UN Resolution A/RES/70/1).

As reflected above 2030 agenda preamble, currently the promotion of sustainable development has become crucially important to address several key global and local challenges, namely climate change, increasing inequality in countries and across countries[1].

[1]Also see; Government Offices of Sweden. (2015). Goal 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions. Retrieved from http://www.government.se/government-policy/the-global-goals-and-the2030-Agenda-for-sustainable-development/goal-16-peace-justice-and-strong-institutions/

Goal 16: Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions

Under the Goal 16 of Agenda 2030 introduced that the threats of international homicide, violence against children, human trafficking and sexual violence are important to address to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development. They pave the way for the provision of access to justice for all and for building effective, accountable institutions at all levels (UN Resolution, A/RES/70/1).

While homicide and trafficking cases have seen significant progress over the past decade, there are still thousands of people at greater risk of intentional murder within Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa and around Asia. Children's rights violations through aggression and sexual violence continue to plague many countries around the world, especially as under-reporting and lack of data aggravate the problem (UN Resolution, A/RES/70/1).

To tackle these challenges and build more peaceful, inclusive societies, there needs to be more efficient and transparent regulations put in place and comprehensive, realistic government budgets. One of the first steps towards protecting individual rights is the implementation of worldwide birth registration and the creation of more independent national human rights institutions around the world (UN Resolution, A/RES/70/1). SDG 16 represents a great opportunity for ensuring multilateral action, focused on the people and founded in development, to prevent future violent conflict (Max, 2016)[2].

[2] Also see: Bennett, W., and Wheeler, T. (2015). Justice and peace go hand in hand – can't have one without the other. Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2015/oct/26/justice-peace-conflict-affected-societies.

Goal 16 Targets

16.1	Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere
16.2	End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children
16.3	Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all
16.4	By 2030, significantly reduce illicit financial and arms flows, strengthen the recovery and return of stolen assets and combat all forms of organized crime
16.5	Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms
16.6	Develop effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels
16.7	Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels
16.8	Broaden and strengthen the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance
16.9	By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration
16.10	Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements
16.A	Strengthen relevant national institutions, including through international cooperation, for building capacity at all levels, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime
16. B	Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development (UN Resolution, A/RES/70/1).

UN facts demonstrate that among the institutions most affected by corruption are the judiciary and police. Corruption, bribery, theft and tax evasion cost some US $1.26 trillion for developing countries per year; this amount of money could be used to lift those who are living on less than $1.25 a day above $1.25 for at least six years. Approximately 28.5 million primary school ages that are out of school live in conflict-affected areas and the proportion of prisoners held in detention without sentencing has remained almost constant in the last decade, at 31% of all prisoners (UN SDG 16, 2018). Therefore, rule of law and development have a significant interrelation and are mutually reinforcing, making it essential for sustainable development at the national and international level.

Goal 16: Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions in Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka the Sustainable Development Act enacted in October 2017 provides for formulating a national sustainable development policy and strategy. According to UN, 2018 voluntary national review Sri Lanka has placed "transformation towards a sustainable and resilient society" (UN member states report, 2018). The poverty rate has dropped to 4.1% in 2016 and country is reaching towards the upper middle income status with a per capita GDP of USD 4,066 in 2017. Unemployment rate stood below 5% for last seven years. Free education and health policies have resulted in high life expectancy (75 years) and high youth literacy (98.7%) rates (UN member states report, 2018). UN has recognized Sri Lanka among "high human development" achieved countries (UN member states report, 2018).

The Economic Policy of the Government outlines the vision setting the 'stage for a sustainable development journey' (Department of Statistics: 2017). Sri Lanka has taken a number of steps since the adoption of the

SDGs in 2016 to integrate and prioritize the implementation of the SDGs across sectors. This includes the establishment of a Parliamentary Select Committee on the Sustainable Development 2030 agenda, the establishment in 2015 of the Ministry of Sustainable Development and Wildlife, which serves as a focal point for the coordination and facilitation of the implementation of the SDG in Sri Lanka, and the adoption of the Sustainable Development Act in 2017. As a mark of Sri Lanka's commitment to achieving the SDGs, the country expressed its interest to present its first Voluntary National Review (VNR) at the July 2018 High Level Political Forum (HLPF) in 2017. The review was carried out by the Sri Lankan Institute for Policy Studies on behalf of the Government and in accordance with the UN Secretary - General's guidelines, which require a multi - stakeholder approach. The Parliamentary Select Committee also organized a conference on the use of data for SDGs. Sri Lanka's VNR assesses the current state of implementation of SDGs in the country, but also raises awareness and creates ownership of SDGs and VNR. While global SDG indicators have been defined for each of the goals, they are limited in scope. The Census and Statistics Department (DCS) is responsible for collecting data on SDG targets. In order to present the status of SDG indicators in Sri Lanka, the DCS published a report entitled "Sustainable Development Goals Indicators in Sri Lanka: 2017." This report provides a brief overview of the SDGs, the list of SDGs and the list of SDG targets and indicators for the 17 SDGs, proxy indicators and data on the availability of data on these indicators (Department of Statistics, 2017). The Sri Lankan government anticipates that the SDGs will be achieved by 2030 in order to meet the basic needs of the people, gradually alleviate poverty, eliminate all forms of discrimination and inequality, and establish a society based on social justice and human security.

As regards the 2030 agenda 16 objective, in recent years, the government has been increasingly critical of the effectiveness of public institutions in reversing negative trends and practices in relation to abuse of power, corruption, national reconciliation and justice. Also Sri Lanka, despite the end of the war in 2009, still struggles to achieve national reconciliation and the number of important steps has been taken to bring about much-needed institutional changes, paving the way for the establishment of a number of oversight bodies in such areas as human rights, law and order, public administration and elections in Sri Lanka. Therefore, below selection will examine how Sri Lanka up to present initiatives taken to achieving SDGs 16 goal in implementation of the 2030 agenda.

Goal 16 Current Status and Trends

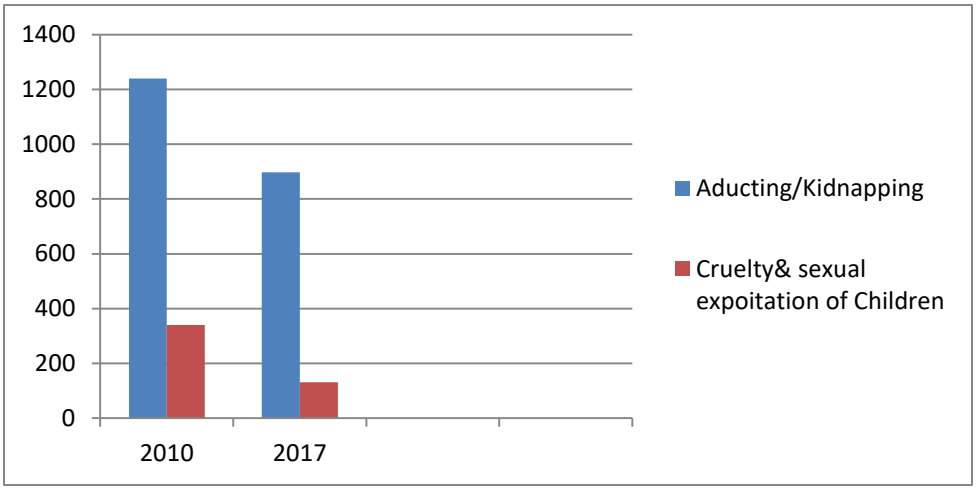
This section provides details on the SDG 16 with respect to the Sri Lankan context. The Department of Census and Statistics (DCS) provides status of SDG goals Indicators in Sri Lanka in order to investigate current status and trends. SDG 16 includes 12 targets and 23 indicators (Department of Statistics, 2017)[3]. Therefore, analytical evaluation this study will be obtaining statistical data from DSC and Police Department. Moreover, literature on SDGs national and sectoral policy documents also will be reviewed. However, data and information gap is a critical issue with related to Goal 16 as hidden data and unreported cases are quite high. The respective ministries are supposed to set their reform policies based on the data and information, data collection and reporting is crucial while going forward on achieving SDG 16 (Sri Lanka VNR Report, 2018)

Objective 16.1 of the SDG requires a significant reduction in all forms of violence and associated death rates. The number of grave crimes in 2017 d ecreased compared 2010 from 57560 to 35,987 (Sri Lanka Police Crime Trends data, 2009) Homicide/Abetment to commit suicide cases 2010 are 745 decreased in 2017 up to 452 (Sri Lanka Police Crime Trends data, 2009).

Target 16.2 calls for an end to abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against children. The number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population was 0.12 in 2016 (Department of Statistics, 2017). Abducting/ Kidnapping have dropped from 1239 in 2010 to 897 in 2017. Kidnapping has dropped from 1239 in 2010 to 897 in

[3]See for more details: The Department of Census and Statistics (December 2017) *Status of Sustainable Development Goals Indicators in Sri Lanka: 2017*.

2017. Cruelties to children and sexual exploitation of children have fallen from 340 in 2010 to 131 in 2017 (Sri Lanka Police Crime Trends data, 2010 &2017).



Sources: Author prepared-data from Department of Census and Statistics and Sri Lanka Police Crime Trends

On 15 June 2015, Sri Lanka ratified the Palermo Protocol on the prevention, suppression and punishment of trafficking in persons, in particular women and children, and through coordinated efforts by a task force of stakeholders led by the Ministry of Justice, substantial progress has been made in raising awareness, assisting victims and bringing due processes against the perpetrators. Sri Lanka has also made an active bilateral and regional contribution through mechanisms such as the "Bali Process" (Sri Lanka VNR Report, 2018).

Intended target 16.3 enables promoting the rule of law at national and international level and ensuring that everyone has equal access to justice. The judiciary's work has regained credibility through the adoption of the

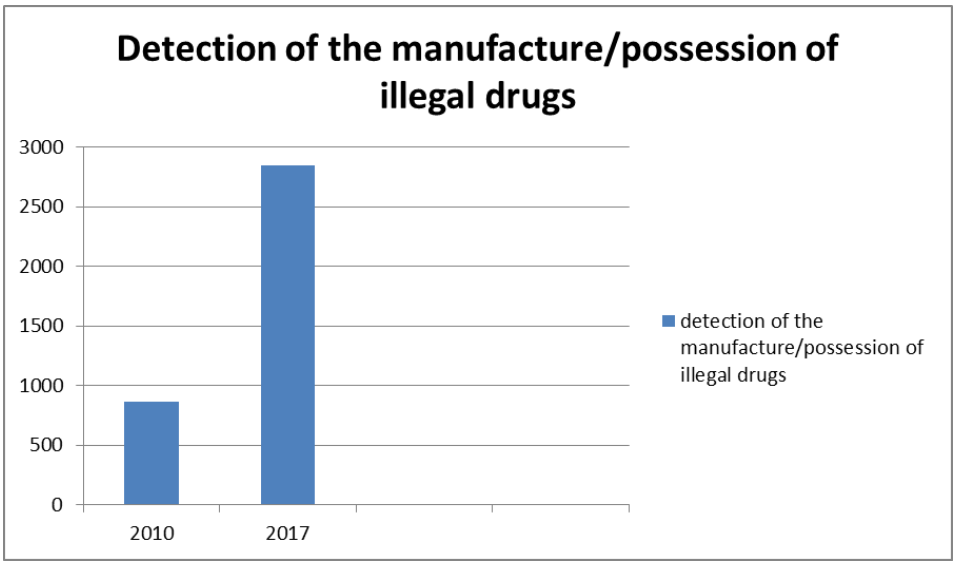
19th amendment and the introduction of independent institutions such as the Police Commission, the Judicial Service Commission and capacity building, such as forensics, investigation. The recent certification of the National Human Rights Commission to "A Grade" by the Global Alliance of National Human Rights Commissions (GANRI) is a clear evidence of increased institutional capacity, which has helped to improve the rule of law in the country. According to Chairperson of the Human Rights Commission said that,

> The announcement is an achievement of the whole country and not that of the Commission only. The reason is due to the people's agitation and support to ensure that the 19th Amendment to the Constitution was adopted which in turn assured the independence of the commissions (*Sunday Observer*, 3rd June 2018).

The number of charges served increased due to the empowerment of investigators, and in 2016 the number of detainees who were not sentenced as a proportion of the total population in prison was 0.5 (Department of Statistics,2017). The Government also works closely with the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) to improve conditions in the Prisons. Senior delegate of ICRC expressed that, "We are committed to working closely with the authorities and to supporting their efforts to improve conditions of detention (ICRC, 2016).

Target 16.4 proponents a significant reduction in illegal financial and arms flows, the recovery and return of stolen assets and the fight against all forms of organized crime. In 2016, the proportion of small arms and

light weapons seized and traced in accordance with international standards and legal instruments per 100,000 population was 0.4 (Department of Statistics, 2017). Furthermore, the detection of illegal drug production / possession increased from 862 in 2010 to 2845 in 2017, which could be treated positively by strengthening law enforcement authorities (Sri Lanka Police Crime Trends data, 2010 & 2017).



Sources: Author prepared- data from Department of Census and Statistics and Sri Lanka Police Crime Trends

With the establishment of the Financial Criminal Investigation Division (FCID) in 2015, Sri Lanka has taken a decisive step towards establishing systems and policies to combat corruption and financial fraud. In addition, the Financial Intelligence Unit (FIU) of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka introduced new guidelines for money laundering and terrorist financing in 2018 to keep records and report suspicious transactions under the Financial Action Task Force (FATF). Under the Trust Ordinance (Amendment) Act no 6 0f 2018 measures have been taken to minimize

the misuse of legal arrangements/ trusts in money laundering by increasing the transparency of trusts created in Sri Lanka (Gazette of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka, Trusts (Amendment) Act, No. 6 of 2018).

According to the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) 2016 of Transparency International, Sri Lanka ranked 95 out of 176 counties with a score of 36 compared to 2015, when it ranked 83 out of 168 countries (Transparency International Civil Society Report SDG 16, 2018, p.3-4). According to Transparency International Civil Society Report SDG 16 recommendations they provide stating that In order to prevent financial crime, enact laws that would ensure adequate, accurate and timely information on beneficial ownership such as establishing a beneficial ownership register (Transparency International Civil Society Report of SDG 16, 2018) Credible and trustworthy institutions built on principles of transparency and accountability (Target 16.6) and inclusive/representative decision making (Target 16.7) are key principles of good governance which is being embraced through the National Human Rights Action Plan (NHRAP) and the Universal Periodic Review (UPR) process. Transparency International recommends that, finalize the National Procurement Guidelines that will strengthen the function of the National Procurement Commission and procurement practices at both a national and local level (Transparency International Civil Society Report SDG 16, 2018)[4].

The country's remarkable success is the restoration of peace and the right to life since the end of the conflict with the defeat of the Tamil Eelam

[4] See more details: A Civil Society Report on Sri Lanka's Sustainable Development Goal 16 Transparency International Sri Lanka (June 2018)

Liberation Tigers (LTTE) in 2009. Sri Lanka is also a classic example of SDGs for peace, justice and strong institutions. Since 2009, Sri Lanka's state reforms and peace - building policy have focused on 4Rs; reconciliation, rebuilding, rehabilitation and recovery. The 4R policy is to address the causes of the prolonged conflict, promote a peaceful and inclusive society, establish accountable institutions and guarantee a free and fair society. The Government of Sri Lanka (GoSL) has been implementing the "Peace through Development" policy since 2009 (Hoglund and Orjuela, 2012). Sri Lanka's peacebuilding policy immediately after the end of the conflict was to develop infrastructure that generated new trends in peacebuilding. Sri Lanka has long grappled with sequencing dilemmas relating to the balancing of growth and equity and perceived trade-offs between inclusive democratic institutions and economic development (Walton, 2015).

While the government promoted peace through development, the Lessons Learnt and Reconciliation Commission (LLRC)[5] were appointed to build sustainable peace and security. The Office for National Unity and Reconciliation launched a national policy on reconciliation and coexistence in Sri Lanka to emphasize the need for reconciliation. The Sri Lankan government passed two significant acts to strengthen democracy in the country; the Right to Information Act, No 12 of 2016, and the Office Act on Missing Persons, No 9 of 2017.

The Government has invested in a number of projects in the north and east, including reconstruction programs in the north, including housing

[5] See more details: Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Lessons Learnt and reconciliation (2011). Available from http://slembassyusa.org/downloads/LLRC-REPORT.pdf

and human settlement, road development, water supply and irrigation, education and management (Performance Report, 2010).The Mine Action Programme, which began in the midst of the conflict in 2002, continued over the years and the government continued to support a substantial part of the financing of the National Mine Action Programme, as well as support from partner countries and organizations. Since its inception in April 2002, the UNDP, UNICEF International INGOs and NGOs in Sri Lanka have been designed to strengthen national capacities for the management, implementation and coordination of activities in support of the National Mine Program (GICHD, 2018)[6].Sri Lanka was able to ratify the Ottawa Convention on Mine Bans as a result of the efforts of these partners and Sri Lanka forces and aims to free Sri Lanka from mines by 2020.

It is indicated that since 2009, the government has implemented 65 major development projects with an investment of US $ 2,494 million, while 125 major development projects are implemented with a committed investment of US $ 2,659 million to meet the needs of various ministries for post-conflict development with the help of international donors. In addition, a large number of projects have been carried out directly by some donor agencies through local NGOs / partner organizations. The total investment in this respect was approximately US $ 1,430 million (VNR 2018 report). The Norwegian government has entered into a partnership agreement with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in Sri Lanka to promote peace, justice and strong institutions

[6] See details: ttps://www.gichd.org/fileadmin/GICHD-resources/rec-documents/NMAS-SriLanka-2016-2020.pdf The Geneva International Centre for Humanitarian Demining (GICHD) assisted with facilitating a four-day strategy and prioritisation workshop in Colombo in June 2015, bringing all key stakeholders together

under Sustainable Development Goal 16 for the period of December 2018 to December 2020 and the partnership agreement amounting to NOK 12.6 million or US $ 1.5 million (UNDP, December 2018).

According to SDG Target 16.10 the 19th amendment to the Sri Lankan Constitution recognized the right to information as a basic right. The law is currently considered by the Center for Law and Democracy to be the third best law on the right to information in the world *(cited* in Transparency International Civil Society Report SDG 16, 2018). Accelerate resettlement efforts and its role as a measure to build trust plays an important role in the country's reconciliation efforts.

Conclusion

Notwithstanding the Government's efforts to maintain lasting peace one of the main challenges for those committed to the 2030 agenda goal 16th objective of integral human development is to understand the profound obstacles facing efforts to alleviate poverty, prevent violent conflicts and promote justice and the rule of law. In order to ensure peace and justice in the Sri Lanka, it is crucial to strengthen law enforcement institutions and appropriate monitoring mechanisms**.** Weak governance and institutional mechanisms continue to undermine the long - term potential for growth in Sri Lanka. Among other things, weaknesses in the rule of law, corruption and lack of democratic freedom have continued to have a negative impact on the Sri Lanka position in global governance indices.

This study attempts to provide some recommendation for achieving goal 16 of the 2030 agenda by strengthening institutions of law enforcement and proper monitoring mechanisms which are crucial to ensuring the

country's peace and justice. Education on values, attitudes and behavioral modes which are designed to enable them to resolve any dispute peacefully and in a spirit of respecting human dignity and tolerance and non-discrimination. The democratization process that focuses on institutionalizing justice and accountability for a society free of violence recognizes the importance of reinforcing the role of civil society. Regulatory mechanisms, legal frameworks and policies to ensure peace and justice are in place. The inclusion of democratization in development dimensions must be focused more on ensuring Goal 16 of Agenda 2030 for long - term peace and justice.

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Factors Affecting Home Gardening as a Source of Enhancing Household Food Security: A Case Study in Mirigama Ds Division

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ABSTRACT

Home gardens can make a significant contribution in meeting daily household needs for better nutrition and health. The study was based on primary data consisting of hundred and fifteen households in Mirigama DSD selected through stratified random sampling. A questionnaire survey and a site observation was conducted to collect information and to evaluate home gardens respectively. Evaluation and grading was done based on a predefined criterion. Chi-Square test was applied to examine the relationship between the severity of the factors based on the interviews, and the grades obtained. Results obtained implied that frequency of involvement in home gardening activities, proportion of land used for food crop production, pest and diseases, crop damage due to wild animals, basic knowledge in agricultural practices, knowledge on methods of obtaining quality seeds and planting materials, basic knowledge in animal husbandry, influence by the government assistance and women participation had a significant relationship with the level of home gardening.

(Key words : Home gardening, Food Security, Evaluating Home gardens)

Background

The global population is expected to exceed 9 billion by 2050. To cater the increasing demand for food with the rising population, there is a continuous need to increase food production and buffer stocks. In this scenario, countries around the world are resorting to various counter strategies to meet the growing demand and to avert food insecurity and famine. Over the recent years there has been growing interest to strengthen and intensify local food production in order to mitigate the adverse effects of global food shocks and food price volatilities. Consequently, there is much attention towards home gardens as a strategy to enhance household food security and nutrition.

Food security is considered as a key factor to achieve "zero hunger" among the sustainable development goals. Over the past decade national agricultural policies were implemented with considerable emphasis on ensuring food security in household level. Improving availability of healthy and nutrient rich fruits and vegetables at a lower cost were among the objectives targeted through promoting home gardening and providing inputs and knowledge to encourage households to maintain home gardens. During the past years, several government programs "Api wawamu Rata nagamu" - 2011 "Divi neguma" 2012-2014 and Distribution of potted vegetable seedlings for home gardening" - 2015 were carried out with financial allocations of Rs.663 million, Rs.1559 million and Rs. 2.24 million respectively. (Ministry of Agriculture, 2011- 2015)

Regardless of the financial provisions and government intervention taken place in improving the food and nutrition level of households through home gardening promotion programs, a reliable mechanism has not been empowered to monitor the actual ultimate

outcome of the allocated resources. According to the World Health Organization, the recommended level of daily consumption of fruits and vegetables is, a minimum of 400 g per person for the prevention of non-communicable diseases. But the daily fruit and vegetable consumption level of an adult in Sri Lanka is 276 g which is far less than this recommended level.(Perera & Madhujith, 2012).

According to the micronutrient survey carried out by the UNICEF, the percentage of anemic (Hb ,11.0 g/dl) children among 6 - 59 months in Sri Lanka is 15.1 and 17.1 in Gampaha district. Prevalence of anemia among non-pregnant women is 46.7per cent in western province and 44.4 per cent in Gampaha District (Department of Census and Statistics, 2006) Vitamin A deficiency and night blindness among 24-59 month old children are considered as public health issues in Sri Lanka. (Department of Nutrition, Ministry of Health, 2012)

Research Problem

Home gardening programs implemented by the government haven't brought a significant impact either on economic or social lives of people in Sri Lanka. Even though the inputs for home gardening are provided free of charge, the ultimate objective of enhancing the nutritional level of people by increased fruit and vegetable consumption is not achieved.

Even though the statistics reveal that larger segment of the population engage in home gardening, these figures do not directly reflect the home gardens contribution for uplifting the food security of the house hold. The household food security survey conducted by the Department of

Census and Statistics reveals that the proportion of vegetables obtained through own produce is 9.3 per cent while 87.3per cent is obtained by purchases. According to this survey, only 24.8per cent of the total fruit consumption is obtained by own produce while 68.7per cent is obtained by purchases. (Department of Census and Statistics, 2017) These figures conclude that neither the available 61.5 per cent of home gardens scattered all over the country nor the government intervention and financial allocations for inputs have reached the ultimate objective of increasing the nutrition security through household food production.

Objectives

- To assess the level of home gardening in Mirigama division
- To examine the constraints for food production in home gardens
- To identify the main factors affecting home gardening as a source of enhancing food security

This paper aims at identifying the factors affecting the food production in home gardens while examining the overall performance of home gardens in Mirigama DS Division

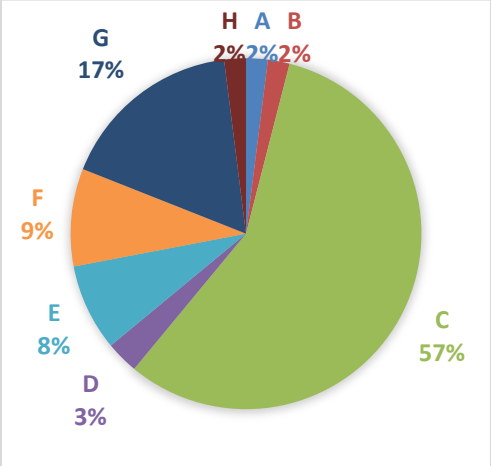
LITERATURE REVIEW

Present status of food insecurity in Sri Lanka

Households with sfficient amount of nutritious food for regular consumption is considered to be a household with food security. Based on this definition of food security, 10.3 per cent of the total households in Sri Lanka and 4.2 per cent of the households in Gampaha district are food insecure. (Department of Census and Statistics, 2017)

The most prominent reason for food insecurity is considered as the unexpected price fluctuations of the food commodities.

Figure 1 Distribution of major reasons for food insecurity in Sri Lanka



A - Unavailability of food commodities at reachable surrounding facilities for own products
B - Unavailability of food commodities at reachable surrounding
C - Price fluctuations of food commodities
D - Increase of prices of agricultural products
E - Personal matter (disease or death of a relative)
F - Unavailability of an opportunity to cultivate in agricultural lands
G - Adverse weather conditions
H - Other

(Department of Census and Statistics, 2017)

A survey conducted by the department of census and statistics reveals that the foremost reason for food insecurity in Sri Lanka is the unexpected price flutuations of food commodities as stated by 57 percent of the total respondents, while the second major reason is adverse weather conditions. The strategy used by majority of the food insecure households to ivercome food insecurity has been revealed as depennding on low cost food regardless of the nutritional requirement.

Home Gardening in Sri Lanka

The definition of home gardening varies according to the perception of the researcher and the research environment. But the definition used by almost all the referred documents bares similar features which could be identified as the definition of home garden. The study on

the enigma of tropical home gardens corroborates this idea. Several authors have tried to describe the term “home garden” none is perhaps universally as the definition. But it is well understood that the concept refers to intimate, multi-story combinations of various trees and crops, sometimes in association with domestic animals, around homesteads. (Kumar & Nair, 2004)

According to the definition declared by the Deparment of Census and Statistics, a portion of land similar to or less than twenty perches in extent with a dwelling house and some form of a cultivation from which the produce is largely for home consumption is considered as a home garden. (Department of Census and Statistics, 2015)

Out of the total population, 61.5per cent households in Sri Lanka engage in home gardening. In Gampaha district 57.6 per cent of the population engage in home gardening. The village areas contribute for 87.8 per cent while urban sector and estate sector contributes for 9 per cent and 3per cent respectively for the total home gardens in the country. (Department of Census and Statistics, 2017)

Challenges for Home gardens

Lack of land has been identified as a common limitation for home gardening in many of the previous studies. For families without adequate and secure access to land, lack of land is the single most important barrier to home gardening. (Brownrigg, 1985) According to Hoogerbrugge and Fresco, lack of access to land is serious constraint that avoids poor from getting the benefit of home gardening. (Hoogerbrugge & Fresco, 1993)

Although home gardens are primarily rain fed, it is common for home gardeners to irrigate during the dry season. Watering depends on the type of crop and can vary from twice daily to twice annually. Several studies have found that drawing; transporting and hand irrigating the homegarden are the most onerous and time consuming gardening tasks. (Hoogerbrugge & Fresco, 1993; Mitchell & Hanstad, 2004)

Destruction of crops by animals is considered as a major factor affecting home gardens. According to an assessment on the benefits and constraints of home gardening in the Neighborhood
of the National Horticultural Research Institute of Nigeria, Destruction of crops by animals (36.5per cent) closely followed the damage due to insect attack.(F. Olajide-Taiwo B., 2010)

Unavailability of planting materials and livestock with agreeable quality at accessible distance and affordable prices has been identified as one of the key constraints faced by home gardeners. According to a study carried out by Mitchell and Hanstad, interventions that seek to advise families on appropriate techniques for improving home garden production may find that home gardening families do not have adequate access to seedlings and other necessary materials. (Mitchell & Hanstad, 2004).

Lack of appropriate and timely knowledge could adversely affect the development of home gardens at any level while suitable advises and technology given at the correct time could have a great

impact on the progression of a home garden. This has been proven by experiments. (Marsh, 1998) Agricultural extension can contribute significantly to home garden production

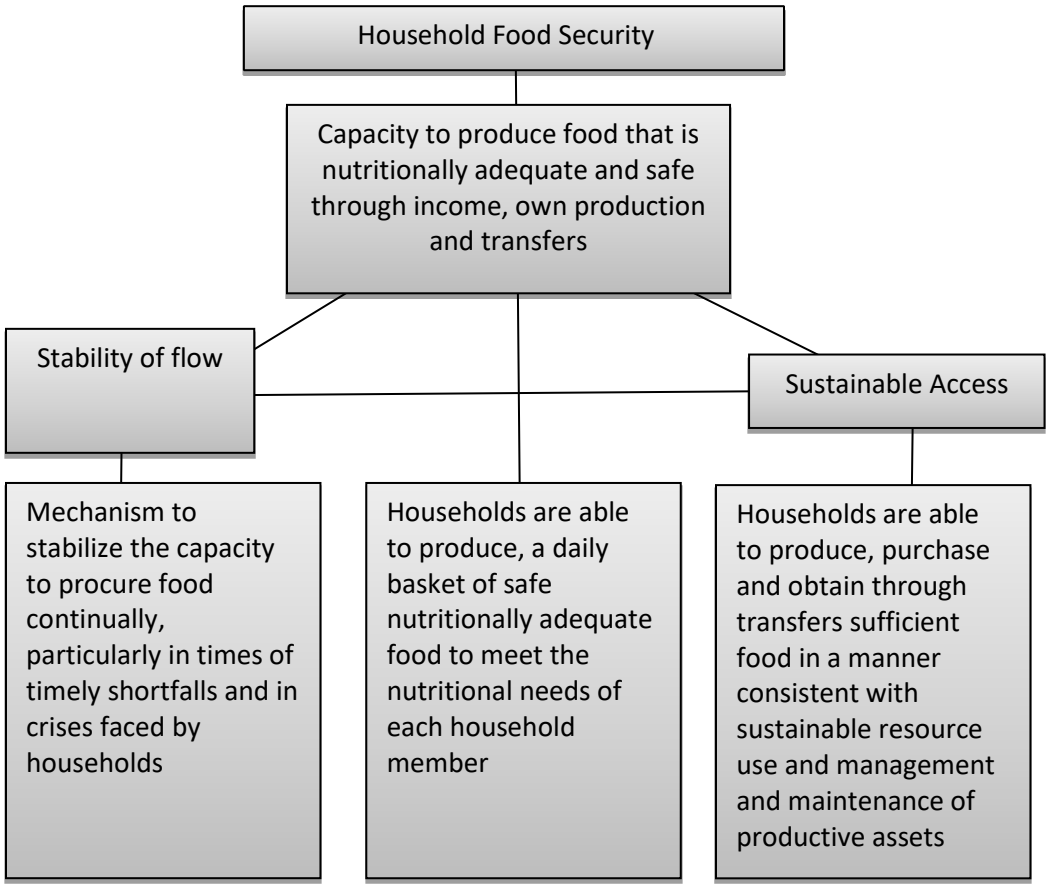
According to an assessment on the benefits and constraints of home gardening in the Neighborhood of the National Horticultural Research Institute of Nigeria, insect attack ranked first among constraints confronting the garden owners as indicated by 39.7per cent of the respondents.(F. Olajide-Taiwo B., 2010)

THEORETICAL REVEIW

Home gardening as a determinant of food security

In countries and regions that frequently suffer serious food shortages, such as those prone to drought, programmes in the agricultural sector are frequently complemented by public measures such as income and employment generation programmes and direct food transfers as a means of stabilizing household food security and maintaining nutrition levels for the poorest. A cost-effective but organizationally more demanding alternative, however, is a system of direct nutrition interventions. Community participation in achieving household level food security has been identified as a strategy to overcome food shortage which is prevalent in most of the African countries.

Figure 2 The normative dimensions of household food security



Evaluating home gardens

Although home gardens have been extensively described, in previous studies, Nair, 2001 has stated that there is a lack of quantitative data about their benefits. The main reason that they have not been studied is that rigorous, widely applicable methodologies are not available, and those that have been developed for single-species systems are not applicable to such complex systems (Nair, 2001).

The Ministry of Agriculture, Sri Lanka with collaboration with the Department of Agriculture has developed an evaluation criterion

to assess the home gardens considering all the key features related to food production in a home garden. This evaluation criterion was selected for the study purpose as it can be considered a more reliable measure to identify the level of home gardening as food production unit.

3.3 Components of the evaluation criterion for home gardens

This evaluation system consists of fourteen main factors to measure the level of a home garden as a food production system. The factors are as follows.

- Selection of crop varieties according to the region (05 points)
- Optimal usage of the vertical space of the home garden (05 points)
- Optimal usage of the horizontal space of the home garden (05 points)
- Availability of minimum of 5 types of tuber crops or higher (10 points)
- Availability of minimum of 5 types vegetable crops (10 points)
- Availability of minimum of 5 types of leafy vegetables (10 points)
- Availability of minimum of 5 types fruit crops or higher (10 points) Availability of perennial 5types of vegetable crops or higher (10 points)
- Integrated farming- Milk Production (10 points)
- Integrated farming - Egg production (05 points)
- Fertilizer usage according to the requirement (05 points)

- Crops located according to their required level of shade (05 points)
- Pest and Disease Management Practices (05 points)
- Weed control (05 points)

METHODOLOGY

The study was based on primary data related to a sample of 115 households in Mirigama DS division. A structured questionnaire was completed through informal discussions. The sample was selected according to the stratified sampling method based on the population of three agrarian service divisions of the Mirigama DS division. Fifty, Forty-five and Twenty households were randomly selected from Meerigma, Pasyal and Pallewela agrarian service divisions respectively. Observation method was used to assess the level of home gardens. The evaluation was conducted through observational method by a trained group of interviewers, based on the national criteria for evaluating home gardens as a source of food security, defined by the Department of Agriculture. Points were allocated based on the structural and functional characteristics of each home garden according to the predefined criteria. The level of home gardening was obtained as grades based on the marks obtained. Four Grades were identified as Grade 1 (75-100), Grade 2 (50-75), Grade 3 (25-50) and Grade 4 (0-25) respectively.

Cross tabulation method and Chi-Square test were used to analyze the relationship of the factors affecting home gardening against the grade obtained for the level of home gardening as a food production system. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 13.0 for windows version

was used for data analysis. The answers given on the factors related to home gardening and the Grade obtained were tested for association using the Chi-Square test.

Ho : Row and column variables in the cross tabulation are independent

H1 : Row and column variables have a relationship

The factors having a significant relationship, with p- values less than the critical value of 0.05 were identified as factors affecting home gardening.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

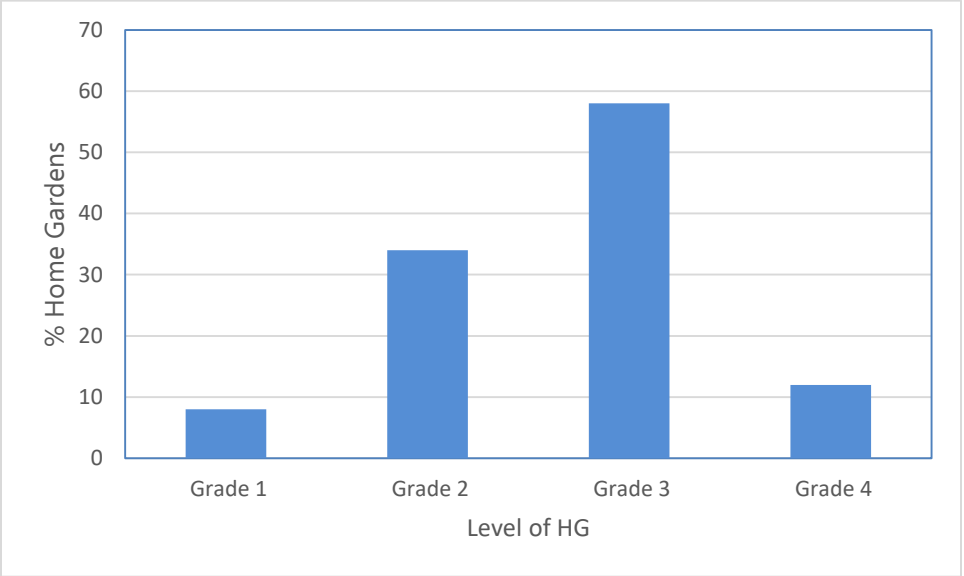
The Level of Home gardening in the DS Division

The level of home gardening in the selected area was examined and graded according to the evaluation criteria defined by the Ministry of agriculture to select the best home garden as a source of food security. The number of home garden obtained Grade 1 was 7.1 per cent out of the valid sample and the number of home gardens obtained Grade 4 was 10.7 per cent. (Table 1) The Highest number of home gardens obtained Grade 3 according to the evaluation based on observation.

Table 1 Level of Home Gardening

Grade		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Grade 1	8	7.1	7.1	7.1
	Grade 2	34	30.4	30.4	37.5
	Grade 3	58	51.8	51.8	89.3
	Grade 4	12	10.7	10.7	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Figure 3 Level of home gardening in Mirigama DS Division



Factors affecting Home gardening

Proportion of land used for food crops

The proportion of land used for growing food crop out of the available land area of the household was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. (Table 2) The Chi-Square p -value (0.00045) is less than 0.05. Therefore, Ho is rejected. This implies that the proportion of land extent used for food crop cultivation has a significant relationship with the grade obtained for home gardening.

Table 2 Percentage distribution of proportion of land used for food crop production out of the total area available with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

per cent Land with food crops			Grade				Total
			1	2	3	4	
ExtFC	>5per cent	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	0 .0per cent	9 8.0per cent	5 4.5per cent	14 12.5per cent
	5-25per cent	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	5 4.5per cent	19 17.0per cent	3 2.7per cent	27 24.1per cent
	25-50per cent	Count per cent of total	5 4.5per cent	13 11.6per cent	21 18.8per cent	3 2.7per cent	42 37.5per cent
	50-75per cent	Count per cent of total	1 .9per cent	10 8.9per cent	8 7.1per cent	1 .9per cent	20 17.9per cent
	75per cent <	Count per cent of total	2 1.8per cent	6 5.4per cent	1 .9per cent	0 .0per cent	9 8.0per cent
	Total	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

According to Table 2, 12.5per cent of the selected respondents have cultivated only 5per cent or less than the available land area and all those home gardens had obtained Grade 3 or 4. All the households having Grade 1 home gardens have cultivated more than 25per cent of the available area with food crops. 51.8per cent of the total households bared Grade 3 home gardens. 18.8per cent home gardens have 25-50per cent the land used for food crop cultivation out of total available area. The land area utilized for food crop cover has a significant impact upon the level of home gardening.

Frequency of Involvement in Home gardening

The involvement in activities of home gardening was observed as a frequency ranging from daily to rare. The frequency of involvement in home gardening activities was examined based on the sequence of involvement eg: daily or 6-7 days per week, 4-5 days per week, 2-3 days per week, only one day per week or rarely. The results obtained were tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. The Chi-Square p -value (0.000) is less than 0.05. Therefor Ho can be rejected. This implies that frequency of involvement in home gardening activities has a significant relationship with the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 3 depicts the cross tabulation results of frequency of involvement in home gardening as number of days per week (d/w), against the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 3 Percentage distribution of frequency of involvement in home gardening activities with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Frequency of involving in HG			Grade				Total
			1	2	3	4	
Frequency of involvement	Daily	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	10 8.9per cent	8 7.1per cent	0 .0per cent	26 23.2per cent
	4-5 d/w	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	8 7.1per cent	8 7.1per cent	0 .0per cent	16 14.3per cent
	2-3d/w	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	9 8.0per cent	21 18.8per cent	3 2.7per cent	33 29.5per cent
	1 da/w	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	6 5.4per cent	16 14.3per cent	5 4.5per cent	27 24.1per cent
	Rarely	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	1 .9per cent	5 4.5per cent	4 3.6per cent	10 8.9per cent
	Total	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

The Cross tabulation results reveals that all the households falling into Grade 1 category engage in home gardening activities on daily basis while the 3.6 per cent households out of the 10.7 per cent home gardens falling into the Grade 4 category rarely engage in home gardening activities. None of the households having grade 4 home gardens have involved in home gardening more than 3 days per week. This indicates that frequent involvement in home gardening activities is

one among the influential factors leading to a better home garden with high contribution for household food security.

Pest and Diseases

The severity of the pest and disease problem was tested against the grade obtained. The Chi-Square p -value (0.0010) is less than 0.05. Therefore Ho can be rejected. This implies that severity of the pest and disease problem has a significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening. Table 4 depicts the cross-tabulation results of severity of the pest and disease problem against the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 4 Percentage distribution of severity of pest and disease problem with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Severity of the problem			Grade				Total
			1	2	3	4	
Pest & Disease Problem	Major problem	Count per cent of total	2 1.8per cent	6 5.4per cent	19 17.0per cent	3 2.7per cent	30 26.8per cent
	Moderate problem	Count per cent of total	1 .9per cent	18 16.1per cent	24 21.4per cent	3 2.7per cent	46 41.1per cent
	Slight problem	Count per cent of total	5 4.5per cent	5 4.5per cent	5 4.5per cent	0 .0per cent	15 13.4per cent
	Minor problem	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	3 2.7per cent	1 .9per cent	0 .0per cent	4 3.6per cent
	Never a problem	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	2 1.8per cent	9 8.0per cent	6 5.4per cent	17 15.2per cent
	Total	Count per cent of tota	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

26.8per cent respondents of the sample have stated pest and diseases as major problem while 41.1per cent respondents have stated it as a moderate problem for improving their home gardens. But when considering the proportion of respondents stated pest and disease problem as a major or a moderate problem, majority (17per cent and 21.4per cent respectively) were households having Grade 3 home gardens. This indicates that the home gardens those are still in the developing stage are more susceptible to adverse effects of pest and disease problems. Majority of the respondents having Grade 3 home gardens have stated that they do not have enough knowledge on appropriate pest and disease management practices.

Crop damages due to wild animals

The severity of the problem of crop damages due to wild animal attacks was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. The Chi-Square p-value (0.003) is less than 0.05. Therefor Ho can be rejected. This implies that damage due to wild animal attacks has significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 5 depicts the cross-tabulation results of severity of the problem of crop damage due to wild animals due against the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 5 Percentage distribution of severity the problem of damage due to wild animal with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Severity of the problem			Grade				Total
			1	2	3	4	
Wild animals damage	Major problem	Count per cent of total	2 1.8per cent	7 6.3per cent	13 11.6per cent	4 3.6per cent	26 23.2per cent
	Moderate problem	Count per cent of total	1 .9per cent	10 8.9per cent	27 24.1per cent	2 1.8per cent	40 35.7per cent
	Slight problem	Count per cent of total	5 4.5per cent	3 2.7per cent	9 8.0per cent	1 .9per cent	18 16.1per cent
	Minor problem	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	2 1.8per cent	3 2.7per cent	0 .0per cent	5 4.5per cent
	Never	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	12 10.7per cent	6 5.4per cent	5 4.5per cent	23 20.5per cent
	Total	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

According to the above table, 23.2per cent of the respondents have stated that the crop damage due to wild animals is a major problem and 35.5per cent of the respondents as a moderate problem for the improvement of food production in home gardens.

Therefore, the results reveal that the damage due to wild animals in home gardens needs considerable attention though it is sometime being neglected.

Knowledge in basic agricultural practices

Basic knowledge on agricultural practices such as land preparation, seedling establishment, seed bed preparation, pest and disease management are essential for maintaining a better home garden. The level of knowledge on basic agricultural practices was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. The Chi-Square p-value (0.016) is less than 0.05. Therefor Ho can be rejected. This implies that knowledge on basic agricultural practices has significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 6 depicts the cross tabulation results of knowledge level on basic agricultural practices against the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 6 Percentage distribution of awareness on basic agricultural practices with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Severity of the problem			Grade				Total
			1	2	3	4	
Knowledge level	Highly aware	Count per cent of total	3 2.7 per cent	15 13.4 per cent	20 17.9 per cent	1 .9per cent	39 34.8 per cent
	Moderately awre	Count per cent of total	5 4.5 per cent	15 13.4 per cent	25 22.3 per cent	3 2.7per cent	48 42.9 per cent
	Slightly aware	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	2 1.8per cent	3 2.7 per cent	1 .9per cent	6 5.4per cent
	Seldom awarre	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	2 1.8per cent	9 8.0 per cent	5 4.5per cent	16 14.3 per cent
	Never aware	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	0 .0per cent	1 .9per cent	2 1.8per cent	3 2.7per cent
	Total	Count per cent of total	8 7.1 per cent	34 30.4 per cent	58 51.8 per cent	12 10.7 per cent	112 100.0 per cent

All the respondents having a home garden of Grade 1 category have stated that at least one member of the household is highly or moderately aware of the basic agricultural practices such as land preparation, seed bed preparation, crop establishment, pest and weed

control measures etc. Nearly ninety percent of households having the grade 2 home gardens bares a high or moderate level of knowledge on basic agricultural practices. According to the result basic knowledge is fundamental in having a well-established home gardens. Even though majority of the households possess a grade 3 or 4 home gardens, their knowledge level on basic agricultural practices was comparatively higher. Only a considerably low number (2.7per cent) of respondents were “never aware” of basic agricultural practices. However nearly 78 per cent of the respondents have significant knowledge in basic agricultural practices. But majority of them bares home gardens with lower grades due to various other factors.

Basic Knowledge of Animal Husbandry

Availability or unavailability of basic knowledge in animal husbandry was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. The Chi-Square p-value (0.002) is less than 0.05. Therefore, Ho can be rejected. This implies that basic knowledge in animal husbandry has significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 7 depicts the cross tabulation results of awareness on animal husbandry against the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 7 Percentage distribution of availability of basic knowledge of animal husbandry with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Knowledge in animal husbandry			Grade				Total
			1	2	3	4	
	Yes	Count per cent of total	7 6.3per cent	9 8.0per cent	22 19.6per cent	1 .9per cent	39 34.8per cent
	No	Count per cent of total	1 .9per cent	25 22.3per cent	36 32.1per cent	11 9.8per cent	73 65.2per cent
	Total	Count per cent of tota	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

According to the table above, 34.8per cent of the respondents have stated that they possess the basic knowledge in animal husbandry. But there were only 4 poultry farmers and 3 cattle farmers out of the total households. Only one household was having both cattle and poultry farms. This implies that even though the knowledge is available, the involvement in animal husbandry is considerably low among the selected sample. This result implies that even though the knowledge on animal husbandry has a significant impact on improving home gardens, the knowledge alone would not motivate people to initiate animal husbandry practices in their home gardens. Animal husbandry practices are combined with various other factors. The cattle raring requires relatively larger home gardens and proper management practices have to be used to avoid crop damages by the cattle.

Knowledge on methods of obtaining quality seeds and planting material

Availability or unavailability of knowledge on method of obtaining quality seeds and planting material for own home garden was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. The Chi-Square p-value (0.023) is less than 0.05. Therefore Ho can be rejected. This implies that awareness on method of obtaining quality seed and planting materials has significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 8 depicts the cross tabulation results of knowledge level on method of obtaining quality seeds and planting materials against the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 8 Percentage distribution of awareness on method of obtaining quality planting material with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Knowledge in methods of obtaining quality planting material		Grade				Total
		1	2	3	4	
Available	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	31 27.7per cent	50 44.6per cent	7 6.3per cent	96 85.7per cent
Unavailable	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	3 2.7per cent	8 7.1per cent	5 4.5per cent	16 14.3per cent
Total	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

According to the above table, 85.7per cent of the respondents stated to be aware of a method to obtain quality seed and planting material for the home garden. Every household with a grade one home garden and 91.1per cent of the households having a grade two home garden were aware of sources to obtain quality seed and planting material.

Influence by government assistance

The level of assistance provided by the government for improving the quality of home garden was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. The sufficiency or insufficiency of the government assistance provided to improve the home garden was examined based on responses ranging from "Sufficient" to "Highly insufficient". The Chi-Square p-value (0.001) is less than 0.05. Therefore Ho can be rejected. This implies that assistance provided by the government has significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 9 depicts the cross-tabulation results of the level of government assistance against the grades obtained for home gardening. The results on basic knowledge in agricultural practices (see Table 6) further confirms this interpretation of the nature of the assistance provided. While providing more assistance and knowledge for the better home gardens for maintaining their food security level and sustainability, this study highlights the need of uplifting the supportive mechanism to empower and motivate lower level home gardens.

Table 9 Percentage distribution of the level of assistance provided by the government with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Severity of the problem			Grade				Total
			1	2	3	4	
Level of Gov. Assistance	Sufficient	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	8 7.1per cent	5 4.5per cent	0 .0per cent	13 11.6per cent
	Moderately sufficient	Count per cent of total	3 2.7per cent	13 11.6per cent	20 17.9per cent	1 .9per cent	37 33.0per cent
	Slightly sufficient	Count per cent of total	5 4.5per cent	6 5.4per cent	7 6.3 per cent	2 1.8per cent	20 17.9per cent
	Insufficient	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	2 1.8per cent	19 17.0per cent	6 5.4per cent	27 24.1per cent
	Highly insufficient	Count per cent of total	0 .0per cent	5 4.5per cent	7 6.3 per cent	3 2.7per cent	15 13.4per cent
	Total	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

Nearly 45 per cent of the total sample has stated that the assistance provided by the government to improve the quality of the home garden is sufficient or moderately sufficient. None of the households having Grade 1 home gardens has claimed the assistance provided by the government as “insufficient” or “highly insufficient”. But 9 out of the 12 households having Grade 4 home gardens have stated that the assistance provided by the government as “insufficient” or “highly insufficient”. This indicates that government assistance on improving home gardening has been more accessible for high grade home gardens than for the lower grade home gardens. The majority of the people having a positive attitude towards the government assistance

were already having a high or moderate level home garden with regard to enhancing food security. This offers some important insight to the home gardening promotion programs implemented by both government and non-government organizations in prioritizing activities and identifying the beneficiaries.

Women Participation

The gender of the households involved in home gardening was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. The Chi-Square p-value (0.025) is less than 0.05. Therefor Ho can be rejected. This implies that gender of the households engaged in home gardening has significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening.

Table 10 depicts the cross-tabulation results of the gender of the respondents involved in home gardening and the grade obtained for home gardening.

Table 10 Percentage distribution of the level of gender of the respondents with respect to the grade obtained for home gardening

Gender		Grade				Total
		1	2	3	4	
Female	Count per cent of total	2 1.8per cent	27 24.1per cent	41 36.6per cent	9 8.0per cent	96 85.7per cent
Male	Count per cent of total	6 5.4per cent	7 6.3per cent	17 15.2per cent	3 2.7per cent	73 65.2per cent
Total	Count per cent of total	8 7.1per cent	34 30.4per cent	58 51.8per cent	12 10.7per cent	112 100.0per cent

According to the results, 27 out of the 34 number of Grade 2 home gardens and 41 out of the 58 number of Grade 3 home gardens were initiated by women. But in the other hand majority of the Grade 4 home gardens too was initiated by women. Accordingly, we can conclude that even though the women participation has a significant impact upon the grade obtained, the women participation alone would not lead to higher levels of home gardening.

Other factors considered in this study but not significant

The severity of the problem of adverse effects of climate change for improving the quality of home garden was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. According to the results, climate change does not have a significant impact upon the level of home gardening.(0.332 > p=0.05).

The severity of the problem of adverse effects poor soil quality of home garden was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. According to the results, soil quality does not have a significant impact upon the level of home gardening. (0.293 > p=0.05). Previous studies on agricultural characteristics and challenges of home gardens have confirmed this result. According to Hoogerbrugge & Fresco, most home gardens are found in densely populated areas with reasonably fertile soils.(Hoogerbrugge & Fresco, 1993) The fertilizer requirement was mainly fulfilled by compost and green manure. A small number of home gardens with high grades had used bio fertilizer such as cattle and poultry manure for the home garden.

The severity of the problem, of lack of labor was tested against the grade obtained for home gardening. According to the results, climate change does not have a significant impact upon the level of home gardening. (0.087 > p=0.05). This result has been confirmed by previous studies. The home garden normally occupies 'Marginal' labour which refers to the fact that labour inputs in the home garden are flexible, depending on slack periods in field cropping or in off-farm work and reflect the low opportunities for alternative employment. The labour for gardening is nearly always provided by household members instead of hired or exchanged labour. The capital and energy inputs in the garden are low.

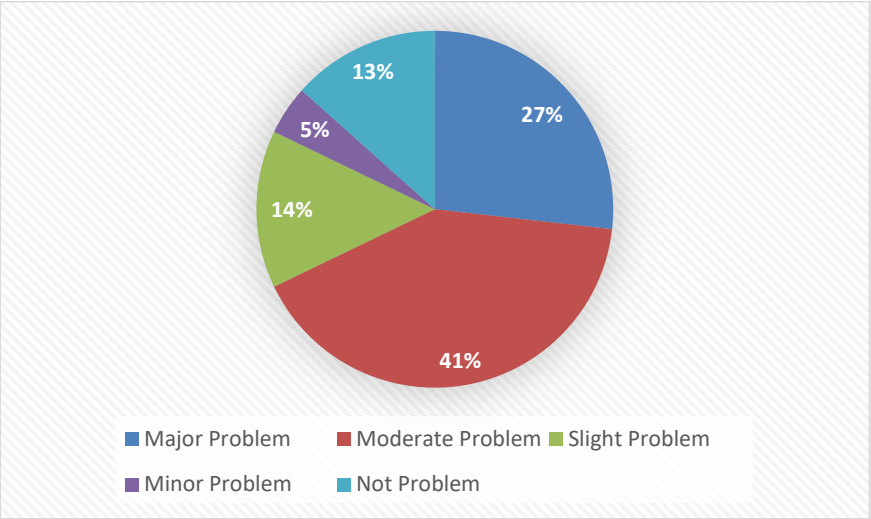
Constraints for improving home gardens

Pest and Disease Problem

A greater percentage of the respondents out of the total population have claimed that pest and diseases as major problem (26.8per cent) or as a moderate problem (40.1per cent). Higher proportion of these respondents was having grade 3 home gardens. Accordingly, these observations indicate that pest and disease problem might adversely affect the overall improvement of the home garden, ultimately leading to a lower grading of the home garden. This issue has been observed mostly among the lower grade home gardeners as they a more prone to lack of knowledge in preventive and control measures used to reduce the loss of productivity due to pests and diseases which is a common problem at any level of cultivation. Therefor the higher number of responses claiming pest and disease problem as major or a moderate problem, inevitably draws our attention to the underlying causes of lacking the knowledge on pest and disease control measures.

The respondents facing “major” or “moderate” problems related to pest and diseases were hardly aware of natural pest control measures and methods of identifying the real cause of the pest or disease condition. This knowledge gap has adversely affected the level of production as well as the psychological benefits that could be gained through maintaining a productive home garden.

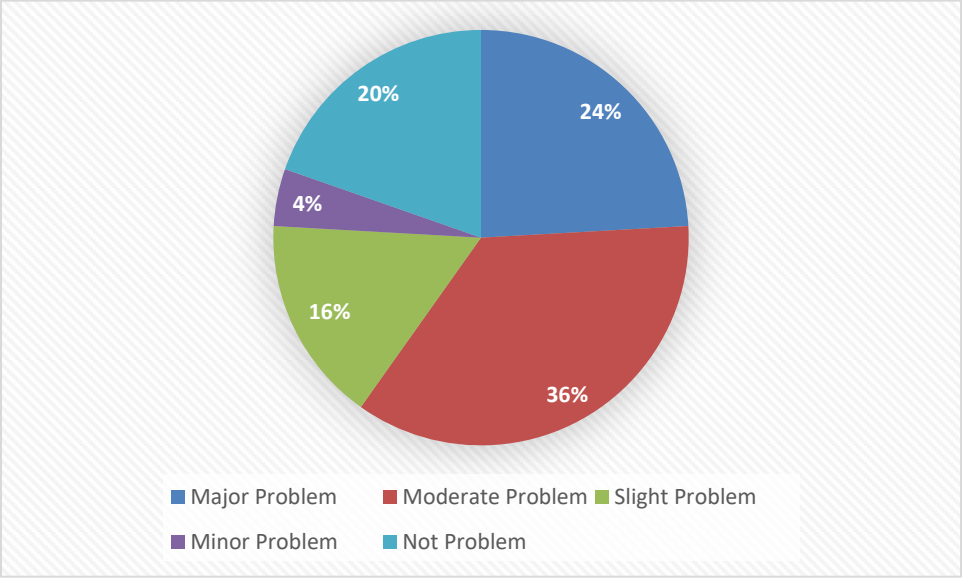
Figure 4 Severerity of Pest and disease problem



Damage due to wild animals

Higher percentage of the sample have stated damage due to wild anima attack is a “strong” or a “moderate” problem that restricts the progress of their home garden. The wild squirrel, porcupine and monkeys were the animal with a highest destructive effect according to the statements of the respondents. Loss of production and damages done to the cultivation at the developing stage negatively effect on the overall production of the home garden and demotivate the people engaged in home gardening.

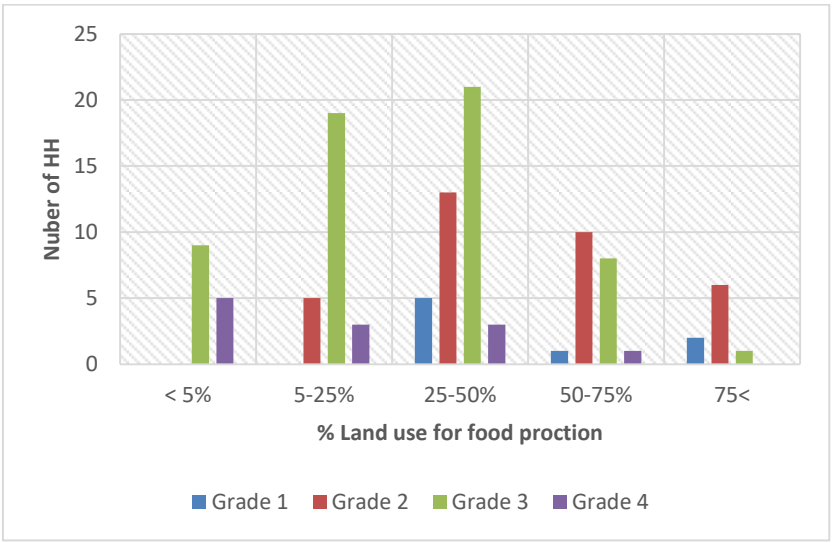
Figure 5 Severerity of Damage due to Wild animals



Low propionate usage of land for food crop cultivation

The proportion of land used for food crop production out of the available land area of the household is considerably low compared to the available land area for home gardening. The figure 4 shows the proportions of land used by the households for food crop cultivation. The number of home gardens having a food crop cover on at least 50per cent of the available area is 25.9per cent households out of the sample. Majority of the households with Grade 3 and 4 home gardens has not utilized at least 50per cent of the available area for food crop cultivation.

Figure 6 Propionate usage of land for food crop cultivation with Grade



Calculations by author

Knowledge Gaps

Based on the analysis, lack of relevant guidance on key areas of establishing and developing a home garden can be identified as a constraint to achieve higher level in home gardening. As an example Lack of knowledge in animal husbandry has been identified as a factor affecting the overall food production of home garden, only 34.8per cent of the total population was having basic knowledge in animal husbandry. Only 6 households (5per cent) were performing milk or egg production.

Moreover, severity of the pest and disease problem has been identified as a significant factor affecting the level of home gardening. This implies that relevant knowledge at different stages of home gardening has not been delivered to majority of the households. 67.9per cent of the total population have stated that pest and disease problem is a major or a moderate issue limiting the overall performance

of the home garden. Majority (74.1 per cent) of the respondents having Grade 3 home gardens have stated that they do not have enough knowledge on pest and disease management practices.

The respondents having better home gardens were more connected with the agriculture extension services while the lower grade home gardeners did not have a good relationship with the extension services. Therefore, strengthening the links between the beneficiaries and extension service providers is of fundamental importance in developing home gardens.

SUMMERY AND CONCLUSION

This study provides evidence to conclude following aspects as factors having significant impact on home gardening with regard to enhancing household food security. The proportion of land extent used for food crop cultivation has a significant relationship with the level of home gardening. But the total land area available for home gardening does not have a significant impact upon the level of home gardening. Damage due to wild animal attacks has significant impact upon the level of home gardening. The knowledge on basic agricultural practices has significant impact upon level of home gardening.

Assistance provided by the government has significant impact upon the grades obtained for home gardening. Government assistance on improving home gardening has been more accessible for high grade home gardens than for the lower grade home gardens. Women participation has a significant impact upon the level of home gardening. This findings has been confirmed by previouse studies. According to Marsh (1998), even where women play a primary role in

home gardening, it can be important to involve the entire family in projects to promote home gardening. Pest and disease problem has a significant impact upon the level of home gardening. This result highly relates with previous findings on similar studies**.** According to an assessment on the benefits and constraints of home gardening in the Neighborhood of the National Horticultural Research Institute of Nigeria, insect attack ranked first among constraints confronting the garden owners as indicated by 39.7per cent of the respondents.(F. Olajide-Taiwo B., 2010) Based on the above factors, following constraints can be identified with regard to developing home gardens for enhancing household food security. Pest and disease problem, damage due to wild animals, low proportionate use of land and lack of appropriate guidance at different stages of home garden can be concluded as limitations for food production in home gardening.

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Training Effectiveness: The Case of Quality and Food Safety Training at ABC Company

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Abstract

In light of the evidence on ineffectiveness of existing quality and food safety trainings at the ABC company, this study explored the reasons and possible actions for improving the effectiveness of the training programs. The study was designed to cover the entire training process of quality and food safety in a 360 degrees evaluation with the use of the Kirkpatrick's training evaluation model. The data were gathered from the trainees, trainers, department heads and the human resource department by means of a questionnaire survey and structured interviews. The study covered 65 respondents altogether. The results show the existence of significant gaps in all the steps of the training process of quality and food safety. The gaps are lying in the processes of training needs identification, establishing the training objectives, selecting the training methods, arranging the trainings and evaluating the performances of the trained people. These deficiencies were triggered by the non-availability of a comprehensive training management protocol in ABC Company. It is implied that the identification of training and development as a subsystem would reduce the ineffectiveness of the quality and food safety trainings of the company.

Keywords: Food safety; Kirkpatrick's model; Quality; Training effectiveness

Introduction

Sustainability of a firm in the food industry is usually challenged due to the fast-moving nature of products and easy entry of new product options. As such, becoming the market leader and maintaining the leadership position are both hard for a firm in the food industry. However, any organization can gain the superiority over the market leader by redefining the market through improving the quality of the goods or services by becoming the quality leader in the eyes of the customer (De Feo & Juran, 2010). This is an experienced reality in the food industry as in all other industries.

The human factor which involves in the food manufacturing process plays a major role in assuring and maintaining the attained quality of a product. Thus, people are the most important factor in assuring quality of products and services, and managing the human factor has a significant impact on the quality performance of an organization (Daud, Jamaludin, & Ramanr, 2012). The top performing companies attempt to assure a strong quality culture with every employee those who understand the importance of quality and work to improve it (Spindelndreier & Lesmeister, 2012). The need of encouraging employees to develop the awareness about achieving the set quality objectives in the food industry has been highlighted in the previous studies. As stated by Antic and Bogetic (2015), expanding the awareness of the quality of products among employees should be above all other responsibilities of the management.

The case of a Sri Lankan company (pseudonym: ABC Company) has opened up the avenue for probing into the human involvement in the quality of its products. The ABC Company is engaged in manufacturing

of highly perishable food products. In the organization, as per the 2018/19 budget, the total number of employees is 425. Being a manufacturer of highly perishable food products, achieving the higher quality and food safety standards and maintaining the same are highly significant matters in the entire manufacturing process of this company. With all the improved and updated systems implemented to assure the quality and food safety, maintaining, updating and improving the systems according to the industry standards have been managed by people in the organization.

During the past few years, some of the monitored quality and food safety indicators of ABC Company have not indicated the improvements on its own measures and some further deteriorations could be observed in the results. During the informal discussion conducted among the senior managers of ABC Company, the major concern raised about this issue was about the return on investment on the training of the plant employees on the quality and food safety. The training programs of quality and food safety covers the employees in all the departments to assure the compliances related to the quality and safety of the food products. However, it was noted that the measurable indicators do not reflect the improving attitudes towards the expected product quality and food safety.

Total 143 employees (both executive and non-executive grades) out of the total carder (425 employees) have attended the quality and food safety trainings (Source: 2018/19 budget figures of ABC Company). The training programs on quality and food safety have been arranged during the past several years. There have been conducted a number of training programs (such as ISO9001, HACCP, ISO22000, Personal

Hygiene, GMP, food safety awareness) and seven quality assurance training programs conducted by the company during the financial years 2015/2016 and 2016/2017. Three out of the seven programs had been conducted by an external training institute and the rest of the four programs had been arranged internally by the internal trainers.

However, surprisingly, the GMP (Good Manufacturing Practices) audit score has been low and declining in the company. In addition to this, the number of process non-conformities reported is on the rise and the trend of the customer complaints is also increasing. Most significantly, the increase of manufacturing volume does not justify the increase of these numbers. The Table 1 below depicts some of the quality indicators.

Table 1: Quality and Food Safety indicators in year 2015/16, 2016/17, 2017/18

Quality & Food Safety Indicators	**2015/16**	**2016/17**	**2017/18**
No. of Consumer Complaints	47	64	61
No. of Process Non-Conformities	78	106	150
GMP Audit Score	69%	58%	55%

Source: Adapted from the KPI Records of Department of Quality Assurance, ABC Company (Year 2015/16, 2016/17, 2017/18)

Thus, despite the efforts made by the ABC Company to conduct quality and food safety training programs in the recent past, the deterioration of the quality and food safety indicators has led to a puzzle which needs to be addressed immediately. At this backdrop, there is a reasonable concern about the effectiveness of the quality assurance training programs conducted by the ABC Company for its plant employees. Accordingly, the research questions addressed in this study are two-fold:

(a) why have the quality and food safety training programs conducted by the ABC company not been effective, and (b) how can the ABC Company improve the effectiveness of the quality and food safety trainings arranged for its plant employees. In line with the above research questions, the objectives of the study are to explore the reasons why have the quality and food safety training programs conducted by the ABC company not been effective, and how can the ABC Company improve the effectiveness of the quality and food safety trainings arranged for its plant employees.

The literature review revealed that there is a dearth of studies pertaining to the factors affecting the effectiveness training programs on quality and food safety of the food manufacturing industry in Sri Lanka. Hence, the findings of this investigation could be utilized by the management of the ABC Company as well as similar other companies in the same industry. The findings of the study would be beneficial to the human resource development team, especially in optimizing the training effectiveness of the food industry. The findings of this research could also serve as a source of information for further studies to be carried out in the Sri Lankan food industry while serving as a guide for manufacturers in other industries when organizing the effective training programs for their employees.

Literature review

Quality and food safety

Quality and food safety are two major global concerns connected with various areas of everyday life as well as a special concern for the food manufacturing companies. Food safety has been defined as the handling, preparing and storing food in a way to minimize a possible risk of

individuals becoming sick from food-borne illnesses (Santacruz, 2016, p.1). Thus, both quality and food safety are equally important in the food industry, as the quality assures the meeting of customer preference and the food safety assures the safe food to the customer.

It is essential for a food manufacturing company to maintain the quality of their products and follow the standard food safety principals in order to become the best marketer in the industry. In order for a company to do so it is an adequate necessity to conduct training programs to enhance the productivity and the effectiveness of both executives and the non-executives of the company. There are research findings that adequate food safety training for all employees can have a positive impact on health inspection scores and on some food safety behaviors (Rowell et al. 2013, p. 2). As per Rowell et al. (2013), the basic hygiene requirements such as hand washing are considered in relation to the food safety, while the employee training and implementation are essential in preventing food-borne illness. They further suggest that these trainings do not only improve employee knowledge, but also provide employees the needed behavior-based learning to change their actions. Although the quality and food safety management are the system driven processes, the people who manage these processes should have been well developed to change their attitudes towards quality and food safety. The quality is explained as an attitude. The attitudes are adopted and not innate, and at the same time, attitudes not born but learned (Dewsnap, n.d.). Hence, attitudes towards the quality should be enhanced in the human factor in an organization. Training plays a major role in this regard.

Training for quality of food safety

As elaborated by Gaungoo and Jeewon (2013), "Training of managers, supervisors and all people who can influence the safety of food is essential to reduce the unacceptable high levels of food poisoning" (p. 2). Training is not only for acquiring knowledge. It is about sharpening the skills, changing the behavior to do the things better or differently than that of the same was performed. "Business concepts-human resources" (n.d.) notes that training and development are a subsystem of an organization which maintains the improvement of the performance of individuals and groups of the organization. It identifies training as an educational process which sharpens the skills, knowledge, and changes the attitudes required in developing the employees.

As stated by Armstrong (2009), training involves "the application of formal processes to impart knowledge and help people to acquire the skills necessary for them to perform their jobs satisfactorily" (p. 665). According to Spindelndreier and Lesmeister (2012), training is intended to modify or develop knowledge, skills and attitude through learning experiences and to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Training can be offered as skill development for individuals and groups with an ultimate requirement to modify their attitudes.

By conducting effective training programs, organizations can evaluate the growth of its employees' efficiency and the quality of its products or services. It also provides the organization with the ability to survive, especially with the hard competition of the days. In general, training is a typical process to provide employees with new skills or improve their

knowledge to a higher stage in order to enhance the behavioral change to alter the culture of the organization to achieve the set goals.

Types of Training and learning

There are two main types of trainings that should be considered in organizations (Spilsbury, 1995). They are on-the-job training and off-the-job training. As explained by Spilsbury (1995), in on-the-job trainings, employees learn in an environment in which they will need to practice the knowledge, skills competencies that are needed for employees to perform a specific job within the workplace and work environment. On-the-job training uses the regular or existing workplace tools, machines, documents, equipment, knowledge, and skills necessary for an employee to learn to effectively perform his or her job. The off-the-job training is the training method where the employees learn their job roles away from the actual work floor. The off-job trainings are performed in a separate venue which is out of the work place in the same organization or outside. In these trainings the practice approaches may be limited.

In addition to these, the initial categorization of learning at workplace is identified as informal learning and formal learning (Armstrong, 2009). Informal learning is acquired through various methods including conversation, discussions, guidance or social interaction with other colleagues, teamwork and mentoring. It takes place while people are learning on-the-job. Employees can learn and acquire 70 percent of knowledge, information about their job in an informal way via the processes which are not structured or sponsored by the organization. Formal learning is a planned and systematic learning process. It makes use of structured training programs consisting of instruction and practice

that may be conducted on or off the job. Formal learning and developmental activities may be used such as action learning, coaching, mentoring and outdoor learning. Both the quality and food safety trainings can be formal or informal and on-the-job or off-the-job.

Training cycle

Spilsbury (1995) suggested that the training should not be considered as a static event or a liner process but as a cyclical process. Accordingly, the information about the effectiveness is fed-back into the design of the training program. For this reason, the training process was called the 'training cycle'. "The Training Cycle consists of a series of steps which lead to a training event being undertaken: evaluation provides feedback which links back to the initial stages of training design" (Spilsbury, 1995, p. 19). Thus, the training cycle is designed before the training program is conducted and continues after the program has been completed. The figure 1 below illustrates the five stages of the Training Cycle.

Figure 1: Training cycle

Source: Adopted from Biech, (n.d.)

The steps of the training cycle can be explained as below (*Donald Kirkpatrick's Learning Evaluation Model 1959; Review and Contextual Material*).

1. Identify training needs - Conduct an assessment and analyze the data, to identify specific areas of needs for the training. The content for the training and the method of training should be developed.

2. **Establish objectives** – State exactly what the training should accomplish. It can be either or both learning/performance objective and training objective.
3. **Select Training methods** – Decide on the suitable methods accordingly to the needs and objectives.
4. **Conduct and deliver Training** – Conduct with adequate preparation with professional trainers and good presentation skills. Be more of a facilitator than an instructor.
5. **Evaluate Performance -** The evaluation stage is an important part of the training cycle. This would indicate whether the objectives were reached, the progress on the trained and the highlights areas for future training needs.

The steps of the training cycle have been explained differently in various studies. However, the five-step training cycle is commonly used.

Training effectiveness

Bramley (1997) defined training effectiveness as "a measure that examines the degree to which training improved the employee's knowledge, skill, and behavioral pattern within the organization as a result of the training" (p. 20). The effectiveness of training can be fundamentally measured by evaluating the employee's performance within a selected period of time after the training is conducted

(Morrison & Hammon, 2000). Chong (2006) stated that the evaluation of training effectiveness is usually connected to measuring the change occurred which ultimately leads to performance (p. 1). Thus, in a synthesized view, Bramley (1997), Chong (2006) and Morrison and Hammon (2000) depict that the measurement of training effectiveness includes gain of skills or knowledge, changing the behavioral pattern or performances of the people trained. Therefore, each step of the training cycle (Spilsbury, 1995) should be evaluated and assured to achieve the above result which is expected from the trained employees. Another major aspect of transfer of knowledge was pointed by Kjeldsen (2006) highlighting the requirement of examining the level of newly acquired knowledge, skills or behaviour retained in a longer period of time. Kraiger, Ford, and Salas (n.d.) also argued that the performances shown by trainees after a training at a particular level in the short run may differ substantially in the long run.

Evaluating the training effectiveness

Measuring or evaluating the effectiveness of training of an organization could bring several benefits. When the training session is planned, it should start with a list of specific learning objectives which should be the starting point for the measurement. Depending on the objectives and depending on whether it intended any changes in knowledge, skills, or attitudes, the learning can be measured ("Kirkpatrick's Four-Level Training Evaluation Model," n.d.). Evaluating the training effectiveness is a difficult and costly task. Before setting up structures to measure the training effectiveness, it is required to make sure whether there is a serious interest in training because the benefits of conducting evaluations can be substantially outweigh the cost incurred for it

(Spilsbury, 1995). Evaluating the training outcomes in the absence of an evaluation of the full process of the training cycle, is also cost effective, however, this approach does not provide the full picture of the effectiveness of the entire training process.

The training evaluation cycle

The five-steps training evaluation cycle, presented by Kirkpatrick, has been well used in the existing literature ("Manual on Training Evaluation," n.d.). This process can be briefed as below:

1. **Identify the Purposes of Evaluation**.

Before developing evaluation systems, the purposes of evaluation must be determined.

2. **Select Evaluation Method**

The commonly used evaluation model is Kirkpatrick's four levels of training evaluating program.

3. **Design Evaluation Tools**

Various evaluation tools can be selected depending on the purposes and methods of evaluation such as questionnaire, interviews, focus group discussions etc.,

4. **Collect Data**

It should be decided who, when and how the data are collected.

5. **Analyze and Report Results**

This step includes the analysis of collected data for arriving at evaluation results and reporting them to the required parties.

Models of training evaluation

The most popular and widely used training evaluation model is the Kirkpatrick Model. This model has been introduced by Donald Kirkpatrick in 1950. It has been undergone some modifications and refinements in the past (Telania, 2004). The four primary levels of evaluation are illustrated in the Figure 2 below.

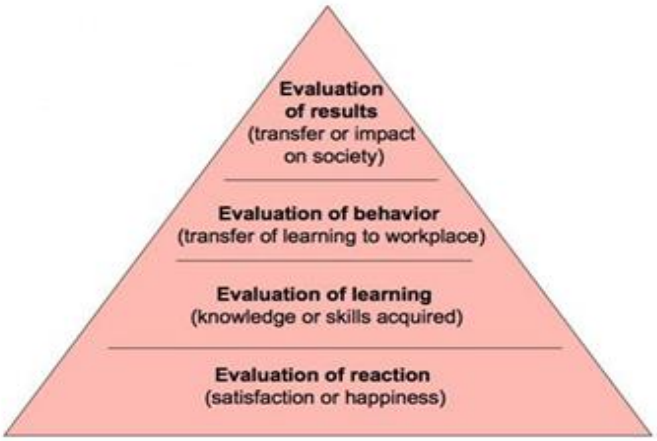

Figure 2: Kirkpatrick's model of training evaluation

Source: *Kirkpatrick's Four-Level Training Evaluation Model (n.d.)*

Kirkpatrick's model consists of 'Four Levels of Training Evaluation'. The four main levels are defined as follows (Kirkpatrick's Four-Level Training Evaluation Model, n.d.).

1. Reaction

This level measures how the people being trained and reacted to the training. It is considered that whether the people who were trained feel that the training was a valuable experience, feel good about the instructor, the topic, the material, its presentation, and the venue. Measuring the reaction helps understand how well the training was

received by the audience. It also helps to improve the training for future trainees.

2. Learning

At level 2, it measures what the trainees have learned and how much has their knowledge increased as a result of the training.

3. Behavior

At this level, it evaluates how far trainees have changed their behavior, based on the training they received. Specifically, this looks at how trainees apply the information.

4. Results

At this level, the final results of the training are analyzed.

The level three of the Kirkpatrick Model does not totally depends on the first two levels of measurement. Employees may not apply what they learned however it does not mean that the training failed at levels 1 and 2 of the model. There are other affecting factors for employees to apply what they learned. They are, (a) the manager or supervisor can prevent employees from changing the way they do their jobs and (b) the employees might not have a desire to change their behavior. The level 3, which measures the behavior, can be the most difficult to measure effectively. The first two levels of the Kirkpatrick's Model provide immediate responses and results of the trainings. However, measuring the behavior requires more of a long-term approach. It can take weeks or even months to measure the behavior changes of employees that result from attending training sessions (How to assess the effectiveness of your training using the Kirkpatrick Model, n.d.). Kirkpatrick's model focuses mainly on immediate outcomes rather than the process leading to the results in the long run (Chong, 2006).

Conceptual framework of the study

As informed by the literature review, the training cycle can be used as the model for evaluating the full process of the quality and food safety training at the ABC Company. Accordingly, the Kirkpatrick's training evaluation model is adopted as the conceptual framework of the present study. Thus, different evaluation levels explained in the Kirkpatrick's training evaluation model were incorporated in this conceptual framework in order to check the identified dimensions in the 360-degree analysis.

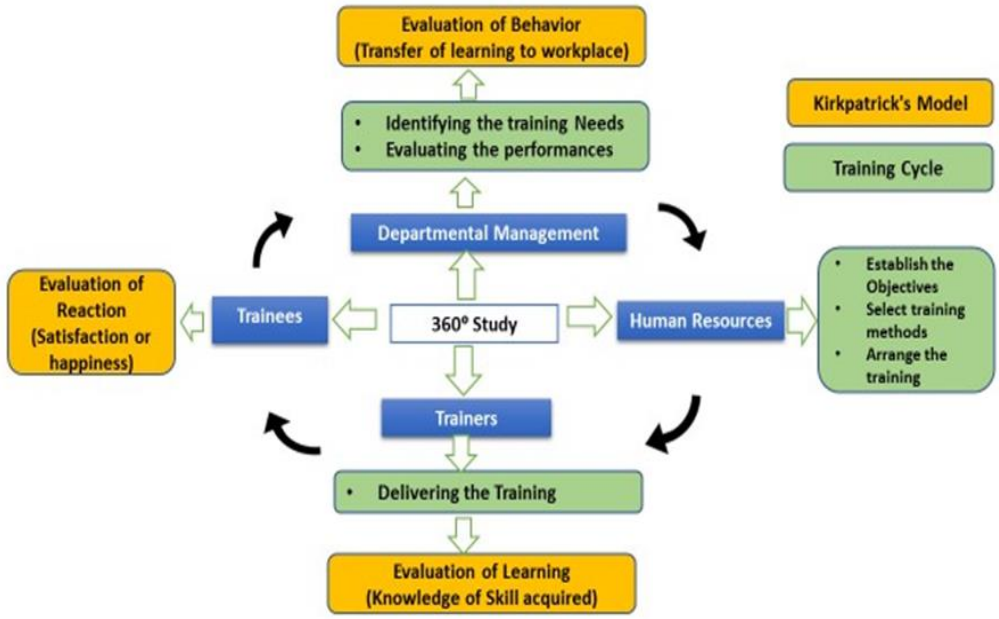

Figure 3: Conceptual framework

Methods

Adopting a deductive approach and following a predetermined framework based on the literature review, the study objectives were achieved in a qualitative inquiry. The exploration covered existing training process at the case organization in a 360

degrees perspective which encapsulates the entire training process of the quality and food safety trainings, covering all major parties who involved in the process.

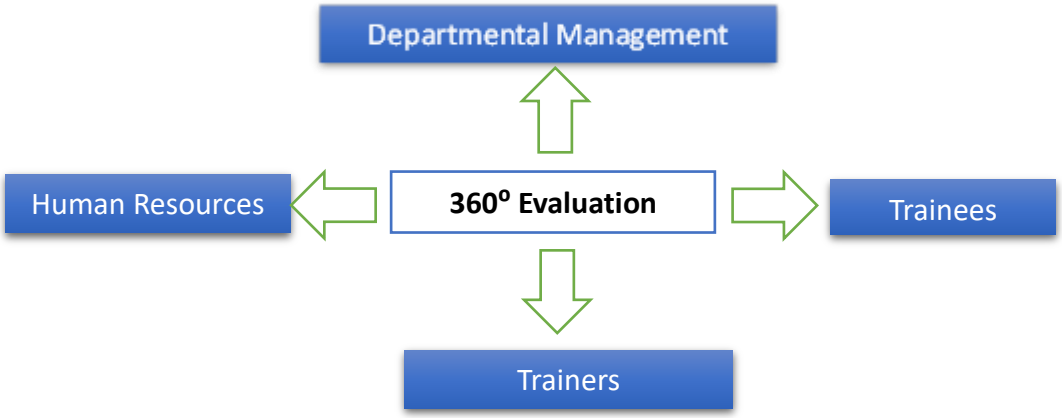

Figure 4: Dimensions (parties) involved in the training process

The data were gathered through a questionnaire survey conducted for trainees and a structured interviews conducted with the trainers, human resource (HR) department and the heads of line departments (manufacturing and quality assurance). The questionnaire in English language was adopted for the trainee executives and the questionnaire in Sinhala language (translation) was used for the trainee non-executives.

The respondents of the study included the trainees, trainers, the HR executive, and the heads of line (manufacturing and quality assurance) departments. Accordingly, a sample of forty (40) out of the nighty (90) trainees in the non-executive grade were conveniently selected as the sample for collecting data through the questionnaire survey while all the nineteen (19) executives participated in the same trainings were considered to collect the data through the same questionnaire. (Twenty-two trainees who attended the same training were casual workers and they were not available in the carder currently). The external trainers

those who conducted the external quality and food safety trainings and the internal trainer who conducted the internal trainings were interviewed. (The other internal trainer who conducted trainings in these training programs has left the company). The Human Resource (HR) executive who is responsible for the training process, and the heads of the two line departments (manufacturing and quality assurance) to which trainees belong were also interviewed.

The primary data were gathered through the questionnaire survey from the trainees and on one-on-one semi-structured interviews held with the rest of the respondents in the four dimensions of the training process. The semi-structured interviews were adopted in order to maintain the uniformity in the data gathering process. Interviews with the internal trainer, departmental management and HR executive were recorded and transcribed for in-depth reviewing and analyzing with the permission of the respondents. The names of the respondents being omitted to ensure the anonymity. Prior approvals were obtained from the interviewees and the appointments sought in order to carry out the interviews. The administration of the interviews was performed by the researchers with the support of an assistant. A summary of the data collection protocol is presented in the Table 2 below.

Table 2: Method of data collection

Dimensions in the Model	Respondents	Method
Trainees	Executives	Questionnaire survey
	Non-executives	Questionnaire survey
Trainers	Internal	Interviews
	External	Interviews
Department heads	Manufacturing Department 1 and 2	Interviews
	Quality Assurance Department	Interviews
Human resources	HR Executive	Interviews

Data collected from the trainees through the survey questionnaire were obtained on a Likert scale and analyzed statistically. Thematic analysis was conducted for analyzing the qualitative data obtained through interviews.

Findings and analysis

Why quality and food safety training of the company has been ineffective

The analysis of data on the reasons why quality and food safety training of the company has been ineffective have been analyzed below in line with the four dimensions (trainee, trainer, heads of departments and HR executive).

Dimension of trainees - Executives

Two of the nineteen (19) executives participated in the quality and food safety trainings in year 2015/16 and 2016/17, have left the company and

Thirteen (13) out of seventeen executives who are available in the executive carder (76%) responded the survey questionnaire.

The responses are mostly positive for all the questions probed into the reaction of respondents on the training programs, except for the questions those focused on their prior knowledge about the purpose of the training course and about successful application of what they learned. In total, from 76.9% to 100% respondents were either 'agree' or 'strongly agree' with the positive aspects of the training, except for the above two matters. See the Figure 5 for summary for responses in this regard.

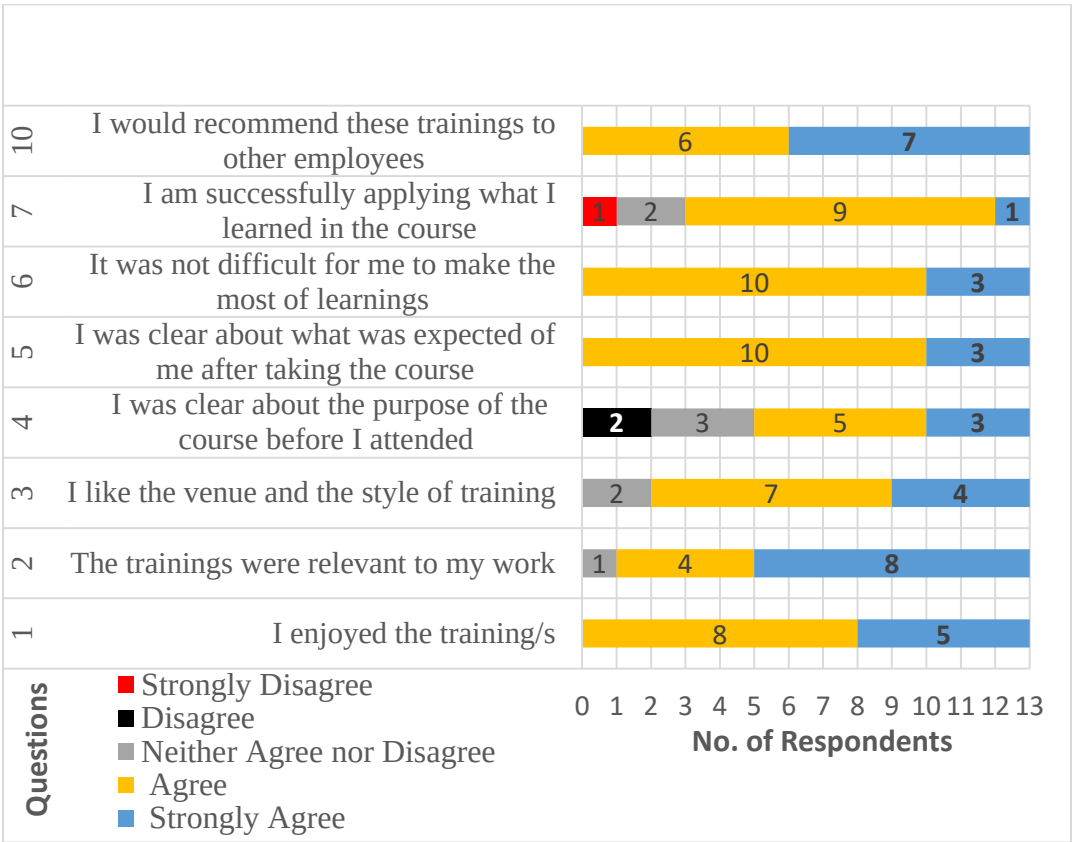

Figure 5: Summary of the responses of trainees- executives
Source: Survey data (2018)

However, while 23.1% trainee executives do not agree with the possibility of successful implementation of the learning achieved, the rest (76.9%) of trainee executives have specified the reasons for successful implementation. The three major reasons identified in this regard were, (a) past experiences, (b) help from co-workers, and (c) help from the immediate supervisors. Hence, the responses are mostly positive on the matter whether the trainees knew about the purpose of the training course before they attended it. See the Figure 6 below for detailed data on this matter.

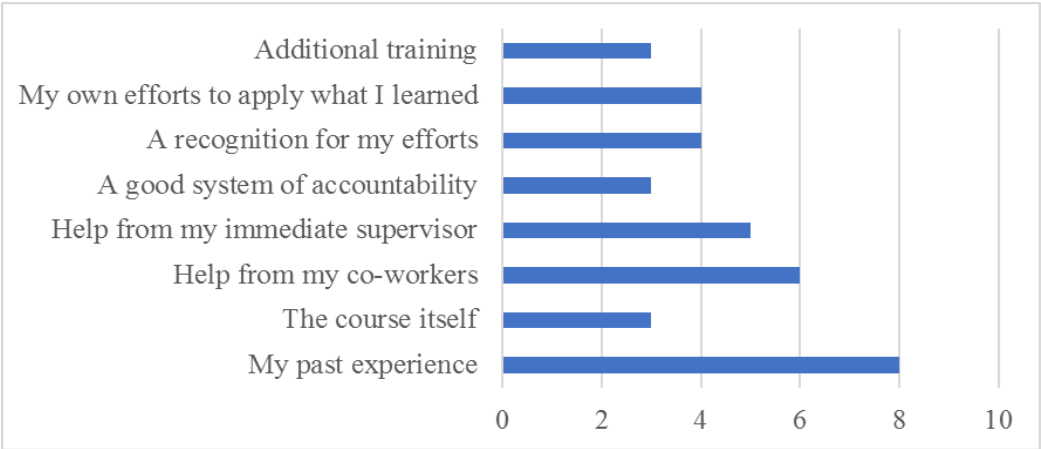

Figure 6: Reasons for successful implementation of what executives learned

Source: Survey data (2018)

Surprisingly, the executives have marked the lowest score for the reason of successful implementation which termed 'Training itself' which means, though they implemented what they have learned, that is mostly because of their experience and the assistance from the team and from

the supervisor. Thus, the impact of the training itself in implementing what they have learned has been minimal. This confusing argument can be elaborated as, the executives trust their own experience than what they have learned at the implementation of something gained from the training.

Dimension of trainees - Non-executives

The category of non-executives comprised a mix of different levels of shop floor team members, ranging from the team leaders to the lowest level floor workers. Accordingly, some of the casual workers are also included in the sample. With regards to the sample of forty of the non-executives, only twenty-seven (67%) have responded to the questionnaire. Ten out of those forty trained non-executives had left the company.

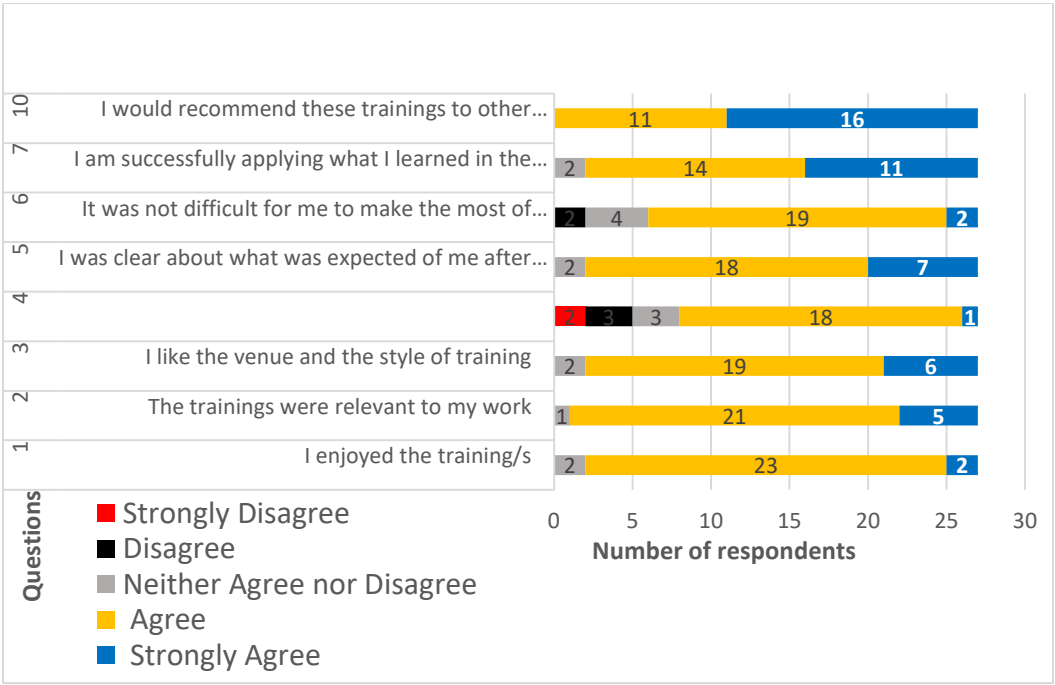

Figure 7: Summary of responses from non-executive trainees

Source: Survey data (2018)

From among the non-executives, 92.6% either agree or strongly agree that they are implementing what they have learned though the trainings. The other significant factor with this non-executive trainee group is, 22.2% of the participants were either disagree or neutral in accepting that the most of the trainings are not difficult for them to make a 6---learning. It means that 22.2% of non-executive participants had experienced difficulties in learning what was taught to them.

Comparatively, the non-executives have implemented what they have learned greater than that of executives did. However, it was found that the non-executives believe that the reason behind the implementation of what they learned is, the training itself together with the support of co-workers and their immediate supervisor.

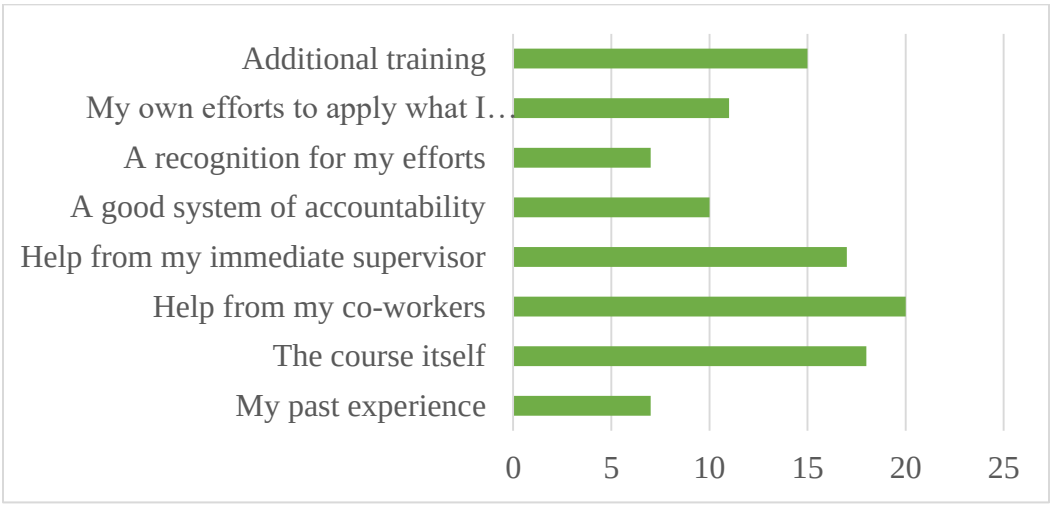

Figure 8: Reasons for successful implementation of what non-executives learned

Source: Survey data (2018)

Dimension of trainers

An external Training Institute has facilitated external trainings and two trainers (A) and (B) have involved in conducting the three quality and food safety training sessions. During the interview of (A) and (B) separately, the both noted that the training programs for which the trainees participated from ABC company were common training programs. Those training programs were not customized (tailor-made) for the ABC Company. As per the list of trainees, 95% of participants are executives (Source: Training attendance master list of ABC Company – Year 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18.)

The enrollment of the trainees from the ABC company was based on the request made by the ABC company. As further explained, ABC company has not discussed about the content of the trainings or about the competencies required for the participants in requesting the trainings for their employees. Both the trainers were in a common view about the participants' behavior during the sessions. Since these trainings had been conducted at least one year ago and the participants were from different organizations, the responders were not able to specify any specific remark about the active or interactive participation of the trainees of ABC Company. However, trainers assured that those trainings were interactive.

Further, both the trainers were not able to assure that the trainees of ABC Company learned what they intended to be taught. However, trainers have verified experiences to assure the effectiveness of their trainings delivered to the intended participants. The two trainers had a mixed view about the enhancement of the skills, knowledge and behavioral changes of the trainees occurred due to these particular trainings programs. Trainer (A) does not believe this occurrence while

the trainer (B) does. The view of trainer (B) is that the skill, knowledge and behavioral enhancement of the trainees can be expected only through these trainings, however the refreshing trainings should be arranged to the same participants periodically.

As per the trainers, ABC company has not communicated about the competencies of the participants before the training and further had not requested any post training feedback as well. The Training Institute measures the post training feedback from each participant however, that information has not been shared with the ABC Company. The trainer (A) and (B) both agreed that the sustainability of the performance enhancement which is expected from the trainings may differ in the long run unless refreshment training is not arranged. However, the factors which can affect the job satisfaction can also impact on this long-term sustainability. Both the trainers were satisfied about the basic knowledge of the participants on the quality and the food safety.

The quality assurance manager (QAM) is the only internal trainer who is available with ABC Company currently. The QAM has conducted the trainings on the personal hygiene and the GMP (Good Manufacturing Practices) in the plant training room. These two trainings provide the required solid foundation in the food industry with respect to the improving of the basic quality and food safety awareness and practices. Hence, the outcome of these trainings initiates the basic attitude required for the quality and food safety assurances.

The trainer does not agree that the participants joined the training programs with an enthusiasm. Further, the actual number of the participants was lower than that of the expected/ planned numbers. Further, the trainer emphasized several times that the trainees participated in the programs since they were asked to do so and also to

have a bit of relief from the work load. The trainer further mentioned that the low interest of trainees leads to disappointment of trainers in the program. The training programs are designed with many technical information and most of the participants were shop floor workers including the casual workers those who are not well knowledgeable on theoretical stuff. Adding further, the trainer commented that the worker grade carders do not know why the trainings are conducted and they are not in a position to gauge the value of the trainings. Hence, the course content itself might made the people low attentive for the trainings.

The content of the training is prepared by the trainer. The trainer always attempts to cover the basics of the quality and food safety practices and include the short videos mostly to grab the attention and interest of the trainees with a view to focusing the practical adaptation at the shop floor. Most of the time, those videos explain the improved quality and food safety practices which are not currently available in the plant. As an example, the trainer explained about the modern hand washing stations which are used in the food industry through the videos during the last GMP training session however, the hand washing stations which are available in the plant are very basic operations.

The human resources department does not provide the background of the trainees or any other guideline for the expected trainings and only the date and time of the training organized have been informed to the trainer. After the trainings, the human resources department has not obtained the trainer's feedback. However, a format for the post training evaluation has been filled by the participants at the end of each training session.

The trainer does not agree to accept that, most of the participants learned what they intent to learn. As the reason, the trainer again emphasized the low interest of the participants. The trainer has experienced the sessions are more interactives with the executives however, the non-executives are just listeners. The trainer seemed disappointed through his bad experiences and is having an issue on how to capture the interest of the participants. Finally, the trainer concluded the interview mentioning as “It is waste of my time”.

In summary, the comments from the external and internal trainers about their trainings and about the trainees are totally different and the response of the trainees are also completely different at the internal and external trainings.

Dimension of HR department

The HR executive who is responsible for the trainings of ABC Company was interviewed. The comments from the HR executive cover the entire training process of ABC Company and however, common for the quality and food safety trainings as well.

The preparation of the annual training plan is performed during the annual budget preparation. The process initiated by circulating a standard format by the HR executive among the department heads to receive the training needs identifications from each department. The department heads request all the training programs required for their department as per the operation of the department. In this format, the target groups such as executives, team leader, operates etc., and the numbers of employees nominated for the training are communicated to HR executive. The quality assurance (QA) manager provides the quality and food safety trainings required for the entire plant team including the

specific trainings which are focused for the QA team as well. In the QA trainings, the QA manager categories the training requirements as internal and external. Except the QA manager, other department heads also request the common quality and GMP trainings such as trainings on GMP, hygiene as well.

However, it is understood that during this process, the department heads decide the training requirement by naming the training programs and nominating the number of participants. The role of HR is to finalize the training institutes for the external trainings and the internal trainers, arranging and coordinating the trainings. The requirement of establishing the training objectives has not been identified. Upon the receipt of the training requirements, the HR executive prepares the annual training plan for internal and external trainings. The related external training institutes are contacted, and the training prospects issued by those organizations are used to select the required external trainings and to compare the cost factor. The annual external training plan prepared for the ABC Company is subjected to the approval during the budget approval process.

The process of identifying the training methods is not available as per the HR Executive. The HR executive's view about the training needs identification is, "It should be performed by the department management". However, she further confirmed that the structured and documented training needs identification process is not available with the ABC Company.

In selecting the external training institutes for quality and food safety trainings, the HR executive should have to manage with the available limited training institutes and the training programs as well as with the

cost factor. If the cost of external training is higher than the cost allocated in the budget, the few executives from the selected team are sent for the training and those trainees are utilized as the resource persons to train the rest of the team members selected for the same training. The training skills of these 'trainers' are not a factor considered in this process. However, the turnover of these trained executives, has become a barrier in continuing the internal trainings. At the end of the internal trainings, the trainer assessment forms are filled by the participants. As per the HR executive, however, the use of these information to evaluate the trainers is not been performed. Further, arranging the tailor-made external training for the nominated group of peoples in accordance with the training needs has not been practiced.

Only a single private Training Institute, has been deployed for the quality and food safety trainings for the period covered in this research. Being the accreditation body of the quality and food safety system certification of the ABC company, this Training Institute has been selected for conducting external trainings. The training evaluation process is being managed and that has been done through the departmental managements and through a questionnaire organized by HRD. As per the HR executive, the casual workers have become a major concern in quality and food safety related trainings. The varying number of casual workers which is from 20 to 100 depending on the production seasons are employed through a manpower agency in the shop floor. Refreshing of these casual workers with new members very frequently is a serious issue which the plant management experiences. With this high turnover, covering all the new casual workers at least with the basic GMP and hygiene trainings is not possible, and the basic

awareness is managed for the new comers by using a set of printed instructions.

The HR executive explained her view further on the effectiveness of the training highlighting the failure of achieving the intended outcomes of the trainings which is because of the higher turnover of the trained executives. Most of the trained executives do not show an interest to share the knowledge after the external trainings as a trainer and the HR executive brought some examples to justify her comment. Some executives attend only for the external trainings and that is to add qualifications for their carrier and then leave the company. Furthermore, in relation with the GMP and hygiene trainings, specifically the HR executive mentioned through her 11 years' experience that the expected attitude change has not been gained though the same trainings have been continued for years. Even though HR executive's comments are common for the entire trainings process, which is under her responsibility, there are commonalities which is applied for the quality and food safety.

In summary of the interview with the HR, the following causes were identified as the gaps of the current training management process which directly impact on the effectiveness of the trainings organized: (a) training process is not operated through the set objectives, (b) lack of a set protocol (including, training needs identification, selecting of the training methods according to the training needs and participants, a protocol to evaluate and use the data collected at the post training evaluation), (c) budget limitations, (d) lack of skilled internal trainers and turnover of trained executives, (e) ineffective criteria of selecting the external trainers, and (f) frequent turnover of casual workers.

Dimension of heads of departments (manufacturing and quality assurance)

The heads of the two-manufacturing departments and the department of quality assurance were interviewed for obtaining relevant data.

Manufacturing departments

The production manager-01, head of one of the two manufacturing departments interviewed endorsed the process explained by the HR executive. The training needs of the existing employees of this department are identified during the performance evaluation. The department head discusses with the new comers to identify their training needs. A set documented procedure is not available to evaluate the training effectiveness. However, the head of the department discusses with the employees randomly after coming back from the trainings to gauge the employee's knowledge gain. Further, during the routing performance evaluations, they are monitored to observe the improvements or new initiatives.

The head of this department (production manager-01) is satisfied with the outcomes of the external trainings of his employees since there were instances that the employees initiated new events such as introducing new check lists for monitoring the processes. The production manager-01 has noted that the reason for the lower effectiveness of the trainings is significantly due to the higher degree of turnover of the executives and team leaders who leave the company, putting new or low experienced executives to run the operation. While commenting on the possible reasons for the deterioration of the quality and food safety indicators, the production manager emphasized that the frequent

refreshing of the casual workers and improper training and awareness of the quality and food safety norms as the major reasons.

The production manager-02 of the next manufacturing department also explained the same process of identification of the training needs which was explained by the HR executive and the production manager-01. The production manager-02 highlighted a major gap of the internal trainings. Though the employees are nominated for trainings as the individuals or groups, the trainings on GMP, hygiene and food safety are arranged during the day shift, and so the employees who are in the night shift may miss such trainings. The shift change happens once a week and the possibility of arranging the same training in the next week is minimal.

The comment of the production manager-02 which is on the evaluation of the training effectiveness was different to that of others. The feedback forms are not used consistently and there are not fixed time frames to evaluate the trainings through those feedback forms. However, the department management monitor the effectiveness during the operations of the trained employees. A set documented protocol has not been implemented for this matter. As per the production manager-02, the effectiveness of the training is very low and two major reasons can be highlighted for this inadequate performance. First is that the internal trainings have not been designed on the practical aspects and those trainings are theory-driven. Since the level of education of the shop floor workers are low, the theory-bound trainings are not fruitful. Second, point is related to the attitudes of the employees on the shop floor level. Although they are trained, they do not follow or implement what they learned. The production manager-02 also highlighted the employee turnover (especially executives and the next level) of contract

workers as a major cause for low effectiveness of trainings. Further, the production manager-02 added another two points, that are the low attention of the top management on the training and development of the human factor and the budget restrictions which limits the arrangement of the required trainings.

Quality assurance department

The quality assurance manager (QAM) who was the internal trainer for quality and food safety was interviewed as the department head of QA. QAM's comments as the department head could be cross verified since he was the internal trainer as well.

The process of identifying the training needs and nominating trainees explained by the head of QA was the same as mentioned by the other heads of departments. However, the QA manager uses a different process to evaluate the training effectiveness while monitoring the employees during the operations. The QA team participates mainly in quality and food safety related trainings and after the external trainings, the QAM checks the training materials, discussed with the participants and ask them to teach back what they learned.

Although, the QAM is the internal trainer, as well as a head of department, he accepts that the training effectiveness is low. As a department head, the QAM's comment was "How much we train the people on quality and food safety, many of them do not comply with basic hygiene norms".

QAM remarked that it is not about the knowledge or skills of them towards the job, but it is about their attitudes, poor awareness of the quality and food safety risks and negligence which causes for the low effectiveness of the quality and food safety trainings. QAM further

emphasized, “Even so much they are trained, they don’t want to change their behaviors, and they still continue the same behavior as usual”. While proposing the repeat and refresh trainings, the QAM emphasized the requirement of a proper system for identifying the training needs and the training evaluation. Furthermore, the QAM indicated that the recording of the negligence and violation of quality norms done by employees as well as paying attention to such negative aspects at the annual employee evaluation are required.

In summary, although some comments revealed in the interviews are commonly related to the overall training programs, the major essence of that and some specific causes highlighted are directly related to the lower effectiveness of the quality and food safety training programs organized by the ABC company. The highlights are as follows: (a) set protocols for needs identification and training evaluation are not available, (b) failure of training the casual workers is a major reason of deterioration of quality indicators, (c) current training programs are not capable of changing the employee’s attitudes towards the quality and food safety, (d) training outcomes are not sustainable, (e) turnover of the trained employees, and (f) budget restrictions and limited management commitment on the training and development.

Possible actions to improve the training effectiveness

The analysis of data on possible actions to improve the training effectiveness from the four dimensions (Trainee, trainer, heads of departments and HR executive) are presented in the section follows.

Dimension of trainees - Executives

The trainee executives proposed a few suggestions towards the improvement of the existing quality and food safety training of the Company. The main points can be summarized to note that (a) make the content of the trainings more practical rather than based on theory, (b) GMP, hygiene, quality and food safety trainings should be continued, (c) GMP and hygiene training should be for all the employees, (d) provide room, support and leadership for implementing what have been learned, (e) arrange frequent refresh trainings, (f) conduct the trainings according to the training needs, (g) evaluate the training feedbacks, (h) implement some quality tools such as quality circles, and (i) arrange more trainings related to the quality and food safety systems such as ISO 9001, 22000, HACCP.

Dimension of trainees - Non-executives

The non-executives of the Company have brought to the notice some of the improvements needed in the existing training system as to (a) incorporate more quality and food safety trainings in the programs, (b) GMP and hygiene trainings should be continued, (c) GMP trainings should be accompanied with the job tasks (e.g. machine operations), and (d) provide training for new comers and provide opportunity for sharing knowledge among already trained employees,

In summary, both the executives and non-executives have proposed to continue the trainings while the top majority requests the key and basic trainings in quality and food safety which are GMP and Hygiene to be continued. These two training programs are the group trainings which cover most of the employees and the same trainings have been proposed to continue to improve the effectiveness of the trainings. In other words,

the teams propose the refresh and follow up trainings to improve the effectiveness of the trainings. However, the proposals on changing the attitudes of the employees, encouraging the implementations of learnings, be more practical in trainings and the trainers with training quality are the most highly noted other proposals to improve the effectiveness of the quality and food safety trainings.

Dimension of trainers

The external trainers of the Company suggested some strategies from their viewpoints. Thus, their suggestions were, (a) getting the most suitable candidates for the training, (b) performing training need identification and analysis, (c) performing post training evaluation by the company, (d) organizing customized external training (if ABC Company plan more than 10 participants), (e) involving heads of department in training need identification and post training evaluation, (f) properly communicating with training institute on their training requirements, (g) linking training with organizational/ departmental/individual objectives and performances, and (h) relating training (other than awareness training) needs to the career progress of the employees. The internal trainer proposed to prepare a plan to change the attitudes of the non-executives toward to value the requirement of being complied with the quality and food safety requirements of the plant.

Dimension of HR department

As per the HR executives of the Company, there are several improvements to be made in the existing trainings system. As revealed by them, (a) the training effectiveness should be linked to the related KPIs, (b) grouping employees with similar training needs by the line

departments so that tailor-made training programs can be arranged for them and (c) employee turnover intention to be identified in advance before recommending them for training programs.

Dimension of heads of departments

In proposing to improve the effectiveness of the quality and food safety trainings, the requirement of conducting the follow up and refresh trainings were proposed. The major deficiency which the manager highlighted was, though some effectiveness of the trainings were observed after coming back from the trainings, in the long runs those employees come back to normal and he believes, through encouragement, follow ups and refresh trainings, the effectiveness of the trainings can be improved. Minimizing the classroom training up to 40% and redesigning the internal quality and food safety trainings to include 60% of practical and relevant training aspects is the major requirement which was proposed by the production manager-02 to improve the effectiveness of the training.

Discussion of findings

As per the trainees' comments, their team members and the supervisors supported them to implement the learnings. As explained by Telania (2004), this situation describes that the manager or supervisor can prevent employees from changing their way of applying what they learnt. However, the executives trust their experience in implementing what they learned while non-executives reason the training itself assists them to implement the learnings. This may be a new insight which has not been highlighted in the Kirkpatrick's model or in the other models discussed.

By measuring the reaction of trainees, it can be understood how well the training was received by the trainees and it also helps to improve the training for future trainees ("Kirkpatrick's Four Level Training Evaluation Model," n.d.). However, in this study, if only the trainees' comments were considered which is level one evaluation of Kirkpatrick's model, it could be misleading. The cause for trainees', positive comments may be because of two reasons. One is, as the internal trainer explained, they get a relief from the work when participating for a training and other is, the non-executives might have biased in responding to the questionnaire.

As per the findings of this study, theory-bound course contents, the trainers' incapability, enormous knowledge and competency gaps among the participants are the major reasons for the low attentive approach of the non-executives during the internal trainings. Arranging the mix of executives and non-executives for a same quality and food safety trainings may results in significant gaps in their learnings. Since the human resources department does not drive the trainings with set objectives and required guidance to the internal trainer, the internal trainings are incapable of achieving the intended results. In explaining the fourth step of the training cycle, Spilsbury (1995) gave a similar comment about the trainers and their preparation as to that trainings should be conducted with adequate preparation with professional trainers and with good presentation skills. Further, it was noted that the trainer should be more of a facilitator than an instructor.

The level one which measures the reaction of trainees in Kirkpatrick model again explains that the trainee should feel the training was a valuable experience and should feel good about the instructor, the topic,

the material, its presentation, and the venue. It has been observed that the behavioral changes observed do not persist long term. It means if some improvements are gained through the quality and food safety trainings, those are not sustainable in the long run. The quality and food safety trainings were short trainings and not periodic. A clear majority of the trainees proposed to continue the GMP and hygiene trainings. This is in line with what explained by Kraiger, Ford, and Salas (n.d.) that most of the training performances will not be visible in the short run.

The non-existence of the refresh trainings which was highlighted by all four types of respondents may be another reason for the failure of the long-term sustainability of the behavioral changes which are expected through the trainings. The trainings programs of quality and food safety are not capable of changing the attitudes of employees to value the quality and food safety requirements and improve the quality and food safety indictors since the non-availability of the trainings designed on the behavioral base to change their attitudes. Rowell et al. (2013) suggested that "It is important that these training materials not only improve employee knowledge, but also provide employees the needed behavior-based learning to change their action" (p.385).

The gaps identified in the training process during the study are not limited to the quality and food safety trainings of ABC Company. It is about the entire training process of the organization. The non-availability of the well-defined protocol for identifying the training needs, non-scheduling of trainings on the set objectives or KPIs (Key Performance Indicators), institutions and trainers are restricted by the budget limitations, unavailability of professional internal trainers, and

non-availability of well-defined process of training performance evaluation are all violations of all five steps of the training cycle explained by Spilsbury (1995). In the Kirkpatrick's model, it further explains that when the training sessions are going to be planned, it should be stated with set of specific learning objectives ("Kirkpatrick's Four Level Training Evaluation Model," n.d.).

Since the inability of complying with a standard process like the training cycle, it has not allowed to identify the specific requirement of having a separate plan for training the casual workers to mitigate the risk of untrained casual worker in the shop floor which becomes of paramount importance because of the frequent refreshing of the casual carder.

Though it appears that the budget restrictions as a major bottle neck in arranging the external trainings, the setting of the comprehensive processes such as training needs identification, evaluation of training effectiveness and build the capable internal trainers will not be restricted by the budgets and it can contribute to implement and continue the basic and essential quality and food safety internal training such as GMP and Hygiene trainings. The high turnover of the trained employees may limit the training effectiveness of the quality and foods safety which should be addressed separately.

Concluding remarks

The study found that the effectiveness of quality and food safety trainings are not adequate, hence, the quality and food safety training process at ABC Company does not deliver the intended results. The driving force of the entire training cycle and process of any organization is the HR department. However, the responsibility of employee training at the HR department of this Company has been limited to the

preparation of annual training calendar and its mere execution. In addition to this, the Company has not identified the training and development as a subsystem of the entire organizational system in order to achieve the improvement of the performances of individuals sharpening of skills, knowledge, changing the attitudes and gaining more knowledge to enhance the performance of the employees which eventually helps the company improvement.

The issues identified in the entire training process of ABC company, justifies the poor delivery of the intended results of the training programs of quality and food safety. The continuation of this same process may bring inappropriate results to the organization in the future. Unless the employees' attitudes and behaviors are developed towards the requirements of the quality and food safety of this highly perishable food manufacturer, there is a high probability that there may occur deviations from the prescribed quality and food safety standards and non-compliances in the food regulatory systems in the Company. This failure may cause a significant damage to the brand names of the ABC Company. At this backdrop, present study provides several practical implications to the case company towards improving the effectiveness of quality and food safety training. First, it implies that a review of the current training process of ABC Company and establishment of a comprehensive training and development protocol to cover the full training cycle would help setting grounds for effective training programs in the company. Second, it shows that the quality and food safety trainings should be managed on the prior-set objectives and an evaluation model (such as Kirkpatrick model) should be adopted to evaluate each step of the training process implemented. Finally, it implies that linking the individual performance evaluation with a set

KPI (Key Performance indicators) would facilitate the monitoring of behavioral changes of the trainee employees of the company.

This study has a few limitations. The casual work force shares a major portion in the shop floor carder. Because of the very frequent refreshing of the casual workers, the trained causal workers were limited in the sample used for the data collection. The high turnover of the executives was a limitation which restricted the sample size of the trained executives. The data collected from the internal trainers could be more impartial, if it was possible to collect the data from the other internal trainer who had left the company.

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Effect of Financial Liberalization on Savings and Investment in Nigeria

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Abstract

In Nigeria, measures were taking by government between the period 1986 to 2005 to liberalise the financial sector as part of the overall structural adjustment programme (SAP) with the aim to promote economic growth and alleviate poverty. The financial reform assumes that deregulating the financial market will eliminate the distortion and fragmentation of the financial market. It will also improve the mobilisation of savings as well as efficiency in allocation of funds to viable investment projects in the economy. This in turn will help in accelerating economic growth. Literature in the area posits that liberalising interest rate and deepening of the financial market is growth enhancing. This hypothesis is tested by identifying two basics channel through which financial liberalisation is operational - – *savings and investment, and allocative efficiency.* The analysis was carried out using macro data from Nigeria by employing *Two-Stage-Least Square (2SLS)* instrumental variable technique to analyse the data. Major findings pointed out that interest rate as determinant of savings is not statistically significant, and rising interest rate negatively affect investment growth. Secondly, investment follows the standard accelerator theory. Furthermore, growth in the stock of money is positively related with investment but statistically insignificant. Lastly, there is a considerable deepening in the banking sector, however, the capital market does not

positively impact on the allocation of credit in the economy. Perhaps investment in the market is more of speculation that crowd out investment in the real sector thereby retrogressing the economic growth. The study recommends that government intervention is necessary for rapid and sustainable economic growth in the country especially policies like income policies and interest rate regulations as well as policies that smoothen consumption in the economy. Also, policy makers should focus on stabilising the economy to reduce the macroeconomic uncertainties especially exchange rate and inflation volatility, that impede the growth of private investment.

Keywords; financial liberalisation, credit allocation, financial repression, savings, investment, economic growth Nigeria

Introduction

Up to the middle of the 1980s, Nigeria's economic policy was more of direct control. Interest rate, exchange rate and credit allocation to different sectors in the economy were not on the basis of market determination, but based on government directives (Ayogu, Emenuga, & Soludo, 1998). The prevailing situation was challenged based on the following reasons: passive competition; poor customer service; significant government ownership in the banking sector; sectoral credit allocation; limited expansion of domestic credit to private enterprises; interest rate regulation; restriction to flows of foreign direct and portfolio investments due to capital account control; and fiat monetary policy (Ayogu et al., 1998).

As from 1986, the economy gradually started moving away from direct control to a more liberal or deregulated economy. As a result of that,

several financial reforms were introduced, even though it encountered several policy reversals over the time as well. Broadly speaking, these reforms were referred to as financial liberalisation reform. The main objectives of the financial market reform in Nigeria as pointed out by the Central Bank of Nigeria in its monetary policy report include the followings: Removal of controls on interest rate to increase the level of savings and improve efficient allocation of credit in the economy; elimination of non-price rationing of credit to reduce misdirected credit and increase competition; adoption of indirect monetary management in place of the imposition of credit ceiling on individual banks; enhancing of institutional structure and supervision; strengthening the money and capital market through policy change and distress resolution measures; and improving the linkages between formal and informal financial sectors (CBN, 2007).

Thus, the philosophy behind the financial liberalisation is in twofold: first, quantity effect through generating higher savings and investment in the economy, and second, quality effect by efficiently allocating capital to profitable investment. If these set of objectives were achieved, it is expected that the economic growth will be enhanced. The downward trend in the key macroeconomic indicators will be reversed especially unemployment, poverty and inflation. Although, financial repression discourages savings, but Nwaobi (2003) argued that in the case of Nigeria it is not as serious as the financial liberalisation proponents hypothesised. However, Akande and Oluyomi (2010) when examining the relevance and application of the theoretical prescription of the Two-Gap model in Nigeria noted that inadequate savings and foreign exchange are responsible for low investment and growth of the

economy. Similarly, statistics from World Bank Development indicators in 2016 with respect to domestic credit to private sectors shows that Nigeria's domestic credit to private sector as a percent of GDP was 15.68 percent, and as such ranked at 146th position in the world. This posed a question as to whether the dwindling growth of the Nigeria's economy was due to savings or credit deficiency.

Despite the strategic reforms, Nigeria's growth performance has been dwindling for the past three decades, making it difficult to address the macroeconomic issues facing the country. This called for the study to assess the policy and examine it to see whether the poor performance was as a result the policy or other economic issues are behind the stagnation. The question now is why did the performance of the economy has been dwindling for the past three decades with regards to savings and investment growth? Or, in other words, why is there no steady growth in savings and investment in the economy? Can this poor performance be associated with the financial liberalisation reform? Is there evidence that the reform has led to efficient allocation of capital in the economy? Previous studies focused on the quantity effect of the reform, but less attention has been given to the issue of allocative efficiency. Thus, the objective of the study is to find out whether financial liberalisation has improved on the growth of savings and investment in Nigeria, and or test whether the reform has also improved the efficient allocation of credit in the economy.

The paper is structured as follows; section II reviewed the performance of the economy before and after the reform. While, section III reviewed the related literature pertaining to the impact of financial liberalisation on savings and investment. Section IV developed the econometrics

methodology used in analysing the impact. Three models were developed and Two-Stage Least Square instrumental variable regression technique was employed in analysing the data due to presence of endogeneity in the models. Section V present and discussed the results of the findings. Section VI concludes and offered recommendations.

The study is of significant as it shed more light on the controversies surrounding the effect of financial liberalisation on savings and investment growth which has long been debated within the academic circle. In the Nigerian context, the study pointed out that interest rate does not significantly and positively contributes to savings and investment growth in Nigeria. The study is also of significant as it shows how the Nigerian economy is credit constrained contrary to the assertion that the economy was savings constraint. Another significant contribution of the study is the way it observed investment in the capital market crowd out real sector investment and call for government active policy rather than passive policies to drive the economy further.

An Overview of the Nigerian Economy

Table 1 summarises the performance of the economy before and after the liberalisation period looking at some key macroeconomic variables.

1: Real Sector Performances

Item	1981 – 1989	1990-1999	2000 – 2009	2010 – 2017
A. GDP GROWTH RATE (%)	-2.04	2.62	8.90	3.82
a. Agricultural GDP growth rate (%)	23.51	34.02	25.96	9.48
b. Manufacturing GDP growth rate (%)	18.37	15.72	8.94	8.43
c. Services GDP growth rate (%)	2.69	3.75	11.01	4.03
B. Gross Fixed Capital Formation (% of GDP)	18.74	10.37	8.23	15.00
C. Gross Investment (% of GDP)	17.71	10.42	8.24	15.71
D. Gross National Savings (% Of GNI)	20.89	14.58	19.47	25.06
E. Credit to Private Sector (as % of GDP)	15.42	11.51	19.27	13.86

Source: Author's computation from CBN and World Bank Development Indicators, 2018

The average growth of GDP in the 1980s was -2.04 percent. This slightly improved to 2.62 percent in the first decade after the reform. Although, the economy has undergone structural transformation towards the late 1980s, but it can also be argued here that the changes in the GDP growth between the 1980s to 1990s was not as a result of improvement in the sectoral performances rather it was as a result of improvement in the oil price (Ibrahim, 2018). Findings by Ibrahim (2018) shows that oil price exerted positive influence on aggregate national output, however, with respect to manufacturing and agricultural sector the influence is negative. In the early 1980s world oil price

crashed sharply, this hit the economy negatively. The study further argued that fluctuations in oil price induces uncertainty in the real sector and also weakens the effectiveness of government fiscal management. Although, the economy continued to grow at an average growth rate of 8.9 percent in the second decade after the reform until 2010, but it is difficult to ascertain whether the growth was as a result of the financial reforms or due to stabilisation of the oil price. This evident by the end of the third decade, where the growth slows down to 3.82 percent and ended with a recession in 2016.

Looking at the sectoral contribution from fig 1 it shows that both agriculture and manufacturing does not contribute reasonably to the economic growth. Prior to the liberalisation, agriculture and manufacturing are the main employer of labour and contribute substantially to the growth of GDP. The average contribution of the agricultural sector during the decade prior to the reform was 23.51 percent. This dropped to 9.48 by the end of the last decade of 2010. Similarly, the average growth of manufacturing GDP in 1980s was 18.37 percent. However, this continually decreasing to as low as 8.43 percent in 2010 to 2017 period. Employment in the sector also declined persistently for example, as at 1980s, the number of labour force in the textile industry stood at 700,000. However, by the end of 1995, this fell to 40,000 (Newman et al., 2016).

In 1980s, the proportion of service sector in the GDP was 2.69 percent, this significantly rise to 3.75 and 11.01 percent in the first and second decades after the reform respectively. The statistics above shows that Nigeria's service sector, even though performed poorly, but gained steady growth as compared to agricultural and manufacturing sectors,

until 2010 when it starts declining. The ratio of credit to private sector as a percent of GDP fell to 13.86 percent from 15.42 percent between 1980 to 2017. In the period between 2000 and 2009, the proportion of credit to private sector increased to 19.27 percent. While at the same period, the growth rate of manufacturing and agriculture fell to 8.94 percent and 25.96 percent respectively.

Investment is considered to be essential for sustaining higher economic growth. Indicator of gross fixed capital formation shows that investment suffers throughout the periods. Total investment and fixed investment averaged 18.74 and 17.71 percent of the GDP in the 1980s respectively, have both declined to 15 percent in the last decade recording worst performance of 8.23 and 8.24 percent respectively in the second decade. Declining investment has contributed to the poor performance of the real sector especially the manufacturing and agricultural industries. National savings has improved considerably from 20.89 percent in 1980s to 25.06 percent between 2010 to 2017 on average. One important thing to note here is that as the savings increased, investment reduces. Only in 1990s that both the variables decreased simultaneously. Investment dropped to 10.42 percent from 17.71 percent in 1980s, while savings dropped to 14.58 percent from 20.89 percent in the same period.

In fact, the performance of the real sector based on the statistics discussed above shows that the economy has experienced a dwindling performance during the period of the financial liberalisation in Nigeria.

Literature Review:

Savings and Investment under Financial Liberalisation

According to McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973) high interest rate that evolve in economy after liberalisation will reduces inflation rate, induces savings to grow and this in turn induces higher rate of return and consequently increases investment and leads to economic growth. Previous studies attempt to investigate the link between savings and investment and many more on financial liberalisation dwelled on whether it has positive effect on savings and investment. Attanasio, Picci, and Scorcu (2000) for example study the long run and short run correlation between savings, investment and growth for 123 countries over a period of 1961to 1994. The research concluded that there exist positive and significant relationship between lagged savings and investment rates. Secondly, it also found a negative causality between investment and economic growth. And lastly, positive causality running from growth to investment. Since the study is cross country, it is important to have a country specific study to critically examine the validity of this conclusion and particularly re-examine the assertion of negative causality between investment and growth which contradicts most of the results obtained in the literature like that of (Barro, 1991) and (Barro & Lee, 1993).

Change in reforms may account for this negative or mixed results obtained in the previous studies. Abiad, Oomes, and Ueda (2008) noted this, and argued that basically to two main reasons might account for the mixed or ambiguous quantity effect of financial liberalisation reform for instance. Firstly, increase in rate of return due to improve in risk sharing

and or removal of interest rate may depend on whether income or substitution effect prevails. If income effect prevails, quantity effect will be negative. But if substitution effect holds, the quantity effect will be positive. Secondly, even if financial liberalisation provides better insurance against risk, this may possibly lower the incentive to save for future (Devereux & Smith, 1994). Therefore, financial liberalisation can improve the functioning of financial market without necessarily increasing the volume of savings and investment.

De Melo and Tybout (1986) examined the effect of financial liberalisation on savings and investment using time series data for Uruguay spanning from 1962 to 1983. The study built some simple econometric models and tested whether private savings response to changes in interest rate, and whether also the low private investment in the Uruguayan economy may be attributable to the reform. With regards to credit allocation, the study concluded there has been observed significant improvement in the allocation of credit. However, this cannot be certainly linked to the reform due macroeconomic imbalance that rocked the economy immediately after the reform. With respect to savings, other exogenous variables like foreign capital inflows play significant role in influencing its behaviour. And at the same time, savings response to interest rate positively only during the pre-reform period but not after liberalisation reform.

Otiwu, Okere, and Uzowuru (2018) examined the determinant of private savings in Nigeria from 1981 to 2015 using vector error correction to investigate on the relationship between savings and investment by incorporating some financial market indicators such financial deepening and financial inclusion measures. Their findings show that interest rate

is not significant determinant of private savings in Nigeria. What influences domestic private savings in Nigeria are per capita income and financial inclusion. Although the study found that interest rate is insignificant but positively correlated with savings, it argued that high interest rate will encourage more domestic savings in the economy and also recommend that policy makers should intensify effort in designing policies that can enhance growth in income and investment to stimulate private savings.

Mamoon and Nicholas, (2017) analysed the validity of the financial liberalisation proposition by identifying two key channels through which the reform affects the economy, increasing the volume saving by the influence of higher returns and through allocative efficiency. The document a total failure of the reform in both the two channels with respect to Pakistan economy. Although, the result appears not supportive of the reform, a further study is needed to address the shortcomings by this study. In their study, they treated all the variables exogenous, while problems of endogeneity and simultaneity may likely occur as opined by De Melo and Tybout (1986), as such model that captures this potential problem is required to be able to validate their findings.

Ueda (2000) argued that competition among banks can make firms to internalised external effect in investment and this can have positive effect of volume of savings. Closely looking at the financial reform in Nigeria, it has led to the expansion of the banks' credit to private sector. For instance, in 1986 credit to private sector was targeted at 12.80 percent by the monetary authorities. However, by the end of the year, the actual credit to private sector stood at 29.43 percent. Most of the

expansion happened within the last two quarters of 1986 partly as a response to announcement effect of naira devaluation by the government, and partly due to the impact of the reform (Ayogu et al., 1998). The effect of the announcement prompted individuals and firms to rush and borrow in the domestic banks in order to settle their loans, especially foreign currency denominated loans. This led to the upwards oscillation in the credit trend and continues to grow upwards throughout the reform period until it reached its highest peak of 91.20 percent in actual sense as against the targeted rate of 30 percent in the year 2007.

There was also a belief that, the impact created by the reform in boosting credit in the economy was the inducement of borrowing on the part of firms that wanted to conclude their projects before the commencement of the devaluation as well as those that were trying to fund their working capital requirements. Credit expansion continued through the 1990s. The expansion of credit in the 1990s can be linked to the directives of the government for banks to grant loans to general public without much restrictions for the purchase of share in other to accomplish the privatization exercise (Ayogu et al., 1998).

On the other hand, the expansion of credit to its highest level in 2007 was as a result of excess liquidity both from oil revenue and capital flows that hit the banking sectors from 2004 to 2007. This, couple with the inability of the fiscal authorities to find a better way of mopping up of the excess inflows from the sales of crude oil that accrued to the country. Owing to this, the amount held in Nigerian deposit banks increased tremendously. As excess liquidity continues to grow, alongside with banking consolidation, these speeds up the volume of credit in the economy. It is important to note that before 2000, foreign

direct investment and debt were the dominant in terms of foreign inflows to Nigeria (Okpanachi, 2012) but after lifting the ban regarding dividend and profit repatriation, the stock market begun to experience rapid growth that attract some global speculators into the Nigerian economy as noted by (Okpanachi, 2012).

Therefore, as from 2008 the total credit to private sector started declining which mark the beginning of the country's financial crises. For example, credit to private sector dropped to 59.49 percent in 2008 from its highest peak of 91.20 percent in 2007, then to 26.80 percent and -3.81 percent in 2009 and 2010 respectively (CBN Statistical Bulletin, 2017). The overheating of the Nigeria's financial system that led to the boost in 2009 was as a result of the over lending by the banks to investors mainly for speculative purposes (Sanusi, 2010) in the middle of 2000s. Obamuyi (2009) also made similar observation when investigating the impact of financial liberalisation on the development of private sectors in Nigeria. The study utilized both descriptive and quantitative techniques and the results of the finding show that credits to private sector have no positive and significant impact on the economic growth. This means that either the credits are channel to unproductive activities, or they were used for trade and commerce which Sanusi, (2010) said to be used for speculative trading in the stock that led to the economic turmoil in 2009.

It is a clear evidence that fast credit expansion might heighten instability and enhances the risk of financial crises as it has happened in many parts of the world. Griffith-Jones (2016) has observed this trend and argued that just like the Global Financial Crises of 2007/2008, the Nigerian financial crises of 2009 was associated with rapid credit

expansion which was brought about by assets price bubbles, triggering instability and subsequently collapse of the financial system. Despite the fact that the banking system had become stronger with the Central Bank recapitalization exercise, it did not stop the economy from plummeting into financial crises. This is because the growth of the credit was associated with unproductive activities, credit misallocation, coupled with regulatory failures (Sanusi, 2010). The collapse led to an increase in the volume of non-performing loans which rise from 9.5 percent in 2007 to about 30 percent in 2009. In other to restore confidence and stability in the economy, the central bank had to rescue about nine banks that were about to collapse at the cost of four billion US dollars (Ostry et al., 2011)

In summary, according to McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973), financial liberalisation affects the economy through two channels; savings and allocative efficiency. Firstly, through savings channel, financial development affects the real economy by enhancing the volume of savings in the economy. This is because savings levels are sensitive to real interest rates, nominal interest rate and inflation reduces the amount of national income allocated to capital formation. This implies that in a financially repressed economy, the financial market after liberalisation will stimulate higher returns on savings instrument like the savings account via high interest rate. This will help to attract savings from the informal sector into the formal sector.

The second channel is through allocative efficiency. As the financial institutions generate more savings, they will be able to extend the accumulated savings into productive investment thereby increasing the overall economic performance (Mamoon and Nicholas, 2017). One

medium through which the financial institutions can foster allocative efficiency is by extending credit to private sector which is considered to be more efficient than to public sector. Because of high efficiency in the private sector, they were expected to utilized the funds efficiently by investing in a more profitable project. Hence, the country's productive efficiency improves while economy is set at a positive growth track.

Model Specification

This section presents some models based on the work of De Melo and Tybout (1986) to account for the relationship between domestic savings and some financial liberalisation indicators. However, the specification here differs slightly from their own work as this study account for the role of stock market development in the liberalisation processes. The model is specified as follows;

$$s_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_2 r_t + \beta_3 f_t + \beta_3 s_{t-1} + \beta_3 l_t + \beta_4 k_t + \varepsilon \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (1)$$

Equation (1) above states that domestic savings, s_t, depends on: real income, y_t, real deposit rate r_t, foreign saving f_t, lagged savings s_{t-1}, stock market liquidity l_t and stock market capitalisation k_t.

Real income growth is included in the model to account for the deviation from permanent income as suggested by the standard theory. Changes in income influences both savings and consumption as emphasised by (Keynes, 1936). According to him, rise in income often accompanied by a rise in savings. Therefore, its coefficient is expected to be positive. Lagged saving is included in the model to capture the adjustment process which is assumed to be spread over multiple periods and its coefficient is assumed to be positive. Foreign savings is included

in the model to capture the degree of substitutability between foreign savings and private savings. If foreign savings crowd out private savings, the resultant effect on the coefficient would be positive. considering individuals may consume more at any given rate of capital accumulation. Interest rate is included because traditionally, savings behaviour is sensitive to real returns on savings, if the effect of the reforms on savings hold true, the coefficient is expected to be positive and significant. Stock Market indicators are included to account the extent to which investors switched their portfolios quickly and cheaply between alternative options. They are also important indicators of how capital is efficiently allocated in the economy. There are empirical studies that considered the links between stock market and savings notable here are; (Ewah, Esang, & Bassey, 2009) and (Pushpakumara & Anthony, 2009). Ewah et al. (2009) observed the link with respect to Nigeria while Pushpakumara and Anthony (2009) observed with respect to Sri Lanka. The two studies both show that there exist a positive association between stock market development with savings.

De Melo and Tybout (1986) noted that, estimating equation (1) may results to some specification issues. Firstly. According to financial liberalisation hypothesis, interest rate response positively to private savings not total domestic savings. Therefore, results in equation (1) should be handle with caution. Secondly, foreign savings may not be necessarily determined exogenously. This is because as the country's capital account is opened following liberalisation, economic agents may opt to optimised their present and future consumption of both domestic and foreign goods at any given interest rate, exchange rate, income and expectation. Lastly, financial liberalisation in Nigeria follows some policy reversal. Therefore, it is important to account for some

institutional changes that took place within the period of study such as interest rate control reversal.

To address the issues raised above, equation (1) is re-specified and estimated with private savings instead of total savings and a dummy variable is included as well to capture the structural break. Thus, equation (2) is specifies as follows;

$$ps_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_2 r_t + \beta_3 f_t + \beta_4 ps_{t-1} + \beta_5 l_t + \beta_6 k_t + \beta_7 D_t + \varepsilon_t \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (2)$$

Furthermore, in order to test whether factors associated with financial liberalisation explained efficient allocation of investment in the Nigerian economy, another model was developed. It is important to recall that when the economy is financially repressed, firms' investment is depended largely on their accumulated incomes. However, in a liberalised economy, real price of capital and the expected output demand play significant role in this aspect. Hence a model in the form of equation (3) is necessary that relates firms' investment with income as follows;

$$i_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_2 r_t + \beta_3 e_t + \beta_4 m_t + \beta_5 l_t + \beta_6 k_t + \beta_7 D_t + \beta_8 y_{t-1} + \beta_9 m_{t-1} + \beta_{10} i_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (3)$$

Equation (3) states that investment $i_t$depends on its lagged value i_{t-1}, income y_t and its lagged value y_{t-1}, interest rate r_t, exchange rate e_t, real money growth m_t and its lagged value m_{t-1}, market capitalisation k_t, stock market liquidity l_t and a dummy D that captures that effect of institutional changes, if any, to see if there is any significant break within sample period.

The complication in estimating these three equations is the possibility of inconsistent parameter estimation arising due to endogenous regressors. In these models, interest rate and income or both may be endogenous with respect to savings in equation (l), as well as with exchange rate or both in equation (2) and (3). Therefore, instrumental variables may provide a better way of obtaining consistent parameter estimates in this case. The data used in the regression were sourced online from World Bank Development Indicators, Central Bank of Nigeria Annual Statistical Bulletins, 2017.

Results and Discussion

Table 2 shows the regression result from the standard investment function derived from equation (1). Four different models were estimated and reported in the four different columns with savings as dependent variable in each case. The first model was estimated with the assumption of no endogeneity among the regressors. while equation

Table 2: Standard Savings Function

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
	Domestic Savings	Domestic Savings	Domestic Savings	Domestic Savings
Y	-0.185** (0.0713)	-0.383** (0.123)	-0.187* (-2.51)	-0.568** (-2.80)
R	0.156* (0.0792)	0.160** (0.0873)	0.304** (2.92)	0.0361 (0.21)
F	2.351** (0.418)	2.606** (0.476)	2.658** (5.82)	2.581** (4.25)
s_{t-1}	0.348** (0.0988)	0.359** (0.109)	0.312** (2.98)	0.402** (2.84)
K	-0.000335** (0.0000905)	-0.000415** (0.000107)	-0.000340** (-3.59)	-0.000487** (-3.42)
L	0.115** (0.0380)	0.151** (0.0452)	0.134** (3.30)	0.168** (2.94)
const.	2.814** (1.058)	3.277** (1.187)	1.473 (1.18)	4.879* (2.32)
Endogenous variables	None	Y	R	y, r
Durbin p-value Hausman p-value	----	0.0211 0.0361	0.0145 0.0255	0.0082 0.0152
R^2 Rmse	0.814 1.626	0.774 1.792	0.808 1.649	0.748 1.890

Standard errors in parentheses, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01

From the regression results, interest rate appeared to be significant and positive in all the cases except in column 4. In addition, the correlation between the interest rate and savings tends to be moderate ranging from 15 percent to 30 percent. This provide a significant support for the claim that financial liberalisation stimulate savings controlling for other factors. If interest rate raised by 1 percent for instance, savings will grow by 15 to 30 percent. Furthermore, foreign savings also shows strong positive correlation with savings. In line with a priory expectation that financial liberalisation would cause foreign savings to crowd-out domestic savings. The coefficient in all the regressions is greater than one, meaning that foreign savings crowd out domestic savings in more than one-to-one fashion. Market capitalisation also appeared to crowd out domestic savings, albeit weak correlation. This is because of the assumption that stocks and bonds provide savings alternative to household and investors. As such, the available savings in bank will decline with a slight improvement in stock market due to the financial reforms.

The coefficient of income or the marginal propensity to save in all the regressions is negative. This means that income growth negatively correlated with domestic savings. The implication of this result is that ether there is an increasing return-to scale in the economy, or the agents faces financial constraints, or there is increasing uncertainty in the economy. Either of these can cause savings to fall with respect to increase in income. For example, if there is increasing expectation about future uncertainty in the economy (increase in inflation, currency deterioration etc), agents might borrow much they can to avoid being worst off in the future. Similarly, if there is increasing return to scale,

firms might find it beneficial to increase the level of their debt in anticipation of future return.

As stated above, the specification of model (1) slightly contradicted what has been posit by the financial liberalisation tenet, it is important re-estimate the model with private savings and observe the results. Table 3 reported the regression results based on the five different hypotheses about the issue of endogeneity of the parameters estimated. In the first column it assumed endogeneity. In the column 2-5, it tested the presence of endogeneity using income

growth, interest rate, foreign savings and both income and interest rate. The discussion is as follows.

Table 3: Regression based on Private Savings Function

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	Private Savings	Private Savings	Private Savings	Private Savings	Private Savings
Y	-0.0739* (0.0341)	-0.449* (0.183)	-0.0829* (0.0365)	-0.449* (0.190)	-0.103** (0.0381)
R	-0.0359 (0.0426)	0.0404 (0.114)	0.103 (0.0814)	0.0395 (0.140)	0.0465 (0.0530)
F	0.722* (0.339)	1.468** (0.512)	0.991** (0.350)	1.466** (0.497)	1.313** (0.376)
$(ps)_{t-1}$	0.829** (0.106)	0.679** (0.192)	0.761** (0.113)	0.679** (0.190)	0.701*** (0.119)
K	-0.000178* (0.0000744)	-0.00036** (0.000120)	-0.000198** (0.0000769)	-0.00036** (0.000121)	-0.000281** (0.0000856)
L	0.0836** (0.0285)	0.159** (0.0610)	0.0999** (0.0321)	0.158** (0.0607)	0.0875* (0.0348)
D	-7.827** (1.242)	-4.551 (2.439)	-6.867** (1.314)	-4.555 (2.394)	-6.324** (1.457)
const.	0.859 (0.611)	2.320* (1.081)	0.136 (0.854)	2.328 (1.404)	1.052 (0.573)
Endogenous variables	None	y	R	y,r	f
R^2	0.825	0.567	0.809	0.566	0.809
Rmse	1.135	1.786	1.185	1.787	1.184

Standard errors in parentheses, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01

This alternative specification produced poor results if compared with the estimation in Table 2 both in terms of individual and overall level of significant. The R-square declined, measures of financial liberalisation especially interest rate is not significant in all the five variants of the estimations. Meaning that it plays no role in determining private savings as maintained by the proponents of liberalisation reform. This result is similar to the result found by Otiwu et al. (2018). The moderate correlation found in the first model with total savings disappeared with regressing the variables on private domestic savings. The dummy variable indicates that, after controlling for other factors, there is a downward shift in the savings function after liberalisation. With respect to foreign savings, however, there is a declined in the degree of substitutability with private domestic savings looking at the magnitude of the coefficients. Meaning that there is a fall in crowding out of foreign savings with domestic private savings. Private savings has strong and significant positive correlation with its lagged value. This points out to the importance of the long run effect of other determinant of private savings - past accumulated private savings plays important role in determining current domestic private savings. The result is consistence to the findings of (Loayza, Schmidt-Hebbel, & Servén, 2000). The coefficient of income remained significant although, with weak negative correlation. This result contrasted the findings of (Loayza et al., 2000). Stock market indicators too do not show any positive and significant performance with respect to the private savings and the results almost remained unchanged if compared with the first regression.

This subsection will test the hypothesis about the impact of financial liberalisation on allocation efficiency. One of the targets of liberalising the financial sector is to hasten the pace of capital formation or

investment in nut shell. Not only accelerating the growth in investment, but to efficiently allocate the investment into most profitable project, with high positive net present value. To do so, there is need to estimate equation (3) to see whether factors associated with financial liberalisation responsible for fluctuations in the investment as documented in section one. Table 4 present the regression result.

Table 4: Regression of the Investment Function

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
	Investment	Investment	Investment	Investment
Y	0.0413 (0.120)	0.387 (0.247)	-0.0150 (0.0674)	-0.873 (0.618)
Ly	-0.119 (0.0924)	-0.202 (0.129)	-0.223 (0.190)	-0.0676 (0.286)
M	0.0280 (0.0351)	0.0289 (0.0325)	-0.0132 (0.0350)	-0.00814 (0.0705)
Lm	0.0569 (0.0377)	0.0670 (0.0422)	0.0177 (0.0429)	-0.00106 (0.0644)
E	0.0165 (0.0267)	0.0362 (0.0280)	0.159** (0.0548)	0.129* (0.0538)
Le	-0.0283 (0.0307)	-0.0569 (0.0346)	-0.140*** (0.0749)	-0.0907 (0.0800)
R	-0.366* (0.186)	-0.368* (0.182)	0.106 (0.167)	0.00751 (0.489)
D	-5.509* (2.182)	-5.416* (2.434)	-4.949*** (2.552)	-4.924 (2.513)
Li	0.985** (0.228)	0.881** (0.263)	1.054** (0.255)	1.319** (0.376)
K	0.000186 (0.000237)	0.000484 (0.000355)	-0.000153 (0.000261)	-0.000865 (0.000716)
L	-0.00916 (0.0989)	-0.0753 (0.127)	0.281** (0.0851)	0.441 (0.263)
Constant	3.486 (2.306)	4.054 (3.009)	-0.868 (2.034)	-1.050 (5.983)
Endogenous variables	R	Y	e	y,r,e

Durbin Hausman	0.0282 0.0655	0.0725 0.1076	0.0269 0.0642	0.0070 0.0000
R-square	0.918	0.879	0.846	0.620

*Standard errors in parentheses * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.1*

Regression result in table 4, shows that real money growth does not have any impact on investment. In the mainstream economics view, growth in money supply has a positive and significant causal relationship with output growth (Sturgill, 2014). Sturgill further argued that it was as a result of higher economic freedom that makes money growth a positive and significant determinant of output growth. However, the result in this study shows no evidence that growth in money supply plays a significant effect on investment growth in Nigeria. Furthermore, interest rate which is key variable in the context of liberalisation plays no role on investment. Where it appears to be significant like in column 1 and 2, it has a negative impact on investment. Meaning that a raised in interest rate can result to a decline in investment. It shows that firms are sensitive to increase in the price of capital This contradicts the financial liberalisation hypothesis and the Modigliani and Miller (1958) theory that in a perfectly competitive market cost of capital is irrelevant. Although, income and its lagged value appeared insignificant, as such there is no substantial evidence to show that firms switched to personal or business income for their investment. This perhaps, could be as a result that savings with respect to income change is negative as it has seen in table 2 and 3. However, lagged investment is found to have strong and positive correlation with investment. Meaning that firms rely much on their past performances to forecast for future investment. Notwithstanding, there is no substantial evidence that accumulated profit in the past investment are important

determinant of current investment. Hence, there is a mild evidence that the standard accelerator mechanism holds valid for part of the sample model. This result is similar to what De Melo and Tybout (1986) found in their study. Similarly, Eberly, Rebelo, and Vincent (2012) concluded that lagged investment is best predictor of investment than Tobin's Q.

Exchange rate on the other hand is statistically significant and positively related with investment. This positive association means that appreciation in exchange rate may lead to an increase in investment. The idea behind it is that as exchange rate appreciated, the cost of imported inputs falls and this increases the profit of firms creating incentive to invest more. Raising interest rate will reduces investment, perhaps due to predominantly increase in macroeconomic uncertainty especially with respect to inflation and volatility in the exchange rate. If this assumption holds true, it then means that firms are risk averse in the economy, decreasing investment with a rising interest rate in order to avoid future risk. The finding is similar to De Melo and Tybout (1986) but contradicted (Canbaloglu & Gurgun, 2017) in a cross-country study that shows real exchange rate has negative and insignificant impact on investment. The conclusion of their study suggests that, domestic investors in such countries are risk-neutral and insensitive to adjustment cost related to exchange rate volatility as well as investment irreversibility.

With respect to capital market variable, aside market liquidity in column 3, in all the regression options it shows that the market is insignificant in allocation of investment to productive sectors in the economy. This result is supportive by many empirical studies that highlighted that firms in developing countries do not use capital market to raise funds. Finally,

the dummy variable shows that the models shift downward. This means that there are exogenous factors responsible for the fluctuations in investment.

Conclusion

Previous research on financial liberalisation in developing countries identified number of channels through which financial market reforms affect allocation of resources. Firstly, increase in interest rate may lead to growth in savings. Secondly, relaxation of financial constraints may lead to growth in investment. The empirical relevance of these two effects to Nigerian economy was tested in this study and the major findings are presented here below.

In equation (1), total domestic savings was used and the results shows that financial liberalisation enhances savings growth in Nigeria and some key variables assumed to determine savings following the literature were included in the models. Virtually all the determinants are statistically significant and in line with the expected signs. However, based on the assumption that financial liberalisation affects private savings not total domestic savings, the model was re-estimated using private savings as dependent variable instead of domestic savings. The second regression significantly differs with the first even though, similar in some aspect. In the second estimation, interest rate, which is the key element, plays no significant role in determining savings in Nigeria. While financial depth measured by stock market capitalisation reduces both domestic and private savings. Both domestic savings and private savings falls with a rise in income. But fall is larger in domestic income than in private savings

Concerning investment model, the result shows that accelerator theory exerts significant impact in explaining the investment behaviour of the Nigerian economy throughout the sample period. The standard accelerator theory posits that investment depends on expectation. And from all the four different investment models that were estimated, the results show that the lagged investment is significant and strongly correlated with investment. The conclusion is that expectation is more relevant in explaining investment behaviour in Nigeria within the study period than savings constraints. In addition, the downward structural shift, suggested that the financial liberalisation reform does not provide concrete evidence about improvement in investment in the Nigerian economy. Interest rate which is key in the reform exercise appeared negative, and insignificant in some cases same with money growth and measures of stock market performances.

The findings of this study show that Nigeria is not savings constrained, but rather credit constrained. Since interest rate plays no significant role in determining savings in Nigeria, and a unit increase in the interest rate may also lead to significant decline in domestic investment. This can be clearly seen in Table 1 where investment in fixed capital formation has been continually declining while savings remains relatively stable. The study therefore recommends that policies that favours liberalising the interest rate in the country is of little importance. What matters much is addressing other macroeconomic issues that impede the allocation of credit to productive projects such as interest regulation, income and consumption policies as well as reducing macroeconomic uncertainties. The study also recommends that future research should focus on addressing the micro channels through which financial liberalisation affects savings and investment in Nigeria.

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New Dimensions in Code-Mixing and the Sri Lankan Case:
An Exploratory Study

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Abstract

Code-switching and code-mixing, two by-products of language contact situations, are widely used linguistic strategies, not only in informal conversational contexts but also in the informal media discourse. The reasons hitherto applicable for the mixing of codes seem non-relevant in some code-mixing situations today. This is true to certain segments of the Sri Lankan media context, too, in that the popular Sri Lankan commercial broadcasting media is accused by prescriptivist groups of making excessive use of code-mixing. The purpose of this paper is to synthesize and explore the seminal research articles available in the field of code alternation so as to better understand the Sri Lankan situation of code-switching and code-mixing, as practiced by its general bilingual populations and by the popular commercial media channels.

Introduction

The origin of the term 'code-switching' lies in the communication sciences, but with a different meaning (Bullock and Toribio 2009: xi-xii). According to Fries and Pike (1949) the term 'code' has been originally borrowed from the subject of communication technology where the term 'code-switching' is used to refer to "a mechanism for the unambiguous transduction of signals between systems" (Gardner-

Chloros, 2009: 11). In linguistics and bilingual studies, however, the terms ‘code-switching’ and ‘code-mixing’ are used to refer to the practice of alternating between two languages or two language varieties in verbal interaction. This includes switching and/or mixing between languages, dialects, or even between different styles and registers within the same language (Coupland, 1984).

Language contact situations can be resultant in processes such as borrowing, pidginization, language death (Gardner-Chloros, 2009:4), language shift, lingua francas, multilingualism (Trudgill, 1992: 45) and linguistic alternation which includes code-switching and code-mixing. Linguistic alternation may take place inter-sententially or intra-sententially, within the same conversation, and in an unchanged setting. This phenomenon may also include intra-word alternation which is a linguistic change-over within a word (for example, the alternation at a morpheme boundary) and tag-switching, or the substitution of a tag-word/phrase of one language with that of another, which is commonly considered as one manifestation of intra-sentential language alternation, or code-mixing.

The surveying of the most influential findings in the area of code alternation was attempted in this research paper as a step towards highlighting the practice of code-mixing on Sinhala-medium commercial broadcasting media, which is a less-researched area in the field of code-switching and code-mixing.

Research Problem

There is vehement criticism from the prescriptivist groups of Sri Lanka towards the Sinhala-medium private commercial broadcasting media practice of what they refer to as 'excessive', 'degenerative', 'defective', mixing of codes between Sinhala and English that has now spread into certain segments of media audiences among whom it has become a 'fashion'. The frequency and the way in which these audiences, particularly consisting of youth groups, have adopted and continue the use of these new forms of code-mixing in their daily conversations, appear to be resisting the accusations directed at this linguistic behavior as a superficial verbal strategy used merely for language display.

Research Methodology

Since the objective of the present paper was to identify and communicate the seminal information and trends pertaining to the topic of code-alternation in research world-wide so as to shed better light on the Sri Lankan code-mixing situation, the literature survey method has been used. In this attempt, the seminal research articles available in the field of code alternation have been explored so as to better understand the Sri Lankan situation of code-switching and code-mixing.

Available Definitions on Code-Switching and Code-Mixing

A survey of literature on the use of two or more languages in conversation reveals lack of consensus on the part of researchers working in the field, with regard to the definitions of the terms 'code-switching' and 'code-mixing'. While some researchers use the term 'code-switching' to encircle all types of language alternating behaviour which includes code-mixing as a distinct sub-category of code-

switching, others tend to use the two terms interchangeably. There are yet others who opt for altogether different terms for the different phenomena involved. Clyne (2003: 75) for instance, uses the term code-switching for the transference of single lexical items from one language to another while suggesting the term 'transversion' to refer to instances where speakers completely switch over from one language into another while in conversation. For Kachru (1978: 28) code-mixing is "the use of one or more languages for consistent transfer of linguistic units from one language to another". 'Code-switching' is the term Myers-Scotton (1993: 1) uses to define "the alternation of linguistic varieties within the same conversation". Myers-Scotton (1993: 1) further remarks that "[i]n bilingual communities, fluent bilinguals sometimes engage in code-switching by producing discourses which, in the same conversational turn or in consecutive turns, include morphemes from two or more of the varieties in their linguistic repertoire". Auer (1999), though originally prefers the term 'code-alternation' to refer to the linguistic behaviour concerned, defines code-switching from the perception of the interlocutor when he says that it is a state where the participants in a verbal interactional episode tend to regard the juxtaposition of two languages as locally meaningful. Hymes (1974) uses the term code-switching as "a common term for the alternative use of two languages, varieties of a language or even speech styles".

Muysken (2000) is one among the many researchers who are in agreement with the claim that code-mixing is a type of linguistic behavior which falls under the broader area of code-switching. He (Muysken, 2000: 1) makes a distinction between code-switching and code-mixing, and suggests the appropriateness of the term 'code-

mixing' for intra-sentential code-switching "where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence". In Muysken's view intra-sentential "insertions at the word-level" are similar to "spontaneous borrowings" (cited in Bennett-Kastor, 2008: 32), but he at the same time observes the difficulty of distinguishing between loan words/borrowings and spontaneous borrowings or insertions. Wray, Trott and Bloomer (1998: 96), too, distinguish between code-switching and code-mixing when they use the same term (as Muysken) 'code-mixing' to refer to the situation of a bilingual speaker mixing languages within a sentence. Noteworthy is the emphasis of Wray, Trott and Bloomer (1998) on the intra-sentential aspect of code-mixing. Gardener-Chloros (2009: 12) argues that loan words or borrowings "start off as code-switches and then gradually become established as loans".

According to Trudgill (1992: 6) the linguistic behaviour of bilingual or bidialectal speakers crossing over to and from one language or dialect and another within the same conversation is given the term 'code-switching', and the act of code-switching between languages "with such rapidity and density, even within sentences and phrases, that it is not really possible to say at any given time which language they are speaking" is termed 'code-mixing'. Trudgill's definition of code-mixing thus incorporates a switch of languages/codes within a sentence whereas his definition of code-switching could be comprehended as referring to code-changing at phrase or sentence boundaries. However, the argument for the existence of a 'dominant language' in code-switching as perceived in conducting the survey of literature, appears to stand in contrast to Trudgill's assertion of the difficulty in distinguishing between the two languages involved in a code-mixed situation. The

dominant/matrix language issue clearly emphasizes the existence of one language which provides the code-mixed utterance with its main structure on which elements of the other language are embedded.

Bokamba (1988), in his investigations into language variation among speakers of the Bantu languages, supports the view that code-switching takes place between sentence boundaries whereas code-mixing is to alternate codes within the sentence.

> Code-switching is the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two distinct grammatical (sub) systems across sentence boundaries within the same speech event … Code-mixing is the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes), words (unbound morphemes), phrases and clauses from a co-operative activity where the participants, in order to infer what is intended, must reconcile what they hear with what they understand (Bokamba 1988).

McClure (1977: 97), in her studies on code alternation among bilingual Mexican-American children, defines code-mixing on similar lines when she claims that code-mixing occurs within the constituents of a sentence. For Kachru (1983) and Sridhar and Sridhar (1980), too, code-switching takes place inter-sententially whereas code-mixing is an intra-sentential occurrence.

Hudson (1980: 56) explains code-switching as a situation where a speaker "uses different varieties (*of a language/languages*) at different times". He speaks of a 'metaphorical code-switching' which is governed by the topic of conversation, while adopting the term 'conversational code-switching'. According to Hudson (1980: 57) metaphorical/situational

code-switching involves registers that vary according to the topic of conversation, subject matter or the diglossic situation, and conversational code-switching occurs due to the speaker's aim of mixing two varieties in "roughly equal proportions …in different parts of a single sentence".[7] Although the term 'code-mixing' does not seem to appear in Hudson's discourse on language alternation, his use of the different terms and their explanations above could be conceived as indicating the recognition of a clear difference between inter-sentential and intra-sentential linguistic alternation. It could be argued out, however, that his claim for the appearance, in one sentence, of "roughly equal proportions" of the two languages concerned, cannot be applied to a majority of code-mixed situations. For instance, Poplack and Meechan's (1995) argument for the existence of a 'lexifier' language in code-switched utterances appear to stand contrary to Hudson's definition in that, according to Poplack and Meechan, there is always one language which supplies a code-switched utterance with more of its vocabulary.

Li (1997: 2), commenting on such linguistic alternation in Hong-Kong, affirms that code-mixing is a sub-element of code-switching.

> Cantonese interspersed with English elements, especially single words, is generally referred to as mixed code, and the sociolinguistic phenomenon itself, code-mixing or (intra-sentential) code-switching (Li 1997: 2).

[7] According to Hudson (1980: 57) "(t)his balance may be achieved by expressing one sentence in one variety and the next one in the other, and so on, but it is equally possible for the two varieties to be used in different parts of a single sentence".

Although opinion varies on what exact types of behaviour code-switching and/or code-mixing includes, what becomes clear in most of the above definitions is that the term code-switching can be used as an umbrella term to cover all types of language alternation. Even intra-sentential code-switching which may include the mere insertion of a single word, etc. is perceived as "a remarkable achievement on the part of bilingual speakers" (Sebba 2009: 40).

It is important to mention here that Alvarez-Caccamo (2002) points out that the term 'code-switching' and the formal discourse centred around it is, unlike concepts such as bilingualism and diglossia, still restricted to certain academic spheres, and needs to move out into the general public to generate interest in the linguistic behaviour concerned.

Although linguistic borrowing is sometimes compared with code-switching/code-mixing, the two phenomena are not the same in that borrowed lexemes are used to fill the linguistic gaps which may occur in a language particularly due to cultural reasons. Thus, eventually, such borrowed lexemes become almost an inextricable part of the language which borrowed the item.

Code-Switching and Code-Mixing as a Linguistic Strategy

According to the traditional explanation of code-switching/code-mixing, speakers who have two or more languages at their disposal may, as driven by the speech situation, choose to mix those languages in their speech. They may particularly opt to do so in bilingual or multilingual settings where the conversational participants share two or more languages. Generally, code-switching "refers to instances when speakers switch between codes (languages or language varieties) in the course of

a conversation (Swann et.al 2004: 40-41). As mentioned earlier, a formal distinction is sometimes made between intra-sentential code-switching where switches occur within a sentence; and inter-sentential code-switching where a switch occurs at the boundary of a sentence. The term code-mixing is used "particularly for intra-sentential switching"[8] (Swann et.al 2004: 41).

As Grosjean (1982) states, code-switching/code-mixing is a very common occurrence in bilingual speech. Gardner-Chloros (2009: 15) observes that sociolinguistic studies reveal that "people code-switch more, and more within the clause, when they are at ease, in *informal* situations (author's emphasis)". However, it has to be noted that there are also communities where code-switching/code-mixing is not used in informal settings but in formal occasions. For example, educated speakers of Arabic in Central Asia prefer to code-switch between a variety known as "oral educated Arabic" and their own local variety of Arabic, when they engage in formal verbal interactions such as being interviewed on television; the educated variety is used to indicate their education, and the local variety to express their loyalty to their roots (Abdul-Hassan, 1988). Hamam (2011: 41) draws an example from an episode on Al-Jazeera to show how diglossic code-switching can take place between standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic (i. e. the juxtaposition of *fusha* and *ammiyya*) to communicate messages that carry rhetorical or metaphorical values.

[8] However, a survey of literature on the use of two or more languages in conversation reveals lack of consensus on the part of researchers working in the field, with regard to the definitions of the terms 'code-switching' and 'code-mixing'.

According to Bullock and Toribio (2009: 1) it may be quite common for certain segments of the people in any part of the world that tend to view the use of language from a "*prescriptive*" point of view to get agitated about a situation such as code-mixing. Muysken (2000: 1) views this attitude as being "so commonplace that the essential enrichment of having several grammars and lexicons participate in it at the same time is often seen as a threat, a disruption, a malady". As Muysken (2000: 1) notes, if this hostility towards code-switching/code-mixing has been observed among linguists, it has been by those researchers who belong to the "structuralist tradition in linguistics". For instance, Ronjat (1913) and Leopold (1939) who both come from the structuralist tradition, claim that bilingualism should be "tidy" (cited in Muysken, 2000: 1).

Although the structural linguistic point of view is thus, linguists in general tend to take a positive stance towards code-switching/code-mixing as an indication of a bilingual's creativity. Kachru (1986), for instance, perceives the positive attributes of code-mixing; he sees it as a creative and an innovative process. He describes code-mixing as a productive outcome of the long-term contact of local languages with the colonizer-language in post-colonial societies where linguistic practices such as code-switching and code-mixing have become a necessary element in informal bilingual conversation.

Parakrama (1995), describing Auer's stand with regard to code alternation, endorses the viewpoint that code alternation adds to the creative aspect of speech:

> Auer (1995) supports this view-point when he states that the transfer of linguistic units, single or extended, does not hinder the creativity of linguistic production. What language alternation actually does, according to Auer is, to provide the bilingual speaker with additional support for creativity, productivity and more effective use of language in the transmission of his/her message. The most positive comment on code-switching/code-mixing could be that it is a 'legitimate style of *informal* talk' [my emphasis] (Parakrama 1995: 2).

Early research (of the mid 1970s) focused on the sociolinguistic functions served at a micro-level by the linguistic practice of code alternation. Thus it was postulated that code-switching and code-mixing are used by speakers as a discourse device for negotiating effective interpersonal communication. This would entail both the signaling and interpretation of speaker intentions. However, as it is also argued by researchers, bilinguals would often switch or mix varieties in order to convey messages which lie "beyond the superficial meaning of their words" (Gardener-Chloros, 2009). Thus, the practice of code alternation would also become an indication of the general values and norms in connection with the different varieties of language prevalent in a speech community (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004; Jakobson, 1990). A macro-level feature of linguistic alternation as identified by Poplack (1988) is that the values, beliefs and norms of a community plays a pivotal role in an individual's choice of language whereas factors such as one's own language proficiency and demographic variables come as secondary determiners.

Sociolinguistic research has identified a set of common reasons which motivate linguistic alternation. According to these findings, a reason why bilinguals may alternate codes is at instances where the language being used does not have an appropriate word to express a particular concept (Grosjean 1982). Switching or mixing of codes may take place to adjust one's speech to the linguistic competencies and/or preferences of the other interlocutor/s in a speech situation (Giles & Smith, 1979).

The topic of the conversation and its content, too, may determine if the speech event is carried out in one language or with language switches and/or mixes (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004). The age, level of education, social class, religion and gender of the participants in a conversation become contributing factors not only for the motivation of code-switching/code-mixing, but also to determine the amount, frequency and the quality of such alternation. For instance, in many societies where alternation of codes is practised, it is the youth and/or the adolescents who tend to code-switch/code-mix more than the older generations of the community (Schmidt, 1985).

The general attitude which prevails in a society towards linguistic alternation, too, decides whether its speech community would opt or not for switching and/or mixing in their informal speech. The degree of power and prestige associated with a language also plays a dominant role in the choice of code by a bilingual conversational participant. The language of the majority population in migrant situations, or languages which are internationally recognized as those wielding power over other languages and language communities being chosen for switching and/or mixing purposes can be given as examples.

Bilinguals may sometimes use code-switching/code-mixing according to the needs, preferences and linguistic competencies of the other interlocutors in a particular speech situation. For instance, Kim (2006) exemplifies that the employees in government offices in Canada express their greeting on answering the telephone using both the terms 'bonjour, hello', thus leaving space for the caller to continue the conversation in the language of his/her choice. Changing languages to accommodate the other speaker endows a bilingual speaker with a greater awareness of communicative sensitivity.

Appel and Muysken (2006) have observed six main functions served by code-switching/code-mixing, i.e. referential, directive, expressive, phatic, metalinguistic and poetic (Fong, 2011). Linguistic alternation is practiced by interlocutors specifically when they are confronted with the issue of language appropriateness. When one of their languages does not contain appropriate lexical items to express certain concepts, bilingual speakers switch over to the other language or mix codes to avoid misunderstanding and loss of intended meaning.

Fishman (2000), too, postulates that some topics make a bilingual more comfortable in switching or mixing codes because one of the languages at his/her disposal contains more specialized terms to deal with some topics. For example, Kurdish-Arabic bilinguals in a research conducted by Grosjean (1982) have expressed being more at ease when they mix codes on dealing with topics on politics and science. According to Li (1997) bilinguals code-mix/code-switch more when the discourse borders on topics centred around fashion, food and music. Lack of

registral competence can also be a result of inadequate linguistic competence of some or all of the participants in a conversation.
Whether or not a bilingual speaker chooses to code-switch/code-mix could also depend on the mood of the speaker at the time of speaking. On such occasions, s/he may opt for words from the language in which s/he is more comfortable and therefore, takes less of an effort to retrieve.

Habitual expressions such as greetings, requests, apologies and discourse markers may be used in the code-switched/code-mixed mode when speakers are more accustomed to using those expressions from the language other than the one in which they are communicating. For example, a majority of the monolingual, receiver bilingual or minimally bilingual groups of Sri Lanka retain the code-mixed utterances from the English language, such as *'Good Morning'* (or just *'Morning'*), *'Thank You'*, *'Sorry'*, *Excuse Me'* (for '*Please Excuse Me'*) in their verbal interactions carried out in their vernacular.

Code alternation is also used by bilinguals for other sociolinguistic reasons such as to signal a change of attitude, to cause humour or even to include or exclude someone from a conversation (Holmes 2001). Other variables such as social status and age would cause bilinguals to alternate codes. For example, pre-service teachers in the Emmanuel Alayande College of Education, Oyo, Oyo State and Ikere Ekiti College of Education, Ikere, in the code-switching/code-mixing research by Fakeye (2012), alternated between languages in the conversations with their colleagues but never did so in the verbal interactions with their lecturer.

The switching or mixing of two languages is used heavily in advertisements to attract the attention of the audiences. In such instances, a major part of the advertisement contains the language with which the audiences are more familiar, while interspersing the advertisement with a small portion of very attractive words and/or phrases from the more privileged language. Languages are switched or mixed sometimes in the commercial mass media for the same reason of attracting, as well as for retaining audience attention. However, in Malaysia, code alternation in the fields of advertising and mass communication is considered as 'undisciplined' use of language which generates 'negative' attention from media audiences. The Malaysian government has banned code alternation on national television since it is perceived as contributing to the degradation of Malaysian national language and identity (Abu Bakar, 2009).

Kachru (1983), in his studies on language alternation in the Indian context where indicators of class and upward mobility play significant roles in the social life of individuals, has observed that code-mixing with English is used by speakers in India to reveal or conceal the social class to which they belong.

Some groups use code-mixing not only to establish an intra-group or a sub-group identity with their own characteristic patterns of code-mixing (cf. Tabouret-Keller, 1997) but also to project an invented identity of themselves on others. The social-psychology of this issue pertaining to the projection of identity can be explained further by applying Le Page and Tabouret-Keller's (1985) account on the identity factor on language choice:

> [T]he individual creates for himself the patterns of his linguistic behaviour so as to resemble those of the group or groups with which from time to time he wishes to be identified, or as to be unlike those from whom he wishes to be distinguished (Le Page and Tabouret-Keller 1985: 181).

Adetuyi, Akinghibe, Akinola, Ogunleye, and Omole (2011) have found in their research that a majority of the undergraduate students of the University of Ibadan mix and switch codes because the practice would earn them respect.

Above all the reasons and motivations discussed above, a person's position as a member of a group stands out in his/her choice to alternate codes (Fishman 2000). In as much as sociological and physiological factors such as an individual's age, sex, ethnic and religious background become important contributing factors in this regard, a speaker's "socio-psychological sense of reference group membership" (Kim, 2006: 53) also plays a significant role in the choice of language, thus projecting a social identity of oneself. According to Auer (1984) the use of two languages or parts of two languages in an unchanged speech situation, a speaker may project two identities at the same time, a privilege which a monolingual cannot enjoy. This is so because alternated codes signify shared values and experiences of a group or culture. Therefore, when speakers use words and phrases as they are found in the original languages, this practice endows that speaker with a sense of belonging to a particular group or culture.

Code-Switching/Code-Mixing as a Verbal Strategy: Attitudes and Perspectives

The speech practice of code-switching gained prominence with Haugen's (1956) use of the term 'switching' to describe the action of crossing over between two languages in speech. However, code-switching/code-mixing has traditionally been regarded as socially and linguistically deviant behaviour and a result of inadequate language proficiency (Heredia and Brown, forthcoming; Weinreich, 1953), thus disregarding its importance as a process which may cause, or precipitate, language change. Weinreich's (1953: 73) standpoint is that a stable bilingual alternates between languages according to "changes in the speech situation, but not in an unchanged speech situation and certainly not within a single sentence". It could be pointed out, however, that these views stand in stark contrast to the definitions and explanations of code-switching/code-mixing which emphasize the practice of alternation within unchanged speech situations, at times within the boundary of a single sentence.

The notion of code alternation as an inferior form of language use has been reiterated even by some who are known as seminal figures of modern linguistics, perhaps reflecting the negative attitudes of their time. Bloomfield (1927), for instance, strongly looks down upon the speech of a Native American informant, remarking on his proficiency as highly incompetent.

> White Thunder, a man around 40, speaks less English than Menomini, and that is a strong indictment, for his Menomini is atrocious. His vocabulary is small, his inflections are barbarous; he constructs sentences of a few threadbare models. He may be said to speak no language tolerably (Bloomfield 1927: 395)

The concept of 'semilingualism' thus reiterates the point that bilinguals who are inadequate in their linguistic ability use code-switching/code-mixing because of their lack of competence in one or more of the languages concerned in a given speech situation (Edelsky, Hudelson, Flores, Barkin, Altwerger & Jilbert 1983). Boztepe (2005: 2), explaining the concept of 'semilingualism', states that "[c]ode-switching has become a part of the performance of the imperfect bilingual … [S]uch notions about the legitimacy of one language or language variety over another have been the major source of inspiration for the deficit hypothesis in the United States and many other countries". Wardaugh (1992) asserts that prescriptivist monolinguals use expressions such as Spanglish (for the mixing of Spanish and English), Franglais (mixing of French and English), Tex-Mex (mixing English and Mexican Spanish in Texas) to express their disapproval and condemnation of the mixing of codes.

Blanc and Hamers (1989) note that code-mixing, in comparison with code-switching, indicates insufficient linguistic competence. The statement which Wettewe (2009: 8) makes with regard to 'code-switching' and 'code-mixing' that the two terms "carry pre-conceived assumptions about the competence of bilingual speakers", can be viewed better in light of the negative observations thus discussed above

on the practices of code-switching and code-mixing. Hence some researchers tend to prefer the terms 'transference' (Clyne, 2003) or 'code-alternation' (Auer, 1984) to 'code-switching' and/or 'code-mixing'. In such a context, it is significant, as Bennett-Kastor (2008: 32) records in her account of Irish-English code-switching/code-mixing, her personal observations where speakers switch (as opposed to mixing) languages for "compensatory" purposes, using the components of one language to "substitute for those beyond a person's fluency in the other".

Myres-Scotton argues that "without education to a certain level, it is unlikely a person will be able to speak the linguistic variety associated with Myres-Scotton (1997) contends that for whatever reasons code alternation is practiced, under whatever circumstances and motivations, the political and socioeconomic power in the community". Myres-Scotton (1997: 11) explains this phenomenon in the following manner:

> Code-switching patterns may be indicative of how speakers view themselves in relation to the sociopolitical or cultural values attached to the linguistic varieties used in code-switching. For example, when code-switching is the main in-group medium, its use is evidence that speakers see both codes as salient indices of the values they incorporate in their identities, at least in the social context where it occurs. This is often the case in the Third World, where an indigenous variety is used in a code-switching pattern with the language of the former colonial power (e.g. Baba Malay/English in Singapore (Pakir, 1989), SeSotho/English in South Africa (Khati 1992).

Parakrama (1995) takes the opposite stance to the above arguments with regard to the practice of code-mixing. He argues that code-mixing, though may be unacceptable on the basis of 'educated' standards, and would therefore cause theoretical problems, stands out as instances of innovative and creative use of language. He points out the critical influence of hegemony on the prevailing negative perspectives on code-mixing as a manifestation of lack of education, bad manners or improper control of the two grammars involved. He postulates that communicative strategies such as deliberate code-mixing, far from being degenerative, reveal the reality of language change while being excellent examples of the linguistic creativity of the economically, socially and linguistically subordinate groups. He critiques the elitist attempt to lay down rules of the so-called legitimate, 'safe' language, "often doing violence" to the creativity and identity of those subordinate groups. He states that "[i]t would seem important to try to understand the role that hegemony plays in the reinforcing of such attitudes and in the resisting of others".

Parakrama thus builds up the argument that code-mixing allows the 'uneducated' user of a language "greater freedom in and out of that language (Parakrama, 1995: 119). For example, his standpoint with regard to code-mixed utterances found in conversational interactions carried out in Sinhala is clearly that those utterances "undoubtedly enrich Sinhala speech" (Parakrama, 1995: 120) instead of diluting it.

> … [S]uch (code-mixed) utterances appear to break new ground in creatively combining Sinhala and English, and moreover, do so without violating the spirit of either language (Parakrama, 1995: 119).

He contends that the phenomenon of code-mixing should be viewed in relation to the concept of 'antilanguages', as instances of "resistance to normativity" (Parakrama, 1995: 121). The kind of code-mixing practiced by the popular FM media and their audiences can be viewed in this light as a manifestation of a covert attempt to contest the prevailing elitist norms of linguistic behaviour.

Contrary to the traditional view on code-switching, a considerable number of studies of the recent past have shown that it is the stable bilinguals who code-switch most (for example, Caubet, 2001; McCormick, 2002; Muysken, 2000). Kachru (1983), too, notes that educated Indians with a solid bilingual background use code-mixing in their conversational interactions. Recent studies on linguistic diversification and language alternation have also pointed out that code-mixing can be done by individuals who are at different levels of bilingual competence ranging from a minimal to an advanced degree. Associating code-switching with functional bilingualism Bullock and Toribio (2009: xii) use the term 'code-switching' to refer to "the alternating use of two languages in the same stretch of discourse by a bilingual speaker".

Studies viewing code-switching from a social-psychological perspective have noted that the linguistic practice of code-switching/code-mixing

could be one of the strategies adopted by speakers to adjust the way they speak to match the language preferences of the other interlocutors in a conversational situation (Wei Zhang, 2005; Sachdev and Bourhis, 1990). Trudgill (1992: 7) explains this concept of 'accommodation' as "[t]he process whereby participants in a conversation adjust their accent, dialect or other language characteristics according to the language of the other participant(s)". This concept draws on the Speech Accommodation Theory (or, later, the Communication Accommodation Theory) developed by Howard Giles (Giles & Smith, 1979). Gardner-Chloros (2009: 78) presents two possible situations where code-switching can become quite useful in such instances of communication accommodation, one being when two languages/language varieties carry different social meanings for the participants (in a conversation) coming from different language backgrounds, and the other when there is a mismatch between the participants' levels of competence in the language/s concerned. Thus, as Gardner-Chloros, Charles and Cheshire (2000: 1335) point out, linguistic variation always places the speaker at a conversationally more advantageous position than a monolingual speaker.

Myres-Scotton (1997: 6) remarks that the selection of a "bilingual mode" by a speaker in conversation could be motivated by its appropriateness to his/her intentions. Nevertheless, this selection, as Myres-Scotton points out through the example which follows, is a subconscious one.

> A Senegalese politician who very effectively uses Wolof/French code-switching in his public speeches in Dakar still firmly stated in an interview that he did not mix Wolof and French [Swigart (1994: 185), cited in Myres-Scotton [1997: 6]).

Some of the seminal studies on code-switching situations in different societies have recorded an interdependence between code-switching and the speakers' age. Bentahila and Davies (1983), for instance, have found distinctive differences between the code-switched speech of the older and the younger groups of Arabic-French bilinguals in Morocco. Backus (1996) observes a similar situation in code-switching between Turkish and Dutch in Tilberg, the Netherlands. According to this study, with the increase of contact with monolingual Turkish and Dutch, and thus the advances in proficiency, the patterns of code-switching have changed from intra-sentential switching (or, code-mixing) to inter-sentential switching which indicates higher proficiency in both the languages concerned. In both these occasions, alternation of codes is chosen by their speakers to signal dual membership in groups speaking both languages.

Schmidt (1985), in his study of the use of Dyirbal - a language of the aborigines of Australia, now on the verge of extinction - across generations, notes that switching of codes between different age groups could be consequent on the inadequate competence of some of the participants in the language/s involved in a conversational situation. Schmidt's (1985) study thus becomes a good example of bringing the age factor and linguistic competence together in one study. The younger groups of the speech community in his study tend to resort to excessive

code-switching between Dyirbal and English as a result of their lack of competence in Dyirbal, thus marking a distinctive difference between the older and the younger speakers of Dyirbal in their frequency in code-switching. Such studies have shown that the more a generation is exposed to urban values and the language associated with those values, the more prone they become to be influenced, sometimes to a vast extent, by those values as well as the language. Whereas the older generations of the societies studied seem to strongly resist such an impact even though the new languages and cultures impose more power on the speech community than their own languages and cultural values.

In migrant situations where the sociolinguistic dominance of one language might gradually cause attrition in the immigrants' first language, thus resulting in linguistic shift by the second generation of immigrants (Myres-Scotton 1997: 6-7).

It has been proposed that through the use of code-switching speakers can define and/or mark a change in social positioning, or 'footing' (Goffman, 1981: 127). Footing', as called by Goffman (1981: 127 cited in Kramsch, 2000: 42) is a speaker's "perception of (one's) role as a participant in an interaction, and in (his/her) alignment to others … expressed in the way (they) manage the production or reception of utterances". In monolingual speech, one can define his/her footing through the use of register, tone, etc.

The language/language variety a speaker uses may give out different meanings, i.e. indications of the speaker's origin, social class, his/her social values, etc. Similarly, meanings can be attached to the act of

switching back and forth between languages/language varieties during the same course of conversational interaction (Mesthrie, et. al, 2000). Kachru (1982; 1983; 1986), too, in his studies on the South Asian experience of English, notes that in the post-colonial societies of South Asia code-mixing denotes modernization and social position. He observes that speakers' code-mixing with English could indicate power over completely monolingual groups. Kachru (1978) explains this situation with reference to the Indian middle class where speakers code-mix local languages with English to signal power, prestige as well as linguistic and social superiority. According to Fasold (1984) too, attitudes towards languages/language varieties could be an important indicator of the significance of language as a social symbol. Auer (1984) reiterates this view when he makes a distinction between the borrowing of single words from another language and code alternation in that, according to him, the alternation between languages is associated with the speaker making it quite obvious to the interlocutors that s/he is mixing languages to signal his/her "superior lexical knowledge". In their analyses of the practices of code-switching/code-mixing in various parts of the African sub-continent, language researchers such as Bokamba (1989; 1988), Kamwangamalu (1989) and Akere (1977) have found out that such behavior of crossing over from one language to another in the same stretch of communication is done by individuals or groups for reasons of status and prestige.

On a parallel vein Milroy (1987) as well as Gal (1979) have put forward the idea that one's social network strongly impacts his/her choice of code (cited in Boztepe 2005: 18). Studies conducted by Poplack and her associates on code-switching in French-Canadian communities reveal

that community peer behavior exercises a stronger impact on the code-switching habits of an individual than demographic variables or individual linguistic proficiency (Poplack 1988, cited in Myres-Scotton 1997). Treffers-Daller (1992)'s studies on code-switching patterns in Brussels, too, reiterate this feature in that they report code-switching behavior as reflecting intergroup dynamics. Code-switching between Arabic and French among Arabic-French bilinguals in Morocco, as noted by Bentahila and Davies (1992), shows attitudes towards group affiliations.

Several studies on code-switching have shown that the different types of linguistic behavior involved in the practice can bring about positive as well as negative effects on the situation where they occur. In much the same way that code-switching becomes an outcome of a linguistic necessity or is motivated by the need of an individual or a group to express a social identity, it can also be consequent upon the struggle for power between two, or more, linguistic codes (Pujolar, 2001), one distinctly more prestigious than the other/s.

Myers-Scotton and Bolonyai (2001), in the continuation of Myers-Scotton's argument for a Markedness Theory (1993a), emphasise that the linguistic choices available to a bilingual in a given verbal interaction of code-mixing may contain a variety when used in a context to comply with the accepted rules and conventions of code-switching or code-mixing patterns prevalent in a society, makes that variety the 'unmarked' choice, but when it is used in certain contexts where speakers deviate from convention it gets noted as the 'marked choice'. According to this argument, the unmarked choice is often an index of

in-group membership, and is thus not used as an out-group mode of communication. For instance, in the Alsace area of France, Alsatian becomes the dominant language in the code-switching events among Alsatian-speaking groups, although French is a frequently spoken language in the area (Gardener-Chloros, 2009). In urban areas in India, where multilingualism is a prominent feature, code-switching/code-mixing is prevalent as the unmarked choice for informal communication. In Myres-Scotton's point of view, a dominant language exists even in the unmarked choice of code alternation. In Gardner-Chloros's (2009: 70) point of view, however, the Markedness Model attaches more importance to the interpretation of conversational participants' intentions, thus placing less prominence on the "creation of meaning by participants within conversations".

Linguists who have studied code-switching from a sociolinguistic perspective have shown how it "contributes in various ways to an understanding of how the individual is articulated with the social" (Gardner-Chloros, 2009: 18). Gardner-Chloros (2009: 41) also argues that sociolinguistic, rather than structural factors influence different sub-groups in a community in different ways, resulting in different types of code-switching in the same community. Kachru (1983) reiterates that, out of the different types of linguistic alternation, code-mixings stands out as the higher form of alternation whereas code-mixing is viewed as the lower form.

Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) state that language attitudes, dominance and security determine the qualitative and quantitative properties of language mixing. Though studies on attitudes towards code-switching

are relatively few, a major part of whatever research that has been conducted in this area hitherto report largely negative attitudes towards the linguistic behaviour concerned. These studies show how language alternation in communication becomes highly stigmatized in many bilingual whatever research that has been conducted in this area hitherto report largely negative attitudes towards the linguistic behaviour concerned. These studies show how language alternation in communication becomes highly stigmatized in many bilingual or multilingual communities in the world (for example, Aikhenvald 2002; Lawson-Sako and Sachdev 2000; Zentella 1997; Chana and Romaine 1984; Bentahila 1983). In communities where prescriptive attitudes towards language and its practice is a dominant feature as well as in societies torn by racial or other inter-group tensions, such attitudes may be resultant in linguistic polarization, thus curtailing the alternation of linguistic codes.

Conversely, the Greek Cypriots in London in Gardner-Chloros, McEntee-Atalianis & Finnis's (2005) study of their code-switching behaviour, were quite positive in their attitude towards the code-switching practices among their community. Similarly, the Puerto Rican community in New York, too, consider code-switching as an indication of their affiliation with both the Spanish and English-speaking cultures (Mahootian 2006: 517).

Mahootian (2006) discusses the negative attitudes prevalent among the traditional and older generations of different communities towards linguistic alternation.

> [I]n most communities, code-switching usually has a stigmatized status … [I]n all bilingual communities one finds that attitudes towards mixed language range from posittive to negative, depending on class, age, education, profession and other social factors. For example, older generations of speakers in a bilingual community typically have a negative response to code-switching and assert that it shows a loss of pride in the home culture and disrespect to the community elders (Mahootian 2006: 516-517).

Mahootian (2006:517) further illustrates on this situation by explaining that, in communities where linguistic variation is considered as self-demeaning language behavior, younger generations are expected to refrain from code-mixing/code-switching, "at least in the presence of their elders".

In her study of code-switching between Irish and English, Stenson (1990) has observed more intra-sentential switching (i.e. code-mixing) and very few instances of inter-sentential switching. The study revealed that code-mixed utterances usually contained "single lexical items" which, in Bennett-Kastor's (2008: 34) point of view, are distinctly different from "borrowings into Irish". Furthermore, Stenson's (1990: 177-79) study claims that when adjectives appear in Irish code-mixed speech, it is the syntax of the language of the adjective (Irish, in this case) which determines its placement.

Thomason (2001) argues that sometimes speakers might make their own linguistic code by deliberately changing the existing language which they have been using hitherto, thereby developing mixed languages

which might sometimes fall beyond the intelligibility levels of conventional speakers of the main language. This argument, as cited by Wettewe (2009: 124), "elaborates the no-constraint theory" which suggests that speakers may intentionally bring about changes in the language they speak, and these changes can take place at any level of language.

Chan (1998), referring to the highly westernized culture in Hong-Kong following a British rule for over a century, observes that the mixing between Cantonese and English can be found not only in informal conversational settings but also in interviews on radio and television.

Code-Switching/Code-Mixing in Mass Media

Transnational research findings have revealed that different genres of mass communication media of the twenty first century has become fertile ground for experimenting with instances of linguistic diversity (Androutsopoulos, 2007). Instances of the marketing of different aspects of bilingualism such as advertising in both print and audio/visual media, code-switching/code-mixing, rapped music, etc. can be found from several different parts of the world including the former colonized countries of Africa, India, and now in Sri Lanka. Androutsopoulos (2007: 207) concedes that "[l]anguage mixing is no doubt a part of the symbolic capital" that profit-oriented commercial media "sells to their audiences".

Sociolinguistically speaking, the linguistic habitus of the mass communication media traditionally constituted of "ideologies and

practices of monolingualism" (Androutsopoulos 2007:208). In such a context, practices such as code-mixing which are generally associated with informal linguistic behavior, may not have been perceived as legitimately appropriate for use in public discourse. Nevertheless, unlike the national media, the private commercial media, driven by economic factors, seeks diverse strategies to attract audiences, who are its consumers. Thus, the commercial media tends to experiment with their programme formats as well as their use of language, adopting speech styles which have hitherto not been used in media discourse (Androutsopoulos 2007: 208)

Sri Lankan Situation as regards Code-Switching/Code-Mixing

Long-term contact between English and the indigenous cultures and languages, as characteristic of many parts of the (post)colonial world, has rendered it a common occurrence for different types of language alternation to take place as a means of communication within and among the communities that constitute the society of Sri Lanka (Canagarajah,1995a; 1995b; 1995c). In much the same way that the English-speaking Sinhala/Tamil/Malay natives of the colonial era had to use words from the vernaculars in their English, monolingual Sinhala/Tamil/Malay speakers also had to borrow from the English language in order to discuss matters associated with the British culture. The following excerpt from Shackle (2001:227) explains the linguistic situation in the British colonies of South Asia:

> As the result of the long period of British rule, English has become very firmly established in South Asia. Even those with no direct command of English will have been exposed to its indirect influence through the very numerous loan words which have entered all South Asian languages (Shackle 2001:227).

The practice of code-mixing/code-switching between Sinhala and English, which started with the borrowing of linguistic items from the English language, has today become an effective linguistic strategy in normal, generally informal, bilingual communication in the country. Code-mixing is the norm rather than the exception in urban Sri Lanka today. As Fernando (1982: 354) quite rightly observed approximately four decades ago, there are instances where " … [a] speaker might find it convenient and more natural to use an English term to a fellow bilingual rather than an equivalent Sinhala term". Code-mixing has made such a strong impact in the urban Sri Lankan communication that people of the urban areas seem to have the notion that the use of a Sinhala word in place of a lexical transfer from English might even spoil the colloquial flavor of a conversation and may add to it an artificial character, for, the main function of code-switching/code-mixing in such occasions is to denote informality.

Even those who fall very low in the cline of bilingualism, thus coming very close to be categorized either as minimal bilinguals or as receiver bilinguals (or passive bilinguals) in terms of their communicative competence in English, might prefer to use a considerable proportion of English words in their day to day conversation, thus engaging in a particular type of intra-sentential or 'ragged' switching (Hasselmo, 1961). For instance, terms such as *wife*, *start* (a vehicle, as in *[sta:t kərənəwa]*), *pass* (an examination, as in *[pa:s wenəwa]*), *sheet* (followed by the Sinhala suffix *ekə* or *ekak*), etc. are very common and regular lexical transfers from English into conversations carried out in Sinhala.

In Sri Lanka, education does not seem to be a decisive factor in determining the tendency to code-mix. (Mawelle, 2017). The long-term exposure to British colonialism has made it possible for some of the less-

educated, almost monolingual urban Sinhala/Tamil speakers of the country to use at least a smattering of English, at least in the form of lexical items, in their conversations. Similar to the findings of many studies on linguistic variation from different parts of the world, in Sri Lanka too, speakers code-switch or code-mix mainly in order to recognize solidarity and in-group identity.

Code-mixing in Popular Sri Lankan Mass Communication Media

Linguistic diversity is not an uncommon occurrence in the informal mass communication media in Sri Lanka. Despite the ideology and policy of monolingualism in public media discourse on national mass communication media, the private commercial media experiment with several different strategies to attract and retain audiences, which includes new strategies of language use.

In a backdrop where linguistic variation is not encouraged on national broadcasting media which includes the state-owned commercial radio channels, the private commercial radio teams seem to be using linguistic variation, mainly in the form of code-mixing, to be projecting a sense of constructed identity on to their audiences. Bourdieu (1997) postulates that accessing the language with higher prestige is differently distributed in societies. However, even those groups that are altogether denied access to that language, acknowledge the hierarchical relations of linguistic exercise and the legitimacy of a language as the one of prestige and power.

Conclusion

Code-alternation is a verbal strategy used by almost all bilinguals throughout the world to colour their speech. Thus it has become an inseparable part of the informal, day-to-day communication of bilinguals. However, it is ironic that the very people who alternate codes in their informal conversations tend to disapprove of this practice when others are engaged in it. Their agitation is more so when this verbal practice is found in the mass communication media, a site which some of them identify with standards of language use. However, though disparaged by language prescriptivists as a substandard form of language use, code-mixing is used in excess by the popular commercial broadcasting media, as a strategy to gain audiences. Excessive code-mixing also appears to have become a way of showing their resistance to the hegemonic language practices and the mainstream national radio channels which set and propagate standards for the type of language to be used in media discourse.

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The Emotional Intelligence and Success of Women Entrepreneurs in the Beauty Salon Industry in Sri Lanka: A study of Colombo District.

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Abstract

It was observed that a higher percentage of women lead enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka. Though this industry is growing at a remarkable rate within the last few years, very few studies focused on the link of Emotional Intelligent (EI) to the success of women enterprises. The purpose of the study is to understand the level EI and its relationship to the Enterprise success of women in the hair and beauty salon industry. It also evaluates how managerial skill, socio-cultural context, education age and location play on the success of women enterprises in the industry. The deductive method was adopted, and a sample of 100 women entrepreneurs surveyed by using a structured questionnaire. The findings confirm that there is a higher level of EI in women entrepreneurs lead to the success of their business. At the same time, age and business location and socio-cultural context have a significant impact on their achievements. The study suggested using much of self-management, social awareness and relationship management to develop women into next pedestal of entrepreneurship and also it insists government authorities work toward the country's economic development through focusing in introducing educational programs to improve emotional intelligence in women, during the general education as well as in professional learning.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence (EI), Success of women enterprise, Hair and beauty salon industry, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Introduction

Throughout many years it is evident that entrepreneurs build the economy of the world. It is evident that, less contribution of women in enterprises compare to men, hence the World Bank recognized the importance of improving the number of women in entrepreneurship. They believed that it might be a fundamental solution to escape from poverty (Devan, 2012). In Sri Lanka, many women do not contribute to socio-economic development because they were majorly trapped into under-valued employment and given fewer opportunities for training and advancement (Herath, 2015). According to census and statistics, 52% of the Sri Lankan population is represented by women and in Colombo, it is closer to 51% (Census & Statistics, 2018). It indicates that women in Sri Lanka could contribute to Sri Lankan economic growth as par as men contribute to it.

Researchers have identified that despite the growth of the number of new ventures by women entrepreneurs seen, there are several challenges women faced compared to men (Arasti, 2011). Recent research findings elaborated that entrepreneurial failures are occurring due to both the internal and external factors and it found that mainly due to financial skills, relationships with partners, and lack of crucial information are playing the vital role in failure in businesses (Atsan, 2016).

In research on earlier era by (Cross and Travaglione, 1993) in entrepreneurship, analyzed that, all the entrepreneurs can read the

emotions of others around the business and usage of appropriate methods in interacting on those immediately. They stated that women Entrepreneurs require a high level of emotional management and understanding of emotions. According to (Golman, 2011) women show a higher level of empathy and understanding inner emotions, and men show a higher level of ability in managing emotions in crucial situations. (Deshwal, 2016) also discussed how EI impact on organizational performance. The emotional strengths like empathy and social responsibility of women are well encouraged in today's business context. Another study (Boren, 2010) also suggests that an entrepreneur's capability to understand and accomplish their emotional intelligence to maintain successful emerging ventures. After years of the research, a substantial rate of new venture failure is still evident. Furthermore, it understood that without proper management of emotions by women had led several venture failures.

(Ngah & Salleh, 2015) stated that entrepreneurs with higher Emotional Intelligent were able to do better negotiations, build customer relationships and demonstrate excellent leadership and also highlighted Emotional Intelligent leads to enable creativity and innovation to cater opportunities around them. The ability of innovative leadership may enhance the motivation of employees to deliver better outputs.

In Sri Lanka, Dissanayaka 2010) explained that managers in the Banking Industry exhibit a significantly higher level of emotional competencies, and it guides managers to understand and manage their emotions and relationships. Finally, it links to the success of the organization.

Although, it is proven empirically that emotional Intelligent serves as a driver of favorable outcomes for entrepreneurs (Nhah & Salleh, 2015); (Boren, 2010); (Goldman, 1995) lack of studies on emotional Intelligent, entrepreneurial perspectives. In Sri Lanka to become successful, women entrepreneurs have utilized better psychological characteristics, experience, and knowledge of early childhood in business, competencies of an entrepreneur, education, and learning, external support, and the culture. According to researchers (Ranasinghe, 2008; Ifthikar & Senathiraja, 2014) also proved that factors such as early childhood experiences, psychological characteristics, family support, social networks, and socio-cultural values had a significant influence on women entrepreneurs venturing activities in Sri Lanka. The findings reveal the entrepreneurial characteristics of Muslim women to be; proactive, self-motivated, opportunistic, creative, self-confident, internal locus of control, need for achievement and innovation in the Sri Lankan context.

Among the most of negative observation of women and entrepreneurship, it was seen a higher percentage of women lead enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in a local context (Premathilaka, 2018). Even though the global hair and beauty salon industry refers to both the beauty services and retail of beauty products. In Sri Lanka it is mostly considered the smaller scale independent hair and beauty salons as the main part of the industry. The industry primarily consists of 3 segments, such as hair dressing, beauty and bridal dressing. Beauty segment offers services like skin care treatments (facials), eyebrow/eyelash, manicures, pedicures, makeup application, massages, waxing and other non-medical beauty treatments. On the other hand, hairdressing segment offer services such as cutting, coloring, styling, shampooing, permanents, tanning and non-

medical hair restoration techniques. This industry was chosen due to the higher percentage of ventures owned by women, the measures of dependent variables in each venture will show an autonomy, the consistency of variables to a greater extent, high number of ventures and ability of higher rate of participation, and due to easy access with prior appointments.

It was understood that, the amount of research done in this industry, to understand EI and its link to the success of enterprises by women was minute. Therefore, this study also insists on the need of identifying "what are the influential factors and the role of EI of the success of women lead enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.?"

The Objectives are to:

- Understand the level of Emotional Intelligent and the level of success of enterprises of women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.
- Examine the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Enterprise success of women in the hair and beauty salon industry.
- Evaluate the impact of moderating factors (managerial skill, socio-cultural context, an education age, and location) on the connection between Emotional Intelligence and the success of the enterprise of women in hair and beauty salon industry.

Only a handful of research conducted on successful women entrepreneurs in Sri Lanka (Amarasiri, 2002; Ranasinghe 2008; Ifthikar & Senathiraja 2014). The discussion concludes the need of studying "what is the role of emotional intelligence in the enterprise success of women entrepreneurs?"

Literature Review

Hair and beauty salon industry

Among the most of negative observation in women and entrepreneurship, it was seen a higher percentage of women lead enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in a local context (Premathilaka, 2018). Hence the scope of research was driven to limit the scope of research to women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry related to Colombo district. Hair and beauty salon industry of the country is growing at a remarkable industry in Sri Lanka. The context refers to contribute to the high demand for beauticians in the country (Fernando, 2011).

Women Entrepreneurs

Women who play an intriguing role by frequently interacting and actively adjusting herself with socio-economic, financial and support spheres in society is called women entrepreneur (Pareek, 1992). (Tambunan, 2009) divided women entrepreneurs into three categories of chance, forced and created.

Emotional Intelligence and Theories

Emotional Intelligence is the skill of recognizing the meanings of emotions and the relationships, and ability to reasoning and problem-solving by those emotions (Golman 1995). Furthermore, (Bradberry, 2014) describes two main competencies in EI. Those are personal competency, and social competency and these competencies are divided further into awareness and management.

The emotional strengths like empathy and social responsibility of women are well encouraged in today's business context. Researchers in the Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology guides (2004) noted three appropriate frameworks or models of emotional intelligence: Mayer and Salovey ability framework, Daniel Goleman's mixed framework and Bar-On framework. **Mayer and Salovey ability framework,** three aspects of EI, considered as Emotions: expression and appraisals; Emotional: Regulation and Emotions: Utilization.

Goleman's Mixed Model (1998) stated in his theory that EI understood as a result of both ability and competency. It elaborates the need for studying EI as personality traits and as a social character. It includes five components Self-awareness, Self-regulation, Empathy, Motivation, and Social scale. However, Bar-On Model (1997b, 2000) argued that EI is as a non-cognitive skill of an individual and termed as Emotional, Social Intelligence and the framework consists of five clusters such as Intra-personal, Inter-personal, Stress Management, Adaptability, and General Mood.

These theories evolved, and Bradberry (2014) introduced four Grid Framework and explained to EI as two main competencies. Those are personal competency, and social competency and these competencies are divided further into awareness and management. Finally, it derived the below four core skills such as Self Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management.

Figure 1: Segments of emotional intelligence

	What I See	**What I Do**
Personal Competency	Self-Awareness	Self-Management
Social Competency	Social Awareness	Relationship management

Source: (Bradberry, 2014)

Small Enterprise success and other factors

Due the philosophy of critical realism adapted in this research, it emerged the need of understanding the portrayed view of the context in which EI contribute to enterprise success. Hence the research also contributed to the understanding of the context of impact of other factors like age, business location, education, socio-cultural context and managerial skill on the relationship of EI and enterprise success of women in hair and beauty salon industry.

According to the past researchers, many factors influence on success of SMEs such as entrepreneurial traits (Kristiansen, Furuholt, & Wahid, 2003; and Rutherford & Oswald, 2000), qualities of SME (Kristiansen, Furuholt, & Wahid; 2003), management and learning (Swierczek & Ha, 2003), products and services, customers and markets (Kirca, et at.,2005), the way of doing business and cooperation, resources and finance (Swierczek & Ha, 2003; and Kristiansen, Furuholt & Wahid, 2003). (8) strategy (McMahon, 2001), external environment (Indarti & Langenberg, 2005); and internet Hesselmann & Comcare 2002). According to

Budhadasa (2018) SMEs growth is limited by entrepreneurs' attitude and behavior.

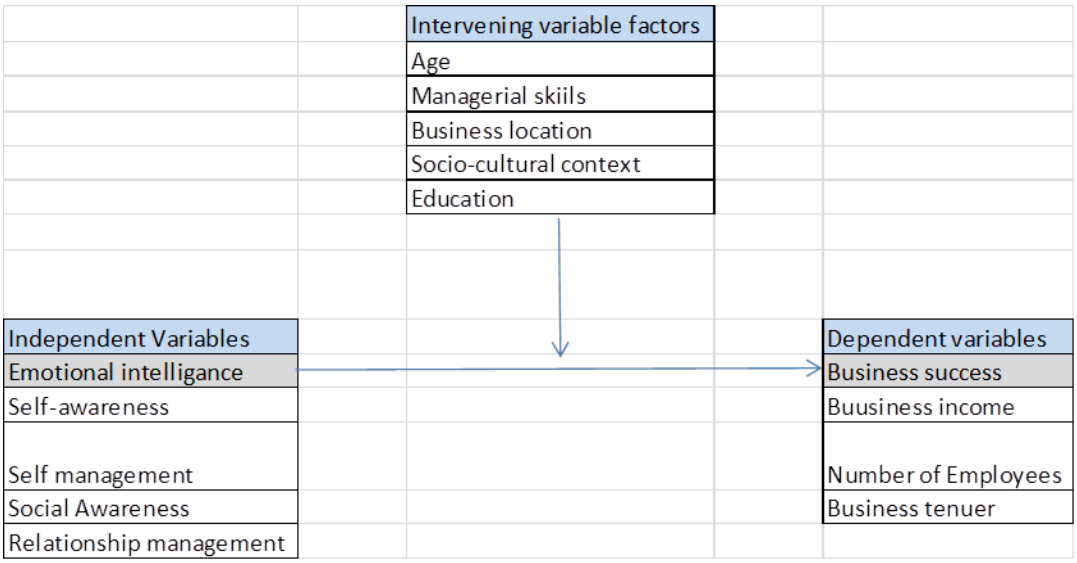
People rarely define terms such as success and failure; when they do, they invite endless complaints. Past research on SME has used a range of variables measure growth but most widely used measures are sales and employment. Employment is a widely used measure of growth (Barringer et al., 2005). However, the researchers have used average income, business tenure and number of employees as criteria to measure the success. With this background drawing the attention to defining SMEs is essential. There is no widely accepted definition of SMEs (Ayyagari et al., 2003; Budhadasa, 2009; Gamini & Senathiraja, 2003).

Conceptual Model

It is expected to find -out the correlation between Emotional intelligence (independent variables) and entrepreneurial success (dependent variable) of women in the Colombo district. Moreover, the level contribution of intervening factors on the above relationship.

The success of an entrepreneur will depend on various indicators, such as the entrepreneur's success the term of the successful entrepreneur, and the success of venture (Crane & Crane, 2007).

Figure 2: Conceptual model of the study



However, entrepreneurial success can define in two different ways according to the previous research data. They are a success through performance and psychological success (Juhdi, 2013). Furthermore, financial success will describe by average income, growth in the aspect of resources and sales, company revenues (Baron & Markman, 2003). Recent research reveals that a higher percentage of enterprises led by women are with relatively lesser tenure compare to that of men (Mitchelmore, 2013). It understood that to understand the success of the venture, factors like income and revenue, customer satisfaction, tenure, growth in the aspect of increment in resources like number of employees

The study may focus on understanding the average income/revenue of the venture, some employee increment during the tenure, the tenure of the venture. Customers' satisfaction may not measure due to the inability to use planned methods and instrument in the measuring efforts in this sector.

Entrepreneurship and its link to EI

It was understood that, individuals with high EI evaluates and obtained relevant information needed for better decision making in a much frequent manner and EI have indirect impact on superior decision making in human entrepreneurial behavior (Fallon, Matthews, Panganiban, Wohleber & Roberts, 2013). It was found out; Emotional intelligence converts individuals to more efficient business people, hence organizations become more productive, further the study advice appropriate usage of EI in management of businesses is not a fashion but a must (Alnabhan, 2005). Increased level of Emotional intelligence builds the empathy in human behavior and results effective business communicators (Carrillo, 2018). Accordingly, the following hypothesis derived from understanding the level of emotional intelligence of women entrepreneurs.

H1: There is a higher level of emotional intelligence in women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.

Emotional intelligence and Enterprise success

The research on entrepreneurship and EI confirms that, there is a significant relationship in between Level of Self-awareness and entrepreneurial success of individuals (Leutner, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2011). In many studies it was understood that, to become successful, entrepreneurs need to have higher levels of Willingness, ability and arrangements in cognitive process (García, 2014). The ‘self-awareness’ aspect of EI will be explained (Bradberry, 2014) the argument presented above.

As the description of Schneider there is a direct relationship in between risk taking ability, innovativeness and self- efficacy of women entrepreneurs and business success (Schneider, 2017). The further study suggests that, Core Self-evaluation was significantly related to the total entrepreneurial activity (Ahmetoglu, Leutner, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2011). Core self-evaluation is consisting of Neuroticism, and Self-esteem, Self-Efficacy and Locus of Control (Judge & Bono, 2001). This seems to be appropriately described by the Bradberry as 'Self-management' arm of emotional intelligence (Bradberry, 2014).

According to the study by Baron and Markman it is evident that, when there is higher level of social competence demonstrated by the entrepreneur, there is greater financial success seen in the venture, and this social competence includes perception about society by the entrepreneur, social adaptability of the individual, expressiveness in relationships (Baron & Markman, 2003). The variable of 'perception of society by the entrepreneur' is a direct component of 'Social awareness' attribute of EQ and other variables can be describing through the 'Relationship management' attribute of EQ (Bradberry, 2014).

In recent studies it was found out that, positive emotional intelligence can improve the level of innovation of the entrepreneur and influence the success of "relationship management through regulation of others emotions" and have shown the major benefits in business success compare to other aspects of EI (Ngah & Salleh, 2015). Furthermore, in a comparative study, it was understood that, successful entrepreneurs display higher levels of interpersonal relationships compared to unsuccessful entrepreneurs (Karimi, Kloshani & Bakhshizadeh, 2012).

The discussion concludes the fact that, there is a relationship between relationship management and outcomes in entrepreneurship.

According to Moore women have less access to social network compared to men, due to the lack of appropriate usage of relationship by the women entrepreneurs. Further research by Ngah and Salleh confirm that, appropriate usage of others' emotion by entrepreneurs has a significant impact on entrepreneurial success (Ngah & Salleh, 2015). Entrepreneurs with ability of using emotional intelligence over the relationships of others were able to gain advantages in negotiations, attract and sustain customers as well as lead the business, which support to entrepreneurial success (McLaughin, 2012). These conclude that 'Relationship management' attribute (Bradberry, 2014) of EQ has a direct link to entrepreneurial success.

H2: There is a significant relationship between EI and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry

H2.1: There is a significant relationship between Self-awareness and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry

H 2.2: There is a significant relationship between Self-management and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka

H.2.3: There is a significant relationship between Social awareness and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka

H 2.4: There is a significant relationship between Relationship management and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka

It observed that emotional intelligence and business success might influence by some other factors. Emotional intelligence per se, will not cover the success of entrepreneur (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Need for appropriate management to build a successful business is a well-established understanding. Management factors like financial control, proper record management, high planning skills, and marketing ability may support the success of the enterprise. Research suggests that management skill is as a critical factor to become successful in the enterprise (Kaushik & Sen, 2013). Even in women lead ventures, success depends on the managerial process and financial performance (Lee, Yang, 2013).

H3: There is a significant impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by Managerial skills of individuals in the hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka

Factors like background education may enhance the capabilities and skills of an entrepreneur and can understand as factors in learning dimension. The recent study suggests that background education significantly contributes to entrepreneurial success (Alozairi, 2018). At the same time, women entrepreneurs have utilized experience and knowledge of early childhood in business, education and learning, experience and knowledge of early childhood in business (Ranasinghe, 2008; Ifthikar, & Senathiraja 2014).

Education is one of the characteristics of women entrepreneurs that can affect their business performance, and literature supports that education and managerial experience may contribute to women's business growth but certainly has a positive impact on entrepreneurial performance (Gatewood, 2004). According to Wit and Van (1989), individuals with a high level of education are more likely to engage in entrepreneurship. More specific to women studies done by Muia, j. l. (2015), women were found to be more mature in terms of age, level of education and equipped with work experience in comparison to non-entrepreneurs.

H4: There is a significant impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by the educational background of individuals in the hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka

Entrepreneurial culture and role of the family will consider as sociocultural context factors of the entrepreneur. Furthermore, according to Wong (2014) entrepreneurial culture is the way that organizations, society, and government supports or champions entrepreneurship. Even though there is no difference in support of the government in entrepreneurial culture, within the scope of the research, the effect of society may differ to each. Within the same geographic area, there are different social classes. Research has found out there is a significant impact on individuals' cognition and the way of self-views by social class even within the same geographic area (Varnum et al., 2010). Role of the family may affect the entrepreneurial thoughts and personality in venture creation (Ranwala, 2016).

H5: There is a significant impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by the socio-cultural context of individuals in the hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka

Micro-environment factors like the location, market acceptance, consumer purchasing power will affect the business outcome of the venture (Lee & Yang, 2013). It was understood even in Sri Lanka to become the success in business, venture location contributes heavily (Weerasinghe et al., 2013). Because location affects foot traffic, parking, purchasing abilities and needs of surrounding potential customers, even within the selected geographic area.

H6: There is a significant impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by Business location in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.

Operationalization of variables

The existing measures were modified to operationalize the study variables. Table 1 presents the operationalization of the study variables. The dimensions of the EI variable are related to Self-Awareness, Self-Management and Social Awareness. The capability of understanding emotions, willingness to arrange thoughts and ability to arrange thoughts are the indicators of self-awareness. The dimension self –management measured by the indicators of risk-taking ability Innovativeness, self-efficacy, flexible behavior, positive behavior. The indicators of Relationship Management are the ability of regulation of other emotions and ability to manage interactions with others. The indicators of social Awareness dimension are the perception about society/others by the

entrepreneur, Social adaptability of the individual, and expressiveness in relationships. Moderating variables are consisting of Socio-cultural context, Education, Age, Managerial skills and Business location. Enterprise success measured by the indicators of Average income, Business tenure, and Number of employs. All the dimensions of EI, socio-cultural variables and managerial skills were measured using a five-point Likert scale and, points anchored as 1 =strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. All other variables were age, education, managerial skills, and business location and business success measured by MCQs, which ask participants to describe their conditions.

Table 1: Operationalization of variables

Variables	Dimensions	Literature
Emotional Intelligence (EI) is the capability of understanding and evaluating feelings of ownership and other feelings and understanding the differences between them and guide their behavior for better outcomes.	**Self-Awareness** Self-Management Social Awareness and Relationship Management	Bradberry, T. (2014)
Socio-cultural context: Entrepreneurial cultural support; Role of family context in entrepreneurial learning.	Role of family in business leanings, Entrepreneurial culture	Wong, 2014; Ranwala, 2016; Varnum et al., 2010
Education It consists of the general and professional education of the entrepreneur. General education represents education from childhood up to this stage as a student in general. Profession education relates to the education related to hair and beauty salon industry.	Level of general education, Level of professional education	Gatewood, 2004).; Wit and Van (1989),
Age The length of the time by years the individual has spent, at the stage of questionnaire entered	Age of the entrepreneur at the beginning of a venture	Muia, j. l. (2015
Managerial skills: The skills are the required competencies by the entrepreneur in managing the business.	Marketing ability, financial skill Planning skills, Record management	Thanuja Kaushik, Kakoli Sen, 2013
Business Location: The place where the firm operates in comparison to closest town considered on the center place of easiness of access by people around the area.	Distance to main bus route	Weerasinghe, et al., 2013

Enterprise Success: It defined in terms of average income (The average monthly profits taken-out by the entrepreneur from the venture), Business tenure (Business tenure is the length of time, that venture held its existence) and Number of employees	The Average income, Business tenure, and Number of employees	(Baron & Markman, 2003) ;(Siwan Mitchelmore, 2013

Methods

The researchers followed a positivist research approach. It attempts to establish a relationship between emotional intelligence and Enterprise success of women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry in Colombo district. The hypotheses developed through the literature review were tested using a quantitative approach based on the cross-sectional survey design. Through a comprehensive literature review, a structured questionnaire was developed and used as a central tool in collecting primary data. Administration of the questionnaire to the sample as was operationalized as face to face structured interweaves, to motivate the adequate level of participation, to minimise understanding gaps and to maintain the high accuracy levels. Procedural remedies were taken at the designing stage to overcome Common Method Variance (CMV). At the same time, measures were psychologically separated by providing clear instructions and translated into respondents' languages.

The sampling frame is the Women entrepreneurs in hair and beauty salon industry in Colombo district. The district selected due to the demand for beauty salons due to high female labor workforce participation within the district. At the same time, only that have employed at least three people in their enterprise included. Since the sampling frame is not available, the

researchers use convenience sampling method. The sampling unit is a female entrepreneur in the Colombo District. Nearly 150 questionnaires distributed and 60 were ready to participate in the study.

The collected data used to process SPS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The Correlation and Regression analysis used to present through the tables of the outcomes of the analysis. The descriptive statistic used to summarize and describe the data.

The pilot study conducted, and data were analyzed to confirm the reliability and validity of the instruments used. In the validity test of factor analysis through 'varimax rotation' items, nine questions removed from the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha is the test used in the research due to its ability to measure the consistency of used scales of Likert in the tool. In the aspect of validity test, to understand the content of items ability to test the concept adequately face validity used at the formation of the tool. At the same time, Kaiser- Meryer- Olkin (KMO) measure was obtained to understand the sampling adequacy in the pilot test (Field, 2013). Concurrent validity and predictive validity is used to confirm the ability of items to measure the different respondents differently, and ability predict they are related outcomes (Sekaran & Bougie, 2014; Sounders et al., 2011). To measure convergent validity significance of "Bartlett's Test" was used. At closer to '0' value test confirms the identity relationship matrix (Feild, 2013).

Results and Discussion

Reliability and validity

Reliability was tested using Cronbach's alpha. Table 2 summarizes alpha value of each construct. Accordingly, all the values are above 0.60 indicating high internal consistency (Sekaran & Bougie, 2014; Sounders et al., 2011). The results of the study (See table 3) confirm the reliability and validity in terms of the suitability of items proposed to measure the variables are adequate (KMO) and measure the convergent validity significance of "Bartlett's Test" was used. At closer to '0' value test confirms the identity relationship matrix.

Table: 2 Reliability and Validity

Variable	Reliability			Validity					
	Cronbach's alpha			Bartlett's Test			KMO		
	Result	Standard	Analysis	Result	Standard	Analysis	Result	Standard	Analysis
Independent									
Self-Awareness	0.64903	> 0.6	Reliable	.000	< 0.05	Valid	0.5624	> 0.5	Valid
Self-Management	0.75716	> 0.6	Reliable	.000	< 0.05	Valid	0.6439	> 0.5	Valid
Social Awareness	0.87852	> 0.6	Reliable	.000	< 0.05	Valid	0.6683	> 0.5	Valid
Relationship Management	0.87286	> 0.6	Reliable	.000	< 0.05	Valid	0.5038	> 0.5	Valid
Intervening									
Socio-cultural context	0.83763	> 0.6	Reliable	.000	< 0.05	Valid	0.7616	> 0.5	Valid
Managerial skills	0.82586	> 0.6	Reliable	.000	< 0.05	Valid	0.774	> 0.5	Valid
Dependent									
Business Success	0.73582	> 0.6	Reliable	.000	< 0.05	Valid	0.5872	> 0.5	Valid

In research, it is essential to understand the significance of data which is to be presented and to be analyzed. Before descriptive analysis, it confirmed that the variables described in the descriptive analysis are statistically significant through sample Test table presented below. Hence all the variables can be considered as different items to each other (Norusis, 2006), which have measured different aspects of the population.

Descriptive Analysis

Table 3: One-Sample t-Test Descriptive Analysis

	Test Value = 0			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Age	37.51	59.00	0.00	32.75	31.00	34.50
Experience	17.78	59.00	0.00	12.45	11.05	13.85
general education	30.71	59.00	0.00	2.77	2.59	2.95
NVQ Level	19.18	59.00	0.00	1.83	1.64	2.02
Distance to nearby town	21.48	59.00	0.00	2.13	1.93	2.33
Tenure	15.74	59.00	0.00	2.22	1.93	2.50
Monthly income	13.85	59.00	0.00	2.72	2.32	3.11
overall Self Awareness	75.17	59.00	0.00	3.84	3.74	3.95
Overall Social awareness	53.56	59.00	0.00	3.65	3.52	3.79
Overall Relationship Management	50.08	59.00	0.00	3.70	3.55	3.85
Emotional Intelligence	75.28	59.00	0.00	3.76	3.66	3.86
Cultural Context	34.93	59.00	0.00	3.75	3.54	3.96
Family Context	14.42	59.00	0.00	2.52	2.17	2.87
Socio-cultural context	28.34	59.00	0.00	3.13	2.91	3.35
Managerial skill	65.51	59.00	0.00	3.73	3.61	3.84
Planning skill	51.66	59.00	0.00	3.68	3.53	3.82
Record Management	36.73	59.00	0.00	3.41	3.23	3.60
Financial skill	53.88	59.00	0.00	3.53	3.40	3.66
Marketing Skill	72.74	59.00	0.00	4.55	4.42	4.68

Most of the respondents in the survey are almost middle-aged people with a mean age of 33 years (middle-level age group), and very few represent upper age limit at 55 years and the lower limit at 25 years. Married proportion represents almost two-thirds (65%) of the total respondents, and it matches with the profile of the average middle-aged population as well. The majority ethnic group in Colombo, 70% of respondents represented by ethnic-group of Sinhalese, 23.3% represented by Tamil and 6.7% represented by Burger population and the ethnicity percentages of the sample was closely associated with that of Colombo district except for the ethnic group. Analysis of general education reveals the fact that most of the respondents (73.3%) had at least educated up to Advance Level in their school. Only 26% population was below the standard of the Advance level. The description on firm the fact that most of the individuals had highly experienced and very few embody the lower limit of 5 years of experience among women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry. It also observed that up to 83.3% of the respondents had obtained professional qualification on or below NVQ level 2, which is a comparatively lower level of professional qualification in 6 levels of NVQ in hair and beauty salon industry.

Further, it noted that closer to 2/3 of the respondents' enterprises are located within or immediately outside of the town and it represents 63.3%. Meantime 75% of the enterprises were operated by 3 to 5 employees in the hair and beauty salon industry. More than 13 employees operate only 3.3% of salons. Due to the sample framework chosen, enterprises of women in hair and beauty salon industry, below three years of tenure did not consider in the analysis. The description endorses the fact that most the women own enterprises are falling in between 3-8 years in tenure, and

very few or no enterprises beyond the tenure of 15 years in the hair and beauty salon industry.

It also observed that in the hair and beauty salon industry most of women entrepreneurs have a monthly income level of 60,000-85000 rupees from their enterprise (31.7%). One fourth (25%) of women entrepreneurs earn a monthly income of more than Rs 1, 35,000 rupees from their enterprises. The description approves the fact that most of the women own enterprises are encouraged by the immediate society's support and influence than knowledge and skill transferred from the entrepreneur's family to entrepreneur in the aspect of entrepreneurship in hair and beauty salon industry.

The description confirms the fact that women entrepreneurs have a higher managerial skill level. Notably, women have shown the highest level of marketing skill and compare to the lowest skill of record management. However, in overall all the dimensions (marketing skill, Planning skill, financial skill, and record management) women entrepreneurs showed the high average in managing the enterprise in hair and beauty salon industry the results of correlations and hypotheses tastings are given in the following table 4,5 and 6.

Table 4: Results of Correlation among the variables

	Relationship Management	Social awareness	Self-Management	Self-Awareness	EI	Success of Enterprise
Relationship Management	1					
Social awareness	.495**	1				
Self-Management	.536**	0.217	1			
Self-Awareness	.603**	.565**	.595**	1		
EI	0.868	0.502	0.542	0.739	1	**0.686**
Success of Enterprise	.648**	.621**	.430**	.386**		1
**. r sig at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						

Table 5: Results of the Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Beta	P Value	Result on Hypotheses
H1: There is a higher level of emotional intelligence in women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry in SriLanka.	3.76	0.05	Supported by 95% Confidence level
H2: The Emotional intelligence of women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka positively influence the success of Enterprises	0.679	0.000	Supported
H2.1: There is a significant relationship between Self-awareness and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry	-0.358	0.008	Supported
H2.2: There is a significant relationship between Self-management and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka	0.29	0.013	Supported
H.2.3: There is a significant relationship between Social awareness and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.	0.543	0.000	Supported
H2.4: There is a significant relationship between Relationship-management and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka	0.44	0.000	Supported
H3: There is a significant impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by Managerial skills of individuals in the hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.	0.2	0.100	Not Supported
H4: The relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Enterprise Success of women entrepreneurs influenced by their educational background in the beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka	-0.12	0.362	Not Supported
H5: The relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Enterprise Success of women	-	0.240	Not

entrepreneurs influenced by their socio-cultural context in the beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.	0.154		Supported
H6: Business Location influences the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Enterprise Success of women entrepreneurs in the beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.	-0.211	0.000	Supported
H7: Age influences the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Enterprise Success of women entrepreneurs in the beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka	0.221	0.020	Supported

Note: **P≤0.05

Table 6: Results of Moderating impact

			Under the Barron and Kenny method			
Hypotheses	**Beta**	**P**		**Beta**	**P**	**Result on Hypotheses**
H6: Business Location influences the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Enterprise Success of women entrepreneurs in the beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka	-0.211	0.00	EI	0.585	0.00	Supported
			Business location	0.211	0.049	
H7: Age influences the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Enterprise Success of women entrepreneurs in the beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka	0.221	0.02	EI	0.651	0.00	Supported
			Age	0.221	0.022	

Note: **P≤0.05

As per the results of hypothesis testing, the impact on emotional Intelligence on Enterprise success of women Entrepreneurs is at 95 percent confidence level in overall levels of EI and the dimensions of Emotional intelligence. Age of the women entrepreneurs and business location recognized as a moderating factor on the relationship between emotional intelligence and enterprise success. However, three hypotheses rejected. Accordingly, it can conclude that there is no significant impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by managerial skill, Sociocultural context and educational level of the women entrepreneurs in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka.

Discussion

The theory of success of the small business provided many arguments for the groundwork for the impact of several factors including emotional intelligence of the leaders of the organizations. A finding of this study was that EI was the primary predictor of enterprise success in the small sector, but the combination of EI and personality served as a stronger predictor of business and entrepreneur ‘s success. The higher level of success corresponded to greater levels of EI. The findings confirm the fact that there is a higher level of emotional intelligence in women entrepreneurs in the hair and beauty salon industry. The implication is that soft skills like EI and specific characteristics may be closely related to women entrepreneurs' business success in the hair beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka. Conceptually, our results are previous descriptions of emotionally intelligent individuals (Albritton, 2003; Holcomb et al., 2004; Cross & Travaglione, 1993).

The obtained evidence suggests that the connection between the Emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka. The results align with the previous findings of Boren (2010). At the same time, the Majority of the women entrepreneurs in this salon industry has a high level of Self-awareness, Self-management Social awareness and Relationship-management are positively influenced on their enterprise success (García, 2014); (Gorkan, Franziska & Chamorro-Premuzic Tomas, 2011) (Baron & Markman, 2003); (Karimi at el., 2012). Despite insist of literature about the positive influence of self-awareness to the success of entrepreneurs (García, 2014), in the dimensional analysis of EI, confirmed that there is a significant negative relationship between Self-awareness and success of women Enterprises in hair and beauty salon industry. It reveals that when women show a higher level of self –awareness the enterprise success may lower due to the negligence in understanding negative emotions and over consideration of positive emotions.

However, the findings not supported impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by socio-cultural context, managerial Kills, and educational level of the entrepreneurs in hair and beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka. Nevertheless, the findings not attributed to most of the entrepreneur's success determined by the educational level, social context and managerial skills hence challenge the findings of previous research (Ranwala, 2016; Alozairi, 2018). However, this is an area that should be discussed further by another researcher in the broader spectrum.

The research findings suggest that the emotional intelligence has a significant impact on the success of women Enterprises by the age of the

individual in hair and beauty salon industry, hence confirm the findings of previous research (Alozairi, 2018). Moreover, also evidence suggests that there is a significant impact on the relationship of emotional intelligence and success of women Enterprises by a Business location of the enterprise in hair and beauty salon industry, hence confirm the findings of previous research (Weerasinghe, Batagoda, & Jayasundara, 2013). Based on the findings the existing knowledge claiming that EI is directly influencing on successes of women entrepreneurs in the hair, beauty salon industry in Sri Lanka, meantime the middle age of women and their selection of business location also playing a vital role to make a healthy relationship between the emotional intelligence and enterprise success.

Conclusion, Implications and Further Studies

Even in different industries like hair and beauty salon industry, the success of women entrepreneurs positively influenced by emotional intelligence. On the other hand, Socio-cultural context, level of managerial skill, general education and NVQ level of professional education cannot impact the relationship of EI to the success of the enterprise in women entrepreneurs in the industry selected. However, women entrepreneurs' age positively affects the outcomes of the relationship of emotional intelligence to success Enterprises due to the ability of age to accommodate the skill and knowledge development in every aspect (Alozairi, 2018). At the same time when the distance to an enterprise from town (Business location) increases the outcomes of a relationship between emotional intelligence and enterprise success. Therefore, it can conclude that when entrepreneurs' emotional intelligence level is high, it will positively influence the enterprise success. It noted that many other factors like managerial skill development, education

level, age, location, and socio context require further investigation with the broader area of sampling and to see why there is a different finding in the existing knowledge related to the Sri Lankan business framework.

The study conveys an innovative conceptual framework which was developed based on the determinant of the business successes. The study validates different factors, especially selected emotional intelligence on the business success of women in a small industry in a developing country. It also illustrates some of the intervening variables which could work for the women in the selected industry. This study modifies the scale to measure the success of women enterprise in this industry. The study checks the reliability and validity of the measures. Therefore, future researchers can use the same measure.

The main practical implication of the study is the women, who are willing to enter entrepreneurship, need to keep much focus on the characteristic of EI of them, before entering to the field of entrepreneurship. At the same time, the individuals who are already in the field of entrepreneurship need to focus on understanding their levels of emotional intelligence through published questionnaires by reputed institutes. Every women entrepreneur needs to understand the level of each dimension of EI displayed by themselves through the mentioned questionnaire and need to use much of self-management, social awareness, and relationship management to develop them into next pedestal of entrepreneurship. At the same time, the usage of self-awareness needs to be focused much into understanding their negative emotions as well, because over awareness of positive emotions may negate the ability to understand negative emotions hence affect the other dimensions of EI.

Further, the Government authorities toward the country's economic development need to focus on introducing educational programs to improve emotional intelligence in women, during the general education, because it may increase the participation of women in entrepreneurship and will contribute to enhancing the economic growth of the country. At the same time, related authorities in developing unique industries with higher women's contribution need to focus on developing training programs to improve the EI; hence it may enhance the overall turn-over of those industries.

The direct correlation between EI and age was consistent with Goleman (1998) and Bar-On (2006) who reported a positive correlation between EI and age. That is, the older the participants, the higher their emotional intelligence. Age also correlated with the number of online courses taken by participants. Intuitively, this may explain the length of time women had started. It is another finding that needs further study. Our sample demographics were consistent with only women it may apply to the male entrepreneurs as well. Therefore, this study can be further explored in future studies by considering a diversified sample for a different industry.

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