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**Journal Brief**

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EVALUATION OF SUSTAINABILITY OF A TOURISM DESTINATION: A CASE STUDY OF PIGEON ISLAND IN TRINCOMALEE

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ABSTRACT

To meet the growing demand for tourism, a large number of destinations are being exposed and developed rapidly without proper planning and management harming the natural environment and excluding local communities and local content – the very foundation and uniqueness of the Sri Lankan travel experience. Although Sustainable tourism is a huge concern, its practical applicability has limitations due to lack of a method to evaluate the implications of sustainable principles. This study attempts to develop a framework to evaluate sustainability in a tourism destination based on three pillars of sustainable tourism; economic, environment and socio-cultural which were selected as the mandates of the framework. The indicators of each expression were initially developed based on existing indicators of sustainable tourism and further narrowed down as appropriate for Sri Lankan context. Then the proposed framework was applied to Pigeon Island Marine National Park (PIMNP) at Trincomalee. The data was collected through past records, field surveys, perception surveys, analyzed using quantitative and qualitative methods and presented using a descriptive statistics. After quantifying all indicators multi-criteria analysis framework was used to derive overall and thematic sustainability levels. The results indicated; overall sustainability level of PIMNP as 42% composing of 47% of economic, 35% of environmental and 44% of socio-cultural thematic sustainability levels. PIMNP has relatively high economic sustainability and lower environment sustainability. Since PIMNP is a tourist attraction based on natural asset, the environment sustainability plays a major role in making the overall venture a sustainable tourism venture.

Keywords: Sustainability, sustainable tourism principles, framework of indicators

INTRODUCTION

Over the past six decades, tourism has experienced continued expansion and diversification to become one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world. Many new destinations have emerged in addition to the traditional favorites of Europe and North America (UNWTO, 2015). This explains the fast growth of tourism industry all over the world, and the situation of Sri Lanka tourism industry also aligns with the international trend of tourism development. Sri Lanka is now an increasingly popular destination for international travelers, as well as for expatriates returning home to visit friends.
and relatives. Sri Lanka being nominated as one of destination in the world to visit by Lonely Planet in 2013 and being ranked among the “top ten coolest countries to visit” by Forbes Magazine in 2015 are some of the evidences which confirm the above fact. (Sri Lanka Tourism Strategic Plan 2017 - 2020)

As per the records of Tourism Development Authority, tourism in Sri Lanka has reached to a new limit of over 2 million (2,050,832) arrivals in 2016 which is an increase of 14 percent over previous year’s 1,798,380 arrivals. The foreign exchange earnings increased by 18.5 percent from 450,492 million in 2015 to Rs. 512,293 million in 2016. In 2016, the tourism sector ranked as the third level in one of the main sources of foreign exchange earners of the national economy and the employment generated in the tourism sector (both direct and indirect) has increased from 319,436 in 2015 to 335,659 with a growth rate of 5.1%. However, with the rapid growth of tourism industry, comes the concerns of sustainability as rapid growth suggests the over consumption and gradual depletion of large amounts of resources and destruction and ignorance of socio-cultural values and systems. It can already be seen in certain areas that the rush to develop and expand tourism in Sri Lanka is harming the natural environment and excluding local communities and local content – the very foundation and uniqueness of the Sri Lankan travel experience. (Sri Lanka Tourism Strategic Plan 2017 - 2020). In Sri Lanka, there are some tourism projects and destinations which have been planned based on sustainable tourism principles which perform well balanced with high economic and social benefits and proper environment management. Kandalama Hotel project which is a private sector tourism venture can be taken as a good example of a tourism project which has been designed and planned valuing sustainable tourism principles whereas the hotel has been designed and built well integrated with natural environment without being a disturbance. Thus, this hotel is designated as an Eco-friendly hotel and also been awarded with several green certificates and awards due its attempts in mechanisms for energy saving, long term reduction of energy expenses, water saving and management and waste management adopting 3R waste management strategy etc.

However, at the same time there are many tourism destinations and projects in Sri Lanka, where the sustainability aspects are not considered and incorporated in planning and management which has resulted in huge damages to environment and host communities. One of such examples is Hikkaduwa tourism destination, where the recent surveys have indicated that around 75 % of live corals have now been destroyed due to overcrowded tourists’ visits and due to unplanned activities and coral visits without management. The studies on Piegion Island Marine National Park at Trincomalee also indicate the same threats to the live corals there. Apart from these two examples, there are many developed and developing tourism destinations, which have already faced and are beginning to face environmental and social challenges due to unplanned and short-term benefits driven tourism activities which do not consider sustainable tourism principles as a mandatory. Sometimes, even though some tourism destinations are planned incorporating these principles, yet there is no proper mechanism to measure the attempts and the level of sustainability of these destinations which would in return provide a guide for the management of them.

**Problem Statement**

Even though sustainable tourism is viewed as a mandatory practice, in many
instances the practical implication of sustainability aspects in the tourism industry has not yet been completely achieved. (Lai, 2006) stated that the influx of visitors and uncontrolled growth accompanied by mass tourism development, has generated a number of negative economic, social and environmental effects on the host communities. The reality of the present situation in most of the developing countries, tourism development often proceeds in an ad hoc way as unplanned tourism is of uncertain value to nations in search of quick and extensive economic gains instead of sustainable development. In this background, management of tourism is essential for better conditions of destinations and host communities and more broadly the sustainability of futures of ecosystems, regions and nations.

During the decade since 1992, Rio Conference, the planners and academics in many nations and specific destinations have been working to develop indicators suitable for their management needs. (WTO, 2004) further states that these indicators have focused both on issues of impacts. However, there has not been any of such methodological framework developed so far to assess the sustainability of a tourism destination which could be helpful in management of tourism industry activities associated with the particular destination.

METHOD

The objective of this research study is to review the existing principles and indicators of sustainability and to develop a framework of indicators aligned with tourism principles and check the applicability of proposed framework as for a Sri Lankan case study; using the case of Pigeon Island Marine National Park (PIMNP) in Trincomalee.

Accordingly this research first explores the evolution of sustainability as a concept, its implications in tourism industry and various interpretations of underlying principles of sustainable tourism through a literature review. Secondly it explores the existing methods and tools which can be used for multi criteria evaluation framework and limitations associated with them. In the next stage, the study attempts to develop a new framework of indicators strongly based on the principles of sustainable tourism while addressing the limitations identified in the existing indicators of sustainable tourism. The expressions of sustainable tourism principles on which the whole framework of indicators are built upon are selected through the comprehensive literature survey. Then several indicators used in different contexts are listed down under each expression of sustainable tourism principle and used evaluation method to identify the most appropriate indicators suitable for the selected case study.

The proposed framework consists of main principles of sustainable tourism, their expressions (which were picked from the literature review), and indicators of each expression (which were selected from a list of indicators identified through evaluation method). There are both qualitative and quantitative indicators which are evaluated using simple quantitative analysis tools and descriptive qualitative analysis methods which are later converted into quantitative figures adopting a scaling system. The weighted sum method is adopted to quantify both qualitative and quantitative data of different nature against each indicator by standardizing them in a uniform scale and evaluate the overall level of sustainability while assigning weights for each indicator based on its importance in evaluating the level of sustainability.
Further, the study attempts to check the applicability of proposed framework as for a Sri Lankan case study; using the case of Pigeon Island Marine National Park (PIMNP) in Trincomalee. The proposed framework is composed of both qualitative and quantitative indicators, and the respective data of each indicator are gathered in terms of research methods such as field observations, perception surveys, interviews, focused group discussions, photographic surveys and secondary data collection based on availability. There has not been any of such methodological framework developed so far to assess the sustainability of a tourism destination and methodology to properly evaluate the level of sustainability.

LITERATURE REVIEW

World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), defines tourism as ‘the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes’. (UNWTO Annual Report – 2015). According to this definition, it can be observed that tourism includes main five components such as tourists, destinations, travelling, accommodation and tourism activities at destinations. Accordingly, the tourism industry has developed to cater the above main components and their subordinate activities. Tourism industry can be identified as the individuals, businesses and organizations that are working to provide products or services to tourists. Tourism industry is also referred to as an umbrella industry which support a large number of sub industries varying in a vast spectrum of fields. (Roy, Laura, & Joseph, 2002) However, in order to achieve sustainable tourism, it is important to adopt sustainability practices in all types of tourism activities at all scales.

The Integrated Model of Tourism introduced by Roy, Laura, & Joseph, 2002 Tourism: well elaborates the components of tourism industry and their interrelationship between the travelers (tourists) and the external environment. (Tourism: The Business of Travel, 2002)

As per the Integrated Model of Tourism, there are mainly four components such as travelers (the core of the model), tourism promoters (travel agents, tour operators, marketing planners, tourist boards and direct marketing), tourism service suppliers (in the sectors of accommodation, food & beverages, transportation, attractions and entertainment) and the external environment (including the environment, economy, society/culture and policies). This model summarizes the comprehensive system of tourism industry, thus can be used as a supportive model when deriving a methodology to evaluate the sustainability practices of tourism at any scale of national, regional, local or project level.

Figure 2: Integrated Model of Tourism
Source: Roy A. Cook, Laura J. Yale, Joseph J., 2002
Over the past six decades’ world tourism has experienced continued expansion and diversification and has become one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world (UNWTO, 2015). The impact of tourism largely varies as it plays certainly positive role in the socio-economic and physical development in destination countries creating new employment and enterprises opportunities, increasing foreign revenue, attracting large foreign investments, leading to large scale infrastructure developments and contributing to share and experience diversities of culture and ways of life. Tourism industry creates foreign currency, creates employment opportunities and small business opportunities for local community, forms socio-cultural development in the destinations establishing human values, behavior and good lifestyles, brings joy, comfort and leisure opportunities and enhances quality of life. (Rhaman, 2016)

But at the same time, tourism also brings negative impacts upon environment, culture and way of life especially when sustainability aspects are not considered in tourism practices but driven with the motives of high profits and short-term benefits. Sustainability is a concept derived in late 20th century in the background where rapid socio-economic development based on the use of natural resources such as space, mineral resources and water degraded environment to such an extent where it became necessary to revise the rules for the use of environment. (Niedziolka, 2012)

The Stockholm conference held in early 1970s which is considered as the first United Nations conference on Human Environment was the first landmark towards the pathway to the concept of sustainability. (Bac, 2008) The second landmark is the Brundtland Report on the theme ‘Our Common Future’ in 1987 provided by World Commission on Environment and Development called Brundtland Commission. (Bac, 2008) The Brundtland report adopts the definition that “Sustainable Development is the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. (Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development: Our Common Future, 1987)

The Conference on Environment and Development, which is known as the Earth Summit held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 is considered as the most influential international conference on environment protection and sustainable development. (Bac, 2008). The key events of this conference are the broad action strategy known as Agenda 21 and the Rio Declaration which presents 27 principles defining the rights and duties of nations in terms of sustainable development. Even though, either the Brundtland report or the Agenda 21 do not specifically refer to sustainability in tourism, the industry’s planning and development have been heavily influenced by their recommendations (Holloway, 2009).

In 1992, the hospitality industry launched its International Hotel Environment Initiative (IHEI) which was designed to reduce the impact of staying visitors on the environment. (Niedziolka, 2012). This event can be considered as the application of sustainability concerns in the hospitality industry for the first time in a formal intervention. In the same year, a UK-based pressure group set out its own guidelines in regard of tourism concerns which influenced the private sector to take more account of the need of sustainable planning in tourism. (Niedziolka, 2012). The guidelines included; using resources sustainably, reducing overconsumption and waste, maintaining diversity, integrating tourism into planning, supporting local economies, involving local economies, consulting stakeholders and the public, training staff, marketing.
tourism responsibly and undertaking research.

Holloway (2009) states that principles behind these guidelines appear to achieve more balance between socio-cultural and environmental elements. However, it can be observed that these fundamental principles have been incorporated in various modes within the principles of sustainable tourism which were developed in years later. Kyoto Protocol of 1997 which aims at reducing greenhouse effect by limiting Carbon dioxide emissions also played an influential role in sustainable tourism concept as far as it is concerned, travel for leisure which is a core part of tourism is not a fundamental necessity but contributes largely to emission of Carbon dioxide whereas transport causes around 75% of the Carbon dioxide emissions generated by tourism with aviation responsible for around 40% (Niedziolka, 2012). Sustainable tourism became more popular at the beginning of 21st century. The United Nations Environmental Program introduced its initiative for Sustainable Tourism which basically aimed at tour operators. Following to that, the year 2002 was declared as the International Year of Eco-tourism. Later on, at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (Rio+10) held at Johannesburg, the importance of sustainable development in tourism was stressed for the first time. Parallel to that the world eco-summit was held in Quebec in the same year. World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) are the main organizations which operate internationally in monitoring and evaluating the world tourism industry.

The concept of Sustainable Development is based on three pillars: economic development, environmental protection and socio-cultural development whereas Sustainable Tourism is defined as "Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support system." (WTO, Guide for Local Authorities on Developing Sustainable Tourism, 1998) In other words, sustainable tourism development is ecologically sustainable, economically viable as well as ethically and socially equitable. It respects the fragile environmental balance that characterizes many tourism destinations, particularly in environmentally sensitive areas; and it is based on a long-term perspective. (BRESCE, 2009) The World Tourism Organization (1996) defines Sustainable Tourism as the “Tourism which leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be filled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support system”. Both these definitions highlight the importance of managing all resources and safeguarding three pillars of sustainable development, when meeting the needs of tourism.

As per the above definitions, it is clear that almost all of them highlight on the importance of achieving economic development while ensuring the protection of the environment and socio-cultural integrity as a base principle in achieving sustainability in tourism. Therefore, the same is considered as the base in this study when developing the proposed framework to evaluate the sustainable tourism practices in a particular local destination.

The principles of sustainable tourism and sustainable tourism development are mostly the elaborations of their basic definitions which are derived based on the three pillars of sustainability. But in addition, the principles focus on the need to fulfill the needs of tourism as well.
United Nations Environment Program, (2004) elaborated the implementation of sustainable tourism principles requires to address the following aspects.

- **Environment** – Making optimal use of environmental processes that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and bio-diversity

- **Socio-cultural** – Respecting the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance

- **Economic** – Ensuring viable, long term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities and contributing to poverty alleviation

All these aspects which are elaborated in the means of three pillars of sustainable development explains how the sustainability of the external environment (as defined in the integrated model of tourism) related to tourism should be maintained. But this explanation of sustainable tourism principles, does not address the need to satisfy the requirements and desires of tourists. As explained in the Integrated Model of Tourism, tourists are at the core of the system thus the satisfaction of tourists is a must in sustainable tourism. Economic and socio-cultural aspects widely address most of the needs of the tourism promoters and service providers who are the other two major components of the tourism system.

UNESCO Regional Bureau for Science and Culture in Europe (BRESCE) provides the following elaboration on sustainable tourism principles as a summary of different declarations of principles of sustainable tourism made by different institutions and codes over time. (BRESCE, 2009) This elaboration talks beyond the three pillars of sustainability and tries to capture the components such as needs of tourists and the importance of proper management and monitoring for sustainable tourism development practice.

1. **Enhancing the well-being of communities**

   Sustainable tourism development supports and ensures the economic, social and cultural wellbeing of the communities in which tourism takes place.

2. **Supporting the protection of the natural and cultural environment**

   Sustainable tourism allows the use of natural and cultural resources for gaining economic profit while at the same time guaranteeing that these resources are not deteriorated or destroyed. Additionally, tourism is expected to be a driving force with regard to the establishment or the enhancement of nature protection and the maintenance of cultural values.

3. **Recognizing product quality and tourist satisfaction**

   The quality of tourism products offered by a region is a key factor for the economic success of tourism. It is not only characterized by material criteria like the quality of transport, accommodation and food, but also by non-material criteria like hospitality or the quality of experiences.

4. **Applying adaptive management and monitoring**

   To ensure that tourism is developed in a way which is ecological, economic and socially sustainable, adequate management and monitoring must be established following the basic principles of sustainable use of resources. It is important to note that different stakeholders involved in the tourism business are responsible for the implementation of different parts of the principles. Governments, tourism businesses, local communities, NGOs and
the tourists can all contribute to make tourism more sustainable. In order to achieve the goals of sustainable tourism, the different actors should cooperate and stimulate each other to put the principles into practice.

Although these four components of sustainable tourism development highlight the need of ensuring the tourist satisfaction and the importance of having an adaptive management and monitoring mechanism without being bound to the conventional three pillars of sustainability, it does not highlight one of the core objectives of tourism; the economic profitability. Even though it highlights the importance of supporting the economy of the host community, it does not describe about the sustainability in overall economic gain of the tourism destination/project.

Based on the initial study of Panasiuk in 2011, Niedziolka (2012) summarized the following aims of sustainable development in the same three aspects as in the three pillars of sustainable development.

i) Economic aspects of sustainable tourism including economic profitability; ensuring the viability and competitiveness of regions and businesses to achieve long term viability, local prosperity; maximizing the economic benefits of tourism to the local community including the expenditure of tourists in the area, quality of employment; increasing the quality and quality of jobs related to tourism in the local community, including wages, work environment and employment opportunities without discrimination, social equity; ensuring fair and equal distribution of social and economic benefits coming from tourists

ii) Environment aspects of sustainable tourism including physical integrity; maintaining and building quality of the landscape, in both urban and rural areas and preventing ecological and visual pollution, biological diversity; promoting and protecting environment, natural habitats and wildlife as well as minimizing the impact of tourism on the environment, effective waste management; minimizing the use of rare and non-renewable resources in the development of tourism, clean environment; Indirect contribution for clean environment by adopting solar energy and other renewable energy

iii) Socio-cultural aspects of sustainable tourism including welfare of the community; building welfare of the community including social infrastructure, access to resources, environmental quality and avoidance of social corruption and the exploitation of resources, cultural wealth; maintaining and developing cultural heritage, local culture, customs and the exceptional nature of the host community, meeting expectations of visitors; providing safe and enjoyable tourist experience which will meet the needs of tourists and will be available to all, local control; authority for planning and decision making in the management of tourism by local communities

The above interpretation (Niedziolka, 2012) of sustainable tourism can be considered as a holistic one with compared to the above two sets of interpretations, as it covers the aspects related to three pillars of sustainability and as well as highlight the importance of meeting tourism satisfaction as one of the components of socio-cultural sustainability.

Even though different literature interprets principles of sustainable tourism in different modes, majority of them are aligned with the above-mentioned basic principles of sustainable tourism. However, it is important to consider the visitor satisfaction and the need of planning, management and monitoring of tourism activities in order to maintain the sustainability of tourism industry as a whole.

Thus, the components of sustainable tourism presented by Niedziolka in 2012 is taken as the expressions of three pillars of sustainability selected as the base for
the proposed framework to evaluate sustainable tourism practices.

It has been argued by scholars and practitioners that the development of an evaluation framework using sustainable tourism indicators may be used as an effective means for measuring the sustainability of tourism activities taken place in different scales and contexts (Mearns et al. 2010).

WTO (2004) states that Sustainability indicators are essential tools for providing information, and constitute fundamental building blocks in tourism planning, management and monitoring processes and that they help to identify and measure the impacts of tourism development and operations on the environmental and socio-cultural conditions of destinations, as well as on the progress made as results of management actions. (Yunis, 2004) WTO further explains that good sustainability indicators must be easy to understand, as well as economically and technically feasible to measure. WTO highlights that some of the benefits from good indicators include:

- Better decision-making, in order to lowering risks or costs
- Identification of emerging risks and or conflictive issues, thus allowing prevention
- Identification of impacts, to allow for timely corrective action when needed
- Performance measurement of the implementation of development plans and management actions, i.e. evaluating progress in the sustainable development of tourism
- Reduced risk of planning mistakes, thus identifying limits and opportunities
- Greater public accountability; i.e. providing credible information for the public and other tourism stakeholders fosters accountability for its wise use in decision-making
- Constant monitoring can lead to continuous improvement.

Various indicators of sustainable tourism have been introduced in different literature and the set of indicators introduced by WTO in 2004 have been used as a base for many indicators developed thereafter.

According to the Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destination: A Guidebook by WTO, 2004 identified a very large number of indicators (over 700) across to 13 issues. But too many indicators in turn could overwhelm users and the collection of information’s for the numerous indicators could become a more complex and time consuming. As a result, WTO identified 12 of prioritized issues and the indicators that correspondent to them. The list of baseline indicators covers a rage of social, economic and environmental issues like to be found in most destinations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Baseline Issue</th>
<th>Baseline Indicator</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local satisfaction with tourism (social)</td>
<td>Local satisfaction level with tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local community complaints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects of tourism on communities (social)</td>
<td>Percentage who believe that tourism has helped bring new services or infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other effects of tourism on the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustaining tourist satisfaction (economic)</td>
<td>Level of tourist satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perception of value for money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of return visitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perception of sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourist complaints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism seasonality (economic)</td>
<td>Tourist arrivals by month (throughout the year, mean and peaks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occupancy rates for accommodation by month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of tourist industry jobs which are permanent or full-time (compared to temporary/seasonal jobs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic benefits of tourism (economic)</td>
<td>Number of local people (and ratio of men to women) employed in tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revenue generated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revenue spent in area</td>
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<tr>
<td>Energy management (environmental)</td>
<td>Per capita consumption of energy (per person day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Energy-saving measures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of energy consumption from renewable resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water availability and conservation (Environmental)</td>
<td>Water use (total water volume consumed and liters per tourist per day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Water conservation measures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking water quality (environmental)</td>
<td>Water treated to international potable standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewage treatment (environmental)</td>
<td>Sewage treatment systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid waste management (garbage) (environmental)</td>
<td>Waste volume produced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Waste disposal (landfill, recycling, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development controls (crosscutting)</td>
<td>Existence of a development planning process including tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlling use intensity (environmental)</td>
<td>Number of tourists per square meter of the site</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above set of indicators developed by WTO in 2004, these indicators do not address some important aspects of sustainable tourism as conservation of natural and cultural assets, values or heritages which mostly act as the catalysts of tourism development within the concerned tourist destination. The main problem associated with this set of indicators is that they are developed more in a common basis addressing the tourism industry as a whole rather than addressing the tourism activity in a particular case (destination) or a context. Thus, it ignores some very specific aspects of sustainable tourism when applying these indicators to evaluate the level of sustainability of a certain tourist destination or tourism industry of a certain context.

By adopting a similar approach, Mearns (2010) presents a set of indicators of sustainable tourism in the form of issues vs. indicators. Mearns in 2010 can be considered as a comprehensive and a further developed version of sustainable tourism indicators presented by WTO in 2004. These set of indicators address most of the aspects such as cultural appreciation and conservation and biodiversity and conservation which were missing in the indicators presented by WTO, but yet the weight it has on evaluating the real threat to the natural eco-systems and biodiversity cannot be considered as sufficient. Under the issue of biodiversity and conservation, the only indicator used is the local community involvement in conservation projects in area, thus it does not incorporate indicators such as threatened species, carrying capacities of certain eco-systems and disturbances to natural environment etc.

The set of indicators introduced by Mearns in 2010 have attempted to evaluate the sustainable implications in Benthota and Hikkaduwa tourism destinations in Sri Lanka through a comparative assessment which is based on the Trio-fundamental requirements of sustainable development developed by Silva, S. (2002). The main objective of this comparative assessment is to identify the appropriate planning strategies to address the prevailing issues which act as barriers to fulfill the trio-fundamental requirements of sustainable development. In doing that, they have first selected priority issues within each area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Issues</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Local satisfaction with tourism</td>
<td>1.1 Local satisfaction level with tourism</td>
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<td>2. Effects of tourism on communities</td>
<td>2.1 Percentage who believe that tourism has helped bring new services or infrastructure</td>
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<td>3. Education</td>
<td>3.1 Education of tourists</td>
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<td>4. Community decision-making</td>
<td>4.1 Community decision-making structures</td>
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<td>5. Community benefits</td>
<td>5.1 Community benefits from tourism</td>
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<td>6. Culture</td>
<td>6.1 Cultural appreciation and conservation</td>
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<td>7. Sustaining tourism satisfaction</td>
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<td>8. Tourism seasonality</td>
<td>8.1 Occupancy rates for accommodation by month</td>
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<td>9. Economic benefits of tourism</td>
<td>9.1 Number of local people (and ratio of men to women) employed in tourism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Indicators of Sustainable Tourism presented by Mearns in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental Issues</th>
<th>Environmental Indicators</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. Energy management</td>
<td>10.1 Per capita consumption of energy (per person day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Water availability and conservation</td>
<td>11.1 Water use (total water volume consumed and liters per person per day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Drinking water quality</td>
<td>12.1 Water treated to international potable standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Sewage treatment</td>
<td>13.1 Sewage treatment systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Controlling waste intensity</td>
<td>15.1 Number of tourists per square meter of the site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Biodiversity and conservation</td>
<td>16.1 Local community involvement in conservation projects in area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Development controls</td>
<td>17.1 Existence of a development planning process including tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Networking and collaboration</td>
<td>18.1 Partnerships and collaborations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Mears, 2010)
and investigated them in detail using various indicators. The important part of this methodology is the initial identification of issues which act as barriers to fulfill the trio-fundamental requirements of sustainable tourism development.

![Diagram of Sustainable Tourism]

Source: Silva S., 2002

Even though this method is based on the principles of sustainable tourism, the limitation is that it mainly focuses on the case specific issues which have been identified subjectively. Therefore, there can be many other important aspects which directly constrain the sustainable approach which have not been identified or interpreted in this assessment. Further, this method does not assess the economic sustainability of the discussed tourism activities.

Tisdell C. & Bandara R. (2004) also have attempted to evaluate the contribution of one of the famous tourism attraction points in Sri Lanka; Pinnawala Elephant Orphanage (PEO), to the overall development of Sri Lanka. Even though, it does not directly in the focus of sustainable development, the authors have developed few criteria which also interpret the sustainability aspects of the selected tourism venture. The analysis attempts to assess the fundamental characteristics of the businesses in the area, their dependency on the PEO, the nature of their backward economic linkages, and their ability to generate employment.

The indicators used are:

1. The distribution of businesses based on the number of persons employed
2. The dependency of the businesses on PEO
3. Use of locally/regionally produced or supplied products and materials by the businesses
4. The generation of employment by the businesses

Even though, these indicators assess the PEO’s contribution to the economic development they do not well represent the sustainability of these economic aspects.

When studying the existing sustainable tourism evaluation methods, it can be understood that there isn’t any systematic method developed so far to assess the overall sustainability of a tourism venture in the Sri Lankan context. Even though there are some methods which indirectly or partially assess the sustainability aspects of a certain tourism venture or destination point, they do not provide a holistic framework based on principles of sustainable tourism.

**Framework for sustainability assessment**

Since the sustainable tourism principles are elaborated in different ways as discussed above, the set of principles which are elaborated analytically along with sub components was selected to be used as the base for proposed framework. In that case, the set of principles introduced by Panasiuk in 2011 and summarized by Niedziolka in 2012 based on three pillars of sustainable development, was adopted as its detailed structure of presentation is useful in developing the framework of indicators to evaluate the sustainability of particular tourism destination. Therefore, the
components of three basic pillars of sustainable tourism; economic, environment and socio-cultural as presented by Panasiuk in 2011 was taken as the expressions of three major pillars of tourism sustainability. Then a comprehensive review of three sets of indicators was carried out to formulate indicators of proposed framework based on existing indicators of sustainable tourism (Table 3).

In addition, the needs and concerns of different components and respective actors of tourism industry as explained in the integrated model of tourism were also considered as a major input when developing the proposed framework to evaluate sustainability of a particular tourism destination.

| Table 3: Proposed framework with measures indicators and assessment method for the evaluation of sustainability |
|---|---|---|
| Aspect | Indicators | Assessment method |
| Economic Principle | Annual growth of direct revenue generated at the considered tourism destination | Past Records/Intervening Personnel/Officers |
| | Tourist spending | Tourist Perception Survey |
| | Number of tourism business increase-decrease & percentage owned locally | Local community Perception Survey/Field survey |
| Local Prosperity | Supply of goods and services to tourism enterprises | Local community Perception Survey/Field survey |
| | Percentage of families economically benefited from tourism activities fully and partially | Local community Perception Survey/Field survey |
| Quality of Employment | Satisfaction level of people who are engaged in tourism-related job activities in terms of wages, work environment, quality of job and equity | Local community Perception Survey |
| Social Equity | The percentage of community who believe that both economic and social benefits of tourism are shared equally | Local community Perception Survey |
| Physical Integrity | Visitor satisfaction of quality of landscape within the tourism area | Tourist Perception Survey |
| | Visitor satisfaction of visual quality and character of the area | Tourist Perception Survey |
| | Local community satisfaction interaction with tourist | Local community Perception Survey |
| Biological Diversity | Local community satisfaction regarding the tourism contribution to preservation of cultural wealth | Local community Perception Survey |
| | Complaints and threats for natural habitats | Records in Local Authorities/Previous Studies/Field Survey |
| | Tourists satisfaction on special eco-systems and natural species within the area | Tourist Perception Survey |
| | Community satisfaction on the conservation of natural habitat and wild life within tourism area | Local community Perception Survey |
| | Volume of waste produced at the destination & Method of disposal | Local Authority records (get information of their system) |
| | Percentage of renewable energy uses | Field Survey |
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The applicability of the above proposed framework for measuring level of sustainability of a tourism destination was tested in Pigeon Island Marine National Park (PIMNP) in Trincomalee.

Pigeon Island Marine National Park

Pigeon Island Marine National Park is located in Trincomalee District (N 80 43' 0" and E 810 9' 0" to N 80 36' 0" and E 810 14' 0") of Sri Lanka. It is located approximately 1km off shore from Nilaveli Beach. There are several rock outcrops ranging about 300 m – 500m towards south and south-east of Pigeon Island and the one on the south is known as “Salabalas Rocks”. Pigeon Island consists of two small beaches on the south-western and northern flanks of the island. The main coral reef is located in front of the south-west beach and it is about 200m long and 100m wide and its depth ranges from 1m to 6m. Pigeon Island consists of two islands, where the coral patches are mainly located within the large island. At present the large island is known as the “Pigeon Island” or “Pura Malei” in Tamil and the small island is known as the “Crow Island”. Pigeon Island is an elongated island in shape which is about 530m in length and about 175m in width at its broadest point. Crow Island which is circular in shape has approximately 115m diameter. There are few rocks present in these islands and the largest of them is called as the “Knife rock”. The most of the surrounding area of the two islands consists of rocky reef habitats interspersed with old limestone reef structures and sandy patches.

Application of the proposed framework

The gathered data and information were first organized in aligned with 24 indicators. Thereafter, the information was analyzed adopting both quantitative and qualitative methods as it suits with each and every indicator. A summary of the analysis of information against each indicator is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of the analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Overall Weight (w)</th>
<th>Quantitative Result</th>
<th>Qualitative Result</th>
<th>Final Result (x)</th>
<th>Scale based on Final Result (r)</th>
<th>(r/w)*100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Annual growth of direct revenue generated at the considered tourist attraction(s) (revenue from tickets, donations)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33% of ROI</td>
<td>50% Growth of overall income</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>360/23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) The increase in number of hotels, restaurants, shops and other tourism service activities in the area</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No. of hotels increased from 05 to 43 within 05 years</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>210/23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) No. of days stay at PIMNP area by tourists</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4% of local &amp; 52% of foreign tourists stay overnight</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>52/22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) The share of supply of locally produced goods and services</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Relatively low share of supply</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>120/23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) Percentage of families economically benefited from tourism activities fully and partially</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>125/22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Satisfaction level of people who are engaged in tourism related job activities in terms of wages, work environment, quality of job and equity</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Overall Satisfaction level - 59%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>177/32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) The percentage of community who believe that both economic and social benefits of tourism are shared equally</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10% of the community population</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>30/22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Economic Sustainability</td>
<td>= (560+250+25+125+177+50)/23</td>
<td>=47%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Environmental Sustainability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Overall Weight (w)</th>
<th>Quantitative Result</th>
<th>Qualitative Result</th>
<th>Final Result (x)</th>
<th>Scale based on Final Result (r)</th>
<th>(r/w)*100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(8) Visitor satisfaction of quality of landscape within the tourism area</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>49% of community population is either highly or moderately satisfied</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>88/12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) Visitor satisfaction of visual quality and character of the area</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>77% of all visitors are either highly or moderately satisfied</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>154/12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) Complaints on threats for natural habitats and natural species in the area as perceived by environment specialists and the level of effort made by competent bodies to mitigate them</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The severity of the complaints is 3 in a 1-5 scale (40%). Level of effort made by authorities is 50%. As a result – 55%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>55/12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11) Tourism satisfaction on special ecosystems and natural species within the area</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>55% of all visitors are either highly or moderately satisfied</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>55/12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12) Community satisfaction on the conservation of natural habitat and wild life within tourism area</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50% of total population is either highly or moderately satisfied</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50/12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13) Waste disposal method adopted (recycling, land filling, used for energy etc.)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>The severity of the issue is very high, then the scale is placed 1 out of 3 meaning 20% positive impact</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>40/12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14) Percentage use of solar energy and other renewable energy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Based on the high severity of the issue, the scale is given as 1 out of 3 meaning 20% positive impact</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20/12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Environmental Sustainability</td>
<td>= (80+154+55+55+59+40+20)/23</td>
<td>=24%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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CONCLUSION

When considering the above analysis, the overall sustainability based on the three principles of sustainability and the overall average sustainability of PIMNP tourism destination is as follows.

As per the above figures, it is evident that the PIMNP is having an overall sustainability level of 42%. It is also evident that all three thematic sustainability levels are placed below average level thus represent a relatively low level of sustainability. When comparing the three thematic sustainability levels, it can be observed that the Economic Sustainability contributes to the overall sustainability than the levels of Environment and Socio-cultural Sustainability.

According to the selected interpretation of the sustainable tourism principles, following baseline aspects under three pillars of sustainability, were identified.

- Economic sustainability: Economic Profitability, Local Prosperity, Quality of Employment and Social Equity.
- Environmental sustainability: Physical Integrity, Biological Diversity, Effective Waste Management, Environmental Cleanliness.
- Social sustainability: Welfare of the community, Cultural Wealth, Meeting Expectations of Visitors’ and local control.

The above aspects of three pillars of sustainability tourism were adopted as the expressions in developing the framework to evaluate sustainability in tourism. The above expressions were based on the Making Tourism More Sustainable: A Guide for Policy Maker by UNEP & WTO in 2005 and Indicator of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: A Guide Book, 2004.

Flowingly, the indicators of each baseline aspects were developed based on the indicators presented by WTO in 2005, Mearns in 2010 and relevant to the more specific to the characteristic of PINP and seventh of indicators were selected under the Economic sustainability, another seventh of indicators were selected under the Environmental sustainability and tenth of indicators were selected under the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5: Level of sustainability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Description</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment Sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural Sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Average Sustainability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled by Author
Social sustainability. Then data collection methods were identified for indicator assessment initially based on Indicator of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: A Guide Book, 2004 and as appropriate to the case study. The data was collected through past records, field surveys, perception surveys, analyzed using quantitative and qualitative methods and presented using a descriptive method. After quantifying all indicators based on a scaling method, weighted sum method was used to derive overall and thematic sustainability levels.

The second objective was the study to check the applicability of proposed framework for a Sri Lankan Case study. Therefore, the framework was applied to the case of Pigeon Island Marine National Park (PIMNP) in Trincomalee. After applying the proposed framework to the case study, it was revealed that PINP is having an overall sustainability level of 42% composing of 47% of economic sustainability, 35% of environmental sustainability and 44% of socio-cultural sustainability. It is evident that even though PIMNP is having relatively high economic sustainability, its environment sustainability happens to be significantly low resulting a decrease in overall sustainability. Since PIMNP is a tourist attraction based on natural asset, the environment sustainability plays a major role in making the overall venture a sustainable tourism venture.

The methodology of the proposed framework can be used to develop new framework to evaluate the sustainability of a particular tourism destination. This proposed framework is directly based on the principles of sustainable tourism, it covers all aspects of sustainability in relation to tourism sector. Thus, the result of this evaluation gives an overall picture of the considered tourism venture and helps to identify the prevailing challenges and constraints in reaching complete sustainability. The framework also can be used to monitor the sustainability process of a certain tourism venture and its progress towards complete sustainability. It also enables the comparison of two or more tourism destination in terms of level of sustainability. The proposed framework can also be used as a guide when designing sustainable tourism destination and to monitor their sustainability changes over time with reference to each indicator.

The major limitations attached with the proposed framework is that the indicators based on each expression of three sustainable aspects cannot be designated as universal set of indicators as they can be changed based on the type, nature, context of the selected case. Also, in addition to the selected indicators, there can be many more additional and similar indicators which can be used as expressions of each sustainable tourism principle. The evaluation of indicators and the weighting method used in the study may be biased as the scoring system. There are limitations attached to the analysis process, when dealing with qualitative data which was analyzed subjectively and in the quantification of qualitative data in the final evaluation to derive overall sustainability. The further researches can be done to test the applicability of the framework in cases of different nature and to calibrate the framework accordingly. Also, further studies can be conducted to improve the indicators used in the framework based on criteria such as ease of quantification, convenience in use, interpretation and understanding and applicability in different types of cases.

REFERENCE


ETHICAL PRACTICES AND TECHNOLOGY IN FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS OF SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

Ethical practices in Financial Institutes require constant improvement along with the rapid growth of technology. Conducting your business activities following ethical principles and facing advancements of technology are difficult matters to handle for financial institutes in Sri Lanka. Nevertheless it is important for the financial institutes to ensure that the new technologies operate in an ethically sound manner. This research paper intends to look at the connection between business ethics, policy-making, and technology and will investigate the relationship between ethical practices and performance of firms with the focus on financial institutions. The study started with investigation of ethical practices as a concept and, the literature on ethical practices and different theories and empirical evidence in the area were critically reviewed. In summary the outcomes of this paper will identify that there is a relationship between ethical practices and the performance of financial institutions of Sri Lanka, that there are potential impacts and challenges of digital technology in these financial institutes and that there is a link between ethical practices and the firm performance.

Key Words: Ethics, Digital Technology, Financial Institutions, Sri Lanka

BACKGROUND

Advancement of technology and introduction of new knowledge has always improved production and consumption. As per history there are three distinct periods of technical progress, or in layterm, industrial revolutions. Initial revolution started with the invention of steam power which was followed by the second revolution of electrification and the internal combustion engine, and the third revolution was information technology. Schwab (2016) speaks of a fourth industrial revolution, created through the development of digital technologies. These revolutions created changes which were adopted over time as capital is replaced, new skills are acquired, and consumer preferences change. Nevertheless, some technologies which were adopted as a part of a revolution created a ‘disruptive’ change; which is changing the way the economy and society operates during a short space of time. A significant difference seen in a countries’ corporate governance system is the difference in the ownership and control of firms. Various types of corporate governance systems can be identified according to the level of ownership and control, and recognizing the controlling shareholders. As per Diacon and O’Sullivan (1995) “while some systems are characterised by wide dispersed ownership (outsider systems), others tend to be characterised by concentrated ownership or control (insider systems)”. In the outsider systems, the strong managers and widely-dispersed weak shareholders create a conflict of interest. In the insider
In systems, it is within the controlling shareholders and weak minority shareholders. The policy makers need to develop a good corporate governance framework which can secure the benefits associated with controlling shareholders acting as direct superiors. This framework must also ensure that they do not impinge upon the Development of the country. The government of Sri Lanka establishes the legal and regulatory systems that govern the operation of the economy and provides key inputs into the economy by educating the labour force and providing public infrastructure and services. Government also negotiates through democratic processes and maintains through social expenditure and justice. Disruptive technologies may cause interruptions for each of these roles. Thus, this study focuses on the role of Corporate Governance in the face of potentially disruptive technological change in the financial institutes of Sri Lanka.

Aim
The aim of this study is to investigate corporate governance practices of financial institutions in Sri Lanka and their impact on the performance. This study will first address the corporate governance and its effect on corporate performance and economic performance. This study will then explore the potential impacts and challenges of digital technology in the said financial institutes. The study anticipates digital technologies will continue and likely accelerate changes in Sri Lanka’s economy. The study aims to provide a survey of empirical evidence on the link between corporate governance, firm performance and economic growth. Finally, several policy implications will be recommended.

Objectives
- To identify the corporate governance practices of financial institutions in Sri Lanka.
- To recognise the potential impacts and challenges of digital technology in these financial institutes.
- To affirm that there is a link between corporate governance and firm performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Corporate Governance
Rezaee (2009) states that “Corporate governance is not merely the governing of a certain form of organization”. As per Diacon and O’Sullivan (1995) “A series of unexpected corporate failures in the 1990s brought to attention the importance of the corporate governance system”. Corporate governance is a widely discussed topic and researchers such as Shleifer and Vishny (1997) or Becht et al. (2002) have produced studies of the existing knowledge in this field. Shleifer and Vishny (1997) states “Corporate
governance deals with the ways suppliers of finance to corporations assure themselves of getting a return on their investment”. Corporate governance refers to “the design of institutions that induce or force management to internalize the welfare of stakeholders” (Tirole 2001). La Porta et al. (2000) states “Corporate governance is, to a large extent, a set of mechanisms through which outside investors protect themselves against expropriation by insiders”. Gillan and Stark (1998) states “corporate governance is defined as the system of laws, rules, and factors that control operations at a company”. “Defined broadly, corporate governance refers to the private and public institutions, including laws, regulations and accepted business practices, which together govern the relationship, in a market economy, between corporate managers and entrepreneurs on one hand, and those who invest resources in corporations, on the other” (Oman 2001). “The term ‘corporate governance’ essentially refers to the relationships among management, the board of directors, shareholders, and other stakeholders in a company. These relationships provide a framework within which corporate objectives are set and monitored” (Mehran 2003). A more comprehensive definition where corporate governance is looked at as “the process affected by a set of legislative, regulatory, legal, market mechanisms, listing standards, best practices, and efforts of all corporate governance participants, including the company’s directors, officers, auditors, legal counsel, and financial advisors, which creates a system with the goal of creating and enhancing enduring and sustainable shareholder value, while protecting the interests of other stakeholders” (Rezaee 2009).

Corporate Governance of Financial Institutions

The role of financial institutions is to provide financing to enterprises, facilitate various transactions and other services which makes their position integral to the economy at large. Good governance practiced by these financial institutions will have a great effect on the enterprises it lends to. For example by having a proper system for evaluating every loan, possible ‘unethical’ projects will not be funded. This should prevent firms with corrupt ideas, which will ensure a positive selection process followed by an economy with more successful enterprises. However, the complex nature of finance means that the concepts and daily activities of financial institutions may not easily be observed by the general public (Mullineux, 2006).

Alexander (2006) states that “there is a large enough distinction between corporate governance of financial institutions themselves let alone in comparison to other firms, and that corporate governance of each type of financial institution should be studied separately”. However, there are others who suggest that there are no differences between the corporate governance of financial institutions and other firms (Flannery et al. 2002) and that they are all subject to the same core corporate governance principles.

Disruptive Technology

Disruptive technology has different meanings. Schumpeter (1942) used the term ‘creative destruction’, but is well known for his observation that capitalist systems progress by creating new structures while destroying existing ones. Christensen (1997) promoted the words ‘disruptive technology’ and his definition of disruption is a relatively narrow concept whereby technology evolves through quality improvements to inferior but low-priced products. As per (Lepore 2014) “a general and more policy-relevant characterisation of disruptive technologies is that they are developments that drive substantial change across the economy for many firms, households or workers, with
impacts that impose significant costs of adjustment as they make capital obsolete and leave some workers significantly under-utilised for some time”. The expansion of disruptive technologies is both unescapable and unavoidable. Governments may try to restrict such growths by forming various regulations. A positive stance for any government is to focus on making the best of the benefits of these technological changes to the community.

**METHODOLOGY**

The study was done mainly with secondary data obtained from materials from research done previously by other distinguished authors, the Central Bank of Sri Lanka, and material such as Annual Reports and articles obtained from the Banks and other financial institutes of Sri Lanka. Data obtained from a previous research done by the author was also extracted and analyzed for the purpose of this study. Out of that data-base population consisting ninety (90) interviews and case studies, thirty five (35) were chosen from convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is useful where it is otherwise difficult to elicit a sufficient level of response (Bell and Bryman, 2007). These selected participants were stakeholders from respective financial institutes of Sri Lanka who represented the key characteristics and attributes of the total sample group. They were interviewed face to face at a location of their convenience with similar questions that were raised in the data base interview. They elaborated the responses given in previously, to provide a wider understanding to the author. All the participants interviewed and included in the database, have been stakeholders of various financial institutes of Sri Lanka.

**Validity and Reliability**

Results were also presented for the respondents to see if the answers have been interpreted correctly. Furthermore, the validity of the result has been discussed with the senior colleagues, academic consultants, experts of the industry with valuable feedback. Cross checking of the information was done with the aid of industry experts and professional bodies. In terms of reliability measurement, repetition of the study was conducted. Randomly selected few respondents were asked to do the interviews again with a third person. This was done in order to see if the same results were to be obtained. Because of the lack of time, it was not possible to conduct the study more than once for all the respondents. But the chosen sample reiterated that the findings or the answers were more or less identical.

**KEY FINDINGS**

In the past decade corporate governance has been recognized for the proper functioning of capital markets and ensuring investor confidence. As per Demb and Neubauer (1992), the ‘shareholder value maximisation approach’ is one approach to corporate governance, whereby the owners are concerned with preventing management from diverting company profits for their own private benefit. However, another approach is that the company is not a body consisting of only two entities, shareholders and managers, but there are other interested parties such as employees, suppliers, customers and so on, otherwise known as stakeholders who affect or are affected in some form by the achievement of company’s objectives (Freeman,1984). This is considered as the ‘stakeholder approach’ to corporate governance. Many studies have explored the relationship between corporate governance and the performance of financial institutes. Gompers et al. (2003) found that firms with better corporate governance practices that provide shareholder protection, as
measured by an index constructed by them, outperform firms where managers had strongest rights. Van den Berghe and Levrau (2003) found evidence that firm-level corporate governance provisions matter more in countries with weaker legal systems. The very first thing that can be noticed is that there are only few studies which look at this relationship (Caprio et al., 2007). With the relationship between corporate governance and performance of financial institutes empirically documented, the focus of this study was to investigate whether such a relationship also holds, for financial institutions in Sri Lanka. With the data obtained from the survey results as well as from previous literature, this study confirmed a relationship between corporate governance and the performance of the financial institutes.

Corporate Governance and Economic Implications

Corporate governance systems can be distinguished according to the degree of ownership concentration and the identity of controlling shareholders. Shleifer and Vishny (1997) states that while some systems are characterised by wide dispersed ownership, others tend to be characterised by concentrated ownership where the controlling shareholder may be one person, family holding, or financial institution and other corporations acting through a holding company. Differences in the systems of corporate governance with respect to ownership concentration, the identity of owners, and the regulatory and legislative framework, all have important implications for both firm performance and economic performance (Becht, 1997). If in case the corporate governance has no impact on the performance of financial institutes, then the policy makers need not concern themselves with this area. However, the available empirical evidence suggests that the corporate governance does affect performance of financial institutes and is therefore an important framework condition for the industrial competitiveness.

Corporate Governance and Performance of Financial Institutions

With the growing significance of corporate governance, it is automatically assumed that good performance of financial institutions is related to good corporate governance. However it is not an easy task to identify which element of corporate governance will improve the performance of a given financial institution.

Spong and Sullivan (2007) states that “by comparing the combined cost efficiency and revenue tests, the difference between the ‘most efficient’ and the ‘least efficient’ community banks in terms of board size, average age of directors, and length of tenure is not very significant”. However, they find that “the directors of more efficient banks have higher median net worth, a greater ownership stake in their banks, and are less likely to be outside directors. The more efficient banks also feature more frequent meetings, have better attendance rates and higher director fees”. These findings advocate that directors with higher financial stake are more actively involved in those bank’s affairs and in monitoring the performance of management, which in turn bring better overall bank performance.

Gugler (1999) suggests that as per financial theory a similar argument, holds for officers that are also major stakeholders. Their incentives to control costs and improve performance of the financial institute start from the fact that they will directly benefit through improved stock returns. Spong and Sullivan (2007) report that an ownership stake held by managers of financial institutes is likely to improve the average profit efficiency significantly. Trayler (2007) uses key governance variables “which are based on board characteristics such as number of directors, percentage of
inside directors, independent chairperson, statement from the board on corporate governance, statement from the risk direction board, and the existence of a risk committee to evaluate return on assets and on equity, equity to assets, and provision for loan losses to loans”. He argues that a lower proportion of internal directors will improve the performance of the financial institute. Using the data on financial institutes in Argentine in 1990s Berger et al. (2005) test the effects of governance on their performance. In the model, they include the “static, selection, and dynamic effects of: domestic ownership, foreign ownership, state ownership, events like: domestic mergers and acquisitions, foreign acquisitions, privatizations, state restructurings, on the performance of the financial institute. Findings in terms of static effects of financial institutes’ ownership on performance suggest that ones’ which are state-owned have poorer long-term performance than domestically- and foreign-owned financial institutes”.

The participants of the survey conducted by the author, also agreed upon the above findings and added their own views to the study. To sum it all up, the relationships between corporate governance and the performance of financial institutions are present but in most cases the evidence is related to specific types of businesses and is not applicable to all financial institutions. What emerges as a significant relationship in one study seems to change in another. The inconsistency of methodology and variables used by different researchers to estimate the relationship of corporate governance and performance of financial institutes, which varies across studies, seems to contribute to this situation.

**Digital Technology in Financial Institutes**

While many digital technologies have been able to expand by using existing infrastructure, investment in infrastructure is important to support adoption of some digital technologies by financial institutes of Sri Lanka. Broadband communication is critical, but so are sensor and communication systems that support interoperability of technologies. The digital technologies can boost competition but control over networks and data can pose a barrier to entry for new financial institutes. However, access to networks and data can also allow existing firms to compete in new product markets. Digital platforms support distributed production, including through the so-called sharing economy, which brings household and other non-market resources into the market economy. This increases the utilisation of assets, improving the overall efficiency of the economy but undermining some traditional markets. Social media and aggregator websites are increasing consumer access to information on the quality of the services and other factors of the financial institutes. This enhances their ability to impose market discipline on poor performers, reducing the need for regulatory approaches to consumer protection. Some regulation to ensure information quality may be required.

**ANALYSIS**

When dealing with a challenge it is required to better coordinate ideas, resources, information, and planning. Technology experts must work alongside business and government leaders to make better, more ethical decisions. Good, effective governance of emerging technologies requires all relevant stakeholders which include industry, consumers, businesses, governments, academia, and society, to work together in a collaborative, decentralized way. Multi-stakeholder approaches will achieve the greatest economic and technological benefits. It will also bring out broadest range of social benefits. In the future, collaboration may in fact become a
necessity as regulatory frameworks become global to align with the advancement of technology, data, and information. Good communication among all the stakeholders can also allow financial institutes to play a key role in helping the government as they develop laws and standards that increase the reliability of emerging technologies. Academics, researchers, and technology experts should make their findings more accessible to business and government leaders as well as the broader public, so that informed decisions can be made and policies and guidelines established.

CONCLUSION

Corporate governance affects the development and functioning of the economy of any country and therefore, Sri Lanka is no exception. With the effects of globalisation, it has also become an important framework condition affecting the industrial competitiveness. This study was conducted in order to develop the understanding of corporate governance and its effect on corporate performance and economic performance of financial institutes of Sri Lanka. In doing so, it addresses some of the underlying factors that promote efficient corporate governance, and examines some of the economic implications associated with corporate governance systems. It also provided empirical evidence on the link between corporate governance, performance of the financial institutes and economic growth, identifying areas in which a consensus view appears to have emerged in the literature and areas in which further research is still needed. The lack of sufficient research in the field, and the absence of the impact of corporate governance in the financial institutions in Sri Lanka, was the main motivations for this study. The purpose of the survey study conducted by the author, were to obtain a snap shot picture of the corporate governance situation in the surveyed financial institutes in Sri Lanka. In order to get a better understanding of the corporate governance environment, additional interviews were conducted with other stakeholders such as the Central Bank and the chamber of commerce. The findings suggested that better legal frameworks induce better corporate governance practices of financial institutes. The findings also indicate that there are aspects of corporate governance that need to be better regulated by law or regulations such as the equitable treatment of shareholders, and the role of stakeholders. The responses to the survey questionnaire enabled to construct a measure of corporate governance practice, for each financial institute. Even though the survey was limited to a few banks and financial institutes of the country, this methodology which can be extended to all the financial institutes in Sri Lanka, where the corporate governance rating is still unavailable, constitutes another contribution to knowledge of this study.

Recommendations

Given that this study has provided evidence of a relationship between corporate governance and the performance of financial institutions, it can be expected that it should recommend some policy implications. These recommendations should be interesting to regulatory and supervisory bodies dealing with corporate governance as well as financial institutes and their respective boards. The relationship between corporate governance and performance of financial institutes implies that regulatory and supervisor bodies of Sri Lanka should ensure that good corporate governance is observed and implemented and, when possible, improved. Regulators and other relevant bodies dealing with corporate governance should make sure that current laws, regulations, and rules on corporate governance are observed and implemented fully by the financial institutions. When
shortcomings of these rules and regulations are identified, then they should be amended and improved by taking into consideration best practices from developed economies. Shleifer and Vishny (1997) and La Porta et al. (2000), agree that dispersed ownership requires good legal protection, thus the regulators should insist on observance of laws and regulations by all financial institutes.

**Limitations of the Research**

The survey study conducted by the author encountered a number of unexpected problems and became subject to a number of limitations. The main limitation was that stakeholders of only a handful of financial institutes participated in the study. Also, given the central role of the banks in the economy, it would have helped if banks and financial institutions of developed economies are included in the sample for comparison. In terms of the financial institutions chosen, the main problem (and limitation) was the unwillingness of these institutions in to participate in the survey. The non-inclusion of all the possible financial institutions in the sample is another limitation of this study.

**Further Research**

There are several ways in which this research can be expanded. Including financial institutes from other countries for comparison could perhaps benefit from investigating which countries apply better corporate governance systems thus using this information to guide policymakers in other countries during the process of designing or implementing corporate governance related policies. In addition, the sample can be enriched with all other financial institutions and explore what are the implications of certain laws or regulations for banking and other non-banking financial institutions.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF E-COMMERCE WEBSITES AS A MEANS OF TRANSFORMING TRADITIONAL GRASSROOTS BUSINESSES IN SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

The majority of traditional grassroots businesses are seeking continuous support from online platforms to expand their operations globally and within Sri Lanka. A grassroots business can be defined as an independently owned small business established with limited funds (e.g., bakers, florists, estheticians, and clothing manufacturers). The utilization of e-commerce websites to improve business activities within grassroots level businesses have been a continuous obstacle for many new entrepreneurs in Sri Lanka. This is mainly due to the fact that grassroots businesses lack the proper training on integrating e-commerce platforms into their current business infrastructure. Additionally, outdated technology, lack of trust in e-commerce, high costs associated with integrating e-commerce websites, and the lack of expertise in using the Internet and e-commerce websites are critical problems associated with grassroots businesses transitioning to e-commerce. Thus, the objective of this paper is to further investigate these challenges pertaining to building meaningful relationships among traditional grassroots entrepreneurs and their consumers through the integration of e-commerce websites into their current business landscape. Moreover, this study also attempts to identify the key factors that help enhance these relationships among grassroots businesses and their consumers. The findings of this research would aid traditional grassroots businesses in understanding the current issues and obstacles in transitioning to e-commerce and help build impactful relationships with other businesses and consumers. Moreover, this research would enable grassroots businesses to further expand their business activities, and in turn, contribute to the economic development of Sri Lanka.

Keywords: Grassroots businesses, e-commerce, grassroots entrepreneurs, Internet, Sri Lanka

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, organizations heavily depend on the e-commerce websites in order to promote and expand their products to customers. Several books and authors have described e-commerce in many different ways. For instance, Plunkett et al. (2014) state that e-commerce is all about use of internet and intranet to sell, purchase, transport or trading of data, goods or services whereas Clark (2005) describes e-commerce as a “support services” for trading. History of e-commerce started with the development of electronic funds transfer system in the early 1970’s. Electronic fund transfer is involved with transferring funds between one companies to another. This allowed exchange process to happen but commercializing of e-commerce really happened after 1990s due to technological
improvement and the significant importance placed by the consumers over the internet. Nowadays, e-commerce is rapidly developing and giving the consumers and businesses the ability to connect, collaborate electronically with each other. Additionally, e-commerce allows to obtain feedback with each other, share innovative ideas and create free links to other websites for anyone who is interested in finding additional information (Kelly, 2005). Based on the e-marketer reports global (2019), e-commerce retail sales would experience an increase of US $3.535 trillion in 2019 to $5.695 trillion in 2022. Moreover, depending on the Asia-Pacific region would have 25% projection of change in the e-commerce sales. Countries like Mexico will report 35% tremendous increase in sales while India and Philippines will report 31% of change (e-marketer, 2019). Based on the statista information by Clement (2019), retail e-commerce sales will rise to $4.13 trillion by the period 2020. With the statistics, it is indicated that consumers in China will be accountable for 41% of complete e-commerce expenditure. This data indicates a global preference towards e-commerce sites by consumers in the future. Data analysis by Clement (2019) from statista digital market outlook studies depict that annual amount spent by the consumer e-commerce categories around the world have increased by 17% ($524.9 billion) on fashion and beauty category, $329.6 billion on electronic and physical media, $209.5 on billion food and personal care, $272.5 billion on furniture and appliances, $386.2 billion on toys and hobbies, $750.7 on travel (including accommodation), $12.05 billion on digital music and $70.56 billion on video games. This increase is mainly due to the convenience of the shopper and the availability of technological access throughout the world.

At present, most of the global giants like Amazon, AliExpress and eBay are not only catering to the consumer market directly they also help grass root companies by establishing a platform where they can sell their products internationally. For example, eBay’s main motive is to connect millions of buyers and sellers together. E-bay statistical reports (2019) depicts that there are 1.3 billion listed sellers and 183 billion buyers. Moreover, Amazon is considered to have 2.5 billion sellers (marketplace pulse, 2019). AliExpress is considered prime online marketplaces throughout world which offers more than 100 million merchandises from 200,000 venders (Actionpay, 2018). These statistical data suggest that current trends are to open doors by well-known e-commerce sites and create opportunities for sellers to reach customers. In Sri Lankan context, e-commerce is fast growing and concentrates basically on urban areas. Based on industry experts’ predictions and opinions in Sri Lanka, e-commerce sales are supposed to raise from $40 million US dollars (Sri Lanka 6.4 billion rupees) to $400 million US dollars by 2022 (Daily News, 2018). Presently, it is identified to remain 0.4% which is US $10 billion of Sri Lanka’s annual total retail sales. This is mainly due to the lack of infrastructure such as computers by users and high cost that people tend to use on traditional stores in order to make purchases. Hence, currently Sri Lankan government is laying infrastructure such as fiber optic cables and other hardware in order to promote the internet access. According to World Bank Group (2018), Sri Lankan internet users have increased from 2003 to 2016 due to availability of internet access. Recently most of the industries in Sri Lanka have identified that going online is the most accessible method to reach the consumers. For instance, major companies like Keells Super, Arpico, Damro and Softlogic are going online in order to capture a larger
market share in Sri Lanka. These major companies tend to promote their own brands and other brands offered by grass root companies. Most of the grass root companies tend to suffer financially to establish their own websites to reach the consumers, however they continually tend to seek the support of the major companies. Major e-commerce businesses like Daraz, Kapruka, Takas, Mydeals, Ikman, and Tickets.lk have responded by offering a major helping hand to the grass root companies. Although major companies are willing to support grass root companies they have negative approach of adopting e-commerce websites.

From a general pilot study of telephone interviews conducted within a group of 20 grass root businesses, numerous factors were identified for lack of utilization of major e-commerce sites by grass root companies. One major factor is lack of ICT education and knowledge training among upcoming grass root companies. It is widely understood that education and training are necessary to succeed in digital economy. Compared to other countries, Sri Lanka’s universal literacy rate tend to show positive signs of improvement. However, English language and computer literacy tend to be a lower rate. According to Department of Census and Statistics, (2017), computer literacy of Sri Lankans show a decrease of computer literacy from 28.3% to 27.5%. As a result of deficiency of computer literacy training and English language, grass root companies fail to integrate e-commerce platforms into their current infrastructure, establish relationships and gain support from larger companies.

Another major cause found from the pilot study was technological advancements and development is limited to Colombo area. Other areas in Sri Lanka tend to have a slower technological development comparatively. Unfortunately most of the grass root companies are segregated in rural areas. Lack of infrastructure in rural areas have lead grass root companies of Sri Lanka been limited to traditional methods of exchange and also a limited capacity of their customers. Even larger companies find it difficult to support grass root companies because they lack basic infrastructure to connect with internet.

Additionally, grass root level traditional companies in Sri Lanka fail to recognize the benefits of engaging of e-commerce sites. Most believe it is not a reality to reach consumers through e-commerce sites and there are huge uncertainties of potential failures. According to Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (1998), uncertainty about e-commerce sites is a major issue among small and medium companies in developing countries. Grass root companies in Sri Lanka tend to operate in limited budget. Any additional cost would make them difficult to bear and compete with other well-established firms. When grass root companies expect to reach larger audience, they would need to use larger channels which might incur additional cost. Therefore, as a result of cost factor, Sri Lankan grass root firms tends to reject larger E-commerce channels to reach customers.

Finally, lack of appropriate specialized human resource is a major challenge to grass root businesses. According to Department of Census and Statistics (2017), it depicts overall computer literacy rate is 28.3% and 27.5% from overall population respectively in 2017 and 2018. This indicates a lesser computer literate society. Especially, grass root businesses owners tend to be very much specialized on the work they do. For example, cake bakers tend to be skilled at making cakes and they focus less on acquiring ICT knowledge. So when there is a malfunction of the e-commerce channel, they find it difficult to find specialist in order to fix the problem. As a result of lack
of expertise knowledge by grass root businesses, they tend to use traditional methods to reach the customers.

It is clear that grass root companies fail to adopt and build relationship with e-commerce sites is a major problem. This is mainly because grass root domestic companies can contribute to the local economy by producing the products that are required. If grass root companies are not profitable they might not continue their operations which will impact the development of economic growth of Sri Lanka. Therefore, abundant attention should be given to maintaining healthy relationship between major e-commerce platforms and grass root companies of Sri Lanka. With building relationship becoming a major issue to the economy we need to clarify what are the challenges pertaining to building effective relationship among grass root and major e-commerce sites? Determine what are the key factors that help to enhance the relationship among grass root businesses and e-commerce sites? Finally, identify what are the available recommended solutions to encourage utilization of e-commerce sites by grass root companies to reach consumers?

Although this paper focus on answering the above mentioned questions. For the purpose of limiting the boundaries the consideration is based on grass root companies such as cake producers, florist, estheticians and clothing manufacturers who established and succeeded during the last 10 years (2008 to 2018) from Kurunegala district, Sri Lanka. The objective of the paper is to identify the challenges pertaining to building a relationship among grass root companies and e-commerce websites. Challenges such as: lack of training, outdated technology, lack of trust in e-commerce, high cost and lack of expertise really lead into determination of utilization of e-commerce sites by grass root companies. Moreover, to determine the key variables that help to enhance the relationship among grass root businesses and major e-commerce platforms. Finally, to recommend a cause of action that needed to implement to enhance relationships.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

E-commerce is developing so rapid in various societies today. Hence, Lawson et al. (2003) state that nowadays e-commerce have offered wide range of opportunities for businesses to trade online and connect customers in an international market. According to Pilinkiene et al. (2013), E-commerce have enhanced the competitiveness by involving businesses and customers collectively to create business opportunities. Although there are wide variety of benefits of using e-commerce, it continuously creates numerous challenges and barriers for developing countries grassroots businesses to adopt to the changing demands of technology.

**Challenges of adopting e-commerce**

A study conducted by Auger and Gallaugher (1997) debated that six challenges when adopting e-commerce such as finance concerns, rise of competition, costs of development and maintenance, testing on novel marketing techniques, obstacles of gathering and organizing data, and strong desire to build brand reputation through product promotion. They stated that these challenges will make a crucial impact on making decisions of going online for small grassroots businesses. However, Jennex, Amoroso and Adelakun (2004) explored that most of developing countries consider infrastructure as most vital factor along with appropriate skills, interfaces and technology in order to connect with other e-commerce businesses. Another study conducted about E-commerce implementation in South Africa by Cloete,
Courtney, and Fintz (2002) found out that having less access to software, hardware, telecommunication, and computers at a realistic cost, less usage of e-commerce by distributors and suppliers, negative attitudes towards security and legal issues, low knowledge about e-commerce by small businesses and not recognizing the value of e-commerce usage act as barriers for e-commerce adaptation of most businesses. A Chinese study also identified that limited distribution of computers, not having secure online payment methods, taxations and regulatory framework and not having proper channels to distribute are major inhibitors of e-commerce implementation. A comprehensive study of not adopting e-commerce by small companies in Egypt by El-Nawawy and Ismail (1999) argued that lack of awareness about the technology, lack of education, lesser size of market for e-commerce, lack of telecommunication facilities, insufficient finance, tough legal and regulatory systems, lesser government support and cultural attitude towards e-commerce are key reasons for not implementing e-commerce systems by small businesses in Egypt. Furthermore, Asia foundation report (2002) identified drivers and inhibitors of e-commerce adaptation. This report illustrated that main drivers of e-commerce adaptation are easiness of reaching local and foreign customers and business partners, ability to offer e-commerce and benefits received from usage of e-commerce whereas the main inhibitors of not using e-commerce are primarily infrastructure and speed of access, less access to internet facilities such as landline and telephone, high cost associated with telephone facilities, connections speed, concerns of security and privacy, banking systems and regulations, main business transactions continue to be completed offline, as well as risk of credit activities. Another report by Economic Intelligence Unit (2003) exhibited the ability to connect and technological infrastructure, environment of the organization, ability of consumer and business to adopt, legal and policy of the environment, cultural and social infrastructure (for instance, literacy level and basic education), support of the e – services are main challenges of e-commerce adaptation for grassroots businesses. Moreover, APEC’s E-commerce Readiness Assessment report (2002) highlighted measure of e-readiness of any country can be assessed using factors such as basic technology and infrastructure, access to networking facilities, usage of the internet systems, amount of promotion and assistance, availability of skills and human resources (amount of ICT education workforce), and environment setting for the digital economies (taxes and tariffs, industry self-regulation and control, implemented government rules, and consumer faith). Finally, extensive literatures by Beale (1995) and Cristache, et al (2015) concluded that challenges like deficiency of skilled human resources and professionals, ICT security concerns and minimum confidence in the e-commerce, policy frameworks to enhance innovation, quality, productiveness and competitiveness, as well as lack of knowledge and expertise to use the e-commerce technologies lead as barriers for implementation and adaptation of e-commerce by small businesses around the globe.

**Challenges of adopting E-commerce in Sri Lanka**

According to a report produce by Lanka business development (2002) demonstrated that there are positive and negative factors contributing to e-commerce adaptation and implementation in Sri Lanka. Although report talks about both sides, negative factors tend to outweigh the positives more significantly. According to the that report some of the negative factors are negative attitudes
towards adopting to the new technology, lack of understanding about the paybacks of e-commerce, limited experience about usage of e-commerce products and services, poor knowledge in English, lack of IT expertise, selling online is considered impractical, internet banking facilities are considered to be limited, lack of telecommunication infrastructure, and setting up online payment is considered a problem.

In addition, another study conducted by Greenberg et al., (2002) on IT adaptation competence in Sri Lanka identified some key factors which led towards not adopting e-commerce processes in trade industry. It stated that overall impression is considered low among the rural sector mainly due lack of electricity and telecommunication facilities when adopting e-commerce whereas most of the e-commerce adaptation is centered towards urban cities like Colombo, Kandy, and Galle. Secondly, lack of human resources and education, especially in terms of information technology literacy among Sri Lankan small businesses were considered to be inadequate, it lead towards problematic situation in implementing e-commerce in Sri Lanka. It is evident that Sri Lanka has been considered to have the highest literacy rates in South East Asia, but according to the study having high literacy rates do not support the adaption of e-commerce. Thirdly, Telecommunication cost was identified as a major barrier in implementing e-commerce. Only major businesses were identified cost as not a problem, but majority considered cost per minute telephone charges as a major challenge for implementing e-commerce. Fourthly, study also agreed on maintaining regular electricity coverage is challenging to maintain information technology facilities which results in less adaptation of e-commerce websites. There are regular power outages which impacts the processors and storage facilities, therefore most of small businesses discourage the utilization of e-commerce. Finally, study depicted that lack of expertise with information technology capability to maintain the complicated software and hardware is a major threat to e-commerce adaptation. Most Sri Lankans currently use outdated technology which do not support the current requirements for e-commerce technology.

Relevant Ecommerce Adaptation models

Technology acceptance model was developed by Davis (1989) to identify the major causes that lead to acceptance of novel technologies in any situation. In other words, he determined a framework to identify what lead towards actual usage of technology. His studies have depicted behavior of acceptance is highly influenced by perceived usefulness, ease of use and external variables such as experience, image, relevance to the jobs, subjective norms, quality of output and ability to demonstrate results. It was argued by El-Gohary (2012) most of the internal and external factors are ignored in what lead to usage of technology, however this model has been empirically tested by many studies around the world.

In 1990, Tornatzky and Fleisher were introduced the theory of technology organization framework to identify and observe the factors that impact the introduction of technology. It demonstrated that technology adaptation is basically effected by context of the technology, context of the organization and also context of the environment (Tornatzky and Fleisher, 1990; Taherdoost, 2017). According to Tornatzky and Fleisher (1990), technology context is mainly influenced by availability of the relevant technologies both internally and externally. Organizational context is mainly influenced by firm’s resources, size of the firm, structure of the management, resources which are slack and
communication process. Context of the environment is based on regulations of the market, structure of the market, characteristics of the industry and available technological infrastructure.

Diffusion of innovation model was introduced by E. M Rogers in 1962. This model studies how a particular idea or innovation spread among the society or how long it take for innovation to adopt (Taherdoost, 2017). There are various group of people in the society they are namely: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards (Rogers, 1962). Innovators: who try the idea first, early adopters: who share positive opinions about the technology, early majority: who read opinions from early adopters, late majority: who will try to adopt new technology if there is a strong feeling or if there is idea of been left out of the society and laggards: they prefer only traditional technologies but will choose new technologies if there are no alternatives (Rogers, 1962; Sila, 2015).

Igbaria’s Model identifies inherent and external factors that lead to usage of computers (Igbaria et al, 1994). Perceived fun to use computers is regarded as an intrinsic motivator and perceived usefulness is regarded as extrinsic motivator for computer usage. In this framework other factors are also highlighted that lead for computer usage. They are anxiety about the computers and computer usage satisfaction (Venkatesh et al, 2003).

Theory of reasoned action was developed for psychological and sociological researches but it was later adopted to understand the IT usage behavior (Venkatesh et al, 2003). This framework is introduced by Fishbein and Azjen in 1975. This theory is used to explain cognitive behavior of individual towards computer usage by social norms, attitudes and intentions. Social norms is societies influence towards usage of computers. Attitudes are personal feelings and obligation towards usage of computers. Intention is individual decision of usage of computers (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). All these factors mentioned above impact the usage of computers.

Model of PC utilization (MPCU) forecast human behaviors that lead to computer usage. MPCU precisely assesses the direct impact, aiding circumstance, enduring concerns of usage, apparent concerns, social effects, difficulty and job fitting on computer usage. Most of the results of this framework identifies that job fitting, social causes, long term concerns and difficulty have a strong effect on computer usage (Thompson et al, 1991; Sila, 2015).

**METHODOLOGY**

From the above analysis of the literature review, the main challenges that lead to e-commerce usage by grass root companies are training, outdated technology, lack of trust, high cost and lack of expertise. Research tries to investigate whether the identified challenges impacts the usage of e-commerce sites in Sri Lanka or not. Moreover, the research tries to determine if there is a relationship and whether that trend would continue to the future or not as well. Correlation is used to determine the relationship and regression analysis is conducted to identify the future relationships. Independent variable for the conceptual framework are used as challenges of e-commerce usage which are: training, outdated technology, lack of trust, high cost and lack of expertise and e-commerce web site usage as dependent variable. Conceptual framework is shown as follows:
List of Hypothesis

H1: There is relationship between training and usage of ecommerce websites in Sri Lanka.

H0: There is no relationship between training and usage of ecommerce in Sri Lanka.

H2: There is a relationship between outdated technology and usage of ecommerce in SL.

H0: There is no relationship between outdated technology and usage of ecommerce in SL.

H3: There is relationship between lack of trust and usage of ecommerce websites in SL.

H0: There is no relationship between lack of trust and usage of ecommerce websites in SL.

H4: There is a relationship between high cost and usage of ecommerce websites in SL.

H0: There is no relationship between high cost and usage of ecommerce websites in SL.

H5: There is relationship between work expertise and usage of ecommerce in Sri Lanka.

H0: There is no relationship between work expertise and usage of ecommerce in Sri Lanka.

Total population, Sample and Sample selection

Total micro-businesses estimated to be in Sri Lanka is approximately 50,000. These micro businesses include bakers, florists, estheticians, clothing manufacturers and tourism companies. From the total population, 150 sample is selected by using the technique of simple random sampling. Sample included a mixture of micro-businessmen such as bakers, estheticians, florists, clothing manufacturers and tourism companies. They are selected from areas such as Kandy, Kurunegala and Colombo due to the ease of access and convenience.

Data collection, Questionnaire type, Data analyzing technique and time frame

Online questionnaire was used to collect the information to the research mainly due to capability of reaching a larger audience. Selected 150 grass root businesses had internet facilities, so it was convenient for them to fill the questionnaire online. Questionnaire was designed to have close ended questions, so that it was convenient for analysis as well as in a way it was stress-free to the grass root businessmen who is filling the questionnaire. All the questions are setup in a likert scale where 1= “Strongly agree”, 2= “Agree”, 3= “Neither agree nor disagree”, 4= “Disagree” and 5= “Strongly disagree”. This specific research was conducted during the time frame of 01st December 2018 to 31st January 2019. It was identified that most suitable technique to analyze data was IBM SPSS software where correlation and regression analysis was conducted.

Reliability test

Cronbach’s Alpha test used to test the reliability of the outcomes of data from questionnaire and the variables mentioned. From the information generated in table 1, it was determined that 98% of data obtained were considered reliable and satisfactory in the questionnaire.
Correlation analysis
Using SPSS, it could be easier to determine the Pearson correlation where it suggests that whether there is any relationship between independent and dependent variable. If person R value is positive, it suggests that relationship between variables are positive. If Pearson R value is negative, it suggests the relationship between variables are negative. Table 1 below depicts the type of relationship between variables according to coefficient range. Moreover, if Sig 2 tailed value is lesser than 0.05, it suggests that when one variable change the other variable will also change. If Sig 2 tailed value is more than 0.05, it suggests that there is no change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficient range</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.90 to 1</td>
<td>Very strong positive correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.39 to 1.0</td>
<td>Very strong negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.75 to 0.90</td>
<td>High positive correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.70 to 0.90</td>
<td>High negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50 to 0.70</td>
<td>Moderate positive correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.39 to 0.50</td>
<td>Moderate negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.30 to 0.50</td>
<td>Low positive correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.30 to -0.50</td>
<td>Low negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0 to 0.30 or -0.0 to -0.30</td>
<td>Negligible correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Coefficient range and Interpretation

Regression analysis
Regression analysis is used to predict the outcome of a dependent variable which is e-commerce website usage of grass root level companies using independent variables such as training, outdated technology, lack of trust, high costs and lack of expertise. Regression analysis is a good indicator of measuring future outcome.

Relationship Analysis between training and utilization of ecommerce websites

From the Table 3, it could be seen that Pearson R value is 0.953 where coefficient ranges lie from 0.90 to 1 which depicts very strong positive correlation between the training and e-commerce site usage. For instance, if appropriate training is provided people tend to use e-commerce websites. Sig (2-tailed) value is also lesser than 0.05 that is 0.00 which suggest when level of training changes E-commerce website usage also changes similar amount.

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According to figure 2 identified 63.64% majority of the grass root businesses believe that training is a necessity for E-commerce website utilization.
commerce website usage. Furthermore, 7.27% disagree and 4.24% strongly disagree that training is a necessity for utilization of e-commerce websites. Therefore, it is understood that training is considered important for e-commerce websites utilization by grass root businesspeople.

Moreover, Sig (2-tailed) value of 0.000 is lesser than 0.05 means when technology is improved, e-commerce utilization also changes significantly.

Table 4 could arrived the equation of \( Y=0.915X+0.103 \) where \( X \) is the opinions from the grass root businessmen about the necessity of training and \( Y \) is the utilization of e-commerce websites. With the equation, it could be identified in future also grass root businessmen believe proper training is necessary for e-commerce website usage.

According to Table 5, Pearson R value is 0.960 which show a very strong positive correlation between outdated technology and e-commerce usage. This implies that outdated technology leads to lack of usage of e-commerce and better technology leads to more usage of e-commerce.
necessary for them to use e-commerce website for daily activities.

### Relationship Analysis between trust and utilization of e-commerce websites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Lack of trust has effect on utilization of e-commerce sites</th>
<th>Challenges has effect on utilization of e-commerce sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.922**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7: Correlation between trust and e-commerce website usage

Table 7 depicts Pearson R value is 0.922 which indicates very strong positive correlation between trust and usage of e-commerce websites. This suggest that lack of trust among grass root businessmen lead to lack of usage of e-commerce. Further, better trust among grass root businessmen leads to higher usage of e-commerce sites in Sri Lanka. Moreover, Sig. (2-tailed) value is 0.000 which is lesser than 0.05 implies that when trust among grass root businessmen changes, e-commerce website usage also changes significantly.

### Regression analysis trust for e-commerce website utilization

According to table 8, regression analysis equation can be derived as $Y = 0.839X + 0.217$. Equation suggest that grass root businessmen believe that trust is necessary for them in future to improve the usage of e-commerce websites.

### Relationship Analysis between cost and utilization of e-commerce websites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>High cost has effect on utilization of e-commerce sites</th>
<th>Challenges has effect on utilization of e-commerce sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.956**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 9: Correlation between cost and e-commerce website usage

From the information identified in table 9, Pearson R value is 0.956 which suggest a very strong positive correlation between cost and usage of e-commerce websites. This implies that high cost leads to lack of usage of e-commerce websites by grass root businessmen.
root businesses. Moreover, less cost leads to higher usage of e-commerce sites. Additionally, it could be seen in Figure 11 that the usage of e-commerce sites changes significantly.

![Pie Chart](Image)

**Figure 5: Viewpoints that cost has effects on e-commerce website utilization**

According to figure 5, it can be analyzed that 62.42% grass root businesses agree and 15.15% strongly agree that cost impact the usage of e-commerce websites. Moreover, lesser percentage of grass root businessmen disagree by 3.03% and strongly disagree by 6.06% about the cost impact the usage of e-commerce websites from the sample population. Therefore, cost is believed to be a significant factor that contribute to the e-commerce usage by grass root businesses.

From the regression analysis of table 10, following equation can be derived: $Y=0.885X+0.248$. With the equation, it can predict that there is a trend in future that grass root businessmen believe that cost is an important factor in e-commerce website usage.

**Table 10: Correlation between work expertise and e-commerce website usage**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work of expertise has effect on utilization of e-commerce sites</th>
<th>Challenges has effect on utilization of e-commerce sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.968**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 11: Correlation between work expertise and e-commerce website usage**

Based on table 11, Pearson Correlation of 0.968 determines very strong positive correlation between work expertise and e-commerce usage. This suggest lack of work expertise by grass root businesses leads to lack of usage of e-commerce sites. Moreover, High work expertise by grass root businesses leads to higher usage of e-commerce sites. Additionally, Sig. (2-tailed) value is determined as 0.000 which is also lesser than 0.05 indicates when work expertise of grass root businesses improve greatly, e-commerce website usage will change significantly.

**Table 12: Regression analysis cost for e-commerce website utilization**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td>.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High cost has effect on utilization of e-commerce sites</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.935</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 6: Viewpoints that Work expertise has effects on e-commerce website utilization

From the data from figure 6, it can identify that 78.79% of grass root businessmen believe that work expertise is necessary for e-commerce website utilization whereas 9.09% grass root businessmen disagree that work expertise is necessary for e-commerce utilization. Overall, work expertise and knowledge is considered a necessity for grass root businesses to effectively adopt e-commerce websites.

Regression analysis Work expertise for e-commerce utilization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work of expertise has effect on utilization of ecommerce sites</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>60.04</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After analyzing the information in table 12, it can easily arrive at the equation Y=0.985X+0.85. This equation is evident that grass root businessmen also believe that work expertise is necessary for e-commerce utilization in future development of their business operations.

DISCUSSION

After analyzing all the information in this study, it clearly indicates training, outdated technology, lack of trust, high costs and lack of expertise are the main challenges that impact the e-commerce usage by grass root businesses. Firstly, with the data analysis, it clearly suggest that better training is required to encourage grass root businesses to adopt e-commerce websites. Lack of training might lead them less understanding about how to use the required systems, processors facilities and infrastructure required for the e-commerce. From the opinions obtained from the grass root businesses, it is clearly evident that they need necessary training to use e-commerce websites. This is clearly shown from the data by obtaining Pearson R value of 0.953 and Sig. (2-tailed) value of 0.000 which is lesser than 0.05. Furthermore, it was realized that grass root businesses would consider training a necessity in future for e-commerce usage. This was identified using the regression equation Y=0.915X+0.103. Secondly, Grass root businesses consider technology as a necessity for e-commerce usage. Outdated technology would lead them not to accept e-commerce websites for daily business purposes. This can be mainly because outdated technology would not support the sophisticated business requirements. With the data analysis from the questionnaire, it clearly shows that there is a high requirement of technology to use the e-commerce websites. This was indicated with showing a Pearson r value of 0.960 and also from grassroots businessmen opinions showing 76.97% agreeing that technology is a necessity for e-commerce usage. Additionally, technology requirement is going to be a future requirement as well this was indicated from the regression analysis equation Y=1.083X-0.163.

Thirdly, grass root businesses believe it is difficult to trust the e-commerce websites mainly due to security issues and misuse of business data. There can be also lack of faith on countries regulatory framework in relation to e-commerce. From the data analyzed, it clearly demonstrates that there is a correlation between lack of trust and e-commerce usage by showing a Pearson r value of 0.922. Moreover, 72.12% of grass root businesses agree that lack of trust is an issue for them when they use e-commerce

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websites. The trend of lack of trust from grass root businesses on e-commerce website usage is continue to the future as well, the trend can be identified using the equation $Y=0.839X+0.217$. Fourthly, High cost is an issue for the grass root businesses in adopting to the e-commerce websites. High cost of infrastructure and cost of upgrading are the main issues that prohibit from adopting e-commerce websites by grass root businesses. Having a very high person R value of 0.956 suggest that grass root businesses consider cost as a main factor that prohibit them from using e-commerce sites. Grass root businesses views also support by agreeing 77.57% that cost as the main factor which forbid them from using e-commerce sites. Finally, to work with the sophisticated systems grass root businesses consider work expertise as a requirement. Lack of work expertise with required knowledge would forbid grass root businesses from using e-commerce websites. Besides, with Pearson R value of 0.968 demonstrates a clear indication that work expertise is a requirement for e-commerce website usage by grass root businesses. Additionally, 78.79% grass root businesses believe work expertise is necessary for them to use e-commerce website and also trend of requiring work expertise to perform e-commerce task and adopt will be a future requirement according to regression equation $Y=0.985X+0.85$.

**CONCLUSION**

Main focus of this research is to identify the challenges that impact grassroots businesses that forbid from usage of e-commerce websites. Many literatures were referred and analyzed in order to arrive at the conceptual framework. To test and understand weather the challenges really impact grass root businesses from not using e-commerce, quantitative analyzing technique was used. Firstly, correlation techniques was used using IBM SPSS software in order to determine whether identified challenges such as: training, outdated technology, lack of trust, high costs and lack of expertise really have any relationship with e-commerce website usage. Moreover, regression analysis was conducted to determine whether if any particular trend was identified and is going to continue to the future as well. From most of the obtained information, it was determined that grass root businesses consider training, outdated technology, lack of trust, high costs and lack of expertise as major challenges for e-commerce usage by grass root businesses. Additionally, it was determined that grass root businesses will consider identified challenges as major challenges for the future as well in adaptation of e-commerce websites. Major concern is needed to be focus by relevant authorities in order to support grass root businesses to overcome the challenges identified. If particular attention is not given, grass root businesses would drive away by e-commerce implementation. Grass root businesses growth and profitability would completely come to a standstill due to catering to limited crowd. Their competitiveness with the international market will also decrease. When grass root businesses overall domestic production decrease, countries economic growth will also decline. Therefore, relevant authorities need to take necessary steps in order to cater to the identified challenges and also help them to succeed in the international market.

**RECOMMENDATION**

Based on the findings, relevant authorities need to improve training, outdated technology, lack of trust, high cost and lack of expertise in order to improve the e-commerce usage. Firstly, training can be improved by government allocating funds to organize regular
seminars, workshops and training programs to educate and update grassroots businesses to adopt to the current technology. Secondly, trust can be enhanced by organizing awareness programs about the benefits of usage of e-commerce sites and the amount of security received when doing online business. Moreover, regulatory framework can be implemented by government in order to protect valuable business data from misuse by hackers and frauds. Thirdly, outdated technology can be improved by providing micro-finance to grassroots businesses with easy payment methods to facilitate with changing technology. Additionally, government should take necessary steps to make available the internet coverage to all areas of Sri Lanka.

Fourthly, purchasing cost of infrastructure and necessary facilities need to be affordable to customers. Government need to place emphasis on cost in order to make e-commerce technologies affordable to grass root businesses. Government need to reduce taxes on purchasing basic infrastructure equipment to setup. To reduce cost relevant authorities should encourage free open source software to manage business transactions. Other actions relevant authorities to manage cost are: introduce highly secure payment gateways at affordable cost, reduce transaction fees for grass roots businesses and allow an online system to sell grassroots products with low delivery charges. Finally, to cater to the challenge of lack of expertise by the grass root businesses relevant authorities should implement a system where professionals from establish e-commerce sites like Kapruka, Daraz.lk and Ikman.lk engage with grassroots businesses regularly in supporting to adopt to the technology. Therefore, it could be understood that Sri Lankan grass root businesses to improve the domestic production that intern lead economic development and growth of Sri Lanka.

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CAREER DECISION MAKING DIFFICULTIES AND CAREER DECISION MAKING SELF-EFFICACY: UNDERSTANDING THE MODERATING EFFECT OF PERSONALITY

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ABSTRACT

The role of personality type (A or B) in career decision making process is addressed seldom in existing literature. This paper investigates the moderating effect of personality type on the relationship between Career Decision Making Difficulties (CDMD) and Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy (CDMS). Quantitative inquiry of the research problem employed a field survey of 106 Management undergraduates representing Sri Lankan state universities. Instruments with greater measurement properties measured the key variables. Results of multiple regression analysis specify the significant interaction effect of personality type and CDMD (β = -0.046, p = 0.041). This implies personality types hold a moderating power which can lead to variations in the Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy. Further, Type B personalities appear to be less self-efficacious than Type A personalities with respect to career decision making. Implications lead the necessity of developing personalities to improve the self-efficacy of deciding on a future career.

Keyword: Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy, Personality, Career Decision Making Difficulty, Sri Lanka, Undergraduates

INTRODUCTION

Career decision making is one of the most important processes of adolescence. In particular, career decision making status is considered one of the most salient constructs for career development and is observed lately with great interest. Defined by Career Decision Making Scale, career decision making status consists of two factors: career certainty and career indecision (Osipow, Clarke, Carney, Winer, Yanico, and Koschier 1976). While career certainty refers to certainty of the decision taken, career indecision provides information on specific issues that can impede findings on career certainty and its relatedness with other career constructs such as the structure of interests, academic stability, self-efficacy, contextual supports, etc. Several studies employ certainty of decision making for the assessment of career decision making status (Osipow, Clarke, Carney, Winer, Yanico, and Koschier 1976; Hartung 1995) while career indecisiveness modestly addressed in the body of career choice knowledge until recent past. In recent years, given the rise in career mobility, career indecision has become an increasingly important construct in the field of vocational psychology (Kelly & Lee, 2002). But the personal attribute/s of the decision maker, to be specific, the “personality type” has hardly investigated in connection with the career indecisiveness of adolescence. This
study in the context of undergraduates tests the moderating effect of personality type on the relationship between Career Decision Making Difficulties (CDMD) and Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy (CDMS).

**THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

The concept of career indecision usually includes the individual's difficulties in his/her effort to decisions. These difficulties are traced either before or during the decision-making process, are divided into cognitive or emotional difficulties and hinder the decision-making process (Osipow, Carney & Barak, 1976, Saka & Gati, 2007; Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, 2010). Gati, Krausz & Osipow (1996) developed a taxonomy of difficulties in career decision-making. In this taxonomy, the difficulties were defined as deviations from an ideal career decision-maker—a person who is aware of the need to make a career decision, willing to make such a decision and capable of making the decision—correctly. Any deviation from this model was considered as a potential difficulty that could affect the individual's decision-making process in one of two possible ways: (a) by preventing the individual from making a career decision or (b) by leading to a less optimal career decision. The taxonomy includes three major categories of difficulty: lack of readiness to engage in the career decision-making process, lack of information (about the self, about the steps involved in the process, about the various alternatives and the sources of additional information) and inconsistent information (unreliable information, internal and external conflicts).

Career decision-making is a complex process, by which the decision makers are required to process information about themselves and information about the world of work (Jepsen, 1984). Difficulties in making decisions could occur if decision makers do not possess relevant information, have conflicting information, or do not know how to process the information (Gati, 1986). Difficulties could also arise when the psychological characteristics of the individual interfere with decision-making tasks (Crites, 1969). Many college students struggle with the decisions they have to make about a college major and school to work transition. The first step to assist these young people is to identify, define, and categorize the nature of their difficulties. Hence, empirical research examining the structure and dimension of career decision-making difficulties applicable to youngsters becomes important. Research on career decision-making problems has been largely focused on career indecision (see Slaney, 1988 for a review), and has been investigated without much effort toward integrating theories and empirical evidence (see Slaney, 1988 for a review). The Career Decision-Making Difficulty Questionnaire (CDDQ; Gati, Krausz, & Osipow, 1996) was created to address concerns related to a lack of theoretical focus and multidimensionality in the current instruments. Relying on decision theory, Gati et al. (1996) proposed a hierarchical classification system that assesses 10 difficulty areas in making career decisions which are organized into three major factors, namely (a) lack of readiness, (b) lack of information, and (c) inconsistent information. Lack of readiness is perceived as difficulties before the decision-making process and lack of information and inconsistent information are difficulties during the process.

According to Saka and Gati (2007), career indecision is also a major form of career decision-making difficulty. They defined career indecision to be the difficulties that individuals face while making career-related decisions.
Young people around the world, upon completion of their academic studies in a specific scientific field, find themselves in a difficult position, as they have to move to career decision-making. For many young people, career choice represents a difficult and complicated process that can detain a state of indecision with negative, long-termed consequences in their professional, personal and social life (Osipow, 1999). Recent studies revealed that a significant proportion of university students are undecided about their career paths (Lee, 2005) and that career indecision is related to various cognitive factors, such as career decision-making, self-efficacy (Creed & Patton, 2003), dysfunctional career thoughts (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon & Saunders, 1998), lack of information (Germeijs & De Boeck, 2003), internal-external conflicts (Thompson & Subich, 2006), self-knowledge (Gati & Saka, 2001) and one’s previous working experience (Lent, Brown, Talleyrand, McPartland, Davis, Chopra et al., 2002).

Self-efficacy

Bandura (1977) introduced the concept of self-efficacy with which he declared the individual’s subjective judgment concerning his/her ability to succeed in an activity or to confront a situation. Therefore, self-efficacy does not refer to whether a person is objectively capable or not, but to his personal beliefs whether he has the necessary skills to do something, under various circumstances (Kantas & Hantzi, 1991). According to the theory, the subjective estimation of the person’s skills plays a decisive role in his vocational behavior (Bandura, 1977). Research highlights the decisive effect of self-efficacy perceptions in career decision-making and in the articulated choices (Lent & Hackett, 1994). The higher the self-efficacy level people have concerning the fulfillment of their vocational roles, the higher interest displayed for the certain choices and the greater their persistence in following their career goals (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 2001). Low perception of self-efficacy in the career decision-making blocks the individual from being engaged in possible career choices (Betz & Serling, 1995, cf Betz & Luzzo, 1996). According to other research, young people that feel capable of successfully passing the procedure of career decision-making perceive less personal or external obstacles in the aforementioned procedure (McWhirter, Rasheed & Crothers, 2000) and show certainty in career choices (Argyropoulou, Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou & Besevegis, 2007; Betz, Klein & Taylor, 1996). Indeed, Betz & Voyten (1997) defined self-efficacy, regarding career decision-making, as the most powerful forecasting factor for career indecision.

Personality

Personality is the set of characteristics within an individual influencing his cognitions and behaviors in different contexts. Researchers have considered personality traits differently. Allopr et al (1960) described different trait like central, secondary, common and cardinal traits while Cattell’s (1966) research explored 16 primary and five secondary factors and Eysenck (1968) expressed that only three traits of extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism are enough to explain the personality of individuals (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975). However, today Big Five of Goldberg (1992) is mostly accepted for the personality trait constructs which contain core dimensions of personality. Big five include openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Costa and McCrae, 1985). Though, some personality researchers argue that this list major trait is not exhaustive but their criticism is not well established. Furthermore, clusters argued
by these researchers beyond five cannot easily be determined as personality construct (Saucier and Goldberg, 1998). Therefore, the researchers adopted Big Five as personality describing traits in present article.

Careers itself requires some kind of traits to be performed successfully (Gottfredson et al., 1975). Some career requires specifics personality traits that related to attributes of on job requirements (Caldwell and Burger, 1998). Career success is highly dependent on the compatibility between personality of the incumbents and the job trait requirements (Judge et al., 1999) and for that reason the study argued that alignment or synergy of these traits in accordance with these careers (Witt et al., 2002) can produce optimal goals (Roberts and Robins, 2000) and results in daily life (Judge et al., 1999). Career counselling agenda that help self motives and personality desiring needs seem to enable incumbents to renew uniqueness required on career success patterns for own augmentation (Mcoetzee and Schreuder, 2002). Research suggests that there is a significant relationship between personality type and career choices but in practice wrong career choice are made due to the ignorance of specific personality type of the individuals (Hirschi et al., 2010; Onoyase and Onoyase, 2009). Personality is a complex area of human behavior where researchers are in the process of developing a commonly shared integrated perspective. Empirical findings indicate a variety of personality role in high education depending on how researchers measure personality; however, personality has firmly been recognized as one of significantly influential factors on professional decisions and expectation (Shuliang et al, 2019).

According to Osipow (1999), since Holland’s theory assigns people to various personality types which correspond to career fields, it is conceivable that those who belong to two or more types equally would be likely to be undecided about their careers. Such indecision would most likely result if the two types that the individual scored the highest on were in fields quite different from each other. For example, if a Realistic person scored equally high on the Social scale, a reasonable prediction is that since these two very different types do not lead to careers that would logically include characteristics of both or lead to job settings satisfying both types, the result would be indecision. It is also conceivable that a person with low scores on all of the types would not have interests sufficiently crystallized to permit a commitment to one field to be made. A third possibility is that a person with high scores in all fields would similarly have so many interests that a decision might be hard to make. Therefore, in addressing the challenges of people with multiple personalities, those who reflect minimal traits of all the personalities, and general difficulties encountered by people in making career decisions, career guidance becomes an issue of much essence (Otuei, 2017).

Therefore, this study aims to understand the moderating effect of personality with the relationship between CDMD and CDMS.

**METHODOLOGY**

The study performed a quantitative survey selecting random sample of 106 of level 4 undergraduates from a leading university in Sri Lanka. A self-structured questionnaire was developed where the instruments were adopted from The Big Five Inventory (BFI-10; Rammstedt, B. & John, O. P., 2007, Goldberg & Saucier, 1998), Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ; Gati, Krausz, & Osipow, 1996) and Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy Scale (CDMS-12; Betz, 1996). The responses
for CDMD and CDMS are ranked along a nine-point Likert scale, ranging from does not describe me to describe me well. The responses for Personality Types were ranked based on the scores of big five personality traits, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Accordingly Type A and Type B personalities were identified. The Multiple regression analysis was performed to analyse the data with the aid of SPSS version 21.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The demographic results of the sample depicts that majority of the respondents were female (73%) and 64% of students were identified as type A personalities. The Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the study.

Accordingly the mean value (4.8396) for CDMS indicates that the respondents are having moderate level of confidence regarding their career decisions. And the mean values for CDMD explains that the students are facing moderate level of CDMD.

The results of correlation analysis recorded a statistically significant negative relationship between CDMD and CDMS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. Regression Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Readiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconsistent Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction (ACCD * PT)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a Dependent Variable: Career Decision Making Self Efficacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the above statistics the R² value is .997 which concludes that the CDMD & interaction effect describe 99.7% of the CDMS’s variability.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

This study aims to identify the moderating effect of personality on the relationship between career decision making difficulties and career decision making self-efficacy. The results found that there is a strong negative relationship retains between CDMD & CDMS and this relationship is moderated by Personality Type. The strength of the relationship...
appeared to be strengthen under Weak personalities (Type B) while it is lessened by Strong personalities (Type A). This can be attributed to the power of big five’s to govern the difficulties posed by Lack of Readiness, Lack of information, and Inconsistent information impact the career uncertainty and indecisiveness. This concluded that the relationship between CDMD & CDMS is moderated by personality type.

The theoretical implication of the findings highlights the necessity of accounting the moderating effect of personality type while assessing the impact of CDMD and/or CDMS on other measures at individual level. The practical implication suggests firms/ education institutes to look in to the venues for strengthen the weak personalities so as to reap the complementary effect. Future studies would focus on the association between CDMD and CDMS from a broader perspective in the light of other individual and environmental dynamics.

REFERENCES


THE IMPACT OF PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION ON TOURISTS SATISFACTION: STUDY OF COLOMBO FORT TO GALLE

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to assess tourists’ satisfaction level and transport services in Sri Lanka (case study at Fort to Galle), and to identify the relationship between tourist satisfaction and transport service quality. In this study, five objectives and five questionnaires were developed in the study model. The empirical data were collected from tourists via a survey that yielded 300 usable questionnaires, these data were analyzed using a series of multiple regressions to determine the relationship between public transportation service quality and tourist satisfaction. The findings confirmed that transportation service quality has direct impact on tourist satisfaction throughout transport mode facilities, destination accessibility and destination attraction. As a result, this study argued that there is a significant impact of the public transportation service quality on tourist satisfaction, and therefore service quality plays an important role in tourism by increasing the level of tourist satisfaction. This study provides some theoretical and managerial implications based on the findings to academicians and managers/policy makers of tourism sector. The researcher identified areas for future studies and he discussed the main limitations in this study.

Keywords: tourist’s satisfaction, public transportation, punctuality and reliability, safety and security, service frequency.

INTRODUCTION

Sri Lanka is famous as one of the favorite tourists’ destinations in the world. Positioning of the island in the middle of the Indian ocean helps to attract transit visitors into the island. The government tourist bureau was set up in 1937. The Bureau provided facilities to the large volume of tourists who sailed between the west and east through the port of Colombo on passenger ships (SLTDA 2008).

Sri Lanka’s primary location on the world sea lanes attracted many cruise ships, freighters and other vessels. Passengers that entered the port of Colombo disembarked and enjoyed sightseeing in Colombo, Kandy and their surroundings. Sri Lanka gained independence in 1948 and the new government decided to revive tourist activities by setting up the second Tourist Bureau which came to be known as the Government Tourist Bureau. The Government Tourist Bureau which was set up in 1948 functioned under the Ministry of Commerce for some time and was brought under the Ministry of Defense. At the time of its independence from British rule in 1948, Sri Lanka’s economy was considered much more prosperous than most of its Asian neighbors. Researcher identify the four main tourism industries in Sri Lanka such as heritage tourism industry, beach tourism, cultural tourism and hill and mountain tourism. Nowadays
government develop tourism industry because tourism is one of the major industry to increase income level of the country. Furthermore, government also wants to develop a proper transportation system. The country’s main ports are in Colombo, Galle, Kankasanthur, Hambanota, Trincomalee and Point Pedru (SLTDA 2008).

The loopholes of public transport in Sri Lanka creates number of problems in tourism industry. Lack of public transportation and traffic jams are major issues in many tourists’ destination. According to those issues it’s directly effects on their customer satisfaction level. Furthermore, the facts such as transport inadequacy, centralization, fixity are also effect on tourists’ satisfaction level. The problem statement of this research is to identify that the existing facilities are not enough to fulfill the transportation needs of the tourists. Proving a suitable output after the comparison of tourists’ satisfaction level in tourism industry in order to make it easy to develop the supply of public transportation. Meanwhile special attention is given to find out the factors that enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of the public transportation in order to maximize the satisfaction level of the tourism industry. Due to the high competition of the tourism industry the public transportation should be efficient in order to increase the level of satisfaction of tourists. Increasing level of satisfaction in tourism industry is an essential factor.

This research helps to cover the gap in fulfill the tourists’ satisfaction of the transport system and give the suggestions to increase the many facilities for tourism industry. It’s more important to increase the tourism attraction in Sri Lanka

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Transportation systems can be defined as network that must be connected to travel routes. Natural and cultural resources and livelihoods support tourism. (Bramwell & Lane, 2002). Government plays a significant role in developing the infrastructure to support tourists’ transportation (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2008). According to this statement government has to plays major part to increase tourists’ inflow. Because government has to develop new infrastructure facilities to tourists. Transportation increases the opportunities for travelers who want to visit out-of-town attraction (Matei, 2005) some tourists like to use in public transportation for reach their destination. According to this statement public transport has to add some new facilities passengers its helps to increase opportunities to develop public transportation. Transportation network and infrastructure is some significant factors that affects the success of tourism development. (Prideaux, 2000).

Currie and Falconer (2013) suggested that tourism stakeholders should to increase reliance on transportation systems from central transportation hubs to public transportation areas for delivery to tourist attractions. Culpan (1987) explains the components of international transportation systems that are related to tourism, such as airports, trains specially on beachside railway facilities, as well as public transportation. Hall (1999) proposes that transportation is important to a tourism system.

According to this statement transportation is one of the major element to effect on the tourism satisfaction. If government wants to develop the tourism system also should develop the transportation system. Blancheton and Marchi (2013) suggested that rail tourism systems are an effective approach to tourism sustainability because rail systems
can bring many people to tourist attractions at once and are safe for the environment. Furthermore, if develop the tourism authorities have focus on environment. Because tourists are more attract on environmental behavior. Key success factors for leisure and tourist transportation involve target group identification, catchment areas, situations regarding motorized individual traffic, and intensive, creative, and continuous market communication (Gronau & Kagermeier, 2007). Many development activities that support tourism may bring negative consequences to the environment.

Measuring customer satisfaction with public transport services is an important topic in transportation research and practice. To improve services and increase the number of customers, providers need to understand how much customer expectations have actually been fulfilled. Customer surveys are critical, as they provide transport operators with valuable information such as what aspects are important for customers and what they are particular happy or unhappy about.

Customer satisfaction is defined as satisfaction based on an outcome that characterizes satisfaction as the end-state resulting from the experience of consumption, or a process that emphasizing the perceptual, evaluative and psychological processes contributing to customer satisfaction (Varvara, 1997). This definition, assessment of satisfaction is made during the service delivery process. Customer satisfaction can also be defined as feeling of the post utilization that the consumers experience from their purchase (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991; Um et al., 2006). Felleson and Friman (2008) reported on an annual transnational public transport customer satisfaction study in eight European cities (Stockholm, Barcelona, Copenhagen, Geneva, Helsinki, Vienna, Berlin, Manchester, and Oslo). Four satisfaction dimensions were delineated from a factor analysis of 17 attribute-related statements, system, comfort, staff, and safety. However, the results were not consistent in all cities, meaning that public transport services were perceived differently. Several factors contribute to the variation of customer perceptions, including those related to management has to find out solutions for how the services were provided to personal group. It is the feeling of happiness or unhappiness as a result of comparing the perceived performance of services or products with the expected performance. If the perceived performance does not meet the expected performance, then the customer will feel disappointed or dissatisfied (Kotler, 2008). A consumer is deemed to be satisfied upon the experience weighted sum total produce a feeling of enjoyment when compared with the expectation.

In tourism studies, customer satisfaction is the visitor’s state of emotion after they experiencing their tour (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Sanchez et al., 2006). Customer satisfaction is one the most areas being researched in many tourism studies due to its importance in determining the success and the continued existence of the tourism business. Destination holiday’s customer satisfaction is the extent of overall enjoyment that the tourists feel, the result that the tour experience able to fulfil the tourists” desires, expectation, needs and wants from the tour” (Chen and Tsai, 2007).

In study of customer satisfaction with public transport in Indonesia, Budiono (2009) identified two groups of service attribute. The “soft quality” factor includes security issues and comfort, and the “functionality quality” consists of frequency, travel time, punctuality, and time, with the latter being the more influential on levels of the customer satisfaction. In contrast, Tyrinopoulos and Antoniou (2008) emphasized the differences of customer perception.
between different transit operators due to their specific characteristics and service conditions. In general, the most important satisfaction attributes across transit operators are service frequency, vehicle cleanliness, waiting conditions, transfer distance, and network coverage. However, the results are varied among transit systems. For instance, vehicle cleanliness, staff behavior, and ticketing systems are the most important attributes for metro (subway) operators. In the case of bus operators, customers stressed service frequency, vehicle cleanliness, and network coverage. A well-coordinated and reliable transportation environment is strongly preferred by all users. In their study of Swedish residents in Göteborg, Friman, Edvardsson, and Gärling (2001), and Friman and Gärling (2001) indicated a relationship between frequency of negative critical incidents and satisfaction with public transport (low frequency led to increased satisfaction). Moreover, the authors believed staff behavior was of significant importance in customer perception, along with service reliability, simplicity of information and design.

Tourists exhibited a diverse perceptions and transport attitudes. Their satisfaction with transport is influenced by several factors. According to this statement those factors differs by different countries. According to that particular country economy. Stradling et al. (2007) argued that age and frequency of use are the most influential while factors such as household income, car availability and gender are less significant. Thompson and Schofield (2007) studied the relationship between public transport performance and destination satisfaction. According to this statement showed that tourists evaluation of public transport performance slightly influenced their satisfaction with destination. Furthermore, these authors emphasized by, the importance of public transport’s ease-of-use as it has great impact on satisfaction than efficiency and safety. Public transport is considered as an additional tourism product, which adds to the total tourist experience. However, despite high investment costs and potential value, some public transport systems are still not favored by visitors (Bramwell, 1998).

Service quality is defined as what the customer gets out and is willing to pay for” rather than “what the supplier puts in (Ducker, 1991). Tourists like pay for facilities but those facilities must have satisfied their expectations. Service quality has been defined to the extent where the service fulfils the needs or expectation of the customers has conceptualized service quality as the overall impression of customers towards the service weakness or supremacy. Per this statement service quality is most important factor for satisfaction level. Service quality is encouraging or discourage tourists’ inflow. Parasuraman et al. (1988) introduced the SERVQUAL model to measure service quality including 22 items in five dimensions: reliability, tangible, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy.

These dimensions have specific service characteristic link to the expectation of customers. The SERVQUAL scale was developed in the marketing context and this was supported by the Marketing Science Institute. Even though this model as an instrument has been used in various studies in across industries, the SERVQUAL has received many criticisms from other scholars (e.g., Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Brown et al., 1993). However, there are many researchers opposed the use of SERVQUAL to measure service quality due to the industry characteristics differences. Other previous researches confirmed that SERVQUAL instrument is applicable in tourism industry (Fick and Ritchie, 1991; Yuan et al., 2005; Shaikh and Khan, 2011). Medlik and Middleton (1973) noted that „the tourist product is to
be considered as an amalgam of three main components of attractions, facilities at the destination and accessibility of the destination'. In other words, the tourist product is 'not as airline seat or a hotel bed, or relaxing on a sunny beach but rather an amalgam of many components, or a package'. While, Middleton and Clarke (2001) indicated that there are five main components in the overall product, and their destination attractions and environment, destination facilities and services, accessibility of the destination, images of the destination, and Price to the consumer.

**Destination attractions and environment**

These are the component elements within the destination that largely determine tourists' choice and influence their motivations to visit that destination. They include Natural attractions, such as landscape, seascape, beaches, climate, flora and fauna and other geographical features of the destination and its natural resources. Built attractions such as buildings and tourism infrastructure including historic and modern architecture, monuments, promenades, parks and gardens, convention centers, marinas, ski slopes, industrial archaeology, managed visitor attractions generally, golf courses, specialty shops and themed retail area. Cultural attractions such as history and folklore, religion and art, theatre, music, dance and other entertainment, and museums. Social attractions, such as way of life and customs of resident or host population, language and opportunities for social encounters.

**Destination facilities and services**

These are the component elements located in the destination, which make it possible for visitors to stay and to enjoy in that destination. They included accommodation unit, such as hotels, holiday villages, apartments, villas, campsites, caravan parks, hostels, condominiums, farms, guesthouses, restaurants, bars and café's, ranging from fast-food through to luxury restaurants. Tourists satisfaction level depend on transport at the destination, such as taxis, coaches, car rental, cycle hire. Sports/interest activity, such as ski schools, sailing schools, golf clubs and spectator stadiums and centers for pursuit of arts and crafts and nature studies. Other facilities and services, such as language schools, health clubs. Retail outlets: shops, travel agents, souvenirs, camping supplies information services, equipment rental, tourism police.

Government regulations, such as the range of regulatory controls over transport operations (Middleton and Hawkins, 1998). A study conducted by Karim and Geng-Qing Chi (2010), they confirmed that destinations' food image influenced travelers' visit intention positively. While Awaritefe (2004) found that the most prominent motivations for tourism destinations choice in a third world country are, self-actualization in an appreciative, educational or cultural context and leisure pursuits. Attractiveness of destination, quality services, facilities/amenities, favorable location and accessibility of centers also emerged as important considerations in tourist destination choice.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Conceptualization Framework**

As per the research objectives and literature review following
conceptualization framework has been showed,

Flow chart: Independent and Dependent variables

According to the above diagram (Figure 1) Dependent variable could be taken as tourists’ satisfaction level on public transportation meanwhile punctuality of buses and trains, safety and security on public transportation, service frequency of public transportation and comfortability of public transportation are considered as Independent variables

Data Analytical Tools

As soon as the data collection is finalized analysis of data will begin. In order to carry out a more comprehensive analysis of the data using factor analysis. Factor analysis is closely related to principal components analysis (on the correlation matrix), but, unlike principal components analysis, it is based on a specific statistical model. Factor analysis should not be blindly applied to a dataset with several variables hoping that some underlying patterns would be uncovered, instead, a theoretical motivation should drive factor analysis applications.

DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The statistical information for the given research was gathered by dint of passenger satisfaction survey. Therefore, researcher composed a questionnaire which was based on research form 300 selected passengers who have been in researchers’ case study areas. According to researcher’s own experience, people do not tend to spend much time on answering survey questions. Therefore, only 13 questions were included to this particular questionnaire. As is customary, questionnaires normally contain questions of different types. Therefore, the research survey was comprised of 5 closed questions, 3 open questions, 3 scale questions and 2 dichotomous question. The survey was logically divided into three parts due to their belonging to certain topics. The first part of questionnaire comprehended 4 questions that were aimed at define informants’ general attributes such as gender, age, country of residence and their traveling preferences. The main goal of questionnaires’ second part was tourists’ satisfaction level related with public transportation. It included just three questions which could be also named as introductory questions to the main part of the survey. Question number 6 formed the backbone for the analytical section of the current research as researcher was intended to collect the most essential data about respondents’ attitudes and opinions towards public transportation service facilities. Open questions in the third part of survey were mainly aimed at inquiring people’s suggestions how public transport facilities can be improved. It is always better to ask directly from consumers than trying to find possible hints from theory as passengers always know what they want to obtain at the end. Researcher process of data analyzing MS excel and SPSS were used.

Reliability Test of the Study
Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results. That measure how much that reliable for the study.

According to Tavakol & Dennick (2011), Alpha was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to provide a measure of the internal consistency of a test of scale, it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. The number of test items, its inter-relatedness and dimensionality are the things to affect this Cronbach Alpha value. The range of acceptance level is 0.7-1.

Researcher selected 300 respondents to check the reliability of the research instrument. If the respondents provide the same respond every time if the instrument provided to them, consider as there is reliability. Reliability is concern as often risky because subjectiveness of the response might be varying according to the situation of the respondents. Researcher tests the validity of the independent and dependent variable to identify how far variables are reliable.

### Summary of Reliability Test

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<th>Table 1: Summary of reliability test</th>
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<tr>
<td>Punctuality and Reliability</td>
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<td>Safety and Security</td>
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<td>Service Frequency</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comfortability</td>
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<td>Satisfaction level of Tourists</td>
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Descriptive Statistics

In this study, descriptive statistics reflect demographic information of respondents.

As it is clearly seen from chart 1, the majority of respondents are males (153 respondents). Only 138 females (46%) took part in the survey. 3% tourists (9 respondents) are not prefer to say their gender.

The pie chart represented above in chart 2 deals with the age of respondents. It is clearly seen from the chart that the biggest age group is people at the age of 18-24.60 participants (20%) said that their age is on the interval from 25-34. The smallest number very presented by adult categories...
48 respondents at the age 35-44 (16%) and only 18 persons older than 45 (6%).

The reason behind the great majority of respondents are young people was social media networks (online) were used by researcher.

The pie chart represented above in figure 3 deals with the employment status. It is clearly seen from the chart that the biggest group of people are students. There were 51% who identified themselves as students in young generation. 37% participants said that there are employed people. The same percentage of people are unemployed and self-employed, that is 6% there were no informants about retired and other employment status.

The chart represented above in Chart 4 illustrates the list of countries that respondents consider as their nationality. According to questionnaire most tourists were represent Australia and United Kingdom. The second majority came from Italy at 9.9%.

The pie chart represented above illustrates what are the reasons tourists are visit their destination. According to above pie chart 264 respondents are visit for rest and relaxation it’s took part 88% in this chart. Most tourists travel for their rest and relaxation it is evident that Sri Lanka is one of the best countries which tourists can relax themselves.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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The chart represented above in Chart 4 illustrates the list of countries that respondents consider as their nationality. According to questionnaire most tourists
Correlation analysis suggests that all four independent variables have positive relationship with tourists’ satisfaction. Out of those, the relationship between Punctuality and Reliability of transport services and tourists’ satisfaction is insignificant. It seems that tourists are expecting delays in transportation schedules and cancellation of schedules within the South Asian countries like Sri Lanka. On the other hand, the study was based on Colombo fort to Galle which has many alternative travel modes as well.

The relationships between Safety/Security, Frequency of service, Comfortability have significant positive relationship with Tourists’ satisfaction. Specially, there is a significant positive relationship between Comfortability and Tourists’ satisfaction at 0.05 level.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

The research findings have demonstrated that overseas visitors not only use different information sources to local users, but also use the same source to different degrees. Sri Lanka has a public transportation system which has less punctuality and reliability and It seems tourists are aware about that fact. Therefore visitors may willing to change their traveling modes if things get changed. But generally, tourists don’t like to looking for much time at terminal or any other station for their transport mode. Firstly, policy makers should have to investigate each and every terminal and station or at least particular authority party should have to focus on main terminals and stations. Therefore, it is recommended to examine further the influence of punctuality and reliability on tourists’ choice of public transportation and broader implications this may have for yield.

Secondly, the traditional view that public transport riders (such as bus driver) have not driven in safety such their drive not in good manner. That has significant impact on tourist’s satisfaction level. According to the test results satisfaction level heavily depends on the security of visitors. Responsible parties should focus on how to improve the safety and security levels of public transportation in Sri Lanka.

Next, the service frequency of public transportation, as stated above, is important in short distances. The development of it will make the tourists’ travel through highways which will be secure and efficient. In order to develop the automobile transportation, the countries may have to build new highways, rebuild older ones, and build motels and restaurants along the highway. Consequently it will lead to the development of tourism in the country. Finally, public transportation is likely to be judged not only on the basis of punctuality and reliability, safety and security and service frequency but also on comfortability.

Since the public transport authority has direct control over less than one quarter of the comfortability of public transportation which overseas tourists to Sri Lanka use, the quality of public transportation is largely out of their control. Therefore need for greater cooperation between the public transport authority and service quality is required in order to ensure the comfortability of public transportation for the tourists.

**CONCLUSION**

Transport is an essential element in Tourism. As tourism cannot exist without transport, sustainable tourism strongly links to sustainable mobility. Public transport plays a vital role in sustainable
tourism development. However, there is little information on tourists’ use of public transport at the destinations. This paper contributes to the understanding of tourists’ satisfaction with public transport and the factors influence their perception. Four service dimensions were identified, which are punctuality and reliability, safety and security, service frequency and comfortability. Public transport services in Fort to Galle were positively evaluated by the tourists and their perceptions are independent from these major factors. Therefore, this study suggests that the quality of tourism services has a positive impact on the level of tourist satisfaction by enhancing destination facilitates, destination accessibility and destination attractions. Transport infrastructure plays a key role in destination development. As a vital component of the tourism system, sustainable transport is also essential for sustainable tourism. Understanding tourist’s public transportation use at the destination is therefore important to motivate sustainable mobility. This paper provided an overview of research in public transportation and tourism. Some major conclusions could be drawn.

There are differences in the level of public transport use by tourists between rural and urban destinations. Public transport tends not to be attractive for visitors in remote areas, whereas the situation is more promising in urban areas. Although there is no indication that city visitors are more aware of their environmental impacts nor that they show preferences for public transportation. The differences can be interpreted with respect to issues of convenience and comfort. In most cases, public transportation in the cities is more accessible and reliable and thus is more attractive. As researcher observed, a high-quality public transport system motivates use tourists. Improving the services of public transportation, including in rural destinations, is therefore critical if tourism planners are to encourage a modal shift by tourists.

REFERENCES


WOMEN AT WORK: ARE THE STEPS TO THE TOP FRAGILE? AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON WOMEN’S CAREER ADVANCEMENT IN THE SRI LANKAN PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT

In the Sri Lankan public education system, school and government educational administrative positions are those in which a teacher can advance in his/her career path. Though women teaching at public schools in Sri Lanka comprise of more than three-fourths of the total teaching population, female representation in school administration as well as in government educational administration is low when compared to female representation in the teaching profession in Sri Lanka. By exploring afore mentioned context through this study, it exposes the issues and problems that block advancement opportunities for women in administrative positions in the public educational system. Primary data of the study were generated through conducting ten in-depth interviews with women who are currently employed in the public educational sector. The data were analyzed using thematic analysis and three theoretical concepts, namely, the Glass Ceiling, the Glass Escalator and the Queen Bee syndrome were when interpreting the analyzed data. Findings of the study reveal that women face many obstacles when attempting to gain administrative positions, mainly due to gender bias which results in certain sociocultural and behavioral barriers. Therefore, indirectly, this context has created an advantage for men when they compete for these administrative positions in the public educational system in Sri Lanka. Thus, the researcher argues that the fragility of career steps occurs due to certain features of Sri Lankan culture which is based on patriarchal values, where the notion of “womanhood” is largely shaped by men and is built up within the socialization process of women.

Key words: Administrative Positions, Career Advancement, Glass Ceiling, Glass Escalator, Queen Bee Syndrome

INTRODUCTION

According to the ‘population and housing census 2011’ women represent the majority of the population, being 51.60% of the total population. The privilege of free education is provided in Sri Lanka to both men and women. Sri Lanka is a high performing nation in the field of Human Resource Development and in the year 2010, Sri Lanka satisfied the Millennium Development Goal of ‘Universal Primary Education’. According to demographic statistics, women represent 52% of the total population of the Island. However, where the participation of women in decision making and legislation of the country is concerned, extremely few are in decision making positions in the country. Since it had only 5.78% representation of women in the lower house of Parliament in Sri Lanka, based on data from 190 countries collected by the Inter-Parliamentary Union as of 1 April 2015, Sri Lanka was
ranked 130th out of 139 countries, a very low rank indeed. Leadership in trade unions, which have some degree of political clout, has traditionally been male dominated (Asian Development Bank, 2015: 6; original emphasis).

When it comes to the context of women in teaching and administrative positions in the Sri Lankan government school system, once a teacher has progressed through the Sri Lankan Teacher Education Service grade levels, further career advancement leads from the classroom to administrative positions such as that of a principal. Other careers pathways open to teachers include: in-service advisor, working in a particular zone and providing in-service skills training to teachers; and becoming a teacher-educator in one of the colleges of education. Teachers and principals with the necessary qualifications and experience can apply for posts in the Sri Lankan Education Administration Service or to become a Commissioner in the Examinations Department after qualifying in a competitive examination. According to the Sri Lankan Educational Statistics (2016) the representation of women as teachers in government owned primary and secondary schools in Sri Lanka is 75% of the total teacher population. However, their representation as principals and educational administrators is 32% and 57%, respectively. Though the representation of women in teaching/pedagogical positions in public schools in Sri Lanka is more than three-fourths of the total teaching population, statistical evidence clearly reveals that women are underrepresented in school administration as well as in other educational administration spheres compared to women’s representation in the teaching profession in Sri Lanka. Therefore, this is identified as a significant gender related scenario in the Sri Lankan public education system. In this context, this empirical study intends to explore the reason/s for women’s underrepresentation in school and educational administrative positions when compared to women’s representation in the teaching profession in the Sri Lankan public school education system, by identifying the barriers that prevent opportunities for the advancement of women into administrative positions which are available to them during the latter part of their teaching careers. Subsequently, the researcher has evaluated the applicability of ‘feminine’ qualities and matriarchal norms to women teachers’ advancement to and performance in administrative positions in the Sri Lankan public education system.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Women and gender related studies have a vital place in interdisciplinary fields of study and it is identified as an important category which has links to various spheres such as the socio-cultural, economic, and political spheres as well as to the contemporary work context. Gender is a phenomenon which has been defined variously by many scholars, feminists among them, since it does not have an exact definition Gender is not only a grammatical term. To talk of persons or creatures of the masculine or feminine gender, meaning of the male or female sex, is either a jocularity (permissible or not according to the context) or a blunder (Fowler, 1940). According to Scott (1986), in its most recent usage, ‘gender’ seems to have first appeared among American feminists who wanted to insist on the fundamentally social quality of distinctions based on sex. The word ‘gender’ denoted a rejection of the biological determinism implicit in the use of such terms as ‘sex’ or ‘sexual difference. The literature asserts that ‘sexism,’ which refers to the belief that one sex is innately superior to the other, has frequently emphasized that the man and masculinity is somehow more elite and more honored than woman and
Simone de Beauvoir (1949), in her groundbreaking work “The Second Sex” examines the reasons why women have been forced to accept a secondary place in society compared to men. She questions why women are considered to be secondary persons, despite the fact that women constitute half of the human race. She supports her arguments with data from biology, physiology, ethnology, anthropology, mythology, folklore, philosophy and economics, and documents the status of women throughout history, from the age of hunter-gatherers to the mid-20th century. Butler (1990) problematizes the difference between sex as a naturally given category and gender as a socio-culturally constructed category. She argues that sex is also a socially constructed category which exists as part of social and cultural practices and exists in the context of a discourse that has a history and its own social and political dynamics.

Areas such as mentoring, networking, power, sexual harassment, the glass ceiling and sex-based discrimination, career-advancement, corporate mobility, opportunity structures, personal development, relational development, work-life balance, career interruptions, women’s leadership, organizational turnover, and human resources policies have all become well-known study areas in the broad category “women and career”. The study done by O’Neil, Hopkins and Bilimoira (2008) identifies patterns that cumulatively contribute to the current understanding of women’s careers and the associated paradoxes emerging from these patterns. They conclude that male-defined constructions of work and career success continue to dominate organizational research and practice. Theory building and testing of women’s career development continues to draw heavily on frameworks and conceptions derived from male constructions of work and careers (O’Neil et al., 2008). The study of Powell, Butterfield and Parent (2002) supports O’Neil et al. (2008), while uncovering some other modern career patterns and paradoxes which are associated with women’s careers. According to Powell et al. (2002), stereotypically masculine traits are still equated more with sound management practices than are stereotypically feminine traits. Powell’s argument is highly applicable to the context of Asian cultures as well. Patriarchal societies are generally male dominated. Many women in male dominated societies actually prefer to be controlled by men. That preference has been ingrained in them through early socialization processes. According to Ragins (1998), women in managerial positions are forced to develop managerial styles that are not particularly masculine or feminine, but rather, are acceptable to male colleagues, supervisors and subordinates.

When it comes to administrative positions in public school education systems, men are allocated higher positions while women occupy the lower ranks (Addi-Racah, 2002). In spite of the intense feminization of the teaching profession and the perception that teaching is a female occupation, men nonetheless have receive a higher status than women within the educational system, and there is a clear ranking of jobs, with men being preferred for positions of principals of schools (Addi-Racah, 2002). Though school teaching has become a largely feminine occupation, men have preserved their dominance and hegemony by moving to positions of leadership, leaving women as simple teachers (Addi-Raccah & Ayalon, 2002). As per Uwizeyimana and Mathevula (2014), while there seem to be no gender based difference in features such as family responsibilities, lack of aspiration to management positions, lack of mobility, female educators’ fitness to hold management positions and lack of
supportive networks being the main barriers to female educators’ promotion in school management positions, gender based differences exist in other factors such as lack of support from male colleagues, gender stereotyping, and female educators’ uncertainty about their own abilities to manage. Stereotyping, culture and tradition, low level of women’s education, perceived lack of confidence/self-esteem, and lack of mentorship are identified as the factors which affect underrepresentation of women in positions as principals (Mogra, 2013). There are three sources of gender inequality in educational administration. The first pertains to the individual level, such as ambitions, ability, or concurrent responsibilities; the second to the organizational or occupational context in which a person works, such as screening procedures and occupational vacancies; and the third source is related to the wider social context such as the labor-market structure or sex role stereotypes (Reihl & Byrd, 1997 cited in Addi-Raccah & Ayalon, 2002). Women in educational workplaces can be uplifted by facilitating better environments for women in the educational workplace, by highlighting the way gender functions in the school administration by discussing these issues widely, by changing the way language is used, by positively encouraging women to apply to positions of power, and by supporting women in those positions of power; and when women are given spaces to thrive, it is certain that the education system will be much more diverse, nuanced, and conducive to equality (Harrison, 2014). How have women shaped leadership in education? What do women principals, superintendents, deans and directors do with their relatively recently acquired power? What can they do? And on what must they keep a vigilant eye to maintain this toehold in educational leadership? These questions are even more important in light of some recent global changes in societies as a result of the far-reaching economic crisis (Grogan, 2010). The related literature supports the thesis in order to restate and justify the phenomenon which the researcher intended to the study.

**The Glass Ceiling and the Glass Escalator**

The “Glass Ceiling” and the “Glass Escalator” are ubiquitous theories used by researchers examining women’s careers, women and leadership, women’s career development, and women and work. According to Burke (1997), women in all developing countries face a glass ceiling to advancement to senior management in medium and large organizations. The term “Glass ceiling” refers to “the unseen, yet unbreachable barrier that keeps women from rising to the upper rung of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements” (Mishra, 2014). In other words, the concept of the ‘glass ceiling’ refers to the various barriers that prevent qualified women from advancing upward in their organizations into management positions (Chauma & Ncube, 2010). The barriers that prevent women from ascending to senior management positions in large corporations have often been described by the metaphor “glass ceiling”, which is a transparent barrier which prevents women from moving up the corporate ladder past a certain point (Morrison et al. 1987 cited in Jayawardane and Sajeewani, 2015). According to Williams (1992), when men and women compete for the same position, men have an advantage even in a female-dominated occupation like teaching. Many of the men perceived their token status as males in predominantly female occupations as an advantage in hiring and promotions (Williams, 1992). Williams (2013) revisited her argument on the concept of the ‘Glass Escalator’ related to males in female dominant professions and identified two major limitations of the
concept: (1) it fails to adequately address inter-sectionality; in particular, it fails to theorize race, sexuality, and class; and (2) it was based on the assumptions of traditional work organizations, which are undergoing rapid transformation in our neo-liberal era. The glass escalator assumes stable employment, career ladders, and widespread support for public institutions (e.g., schools and libraries), but those conditions rarely characterize the job market today (Williams, 2013).

**METHODOLOGY**

The nature of the research question, the researcher intended to explore directed him to locate his study in the interpretivist paradigm of the qualitative approach to researching. An interpretivist researcher aims to see the world through the eyes of the people being studied, allowing them multiple perspectives on reality, rather than the one, unshakeable reality espoused by positivism (Greener, 2008). Further, this study undertaken through the qualitative approach deals with the personal experiences, feelings, emotions, values, and perceptions of the participants and the researcher as well as with the social phenomena being studied. According to Silverman (2000), the methods used by qualitative researchers exemplify a common belief that they can provide a deeper understanding of social phenomena than would be obtained from purely quantitative data. In this study, the researcher we adopted the case study design focusing on a detailed analysis of the phenomenon of underrepresentation of women in administrative positions in the education sector in Sri Lanka. The researcher selected the case study design in order to gain insight through a deep exploration of the phenomenon under study and to deal successfully with the complexity inherent in it. Moreover, the case study design provides an opportunity for a specific aspect of the problem to be studied in depth within a limited time. Also, the inductive approach is adopted which leads to the subsequent theorization of the results from the data analysis, discussion and findings. When the predominant research strategy is qualitative, a case study tends to take an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research (Bryman & Bell, 2010). Yin (1994) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly defined.

The participants were selected from four zones of four administrative districts in Sri Lanka. The Dimbulagala zone in the Polonnaruwa district in the North Central province, the Balangoda zone in the Ratnapura district in the Sabaragamuwa province and the Piliyandala zone in the Colombo district and the Horana and Mathugama zones in the Kalutara district in the Western province were the locations selected. The population of the study was all female teachers, principals and education directors in the Sri Lankan public school education system. By using the purposive sampling technique, ten women who are currently occupied in pedagogical and administrative positions in the system were selected as the sample. According to Greener (2008), in purposive sampling, the researcher uses his/her own judgment to select a sample. In qualitative research, purposive sampling is often used when the samples and populations are small. This qualitative, case study research also used a small sample, targeting an in-depth interpretation by using the information gathered from the participants. Data were collected from primary and secondary data sources. The primary data for the analysis was gathered via one to one and a half hour semi structured in-depth interviews conducted with each and every participant.
Interviews are one of the most commonly recognized forms of qualitative research (Mason, 2002). The secondary data were gathered mainly from the Data Management Branch of the Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka. The thematic analysis technique was used as the data analysis technique. Thematic analysis is an approach where meanings and concepts are extracted from the data and includes pinpointing, examining, and recording patterns or themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). During the research process, the researcher was conscious about adhering to all the necessary ethical considerations.

DATA ANALYSIS

Four female school teachers (Shiromala, Chandrika, Manel and Jayanthi), four female school principals (Neela, Srima, Kumariand Mahesha) and two educational directors (Kusum and Anula) were selected as the sample in order to gather primary data using semi-structured in-depth interviews. When analyzing the qualitative data gathered from these participants, thematic analysis was utilized as the method of analysis. This involves categorizing ideas frequently expressed by the respondents and identifying meaningful themes and patterns that emerge. Three main themes were identified through the interview records (transcripts), and under the third theme, the researcher identified eight sub themes which exposed the barriers which hinder women from getting into administrative positions during their career paths. All the themes were comprehensively analyzed and critically discussed by applying theoretical models to understand real life scenarios in order to provide an understanding of women in the public education system in Sri Lanka, to identify significant behavioral patterns of these women and to identify the problems they face when advancing into administrative positions.

Women’s perceptions of their current positions in their careers

One theme focused on participants’ points of view on the position that they currently occupy and their preference, or otherwise, to advance to administrative positions in their career. Their attitudes to the position in which they are currently occupied were sought by the researcher during the interview.

“I think the students are more attracted and close to the female teachers more than the male teachers. As a female teacher she can act the role of a mother within the school because the mother is closer to the children than the father”. (Shiromala, a teacher)

“I feel proud of being a principal, because I feel I have taken over the responsibility of building the future of this country. Parents hand over their children to us to make them a resource. We enrich the student not only with subject knowledge, but also with skills and attitudes”. (Srima, principal)

Here, the principal attributes qualities of a mother to the female teacher. A mother is the very first teacher of a child, and within the role of a mother she incorporates the role of a teacher. A mother enriches the lives of her children and guides them to a better future; teachers also enrich the lives of their students, imparting knowledge, skills and values, and attempt to ensure a better future for them as well. Therefore, the roles of mother and female teacher are sometimes interchangeable, and both can ensure the wellbeing of their children/students. Teachers, therefore, can necessarily be proud about their job role and its outcomes.

Significant characteristics of female administrators in the public education system

This section analyzes the significant characteristics of women in administrative
positions, specifically how women’s inherent matriarchal characteristics help to ensure success in their careers.

“A female principal can act the mother’s role in the school. Although society claims that the woman’s brain is only the length of a spoon handle, I think women have greater ability to foresee the future than men. A woman has neatness, tidiness and the desire to see a successful end to a task... when she goes to school, she sees that the flowering plants are dying, that the physical assets of the school are thrown here and there, she feels it more than a man. Because even at home she carefully handles those things.” (Neela, a Principal)

“When we go to schools which are administered by women, the surroundings of the schools are very attractive. Most of the time they plant flowers and you can see a clean environment. Also the working environment is peaceful. Female principals can show more mercy and lovely-kindness towards their teachers than men... I am the one and only female principal who administer a Maha Vidyalaya in this zone. I think I am much more progressive compared to male principals in other schools. My performance has been praised even in evaluation meetings at the zonal education office”. (Srima, a Principal)

Generally, the working environment in schools which are administered by women is congenial. It is claimed that women are more peaceful, tolerant and less aggressive than men. Therefore, when a woman is administering a school, she is able to preserve the peace and perform successfully by using her inherent matriarchal and feminine values, even though it is generally assumed that success goes hand in hand with masculinity.

Problems female teachers face/d when they advance/d to administrative positions

Here, the barriers which women face when they attempt to advance to administrative positions are analyzed. Through data analysis, it was possible to identify eight factors which hinder women’s advancement to administrative positions in their teaching careers. These are as follows:

1. ‘Cultural and social influence’ is identified as a prominent issue which female teachers face when they attempt to advance to administrative positions. Here, the influence of the traditional, male dominant, patriarchal value system, inherent societal attitudes and gender stereotyping in society are taken into account.

“When I was appointed to the Maha Vidyalaya, some people had spread bad rumors that women cannot administer this school and they cannot perform much better. I think this attitude comes from our culture. Most people think that the administration must be done only by men”. (Neela, a Principal)

2. ‘Role conflict and familial responsibilities’ is identified as another significant barrier. The study results reveal that women have to play multiple roles in their personal and career lives, much more than men, and the conflict among these many roles hinders women when they attempt to break into administrative positions in their teaching careers.

“I have a fear that I will not be able to look after my parents and husband’s parents if I become busier. I have to look after my own child because she is at the age that she wants my affection and attention. My husband is a government officer. Every day he reaches home very tired after work. So I must look after him. Balancing all of these spheres I must be at school at 7.30 sharp in the morning because my little ones in school are waiting for me” (Jayanthi, a teacher)

3. ‘Lack of sufficient family support’ is identified as another prominent issue which pulls women down when they attempt to advance to administrative positions. As per the results of the analysis, women do not have enough
family support from their spouses and children.

“Even in marriage, some men deliberately choose female teachers as their partners because as teachers they can teach their own children. And also after school they have more time to engage in housekeeping activities. In that context, such husbands never bother to encourage or support their wives to apply for administrative positions”. (Shiromala, a teacher)

4. Several women stated that they ‘do not have enough support or encouragement from the women who have already achieved elite positions in their career’. This attitude indirectly acts as a barrier to female teachers when they are trying to climb into the administrative positions which are available to them along the promotional ladder.

“I never had significant support from a woman who was already a director. I worked twenty five years as a school teacher. I had to undertake this journey on my own two feet”. (Kusum, a deputy Zonal Education Director)

5. Some women are ‘unwilling to undertake and perceive themselves as being incapable of shouldering the responsibilities attached to the position’. Unwillingness to devote time and effort to the duties and the responsibilities of the position is identified as another barrier that female teachers must surmount when they are trying to gain administrative positions.

“Most female teachers do not come to the administrative field because they need to work only between 7.30am- 1.30pm. “They do not like to sacrifice their personal lives for their careers. If I take my life, I depart from the house early in the morning at about six and I arrive at school at about six thirty. If one is a good principal, one must be at school before all the students and teachers arrive. Every woman cannot devote such dedication to their profession.”(Srima, a Principal)

6. ‘Lack of self-esteem and self confidence’ is identified as another key barrier. Some women have become satisfied with their current position and state that it was sufficient for them.

“I feel… this is enough for me. I have no big aspirations in my life. I like to live a simple life with my child and husband. My husband cultivates tea. His earnings and my salary from teaching is enough to provide a good education to my child and for us to have a fulfilling family life. So, now I do not feel the need to apply for the position of principal”(Manel, a teacher).

7. Some women believe that their personality is not compatible with the personality required of an administrator or a leader. The qualities that Neela claims are necessary for a principal are not in the makeup of many female teachers.

“I feel that I have good leadership skills such as dedication, ambition, vision…etc. and good virtues such as faith, credibility, honesty, and fear and shame … all these personality traits are inside me.”(Neela, a Principal)

8. Some women believe that there should be a strong national policy to empower women to aspire to upper administrative positions. They believe that this type of policy is still illusive in Sri Lanka. Therefore, Sri Lanka not having well established policies is identified as another barrier.

“I had been waiting for twenty five years as a teacher to reach this position. I was promoted to this position through a competitive examination. But in those days there were no competitive examinations. People were assigned to these positions based on personal relationships and political affiliations. Due to this reason my career journey has been delayed”.(Kusum, a deputy Zonal Educational Director)

Therefore, the barriers that hinder female teachers in their career progress to administrative positions are the most
important finding emerging from the study.

**DISCUSSION**

A mother nurtures her children and guides them towards a better future; teachers also inspire their students with knowledge, skills and values, and guide them towards a better future. Therefore, a mother can easily play the role of a teacher and a female teacher can also sometimes play the role of a mother. According to empirical evidence from the study of Kelleher (2011), it is quite clear that there is a strong association between teaching as a profession and traditional gender roles that align themselves with women’s long-held responsibilities in the domestic sphere, suggesting that while women may no longer be confined exclusively to this sphere, their role in the public sphere is very much influenced by it. Therefore, there is a close relationship between these two roles.

It is also clear that women who have reached administrative positions are putting their ‘feminine’ qualities to use quite successfully (for example, concern for others, devotion, caring, supportiveness, and emphasis on human interactions), and through them attempt to achieve better performance and success as administrators. It is a generally held belief that it is necessary to be aggressive in order to be successful (Singh-Sengupta, 2006). Stereotypically masculine traits are still equated with better management practices, more so than are stereotypically feminine traits (Powell, Butterfield & Parent, 2002). However, these women participants in the Sri Lankan public school administration system point out that feminine characteristics help in their job roles as leaders, resulting in successful administration. In school, women often occupy the positions of homeroom teachers, heads of departments, special education teachers, and counselors. These positions deal mainly with issues related to pedagogy and the curriculum. Women are found less often than men in positions with an organizational orientation, such as principals or vice principals (Schmuck & Wyant, 1981). The teaching profession in schools is dominated by women while administrative positions in schools are dominated by men. A significant segment of gender based literature points to limited, or conditioned differences between the leadership behaviors of men and women. The different leadership behaviors are shaped by the different characteristics which are embodied in the men and women who occupy leadership positions. However, it is possible to identify some special and unique features of female administrators of schools when compared to their male counterparts. According to Addi-Raccah and Ayalon (2002), it may be argued that most female teachers occupy the position of homeroom teacher and are concentrated in pedagogic jobs because they prefer them because of their ‘feminine’ nature. Similarly, male teachers prefer administrative jobs because of their ‘masculine’ characteristics. Using the findings of Addi-Raccah and Ayalon, it is possible to initiate a debate on the ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ components of administrative positions in the education sector. It has been mentioned that women are fond of pedagogic jobs because their feminine characteristics matches those job roles and that men prefer administrative jobs because their masculine qualities fit in well with administration. However, the question arises as to whether a person with feminine characteristics can become a good administrator as well. Or, are masculine qualities vital for a good administrator? According to this study, women who are currently in administrative positions in the Sri Lankan education system have used their feminine qualities and matriarchal values to advantage in their positions and performed
successfully as administrators. The unique characteristics of a woman such as her gumption, acuity, wisdom, and skills in domestic spheres contribute towards coping with challenges when she occupies an administrative position. One of the participants explained how the network of students' mothers assisted her in overcoming some problematic situations. Another female principal explained that educational qualifications and other related qualifications were the essential requirements to perform well in an administrative position, particularly in the case of women.

Women who are occupied as teachers in public schools in Sri Lanka meet with several almost insurmountable barriers when they attempt to climb into the administrative rungs of their career ladder. The culture and society of the country they live in influence these women when they are advancing to administrative positions. The participants mentioned that patriarchal social values and stereotypical beliefs about women negatively impacted their career progress. A patriarchal social system, in which men have power and authority over woman, is one among many different mechanisms that are responsible for women’s discrimination (Powell, 1999). Asian societies are patriarchal, and therefore, men’s role is perceived to be that of breadwinner (to earn for the family), to be authoritative (dominating) in nature and to be responsible for the economic role of developing the country; developing society falls within the bounds of duty of women. Further, in Asian societies, men are perceived to be assertive and commanding, whereas women are expected to comply, obey and be submissive and docile (Singh-Sengupta, 2006). When teaching became a ‘feminine’ occupation, men preserved their dominance and hegemony by moving into positions of leadership in the educational sphere, leaving women as mere teachers (Addi-Raccah & Ayalon, 2002). Shakeshaft (1987) mentions that one of the impediments to women’s promotion to administrative positions in schools relates to men’s dominance and hegemony in key positions in society and the prevalence of patriarchal norms that strengthen and emphasize gender differences. Singh-Sengupta (2006) points out that men endeavor to preserve their privileged status even in work places and that they were always more enthusiastic in advancing to top positions in their careers than women. When a woman enters a situation having internalized the belief that “most people” expect more competent performances from men, even if she does not personally endorse this stereotypical belief, she may still leave the situation with a lower assessment of her ability compared to a male performing at the same level, due to the biases of others’ expectations (Correl, 2001). Society has built a myth that successful leadership characteristics are actually men’s characteristics and that to be male is to be successful. It would seem that in terms of everyday perceptions, traditional masculine values are routinely privileged in assessments of what makes an effective leader (Hopfl & Matilal, 2007). Society in general, including women, perceives that effective leadership is determined by traditional masculine values. The feminine values are considered to be soft or mild and therefore unsuitable for leadership positions. Some scholars argue that this kind of stereotypical belief affects women’s self-efficacy negatively, and they believe that they are incapable of holding an administrative position. On the other hand, most males in a patriarchal society feel threatened when women become empowered and assume the reins of leadership, because then, men’s hegemonic power will weaken. Plato speaks of the major threat to men being women and madness. This fear of women and the supposed disorder they bring with them remains a crucial element in
understanding the role of women leaders. The fear of women and their ability to rob men of their potency has a long history, and plays a key role in psycho-analytical theories of male sexuality (Hopfl&Matilal, 2007). When the powers of society are being funneled towards women, some segments of society fear that it will be detrimental to everyone. According to the predictions of the Social Learning Theory, the development of children’s gender stereotypes are based on a number of assumptions about the importance of cultural and social variables in the socialization process (Albert & Porter, 1988). Gender stereotypes are built up from childhood and (wo)men do not try to overcome the psychological boundaries which are firmly established during their early socialization processes. These cultural and social factors influence women in Sri Lanka as well, and prevent them from advancing to the administrative positions available to them in the public education system.

Woman working in the Sri Lankan education sphere are likely to give priority to their familial roles and responsibilities compared to attempting to achieve administrative positions. Lack of professional commitment exists among women because of their domestic commitments, and this lack of commitment has consequent effects on their prospects for promotion (Singh-Sengupta, 2006). They sacrifice opportunities to advance because they consider the accomplishment of family responsibilities as being more important. Conflicts between job roles and familial responsibilities of a woman is a pressing issue that women face when they are promoted to administrative positions in the education sector in Sri Lanka. Addi-Raccah(1997) points out that the difference between the genders is that women are seen as less committed to outside jobs that require effort and investment of time, because of the roles they play both in the family and in the workplace. A traditional Sri Lankan woman’s life is divided between her job and her family responsibilities at home. The traditional apolitical role of women has been seen as originating in patterns of childhood socialization that define a woman’s roles and concerns as being limited to the private sphere of home and family, and that assign the public sphere, within which politics is located, to men (Kearney, 1981). Traditional Sri Lankan society perceived and still perceives the woman as an object that should be dedicated to the family and to family-related responsibilities. The responsibilities of housekeeping (cooking, washing, cleaning...etc.), rearing children, looking after parents and parents-in-law and fulfilling the needs of her husband are all expected from the woman. Inculcation of these particular responsibilities happens from the early childhood socialization of a woman. While the man in a family is considered as the bread winner, the woman has to handle all responsibilities inside the home. According to Hoyle(1987), while the various roles women play lessen their motivation to take on demanding administrative jobs, men, on the other hand, being the main breadwinners of the family, are interested in holding positions which are both prestigious and economically rewarding. The challenge for women seems to be finding the balance between keeping their family happy and handling the responsibilities that come with holding a school management position, while such a lack of the balance explains why female teachers seem to have given up the aspiration to apply for school management positions (Uwizeyimana & Mathevula, 2014). Bain and Cummings (2000) note that women may be as capable as men at conforming to organizational requirements, but many women have strong commitments to their families and thus are unable to devote the
same amount of time as men. This is why some women elect to interrupt their careers during the early child-rearing period or take a break from work to attend to other personal responsibilities. Therefore, it is clear that women interrupt their careers due to child rearing or other personal responsibilities because these responsibilities seem to be the more sacred inheritances of a woman’s life. Women’s extreme devotion to their familial duties and responsibilities leads them to shy away from applying for administrative positions during their careers.

The traditional man in this society expects a woman to have an occupation (to provide economic support to the family) and also have the freedom to accomplish family responsibilities while the man is working hard to earn money for the family as the breadwinner. Before marriage, some men plan their future and expect to provide a good education to their children in addition to having a small contribution from their wives to the family economy. The common factor that has been identified in this study is that all six women participants who are in administrative positions have had a great deal of support from their husbands when they were applying for administrative positions. Female teachers whose husbands are principals are more likely to advance to positions as principals. It is clear, then, that support from the husband in the way of shared familial responsibilities and encouragement is a catalyst which often propels a woman into an administrative position in her career.

According to the data analysis of this study, it was found that the majority of female teachers do not receive enough support from the women who are currently occupied in administrative positions in their career. As per Airin (2010), female principals are the key individuals for female teachers who want to proceed to leadership positions because they need other females to motivate and guide them so they can feel encouraged. Women educators do not receive the same kind of social messages which men do concerning promotions to the positions of principal. All the women participants believed firmly that support from the women who are currently occupied in administrative positions was necessary for other qualified women to gain administrative positions. This can be discussed by referring to the “Queen Bee Syndrome” which poses the paradoxical question “does a woman hinder the progress of other women?” The queen bee syndrome concerns a situation in which women who succeed in male dominant work settings attempt to prevent other women from developing and being promoted to similar positions (Paniko et al., 2016). The “Queen Bee” refers to women in high positions who have achieved their professional goals in organizations dominated by men by distancing themselves from other women and at the same time expressing behaviors that lead to their gender stereotyping (Sobczak, 2018). The female teachers in this study did not have adequate support to be able to conquer administrative positions in their career from women who have already advanced to these positions. This lack of support acts as a barrier to the aspirations of these women, and can be analyzed with reference to the Queen Bee Syndrome.

The unwillingness of women who are in a teaching career to devote themselves to serious duties and responsibilities can be identified as another barrier preventing them from gaining administrative positions in their careers. There are two main reasons why female teachers are unwilling to take on the heavy duties and responsibilities of an administrative position. ‘The degree of domestic commitment of a woman’ and ‘the degree of development of her attitudes to commit herself to her own career’ influence ‘the degree of dedication to her career’. Women’s first challenge is to reorient their
thinking from management to leadership. Not only do they have to assume the role of leadership, switching from implementation to initiation, focusing on outcomes and taking risks, but they also need to adopt leadership strategies and styles suitable for hierarchical school organization (Ministry of Education Sri Lanka, 2009).

The problem of being ‘unwilling to devote themselves to the serious duties and responsibilities of an administrative position’ is identified as an issue dependent on these women’s other commitments. Participants explained their ideas on this particular issue with reference to factors such as the family, alternative roles, the environment, society and culture.

Some women had given up expectations to advance in this career because they felt that it was unnecessary for them. These women suffered from a lack of self-esteem, and due to this lack of self-esteem, they were not interested in advancement. According to some other women, most women in teaching underestimate their ability to perform in administrative positions and suffer from an irrational fear (lack of self-confidence) that they will not be able to perform as well as their male counterparts. Lack of aspiration is a critical barrier to women’s promotion into school management positions, and dealing merely with this lack of aspiration is not likely to yield the desired results if society does not change the way it views women’s role in society and their abilities to perform in school management positions (Uwizeyimana & Mathevula, 2014). Gunasekare and Ratnayaka (2015) point out that women’s lack of understanding of their self-strengths hinders their career advancement, and this sense of underestimating their own strengths leads to an unawareness of advancement routes and career paths which are available to them. Most women are also afraid of failure. This is a definite barrier to their engaging in leadership roles (Yulaelawati, 1998). A perception of not having a personality compatible with that of an administrator or a leader causes some women to hesitate from applying to administrative positions. Traits such as dedication, ambition, and vision and suitable virtues such as faith, credibility, honesty, fear and shame, impartiality, frankness and ability to exercise human resource management skills including interpersonal skills were demonstrated as the prominent traits which should be possessed by a successful female administrator.

Some of the participants discussed policy related issues which suppress women from advancing into administrative positions in the educational sector as well as in the country as a whole. The problem is that there is no national policy to empower women and encourage them to advance to top administrative positions. The issues on recruiting and promoting to these administrative positions were also widely discussed. It is therefore necessary to develop policies to encourage women to take up management positions in schools and to remove any obstacles there are to women’s participation in senior management (UNESCO, 2015).

The problems which have been identified are unique to women, and these issues affect women to a greater extent than they affect men, especially when these women are trying to climb the administrative rungs of their career ladder. Women who seek careers in educational administration find that, in practice, equality of the sexes is an illusion (Weber et al., 1981). The reason behind that illusion is that several hidden and unique problems exist which negatively impact on women’s ability to advance in their careers. According to Harrison et al. (2014), while women are the overwhelming majority in teaching positions at the primary and secondary levels, they are extremely
underrepresented in administrative roles. Many scholars have described the barriers to entry that women face in the educational sphere, but have failed to describe these women’s activities after attaining such positions. When discussing about the barriers faced by women when they are trying to reach administrative positions in their career, it is necessary to invoke the metaphor of the “Glass Ceiling”. The Glass Ceiling refers to invisible or artificial barriers that prevent women from advancing pasting a certain level (Federal GC Commission, 1997). Although opportunities at the top can be seen by women, there is a barrier above them that restricts their arrival to those top positions. While business organizations are struggling to hold on to their best and brightest women, the persistence of the glass ceiling makes this difficult (Ragins, 1998). While female teachers are struggling with a series of barriers when advancing to the position of principal, vice principal or educational administrator because of their gender, this context creates an advantage for male teachers to slip past their female counterparts and move into these administrative positions quickly. This phenomenon can be widely observed in female-dominated areas like teaching. The situation can be further explicated with reference to the “Glass Escalator” theory. Williams (1985) asserts that male tokens do not experience the disadvantages of their minority status. In fact, the token men in nursing, and elementary teaching frequently spoke of actually feeling advantaged on the job. Therefore, in general, Williams claims that an advantage for males exists in every organization and job, even when those jobs are female-dominated.

The applicability of the concept of the Glass Ceiling is somewhat limited in the context of this study. The Glass Ceiling refers to “invisible or artificial” barriers that hinder women when they try to advance into the upper rungs of their career ladders. With reference to this study, some of the problems faced by women when they try to advance to administrative positions, such as lack of self-esteem, lack of confidence and lack of self-efficacy are not artificial barriers because they are deeply embedded in the minds of these women, and the choices they make are their own choices rather than those forced upon them by structural or institutional barriers. Of course, sometimes, structural and the institutional barriers may lead to the creation of such kinds of mindsets. The researcher feels that it is necessary to initiate a discussion involving teachers, administrators and government authorities about the problems and issues faced by women when advancing to administrative positions in the public education sector in Sri Lanka that goes beyond the Glass Ceiling metaphor.

CONCLUSION

The cultural and social influence, role conflict and familial responsibilities, lack of family support, lack of support from women who have already advanced, unwillingness to devote themselves to the serious duties and the responsibilities of the position, lack of self-esteem and self-confidence, personal traits-related problems, and policy related problems were identified as barriers which hinder the advancement of female teachers into school and educational administrative positions. It was found that while female teachers were struggling to surmount these barriers, male teachers were having a relatively obstacle-free path to educational administrative positions. Women who have achieved these positions successfully reveal their inherent feminine and matriarchal qualities (such as caring, supportiveness, love and compassion, devotion, tidiness… etc.) within their work place. The unique characteristics of women such as gumption, acuity, wisdom,
frugality, and skills in domestic spheres help them cope with problematic situations that arise when working as administrators. Another finding is that female principals face problems when searching for male role models among their staff to develop the personalities of their male students, because the representation of men in pedagogical position is very small compared to the representation of men in school administrative positions.

Women are disadvantaged in terms of their assignment to administrative positions mainly due to their gender which results in certain sociocultural barriers being erected to prevent their advancement to such positions. When these barriers act to disrupt as the disruptions of women’s career advancement, it indirectly create an advantage for men in the public education system, many of whom do not fail to capitalize on it. It can be concluded, then, that sociocultural influences, gendered division of work in the family and work organizations, same sex jealousy and policy related problems have contributed to create an unfavorable context for many women who work in the Sri Lankan public education system.

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GRADUATE UNEMPLOYMENT IN SRI LANKA: CAUSES AND POSSIBLE CORRECTIVE ACTIONS

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ABSTRACT

In order to meet the rising demand for higher education in Sri Lanka, both the public and private sector higher education providers have increased their provision resulting in acute graduate unemployment and under-employment situation. Given this context, the main objective of this paper is to examine the principal causes contributed to this and possible corrective actions for the mitigation of the crisis. Attention is primarily drawn to understand a) the education mismatch and skills mismatch, b) insufficient attention given to quality and relevance of study programs, c) poor attention given to existing job opportunities and new jobs being created in the international job market and d) heavy dependence given to the public sector as the job creator.

Keywords: skills mismatch, graduate unemployment, under-employment

INTRODUCTION

Sri Lanka’s economic history after about 1960 had a unique position among developing countries where there is low per capita income on the one hand and the higher Human Development Index (HDI) on the other. This was mainly attributed to the free of charge provision of health and education of the country. The major social reforms were facilitated with the granting of universal franchise in 1931, introduction of free of charge education in 1945 and the introduction of university education in Sinhala and Tamil languages in 1959.

Although the Ceylon Medical College was established in 1870, the beginning of the university education in Sri Lanka marks with the establishment of the University College in 1921, and it gave an opportunity for the students to sit for the external degree offered by the University of London. The University of Ceylon was established in 1942 by expanding the University College. The number of students enrolled at the University College in 1921 was 166 and that was gradually increased to 338 in 1929 and 664 in 1938 (Warnapala, 2011). The University of Ceylon had only four faculties offering degrees of BA, BSc and MBBS and the medium of instruction was English. The language policy adopted in 1959 regarding university education resulted in getting students from a wide range of socio economic backgrounds and the demand for higher education increased tremendously (Samaranayake, 2016).

With a view to meet the increased demand, the government first elevated two Buddhist Pirivenas (Buddhist monastic educational institutes) namely Vidyodaya and Vidyalankara Pirivenas into two universities as Sri Jayewardenepura university and Kelaniya university. Then three affiliated colleges namely Rajarata, Wayamba and Sabaragamuwa were elevated to universities. By 1978 there were seven universities in Sri Lanka.
During the academic year 2017/18, the number of students admitted to universities under the University Grants Commission (UGC) except the open university was 31,415 out of 163,160 students qualified to enter the university. (UGC Statistical Bulletin 2018). The rapid growth of student enrolment to universities after the introduction of Sinhala and Tamil language streams in 1959 changed the socio economic composition of students in universities noticeably where a substantial proportion of students has tended to come from lower middle class families and poor agricultural backgrounds. As a result, these students have mainly sought to enter to the faculties of Arts, Social Sciences & Humanities, Commerce and Management (De Silva, 1979).

There was a high concentration of students in degree programs of Arts and Humanities during 1966 and 1970. The following statistics show the concentration of students in those degree programs of the total intake (Warnapala, 2011).

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1966/67</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967/68</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968/69</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969/70</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Situation has gradually changed over time and the dominance in the Arts & Humanities gradually slowed down in recent years. One of the main decisions taken by the government regarding the introduction of new courses came with the admission of students to the Technology Stream in the academic year 2015/16.

Table 1 below shows the composition of student admission in the academic year 2017/18 to Government Universities and institutions (except the Open University of Sri Lanka) under UGC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Female as % of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>8,196</td>
<td>10,923</td>
<td>74.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>3,916</td>
<td>5,179</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Science</td>
<td>1,732</td>
<td>2,788</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bio Science</td>
<td>4,165</td>
<td>8,109</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology (a)</td>
<td>906</td>
<td>1,247</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (b)</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19,759</td>
<td>31,415</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Include both Engineering Technology and Bio Systems Technology
(b) Some odd subject combinations
Source: UGC Statistical Annual Report 2018

The above table has highlighted the following features in the university admission.

(i) Almost 2/3 of university students are females
(ii) Admission to Arts stream has come down to about 32% of all students
(iii) Admission to Commerce stream is around 20% while Arts and Commerce taking together comes to little over 51%.
(iv) Students admitted to Physical Science, Bio Science, Technology and other streams come to about 49%.

Although university enrolment expanded rapidly over the past two decades, the demand for higher education appears to be much higher. For instance, the university admission in the academic year 2017/18 was 31,415 out of 163,160 qualified students to enter university, which is only 19.25%. Owing to the limited places available in the universities under the UGC, non-state higher education providers have come to offer different degree and diploma programs. In 2015, there were 16 non-state degree awarding institutions registered under the Ministry of Higher Education offering 64 degree programs. There were 8,892 students at these institutions registered for degree programs. There are some non-state unregistered higher education providers offering degree programs as affiliated higher education institutes of foreign universities and they had 4,518 students registered for degree programs in 2015. In addition, a large number of students were registered for Diploma...
programs. It is also estimated that about 12,000 students leave the island for higher education in other countries annually. All these numbers add to the graduate output aggravating the graduate unemployment.

The Table 2 below provides key information regarding the higher education sector, according to which new student admission has increased more than 4.3 times from 1990 to 2018 while the graduate output increased more than 5.8 times during the same period. Although the student admission and the graduate output increased rapidly, expenditure on university education as a percentage of government expenditure increased by only 1.9%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2018</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Admission (No.)</td>
<td>7,152</td>
<td>11,805</td>
<td>21,347</td>
<td>24,198</td>
<td>29,083</td>
<td>31,415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progression to Uni. from A/L</td>
<td>45.20</td>
<td>49.66</td>
<td>61.00</td>
<td>63.04</td>
<td>51.43</td>
<td>64.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-% eligible for University</td>
<td>20.74</td>
<td>16.08</td>
<td>17.35</td>
<td>18.73</td>
<td>18.68</td>
<td>19.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate output (No.)</td>
<td>4,476</td>
<td>5,374</td>
<td>21,248</td>
<td>21,276</td>
<td>31,460</td>
<td>35,624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Development</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Universities (No.)</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Departments (No.)</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.241</td>
<td>4.984</td>
<td>5.459</td>
<td>6.286</td>
<td>6.841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Teacher (No.)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Institutes (No.)</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graduate unemployment was not an issue until about 1960 mainly due to the fact that the number coming out from the universities was not very high and they were able to be absorbed to both the private sector and public sector positions. In fact, in early years, a sizable portion of them were able to getting to the private sector positions through the relations their parents had with the private companies while the balance was absorbed to the public sector for such posts as medical officers, engineers, lawyers, officers in the administrative services, academic staff in universities, secondary school teachers and various positions in other sectors.

However, with the expansion of university education, this situation has changed and many graduates who had obtained degrees in the stream of Arts and Humanities left unemployed for few years (Lakshman, 1998).

Apart from internal students of the universities, there is a large number registered for external degrees compromising the quality of the graduate. Warnapala (2011) noted that “the poor quality of the graduate is due to a variety of reasons; the primary reason is the absence of proper facilities for them to acquire knowledge and skills. At present, the advice and guidance given by universities to external students is limited to administrative matters and examination regulations. The existing external degree programs cover 11 universities, and the number of students registered for external degrees with universities is 206,152 and this in effect means that the total number of students, who sit the A/L examinations annually, enter the external degree programs. ... The quality of the product has virtually declined and no employer, except the government, wants to provide employment to external graduates.”

The objectives of the study

Job creation for the youth and unemployed graduates has been a major challenge to every government elected for the last several decades. The issue of unemployment would generate two major effects on the economy and society in general. The first is the unrest among unemployed youth which at times destabilize the whole affairs of the country. That is why the youth insurrections that took place in 1971 and 1988 in Sri Lanka were claimed to have direct links to youth unemployment as well. The second is the waste of valuable human resource for the development of the country. Situation is further worse when it comes to unemployed graduates as a huge cost in terms of free education was already
incurred on them by the government. Given this context, every government is pressurized to provide jobs, particularly for the unemployed graduates on urgent basis. In view of the above situation, the main objective of this study is to understand the principal causes for the graduate unemployment in Sri Lanka and try to suggest possible solutions for mitigating the same. The arguments and conclusions were tried to make on the basis of empirical surveys and studies conducted earlier. Having discussed the background of the study in the first section, thematic areas of skills mismatch, relevance and quality of degree programs, international job market, and the dependency on the government as the job creator were discussed from section 2 to section 5. Section 6 was devoted to summarize the main contributory factors for graduate unemployment while section 7 provided some observations and suggestions.

2. Education mismatch and skills mismatch

The education mismatch occurs when the required level of education for a job varies from the level of education of the employee. The employee’s education could be higher than that needed for the job, in which case he is over-educated. If he has got lower level of education than required, he is under-educated. Basically, there are three different ways by which the variance from the required level of education is measured. The first is based on the information included in the job descriptions while the second method relies on the worker’s assessment about the education requirements for the job. The third is a statistical method that uses data on realized matches (Piracha, M. & Vadean, F. 2012). Education mismatch mainly occurs due to the demand side deficiencies of the economy. In other words, it is the lack of job creation in the economy to absorb educated youth to the job market. A study by Senarath, S. A. C. S. et al. (2017) has confirmed the hypothesis that education mismatch is visible in the graduate labor market in Sri Lanka. This situation would generally create lower productivity in the work place and lower level of job involvement resulting high rates of employee turnover. On the part of the employer, he has to bear extra costs on screening, recruiting and training new employees. Another problem associated with both the general education and higher education in many countries including Sri Lanka is the skills mismatch, which is defined as the gap between a worker’s skills and the demand in the job market. The Annual Report of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka (2018) states that skills mismatch has resulted in a labor shortage for some industries in Sri Lanka requiring to import labor. Construction industry is a case in point and the authorities are compelled to import labor from China, India, Nepal and Myanmar. This situation undermines the productivity and forces a challenge to growth ambitions of Sri Lanka.

A large share of employers in the private sector is reported to have complained with the types and levels of output given by both the Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) system and the universities in Sri Lanka except a few areas. Annual Report of the Central Bank (2014) noted that there is significant shift in sectoral contribution to GDP over the years; agriculture share of GDP declined from 20% to 11% between 2000 and 2013 while industry share increased from 27% to 33% and service sector from 53% to 57% during the same period, showing substantial shifts in labor and skills requirements. “The school leavers and graduates with basic degrees in Sri Lanka seem to have a good subject knowledge, but their suitability for the job market is a question when one considers the skills gap or the mismatch between the
education system and the employability in the country” (Grero, M.L, 2018 p.9).

As per the results of the UGC tracer study (2018) about 74% of employers were of the view that finding graduates with relevant soft skills particularly competency in the English language, communication and inter-personal skills, leadership and influencing skills are the greatest challenge. When considering the field of study for graduate recruitments, graduates in social science and humanities have got only 11% of chances for employment in the private sector while graduates in business management & economics, engineering, and ICT have obtained 74%, 62% and 60% chances.

The rate of unemployment reported by Annual Labor Force Survey (ALFS) 2017 for Sri Lanka is 4.2% while the under-employment is 2.8%. However, the rate of unemployment among the educated, i.e. group representing A/L & above, is reported as 8.1%. Considering the visible under-employment situation in terms insufficiency of the volume of work, particularly among some graduate employment, it should be a much higher rate of under-employment. Development Officers attached to Divisional Secretariat Divisions (generally more than 100 graduates in each secretariat), is a case in point. The UGC tracer study (2018) reported that approximately one in every ten employed graduates was under-employed, without utilizing his education to job roles.

3. Relevance and Quality of Study Programs

Improvement of the quality of education in both general education and university education is in the education reform agenda for decades. Presidential Task Force on university education, which was formed in 1997 identified many aspects of improving quality and relevance of university education. Some of the reform proposals include the following;

(a) Diversification of university courses and curricula
(b) Develop undergraduates to interact with the private sector and the industry introducing in-plant training courses and placement procedures
(c) Developing skills in graduates relevant to employment opportunities
(d) Introducing new courses with more concern towards technological, cultural and science based contents
(e) expanding external degree programs and distance learning processes
(f) Upgrading of physical infrastructure including plants and laboratories, and developing human resources
(g) Establishment of career guidance units at all universities

With a view for university graduates to effectively contribute to economic and social development of the country, a project with the World Bank funding was implemented by the Ministry of Higher Education in collaboration with the UGC from 2003 to 2009 under the title “Improving Relevance and Quality of Undergraduate Education” (IRQUE). The project was implemented addressing the above issues in the public sector universities.

With respect to the issue of relevance and quality of graduates, it is common to see that the blame has been put on the universities for producing a mass of unemployable graduates without skills to the labor market. Another factor highlighted during the entire period since 1960s was the relationship between the youth unrest and graduate unemployment. However, graduate unemployment varies from time to time because of the introduction of special graduate recruitment programs by the government. There is widespread belief that the present graduate, especially in Arts, Social Science and Humanities, is unable to meet
the current labor market requirements. Hence, they become the largest contingent of unemployed graduates (Warnapala, 2011). Further, the incidence of unemployment is prevalent among graduates in Social Science and Humanities who have passed “General Degrees” and external degree programs.

The UGC in its tracer study (2018) noted that “Irrespective of the disciple, our universities will have to think of revising their curricula together with methods of teaching, learning and assessments for students to be equipped with knowledge, skills and values so that learners could achieve their full intellectual, personal, emotional and social potential. Teaching-learning progression and assessment methods at the university should encourage and facilitate learners to acquire and practice skills that will assist them to become effective in responding to future challenges in their lives and to play active and responsible roles in society after graduation”.

4. International Job Market

International migration of people has increased over the years and such movements for employment purposes have also increased in some regions than the rest of the world. For an example, people of the countries in the South Asian region have been migrating to Middle Eastern countries for employment for many decades now. Over 1.5 million people from Sri Lanka have found employment in this region at present. The history was such that they mainly demanded housemaids or unskilled labor such as domestic helpers, construction workers, drivers etc. However, there is some change to absorb other job categories such as Quantity Surveying officials, skilled workers in hospitality and hotel industry, banking and financial sector professionals, engineers etc. In 2012, housemaids and unskilled workers made up 64% of migrants from the Sri Lanka, which semi-skilled and skilled workers constituted only 25% of migrants of all foreign employment.

Foreign employment becomes the second largest source of foreign exchange earnings in Sri Lanka during the past few years. In the year 2016, the total workers’ remittances accounted for a sum of Rs. 1,091,972 million and it was 8.2% of GDP of the country. Statistics on foreign employment shows that there has been a continuous decline in departures for foreign employment since 2014 and it can be mainly attributed to the policy actions taken by the government to minimize the departures for employment of unskilled labor. As per the Corporate Plan 2017-2021 of the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, “the strategy for the five-year period is to reduce the number of total departures, but to increase the number of departures of skilled male workers. Special attention is given in reducing female domestic workers as they are more vulnerable”. The following table provides information with regard to the current foreign employment situation in Sri Lanka.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2018</th>
<th>% Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>35,866</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>56,774</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>46,951</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.A.E</td>
<td>52,836</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>47,952</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>231,459</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>128,774</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>102,685</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The above table highlights the dominant position taken by the Middle East countries for the migrant workers of Sri Lanka for taking a share of 78.7% of all migrants for employment in 2018. Males represent 61.4% of all migrant workers while the balance 38.6% for females in the same year. Some point out that unless the salary offered is about thrice the wage in Sri Lanka, there is no real incentive for workers to go abroad for employment. In
that sense, the salaries offered by Middle East market and some emerging markets such as Malaysia, particularly for unskilled and semi-skilled workers are not sufficient.

Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (2017) highlighted the fact that vocational and professional training system should match the international standards so that employment opportunities in higher skilled categories in existing markets and new markets in developed countries can be secured. New destination countries such as Japan, New Zealand, Turkey, Rumania, Uganda, Fiji, and Papua New Guinea have concentrated their recruitments in skilled categories.

Japan is one of the countries that hires foreign job seekers not only as semi-skilled workers but as skilled professionals in many a field. People aged 65 years and older in Japan consist of a quarter of its total population and it is estimated to reach one-third by 2050. The rapidly aging society and the incidence of low birth rate have been changing the demographic structure of Japan and its population is expected to decline from about 127 million in 2019 to about 88 million in 2065 as predicted by the National Institute of Population and Social Security in Japan. This situation among others has affected to hire international labor into Japan. Following are the main promising job categories for foreign job seekers in Japan.

(i) Engineers – electronics, automotive and heavy manufacturing industries
(ii) Information technology professionals
(iii) Workers for investment banking careers
(iv) English teacher – though opportunities are high for native English speakers, there are opportunities
(v) Office worker – many opportunities if there is Japanese language skills
(vi) Service industry worker – opportunities are there with polite Japanese language skills
(vii) Professional in many fields – expertise of foreign professionals is sought when Japanese companies are expanding globally
(viii) Research opportunities and Professorships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Category</th>
<th>Estimated Salary (USD)</th>
<th>Annual Salary Growth</th>
<th>Growth Prospects through 2024</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Application Software Developer</td>
<td>30,790</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Service Manager</td>
<td>99,250</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered Nurse</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Technologist</td>
<td>51,770</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction Worker</td>
<td>34,000</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing Assistant</td>
<td>27,820</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Health Aid</td>
<td>25,310</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When looking at employment opportunities in the international labor market, it is necessary to review our curricula and syllabi taught in the university. Since jobs in the international market has become one of the main important sources for lucrative jobs, particularly for our high quality graduates with the competency of foreign languages, universities should try to introduce new courses aiming at providing required knowledge and skills for such vocations.

5. Dependence on the Government as Job Creator

Sri Lanka history was such that people depended on subsistence agriculture until the time of European colonial domination, after which a new agriculture was developed aiming at exporting the produce. With this dual economy having its subsistence agriculture and export agriculture, service sector gradually expanded with the public service provision at the center. At the time of gaining independence in 1948, the provision of free of charge education and health services was seen as an important
duty of the government. Therefore, the employment in the public sector has increased gradually. The following table provides information regarding employment in 2017.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Status</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,208,179</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>2,279,153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>6,934,031</td>
<td>84.1</td>
<td>1,893,053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>1,275,039</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>346,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2,225,022</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>651,827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer</td>
<td>2,274,470</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>631,243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own Account Worker</td>
<td>2,571,023</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>702,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributing Family</td>
<td>653,035</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>138,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worker</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>317,195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Out of the total employment of 8,208,179 persons 14% of them are in the public sector and it is a big number to the population (21.44 million in 2017) showing that there is one employee in the public sector for every 18 citizen of the country. Of the people work in the public sector, 55% are males and 45% are females. However, considering the total employed population in 2017 male participation comes up to 64.3% while the females are 35.6%. Out of the total employees of 4,734,031 in the public and private sector, private sector represents 75% while the balance 25% is in the public sector. Provision of university education is a state monopoly. According to UGC, 72% of the annual enrolment of undergraduates takes place under 14 conventional universities which are under UGC. Annual enrolment into other Higher Educational Institutes (HEI) outside the conventional universities is about 12,000 at present. These are students entering into 5 universities set up outside UGC, locally recognized degree programs by different HEIs but excluding external degrees and degrees offered by the Open University of Sri Lanka.

The UGC tracer study (2018) reveals that the overall employment rate of state university graduates is 65.5% as compared to 66% in non-state sector. In both sectors, employment rate of males is higher than females, showing 81% for state university male graduates as against 76% in non-state sector. Graduates produced by the Arts and Performing Arts stream of the state universities had low employment rates of 45.6% and 37.1% respectively. Non state sample in the study represents only management, engineering, IT and law streams and the highest employment rate of 83.8 was recorded in management stream graduates.

According to the same study, 46.2% of graduates were employed in the private sector while 44% were in the public sector. Although the majority of the graduates were employed in the private sector, that percentage is very much low when comparing to 75% of employees calculated for the employees in the private sector to both private and public sector employees for the whole economy for 2017 given in table 5. Though the public sector employs 44% of graduates, their productivity is questioned on several grounds. First, government provides employment for graduates from time to time not necessarily for the need of specific labor requirement but to ease the unrest of the unemployed graduates highlighted by various demands and protests by them. Second, the education sector absorbs 34.4% of the graduates, indicating the highest percentage. A higher percentage of Arts (55.1%), Agriculture (40.4%) and Science (39.3%) graduates were employed in the education sector, mainly as teachers. Third, the governments in power for the past several decades implemented graduate recruitment programs mainly to ease the unrest of unemployed graduates, who put the blame entirely on the government for their being unemployed. In view of the foregoing it is clear that there is over dependence on the government as the job creator. It is essential to appreciate that a sustainable solution to graduate unemployment lies in the level of economic development of the country.
which in turn determines the capacity of the economy to absorb unemployed youth on the one hand and the ability of the universities to produce graduates who are of right quality and relevant to employers in the job market on the other. However, the perception of the graduates and their parents is that only the government is responsible for the issue of graduate unemployment and they pressurize the government to provide jobs.

6. Factors Contributing to Graduate Unemployment

Graduate unemployment is a major topic of discussion since 1960s as it has gradually increased over time. This has been cited as one of the principal causes for youth insurrections in 1971 and 1988. Therefore, the governments in power wanted to address this issue by way of implementing graduate recruitment schemes from time to time. Either unemployment in general or graduate unemployment in particular can be attributed to a host of factors. Slow economic and industrial growth, lack of investments, skill mismatch etc. are commonly cited as contributory factors for unemployment. Among others described below are some major contributory factors for graduate unemployment in Sri Lanka.

(a) Increase of enrolment in degree programs including external degrees

The discussion in the early part of this paper has shown that the ever increasing number of graduate output owing to the increase of graduate enrolment in public universities and university institutions in the private sector has made it unmanageable resulting in noticeable graduate unemployment over the years. Table 2 above has indicated that the graduate output from 1990 to 2018 has increased from 4,476 to 26,026, which is more than five times. Therefore, it is clear that the principal factor behind unresolved graduate unemployment is the rapid increase of graduate enrolment, particularly after 1990. Further, a sizable portion of them (1/3 or above of the total) came from the Arts stream, where they have the least employable skills, according to private sector employers. The situation has further worsen owing to the addition of external degree recipients mainly in the Arts stream.

(b) Inadequate investment in education resulting set-back in quality.

The table below shows that there is comparatively low rate of government expenditure on education in Sri Lanka when compared to the situation of some selected countries in the Asian region.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutan</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Government Expenditure on education as % of GDP in selected countries in Asia

Education expenditure consists of both the expenditure on general education and the higher education. Except for Bangladesh, the government expenditure incurred on education as a percentage of GDP is the lowest in Sri Lanka. There has been a strong demand and protests from university academics in Sri Lanka for some time now for increased allocation of expenditure. According to Table 2 above for the period from 1990 to 2018, student admission for the universities under UGC increased more than 4 times and the graduate output more than 5 times but the expenditure on university education as percentage of total government expenditure increased only less than 2%. This situation would have affected the quality of education by way of not having sufficient physical infrastructure facilities including space, equipment, plants and lab facilities, library facilities with quality reading materials and also the trained human resources. Private sector employers often complain of the poor quality of graduates in some streams,
particularly of their poor competency in English and practical understanding of the theory they learn at universities.

(c) Skills mismatch
Skills mismatch is a common factor for unemployment in many countries and this is one of the main factors for graduate unemployment in Sri Lanka too. In relation to skills mismatch, many studies have focused mainly on the technical skills and socio-emotional skills or what we commonly refer to as soft skills. The UGC tracer study (2018) has considered 11 areas of skills and competencies valued by employers in recruitment of graduates. They are the skills relating to communication, team work, good reading & writing skills, ability to adapt to new situations, analytical & problem solving ability, effective use of IT, English language competency, good decision making, sector specific skills, good with numbers and planning & organizational skills. According to this study 84% of employed graduates agreed that soft skills were instrumental in securing the current job. Competency in English language and some experience in to the work environment are also found to be very useful in finding employment. Although the overall employment rate of Arts stream graduates is at low percentage of 46, the percentage among English Medium Arts graduates is at satisfactory level of 71.9.

Employers of the private sector complain that the Arts degree offered by the university is mainly concerned with the production of academic knowledge, often without consideration of applied skills or learning. There is no component in it towards skills developments, vocational training, etc., and the results of which would lead to unemployed graduates. It is therefore suggested that study curricula be revisited together with the industry representatives to understand and incorporate employability skills so that the relevance of the degree program in terms of finding employment could be improved. This is particularly important as a large percentage of students is admitted to Arts stream of the conventional universities and that is 32% of all students in 2017/18 academic year.

(d) Attitudes of graduates
Aggestam & Hallberg (2004) state that queuing behavior for “good jobs” is a contributory factor for the unemployment problem in Sri Lanka. They were of the view that the problem of unemployment is not due to the shortage of job opportunities as such, but rather there is segmentation between jobs that are of greater demand (“good jobs”) and those which are not in demand (“bad jobs”). Larger majority of graduates due to a host of reasons such as employment security even having pension rights after retirement, lower work effort, flexible work environment, non-wage benefits etc. wish to have public sector jobs than the private sector jobs. The government recruited a massive number of 42,000 graduates in 2005, who claimed themselves as unemployed. According to Samarasinghe (2003) the estimated unemployed graduates were around 20,000 in 2003. Therefore, a high proportion of graduates recruited in 2005 should have been working either in the private sector or doing some self-employment by that time. This shows the attitude of graduates for employment in the public sector.

Annual Report of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka (2018) noted that in addition to skills gap, there is a large gap between job seekers expectations and the job requirements where the younger generation prefers non-routine and cognitive jobs over routine and manual jobs. According to the UGC tracer study (2018), 40% of private sector employers in the sample stated that it is difficult to find graduates with “right attitudes” for employment. Moreover, lack of commitment and lack of ethical
considerations were highlighted by 21% and 17% of employers respectively.

**OBSERVATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

There is a steady increase of student admission to conventional universities under the UGC over the past three decades. In addition, student admission to non-state higher education institutes and admission to external degree programs have been on the rapid increase. All these have created a scenario where there is ever increasing graduate output. Therefore, the governments in power have been pressurized to provide employment for the graduates, particularly for those graduates who are not demanded by the private sector. As per the tracer study (2018) by UGC, the private sector has provided employment to 46% of graduates while the public sector to 44% of graduates. Looking at the study disciplines, Arts and Performing Arts graduates in the survey reported the lowest employment rates of 46% and 37% respectively. These graduates constitute the majority of unemployed graduates and governments in power have implemented various recruitment schemes for them. However, one should ask a question as to how the government provides employment in increasing numbers in the future as well. Some are of the view that it has come to its limits. Signals are already there as there is some under-employment among those graduates recruited to the state sector. In this situation, the answer has to be found in the private sector. Targeted action is called for to encourage the private sector employers to recruit more graduates to their industries, after providing training if required.

If one looks to the perception of the private employers, it is very clear that there is some skills mismatch. That is why only about 11% of employers recruited graduates from Humanities and social sciences. Private sector employers further say that these graduates have problems with soft skills including Communication skills, English language competency and commitments towards work. Although the industry tries to bridge this gap, it is said to be expensive. To get out of this situation it is necessary that universities map their academic programs considering the requirements of the potential employment opportunities in the industry. In short, university academics should regularly review their programs with industry representatives on regular basis so that industry suggestions could be suitably incorporated in to the curricula enhancing the employability of graduates.

Universities under UGC still admit a sizable portion of students to the Arts stream (32%), though there is very high incidence of unemployment if there are no government programs to recruit them. Therefore, it is suggested that student numbers to particular subject areas be discussed and decided considering the employment opportunities and sufficient awareness to students. It may be possible to come out with better subject combinations to enhance employability, if relevant university academics and industry representatives conduct discussions.

Labor mobility has been increasing over time. Therefore, our graduates should be prepared to develop the characteristics that are required to become global graduates. High standard communication skills, leadership and English language competency at higher level, interpersonal skills etc., in addition to subject specific knowledge and skills are to be developed. Universities should create an environment where graduates during their learning can be informed of the employment opportunities abroad so that talented graduates can compete and secure opportunities.

It is observed that in addition to subject specific knowledge, the employability of
graduates enhances with soft skills including English language competency and also some kind of training or experience in the relevant field. It is therefore suggested to have internship programs as much as possible to arrange with the industry to give them a valuable training. Student community should be encouraged to understand the value of English competency and provide resources for their use.

It is valuable to inculcate an entrepreneur culture into university so that some graduates can start their own business ventures. Instead of being employed under someone, one can be proud of his own business providing employment opportunities to others. If young graduates are supported to start new ventures, there is high chance that they will succeed as their commitment is naturally high at this time.

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INSTAGRAM AS A SITE OF QUEER SUBJECTIVATION: PRELIMINARY CONCEPTUALIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study, as preliminary as it seems, attempts to conceptualize the relationship between the individual, social and digital by critically reading the practices of “coming out” on Instagram by individuals who identify within the spectrum of the sexually and gender queer in Sri Lanka. The next stage of this study will attempt to make theoretical inquiries into the changing socio-cultural, political and economic contexts which have, in recent times, enabled the “increasing” visibility of Sri Lankan gender and sexual non-conforming identities on the digital space, this study will further discuss the ways in which Instagram, as a social media platform, reinforce/sustain these changes. For the purpose of this study, around ninety Instagram profiles will be analyzed qualitatively. Even though many research have been conducted on the visibility of the sexual and gender queer on digital platforms, little or no research has been conducted on this area in Sri Lanka; therefore, this study will make an attempt to theorize the above areas of focus with reference to theoretical frameworks such as Truth and Subjectivity by Michel Foucault (1980), and the Posthumanist concept by Donna Haraway (1984).

Keywords: Digital space, Gender and sexual nonconformity, Instagram, Visibility

INTRODUCTION

There is an emerging body of scholarship which seem to argue that the digital provides “democratic architecture” (Perera, 2018) for the expression of marginalized subjectivities (Goby, 2003; McLean 2013; Craig et al, 2014, 2015; Nip, 2004; Lucero, 2017). Accordingly, the digital is perceived as a space which facilitates “freedom”, “agency” and “autonomy” of self-expression of marginalized subjectivities such as the queer. However, in a previous study, we have argued that rather than providing such conducive environment for the expression of marginalized identity, digital media platforms such as YouTube (re)produce the dominant socio-economic, political, cultural and historical narrative (Prasadika & Kadugodage, 2018, pp. 62-69). Accordingly, by “challenging the (neo)liberal, first-word understanding of the digital space as a “smooth space”, (Prasadika & Kadugodage, 2019, p. 63) the aim of this project, broadly, is to lay the groundwork to conceptualize the mutually complementary, yet seemingly contradictory relationship between the individual, social and the digital, and specifically, to explore digital platforms such as Instagram as sites which symptomatically foreground the above.
Hence, to this end, we ask the following questions;

1. How does the digital enable a platform, if at all, to complicate the individual and the social?

2. What do the practices of “coming out” and “visibility” of the queer connote about the relationship between the individual, social and the digital?

For the purpose of this study, we have observed and collected data from ninety Instagram profiles of Sri Lankans who seem to identify within the spectrum of marginalized sexuality. The data is analyzed qualitatively, using critical content analysis. The ethical concerns of using publicly available data such as Instagram profiles seem to be divided; however, we have used such data by ensuring the privacy of the users. Even though, the analytical rigor of this paper is premised on Michel Foucault’s (1980) conceptualization of Truth and Subjectivity and Donna Haraway’s (1984) Posthumanism, this project, in the long run, aims at conceptualizing a framework to explore the subjectivation of marginalized identities on the digital in geopolitical contexts such as Sri Lanka.

**DISCUSSION**

The posthumanist thought, championed by Ihab Hassan (1977), and Donna Haraway (1991) conceptualizes the digital as an embodiment of the social and physical. It is the conviction of Bolter (2016) that “Posthumanist theorists make a convincing case that digital communication in the 2000s is not a refuge from the physical and social world, but fully implicated in it” (Bolter, 2016, p.6). Hence, rather than offering a “displacement of subjectivation”, in Foucault’s terms, the digital, in fact, is a modus operandi for the dissemination of the truths produced in the market, in mainstream media and other social institutions. Therefore, the social which is being (re)produced in the digital and/or vice versa, requires the participation of the individual – be mainstream or alternative-; therefore, the digital provides a platform to explore the subjectivation of individuals. According to Bolter (2016),

“In contemporary media culture, users are not autonomous actors; instead, their identities are defined by the performances that they give in their almost constant interaction with social media and entertainment applications. Furthermore, users could be said to perform their identities according to discursive frameworks constrained in part by the social media applications themselves […] As such, social media provide opportunities for redefining the subject” (Bolter, 2016, pp. 6-7).

In spite of the social and cultural stigma which the act of “coming out” or self-disclosure entails in a context like Sri Lanka, there is an upsurge of individuals who identify as “Lesbian” or “Gay” coming out on platforms such as Instagram. In this light, this study attempts to engage with the acts of “coming out”, in relation to the embodied relationship between the individual, social and digital, and to inquire, if at all, as the emerging scholarship suggests, whether the digital “smoothen” the moral ruptures between the individual and the social. The mainstream narrative of queer subjectivity is shaped in such a way that, this paper argues, “coming out” is endorsed as a liberating practice. As much as the political potential in such acts of claiming space and identity can be acknowledged, it is necessary to critically engage with the regime of organized practices which construct the queer identity within the mainstream queer discourse by endorsing such “confessions”. According to Foucault, “Unlike other interdictions, sexual interdictions are constantly connected with the obligation to tell the truth about oneself” (Foucault, 1988, p.
Hence, it is possible to argue that the production of gender and sexually non-normative identities on platforms such as Instagram, which are predicated on the political economy of liberalism, is for the most part, determined by the practices disseminated in the market. At present, the “becoming” of a subject for the popular is marked by their investment in self-improvement projects. Platforms such as Instagram promote this idea of the self-improving subject, namely the subject who is constantly seeking to fashion themselves as happy, normal and productive. Hence, practices of “coming out”, “claiming identity/space”, which are undoubtedly performative acts which unsettles the dominant socio-cultural and historical narrative, is, however, a product of liberal socio-political economy of today’s world.

CONCLUSION

This is a preliminary account of an ongoing project which is attempts to conceptualize the seemingly contradictory yet complementary relationship between the individual, social and the digital. This project is working its way towards an understanding of the liberal political culture which shapes the individual, social and the digital, and produces subjectivities (mainstream or “alternative”) which perceive obedience to the “truth” about oneself as an avenue to escape oppression. In as much as the negotiation between the individual and social is an interplay of the social, historical, cultural, political and economic discourses, the digital too is an active player of such discursive “truths”. The queer subjectivity, in this case provides a keyhole to fathom such interplays between the individual, social and the digital.

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