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Primary School Teachers' Views about Volunteering: An Empirical Study in Rhodes

Vasileios Papavasileiou, University of the Aegean, Greece
Eleni Nikolaou, University of the Aegean, Greece
Yota Xanthacou, University of the Aegean, Greece
Ioannis Papadomarkakis, University of the Aegean, Greece
Dimitrios Matzanos, University of the Aegean, Greece
Maria Kaila, University of the Aegean, Greece

Abstract

It is widely accepted that the role of teachers in cultivating the value of volunteering is very important. Primary school teachers in Rhodes city were the population of the study. 157 teachers participated in this study, which took place from March to June 2016. The results of this study show that nearly half of the sample doubt the selflessness of volunteers as well as the ability of primary school students to plan voluntary actions. As far as the motivations of the volunteers are concerned, they consider that the main motivator behind their actions is their willingness to help and offer. Simultaneously, they state that some volunteers are motivated by other motives such as the acquisition of experiences, and their social recognition. They also state that one of their motives is to enrich their CV. The teachers of this sample consider that teachers' participation in voluntary actions is essential, although they do not always participate in such actions, as most of them have responded that they have not participated in any voluntary action this year. In addition, although they consider very important students' participation in voluntary actions, they do not model volunteering by their example.

Key words: volunteerism, teacher, primary school, motivations.

Introduction

In recent years, there has been a serious decline in the quality of the social services offered, as well as in important areas such as education, health and social care. Simultaneously, it is evident the tendency of the state to reduce public expenses, which results in increasing social problems and disrupting social cohesion.

Therefore, volunteering as an organized movement and expression of society is essential more than ever, as the adverse economic circumstances and the negative characteristics of current society impose its development (Georgiou, 2012).

The concept of volunteerism is associated with solidarity, selflessness and offering. Volunteering is conceptualized as service delivery and civic participation without receiving any compensation, aiming at the general public good and the well-being of citizens and society (United Nations, 1999). A volunteer is the person who offers services, work, sponsorship or any other contribution to society or offer undertaken of free will (Brown, 2000).

Volunteerism has multiple dimensions. It sometimes includes recurring actions on a regular basis, through structured programs or organizations as "formal volunteering", as well as individual actions, temporary and unique, as "informal volunteering". The forms of volunteering are multiple. It has applications in many fields, such as in social services, environment, civilization and sports. A modern form of volunteering which develops dynamically is the so-called on line or virtual volunteering. Social offerings through the use of internet and social media are now a contemporary everyday reality (Amichai-Hamburger, 2008).
Volunteerism has been studied extensively by many social sciences (Gilliath, et al., 2005), as it affects both individual and social development (Lee and Brudney, 2009). Volunteering constitutes a multidimensional process with multiple facets. The contribution of several scientific fields, an interdisciplinary approach, is essential for understanding deeper the concept of volunteerism (Lockstone, 2004).

The non-profits offer voluntary actions which can contribute to better addressing social, economic, environmental and cultural problems, compensating thus for the indifference or the weakness of the state and the market. Volunteering also contributes to social capital (Xu & Ngai, 2011).

It is evident that the motives that activate voluntary actions are multiple (Widjaja, 2010) and are associated with individual characteristics and social factors (Houle et al., 2005). Altruism, solidarity, awareness of responsibility, involvement in community, participation in groups, sociability, experiences, entertainment and personal satisfaction are among the main social and moral motives (Penner, 2004; Houle et al., 2005; Widjaja, 2010; Stebbins, 2015).

Volunteering constitutes a way of life, as it contributes to social progress, since it alleviates human suffering, limits social and economic discrimination, promotes and enhances the active participation of citizens, defends human rights, improves the quality of interpersonal relations, and enriches and strengthens solidarity and social cohesion (Georgiou, 2012; Winfield, 2013). Volunteering is a fundamental humanitarian value, which is associated with many other ethical and social values such as caring, provision of social services, solidarity, social justice, freedom, respect, tolerance, self-reliance, individual and collective responsibility. The development of these values should be a priority (Kates et al., 2005).

Based on these values, the socialization agents can contribute to shaping students with a profound social conscience and social responsibility, who undertake initiatives, are committed to their obligations, who are sincere, selfless, cooperative, who demonstrate solidarity and combine theory with action (Carpenter & Myers, 2007).

Volunteering is developed through education that starts from the immediate and wider family environment that lays the foundations of the value system of each individual. It is cultivated at school and develops in the neighborhood, in the district, in the city, in the homeland and the whole world, which constitutes the social environment of the individual and the group (Brown et al., 2007).

The school unit with a sense of responsibility towards society is an important vehicle for the development of voluntary actions. The role of the school unit in developing volunteerism is important, as it can contribute to raise awareness of the importance of selfless offer, to raise awareness on issues of voluntary participation, to cultivate the value of volunteering, to contribute to the development of attitudes and skills by undertaking initiatives and activating the voluntary offer through activities and actions.

**Methodology**

The view that the role of teachers is very important in cultivating the value of volunteering and its adoption as a way of life is widely accepted. In this context primary school teachers' views are explored about the issues of volunteering and their active participation in voluntary actions. A questionnaire was used for data collection, which provides the opportunity to collect a large amount of multiple kinds of information from a large amount of people. Simultaneously, the presence of the researcher is not necessary and there is anonymity. The questionnaire that was used in current research was consisted mainly of closed-ended questions (Bell, 2010; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Bryman, 2012).

Primary school teachers were the population of the study. The sample was consisted of 157 teachers. 58 (37%) were men and 99 (63%) were women. The current research took place from March to June 2016.
15 teachers (10%) had 1-5 years of experience, 19 teachers (13%) had 6-10 years of experience, 28 teachers (18%) had from 11 to 15 years of experience, 19 teachers (12%) had from 16 to 20 years, 18 teachers (12%) from 21 up to 25 years and 54 teachers (35%) had more than 25 years work experience in primary education. It is worth noting that the highest percentage of teachers that participated in the current research had more than 25 years of experience, whereas the lowest percentage had from 1 to 5 years of experience.

122 teachers of the sample had completed further studies. That is, 36 of the teachers were holders of a second university degree (29%), 68 of them hold a master's degree (56%), 8 of them hold a Ph.D. (7%) and 10 of them stated that they have completed various other studies. It is worth noting that the highest percentage of teachers (56%) are a master's degree holders and a 7% hold a Ph.D.

After the questionnaires have been collected, we proceeded to the content analysis and categorization of the answers to the open-ended questions. Then, the coding of the participants' answers was conducted, as well as the statistical analysis of the research data.

Results

The research conducted regarding primary school teachers' views about volunteering and their active participation in voluntary actions is wider. In the context of the present research, some indicative results are presented below.

Table 1
Distribution of frequencies of the answers of the teachers' sample regarding whether volunteering is attributed to selfless motives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>f%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that the highest percentage of primary school teachers in Rhodes (51%, 79 teachers) believes that "sometimes" volunteering is associated with selfless motives. The percentage of teachers who stated that volunteering is "always" associated with selfless motives is lower. Finally, even lower is the percentage of teachers who state that volunteering is "never" associated to selfless motives. Therefore, we conclude that half of the teachers of our sample doubt about the selflessness of volunteers.

Table 2 shows that the highest percentage of primary school teachers in Rhodes 39% (61 teachers), responded that primary school teachers can moderately plan voluntary actions, 36% (56 teachers) responded that they are "very" able to plan voluntary actions, 18% (27 teachers) could occasionally plan voluntary actions, whereas 6% (9 teachers) can plan voluntary actions "a great deal". Finally, 1% (2 teachers) states that primary school children are "not at all" able to plan voluntary actions. Therefore, we conclude that the highest percentage of primary school teachers in Rhodes can moderately plan voluntary actions.

Table 2
Distribution of frequencies of the answers of teachers' sample regarding whether primary school students are able to plan voluntary actions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>f%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat-Moderately</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A great deal</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As far as the motives of volunteers are concerned, the highest percentage of teachers (56%, 88 teachers) responded that volunteers "always" want to help other people, whereas a high percentage of primary school teachers in Rhodes (43%, 68 teachers), stated that volunteers "sometimes" want to help other people. Finally, (only 1%, 1 teacher) stated that they "never" want to help other people.

We attempted to explore further the attitudes of the teachers of our sample regarding their views about other motivations of volunteering that are linked to the profession and social recognition.

**Table 3**
Distribution of frequencies of the answers of teachers sample regarding the professional motives of volunteers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>f%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that the highest percentage of primary school teachers in Rhodes (76%, 120 teachers) responded that volunteers "sometimes" want to enrich their CV. 14%, (22 teachers) responded "always", whereas the lower percentage of teachers (10%, 15 teachers) stated "never". We conclude that the highest percentage of teachers believes that volunteers "sometimes" want to enrich their CV.

**Table 4**
Distribution of frequencies of the answers of teachers sample regarding volunteers motive of social recognition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>f%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the highest percentage of primary school teachers sometimes seek their social recognition. A lower percentage 15% (23 teachers) stated that volunteers "always" seek their social recognition, whereas the lowest percentage of teachers (12%, 19 teachers) stated "never". We conclude that the highest percentage of teachers believes that volunteers "sometimes" are motivated by social recognition.

**Table 5**
Distribution of frequencies of the answers of teachers sample regarding the importance of students’ participation in voluntary actions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of little import</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately important</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A great deal</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that 74 teachers consider "very" important the participation of students in some voluntary action (47%). 65 teachers consider "very much" important students participation (42%). 13 teachers consider that the participation of students in voluntary actions is of moderate importance (8%). 3 teachers (2%) attribute little importance to students participation in voluntary actions. Finally only 1 believes that the participation of students in voluntary actions is “not at all” important (1%).
Table 6
Distribution of frequencies of the answers of the sample regarding the importance of teachers participation in voluntary actions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of little importance</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately important</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A great deal</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

66 primary school teachers in Rhodes responded that their participation in voluntary actions is "very much" important (42%). Furthermore, 64 teachers stated that their participation in voluntary actions is "very" important (41%). Fewer teachers (22) stated that their participation in voluntary actions is "moderately" important (14%). 3 teachers (2%) responded that voluntary actions are of little importance. Finally, only one teacher stated that teachers' participation in voluntary actions is "not at all" important.

Table 7
Distribution of frequencies of the answers of teachers sample regarding their participation in voluntary actions this year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three times</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than three times</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>155</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

52 teachers (34%) responded that they have not participated in any voluntary action this year, 38 responded that participated once in some voluntary action this year (25%), whereas 33 teachers (21%) stated that they have participated more than three times in voluntary actions this year. Furthermore, 22 teachers (14%) stated that they participated two times in voluntary actions this year, whereas 10 (6%) have participated three times.

Conclusions - Suggestions

The results of the present study cannot be generalized to the general population, as it is a small-scale research. However, the resulting conclusions can be a starting point for a general reflection in the context of research, which examines the role of the school in the development of voluntary actions.

Firstly, it should be noted that almost half of the teachers of the sample doubt about the selflessness of volunteers, which is in contrast with the very essence of volunteerism emanating from pure motives to the other. This can be interpreted on the basis of the characteristics of modern society of our times, which is dominated by utilitarianism and the concept of financial transaction in human relations.

The majority of teachers believe that children of primary school are not adequately trained to plan voluntary actions. This belief was expected, as most children have not acquired similar experiences in
the context of a modern Greek school, as voluntary activities are not usually systematic and planned pedagogical processes.

Then, there is an attempt to explore the attitudes of primary school teachers in Rhodes about the motivations of volunteers. Specifically, teachers believe that volunteers are sensitive to social problems and clearly believe that the main motivator that pushes them toward volunteer projects is the willingness to help, however, they assert that they are motivated to a considerable extent from other incentives, such as the acquisition of experience and social recognition. One of their motives is also to enrich their CV.

As far as their participation in voluntary actions, a considerable percentage of teachers of elementary school, nearly one third, indicates that they have not participated in any voluntary action in the last year. The majority of teachers consider students' participation in voluntary actions very important. Furthermore, they assert that the participation of teachers themselves in voluntary actions is equally important.

However, it is worth noting that although the teachers of our sample consider important their participation in voluntary actions, they stated that they have not participated even once this year in any voluntary action. In addition, while they consider very important students’ participation in voluntary actions, they do not model volunteering by their example. Finally, the teachers of the sample consider more important students' participation in voluntary actions than their own participation.

The modern school which serves its social role, should cultivate humanitarian values and the ideals of social responsibility and solidarity. Educators could be models of selfless offer by their example and their active participation. Students in the context of educational planning can contribute to these actions, by their ideas, participation and actions.

Each school unit can design, implement, and evaluate activities and actions which are characterized by social offer in collaboration not only with other school units, but also with family, community and other social institutions, local authorities, voluntary organizations, non-profit organizations, the government and its services as well as the global community. School units can utilize cooperation networks and the possibilities offered by ICT for humanitarian, social, environmental, cultural and international forms of voluntary actions at the local, regional, and international level, in order to shape the active citizens of the present and the future.

The aim of the current school is to shape active citizens. For this purpose, school voluntary activities should not be separate or fragmented, but they should be included in educational planning, organization, and implementation of pedagogical activities, in order to achieve the optimum combination of social and pedagogical objectives.
References


The Silence of Male Victims in Relation to Domestic Violence in Heterosexual Relationships in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa: An Exploratory Study

Azwindini Brigate Modau, University of Venda, South Africa

ABSTRACT

Domestic violence is one of the most serious and widespread problems in society today. There is a widespread belief that women are the only victims and survivors of domestic violence and men are the sole perpetrators. For that reason, male victims of domestic violence usually remain silent and invisible. The aim of the study was to explore and describe the silence of male victims in relation to domestic violence in heterosexual relationships in Makhado Municipality in Limpopo Province, South Africa. The study was qualitative in nature and an exploratory design was adopted. A purposive sample of males between 28 and 55 years old in heterosexual relationships was selected from records of domestic violence, in particular the domestic violence register 508b which records female or male complainants of domestic related issues from different police stations within the Makhado cluster. Data were collected by the researcher through semi-structured interviews. This method was used with supportive literature to assist the researcher to gain a deep understanding of the issue under study. Data collected were analysed and transcribed using the thematic content analysis method. It was found that the current law discriminates against male victims and favours women. For example, the awareness campaign of 16 Days of Activism speaks only for women and children and is quiet about the male victims. Male victims are silent about the abuse against them because of shame and embarrassment. Some feel that the police will not believe them. The conclusion drawn is that the experiences of male victims of domestic violence are insufficiently acknowledged by society and the authorities. There is need to encourage men either as victims or abusers to contact service providers, in order to get help.

Keywords: Abuse, domestic violence, heterosexual relationship, male victim, victim silence
CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and Background of the Study

Domestic violence has emerged as one of the world’s most pressing problems in society. Domestic violence has been used interchangeably with Intimate Partner Violence. It exists along a continuum from a single occurrence of violence to continued battering. The World Health Organization (WHO) defined it as any type of behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes harm to one or both parties; it refers to a broad pattern or violent tactics used by one partner to establish and maintain power and control over the other (Rolle, Abba, Fazzino, Marino and Brustia, 2013). Domestic violence does not count anyone out; it holds no boundaries in relation to class, race, gender, sexual orientation, ethnic background or religion. It takes place in a wide variety of domestic relationships and takes on many different forms that may cause harm to the safety, health and wellbeing of the person affected (Murray, 2004; Wilson, 2005).

According to Tsae (2011), South Africa is rated the worst country with the highest levels of domestic violence against women and children. As a result, many studies are being done about domestic violence against women and children. There is little research done in South Africa about domestic violence against men. In addition, society and the government recognise domestic violence as a crime that is committed against women by men and their focus is towards female victims while male victims remain silent and invisible. Lambert (2013) indicates that, in general, there is a relative dearth of qualitative research into abuse perpetrated by women upon their intimate partners, especially when unilaterally generated, and this study will thus focus mainly on male victims.

Literature on male victims of domestic violence reveals that society chooses to believe that a man cannot be a victim of domestic violence. This view is supported by Barkhuizen and Pretorius (2005) who argue that, if one were to ask any person in the street to explain domestic violence the person would say it is when men beat women and girls, but would mention men most unlikely as being beaten and abused by partners. Lehane (2005) emphasises that society is heavily influenced by the belief that women are the only victims and men are the perpetrators of domestic violence. This belief is based on the feminist perspective that has shaped different attitudes on and responses to domestic violence as a social problem, in areas ranging from government policy to feminist grassroots campaigns (Atmore, 2001). This belief is consistently reinforced by the public awareness campaigns such as the International 16 Days of Activism campaign for “No violence against women and children” held annually from 25 November to 10 December. During this period, the campaign focuses primarily on women and children who fall victim to gender-based violence, denying the fact that domestic violence is a reality for male victims as well. In addition, Geldenhuys (2012) points out that men’s experiences of abuse are insufficiently acknowledged and that there is little support available for them.

Generally, in the current societal context it is believed that men always create problems in relationships and that women are the typical victims or survivors of domestic violence (Atmore, 2001) which is a false picture; the truth is that more than 40% of victims of domestic violence are men (Campbell, 2010). In the United States of America (US) and Australia, this focus on women as victims of domestic violence has been criticised. Dissenting voices have come from different sources, each arguing that men, too can be victims of domestic violence. Younger (2011) points out that violence is used as a means of obtaining and maintaining control in relationships within the family. For that reason, the abuser wants to be in power in the family and uses violence as a means of attaining that power.

Geldenhuys (2012) argues that it rarely or never at all occurs to us to think that the victim of abuse can also be a man, although in reality, about two in five of all victims of domestic violence cases are men, contradicting the widespread assumption that it is always women who are victims of domestic violence. The question was raised “what about the men who are increasingly becoming silent victims of domestic abuse and violence at the hands of their female partners? Younger (2011) points out that violence is used as a means of obtaining and maintaining control in relationships within the family. For that reason, the abuser wants to be in power in the family and uses violence as a means of attaining that power.
Traditionally, domestic violence was kept hidden, as it was considered a private and even a normal phenomenon. As a result, very little is known about the actual number of men who are in domestic relationships in which they are abused or treated violently by women (Campbell, 2010). Lehane (2010) notes that the phenomenon of a brutally assaulted husband was first researched in 1978, and that it stunned, amazed and brought about bouts of laughter at the very thought of abused men. Faced with this attitude, male victims had no choice but to feel ashamed and even guilty. Madzimbalale (2007) indicates that male victims of violence often do not talk about their experiences due to different reasons.

The Domestic Violence Act No 116 of 1998 (DVA) was passed by the Parliament of South Africa, to address the issue of violence in the home, after parliament recognised that domestic violence is a serious social evil. The Act provides for the issuing of protection orders prohibiting the respondent from committing any act of domestic violence and may also prohibit the person from entering the residence of the complainant (DVA, 1998). According to Kempen (2012), it is the purpose of this Act to afford the victims of domestic violence maximum protection from domestic abuse that the law can provide and to introduce measures which seek to ensure that the relevant organs of state give full effect to the provisions of this Act, and thereby conveying that the State is committed to the elimination of domestic violence. The DVA is applicable to a range of family and domestic relationships and covers both heterosexual and same sex relationships.

Geldenhuys (2012) pointed out that the Minister of Police, Mr Nathi Mthethwa, highlighted the need to deal with attitudes in the Police Service as a key priority in dealing with domestic violence. The South African Police Service (SAPS) has been reluctant to differentiate between general crimes of assault and domestic violence in their collection of statistics. Central to this is the need to educate police officers to take cases of abuse against men just as seriously as they take cases of abuse against women and to ensure prosecution of women who abuse men, just as they ensure prosecution of men who abuse women. Madzimbalale (2007) also concurs arguing that, globally, failure to bring perpetrators to justice is a major hurdle in tackling violent crimes.

The researcher found that there is little information on the issue of male victims of domestic violence compared to female issues. In addition, there is still hardly any help and support for male victims as there are still very few refuges which offer men the support that female victims receive, as well as help them fight the stigma of cowardliness attached to being a male victim (Eckstein, 2009). Geldenhuys (2012) indicates that there are many reasons why men do not report abuse against them and choose to suffer in silence.

Culturally, it is difficult for men to bring these incidents to the attention of the authorities, as they are reluctant to say that they are being abused by women because it is seen as unmanly and weak. It was emphasised by Tsae (2011) that men should report the abuse that they experience from their wives. An abused man, Amazulu head coach, Craig Rosslee, encouraged other South African men not to take the law into their own hands, but to report domestic violence to the authorities. He hauled his wife before a domestic violence court and obtained a protection order to stop her from harassing him. He agreed to be identified because he wanted to share his experience with other men who might be going through the same thing (Malatji, 2013).

Jaffe, Lemon, and Poisson (2003) maintain that statistics show that 7% of men and 8% of women have experienced violence at the hands of their partners giving rise to the conclusion that women are equally as violent as men. According to Campbell (2010), about two in five of all victims of domestic violence are men, and the plight of these male victims is largely overlooked by the media, official reports and government policy. It was emphasised by Geldenhuys (2012) that more research is needed to establish why men underreport. Most of the cases are not being reported by males due to issues such as unwillingness to disclose their suffering. It is in this context that the researcher explored the silence of male victims in relation to domestic violence in heterosexual relationships in the Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province.
1.2 Problem statement

There are many men in jails today who have been wrongfully arrested because the law favours women over men. In my opinion, some of these men are in jail because they were retaliating to the abuse they had been enduring for a long time. The researcher works in Makhado SAPS as Crime Information Officer (CIO) and, on a daily basis observes that most of men are being arrested for committing domestic related crimes like assaults, murder, attempted murder, malicious damage to property or contravening the protection orders that were issued against them.

The main problem which underpins the current study is that, domestic violence against men remains a taboo subject. What seems to emerge repeatedly from the few studies conducted in South Africa is that men are also victims of domestic violence and that society is aware of the issue. The rate of domestic violence against men is still low compared to that against women, because male victims are reluctant to speak about their experiences. Even though some men are coming forward, there are still millions who will keep it a secret. Male victims are not reporting most of the cases to authorities due to many reasons such as fear of being stigmatised, and fear of being labelled as weak and as not man enough. Moreover, the law is more likely to rule in favour of a woman than a man. As a result, men are afraid that no one will ever believe them or take them seriously. Nevertheless, it is not clear why South African men are silent about domestic violence. The silence on this issue is astounding. The danger of this silence is that these men might be hurting psychologically and some end up committing suicide or killing their spouses and children.

1.3 Significance of the study

Whilst literature shows evidence of domestic violence against males in countries such as the USA and the UK, there is a dearth of such literature in South Africa. As a result, a study of this nature will encourage men to break the silence about the abuse they are experiencing. The findings of the study will also help male victims to be treated with respect and to be given full support by service providers, such as the Police and the Justice systems. In addition, it will also contribute to the provision of appropriate services for men, and to the formulation of programmes, such as awareness campaigns that will address the dangers of silent, as well as how to prevent domestic violence within communities.

The study will improve men’s understanding of domestic violence and provide them with support and resources, which, currently, are almost non-existent. It is also hoped that a study of this nature will bring forth the South African perspective on domestic violence against men and their reasons of being silent. When such reasons are known, it will be easier for professionals to provide services that can be of help to these victims.

1.4 Aim and objectives of the study

1.4.1 Aim of the study

The aim of the study was to explore and describe the silence of male victims on domestic violence in heterosexual relationships in Makhado Municipality.

1.4.2 Research objectives

The objectives of this study were to:

- Identify the forms of abuse experienced by male victims in heterosexual relationships;
- Identify the reasons for not communicating domestic violence to the relevant authorities; and
- Explore the effects of domestic violence on male victims.
1.5 Research questions

Based on the above research objectives, the following research questions were addressed:

- What forms of domestic violence are male victims exposed to in heterosexual relationships?
- Why do male victims of domestic violence not report domestic violence to the authorities?
- What are the effects of domestic violence on male victims?

1.6 Definition of terms

Certain concepts were studied critically, and concrete definitions were compiled for each. These definitions are unique to this study as they have been created to suit the needs of this study. This was done to contextualise them and to eliminate any ambiguity in the text.

**Domestic violence:** The WHO defines domestic violence as a pattern of abusive behaviour in any relationship that is used by one partner to gain or maintain power and control over another intimate partner. For the purpose of this study, domestic violence refers to any abusive act deemed to have the intention of generating fear, causing physical injury, intimidation, denigration, disorientation or emotional pain to the male partner.

**Abuse:** The term abuse, according to the Domestic Violence Act 116 of 1998, is defined as a pattern of behaviour that can be physical, emotional or psychological or verbal, or sexual that is intended to control or demean a person.

**Male victim:** A male victim of domestic violence is a man who is in a heterosexual relationship who reports being a victim of abuse (Dutton & White, 2013). For the purpose of this study, a male victim is defined as a man who is subjected to any form of domestic violence by his female partner, whether it is direct or indirect, on a continual basis over a period of time.

**Heterosexual relationship:** According to the Domestic Violence Act of 1998, heterosexuals prefer other-sex partners, meaning that it is a sexual relationship between two people of the opposite sex or gender. This study focuses on the sexual relationships between male and female partners only.

**Silence:** Is defined as “a situation or state in which someone does not talk about or answers questions about something.” In this study, silence is when a male victim chooses to keep quiet about what he is experiencing at home and is not willing to report the abuser or lay a criminal charge against the female partner, so that the perpetrator can be brought to justice (Dutton & White, 2013).

1.7 Delimitation of the study

The population of the research study comprised males who are married, dating, or divorced couples in heterosexual relationships. The study confined itself to interviewing individual men in heterosexual relationships, men who are experiencing or have experienced abuse at the hands of their partners. Men were selected using the information recorded in the domestic violence registers of the SAP 508(b) from seven police stations within the Makhado cluster. The researcher opted to interview males between the ages of 28 and 55 years old. The males interviewed were those whose female partners came personally to the police station, requesting the police to assist them to solve the conflict between themselves and their husbands at home or those who asked the police to fetch their children and their clothes after they had fled their homes. This age group was chosen because currently, crime reports within the Makhado police cluster stations indicate that males between the ages of 28 and 55 are the most vulnerable to domestic violence.
1.8 Theoretical framework of the study

Anfara and Mertz (2006) argue that the term theoretical framework does not have a clear and consistent definition. They define the term as any empirical or quasi-empirical theory of social and/or psychological processes, at a variety of levels that can be applied to the understanding of phenomena. To understand the depth of domestic violence in our society, we need to understand what theories are saying about gender and violence. The following theoretical perspectives, namely the hegemonic masculinity, gender theory and the resource theory, were utilised for the purpose of this study.

1.8.1 Hegemonic Masculinity

For one to understand domestic violence against men, one has to understand the theory of masculinities. Kimmel (2001) argues that hegemonic masculinity is viewed as the most common blueprint for gender in western culture as it dictates how “real men” should behave and the goals they should aspire to attain through the masculinity practice. Men are groomed from when they are children to fight back when they are bullied, and when they face opposition. Hegemonic masculinity, according to UK Essays (2013), is an imagined construct rather than a practical one, with only few men possessing all its traits. According to Connell (2005), the concept of hegemonic masculinity largely rests logically on dichotomization of sex, which is biological versus gender, which is cultural, thus marginalizing the body.

Connell (2005) argues that not all men have equal power. Masculinity may comprise of stoicism, independence, and expected dominance over others. Therefore, hegemonic masculinity has more negative cultural meaning for men than it has for women. This means, that male gender-boundary-crossers are much more culturally stigmatised than female-boundary – crossers. Hegemonic masculinity defined in this way may serve as a barrier for men seeking to disclose their abuse. Certainly, a man’s perceived lack of power in an abusive situation would influence his decision whether or not to disclose the abuse (Eckstein, 2009).

According to the hegemonic masculinity theory, being a male victim of domestic violence means that you are failing to be a real man is a sign that you are a weak man and because of that will be considered as inferior or unworthy in society (Connell, 2005). According to UK Essay (2013), studies have revealed that boys are harassed and teased when they try to participate in girls related activities. Thus the dominance of hegemonic masculinity is maintained by denying boys access to girls activities. Furthermore, the dominance of masculinity is reinforced when boys are ridiculed because they do not comply with society’s expectations of hegemonic masculinity. In order to cope with the pressure from society, most men have learned how to behave in a way that would maintain hegemonic masculinity, while at the same time suppressing feelings and behaviours that might make them look feminine.

1.8.2 Gender theory

According to Connell (2005), resistance to confronting and reporting violence can be linked to a number of barriers. However, the underlying causes of violence in the family can be traced to gender and power relationships in the family. The causes of violence are deeply rooted in community attitudes about gender, and about what is and what is not legitimate and appropriate between intimate partners and within families. When we start to look at the relationship between perpetrator and victim, we can see clearly that the gender dynamics are even more important to consider.

The use of violence as one tactic in an attempt to exercise general control over one’s partner and requires more than the willingness to do violence. It requires a credible threat of a damaging violent response to non-compliance. Such a threat is, of course, more credible coming from a man than a woman simply because of the size difference in most heterosexual couples. Put simply, the exercise of violence is more likely to be a part of boys’ and men’s experiences than girls’ and women’s in real life conflicts.
Gender influences the use of violence to control one’s partner in heterosexual relationships simply because of average sex differences in size and strength. Therefore, one of the reasons why men remain silent about the abuse is that, traditional gender roles confuse the matter. For example, there the belief that a “real man” is expected to control his wife. Men are socialised not to show their weaknesses and to be the stronger sex, especially in a heterosexual relationship.

Geldenhuys (2012) indicates that, for many men, it is embarrassing to admit being a male victim of domestic violence as they may feel that they are somehow less of a man for “allowing” themselves to be abused. In Western society, today cultural justifications may still influence the disclosure practices of men abused by women. For example, when a woman slaps her husband in the heat of an argument, it is unlikely to be interpreted by him as a serious attempt to do him physical harm. In fact, it is likely to be seen as an appealing form of feminine communication. Some men who are the victims of domestic violence often view abusive behaviour as expected and may be generally more reluctant to acknowledge abuse from their partners than are female victims. Violence perpetrated by women against men is taken less seriously (Eckstein, 2009).

1.8.3 Resource theory

Resource theory suggests that there is a relationship between wealth and violence. It argues that one is more likely to use violence when one has more resources than the other partner (Flores, 2000). Women in positions of relatively higher income status than their partners are more likely to perpetrate violence against their partners. It was further indicated that by Fife and Schranger (2012) that while resources play a major role and lead to violence between men and women, there are also men and women who have more resources than their partners and yet are still being abused by their partners. People in general, who have more resources are likely to behave violently and in an intimidating manner towards those with fewer or no resources (Tsae, 2011).

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the background of the study, the problem, the aim and objectives of the study, research questions, definition of concepts, and delimitation of the study. The next chapter reviews relevant and available literature. It focuses on the following sections; Introduction; forms of abuse experienced by male victims; the effects of domestic violence on male victims; reasons why male victims do not communicate the abuse; and factors that contribute to domestic violence.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Literature review puts the research project in context by showing how it fits into a particular field. The importance of literature review is to identify knowledge gaps and develop a research problem (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). In this chapter the information provided includes prevalence of domestic violence, forms of domestic violence, the effects of domestic violence, reasons for not communicating the abuse and the factors that contribute to domestic violence.

2.2 Prevalence of domestic violence

Domestic violence constitutes a significant proportion of all violent crimes committed in South Africa (Schoenteich & Louw, 2001). Research conducted by Tsae (2011) in Gauteng Province, in South Africa, reveals that men, too, are victims of domestic violence and that society is aware of the issue. However, the rate of domestic violence against men as victims is still low when compared to women as victims. Male victims do not prefer to lay charges against their female perpetrators. However, no studies have been done to ascertain the reasons why male victims do not want to report the abuse against them and prefer to suffer in silence (Geldenhuys, 2012).

According to Trevor (2010), in South Africa, women and children remain at high risk of becoming victims of either sexual or abuse. SAPS report released in September 2011, shows that, in South Africa, on average, seven women were murdered a day between March 2010 and March 2011, further suggesting that at least half of those reported cases could have been perpetrated by intimate partners.

The rates of Gender Based Violence and the general abuse and sexual harassment of women in the domestic space by their partners are particularly alarming. It is widely established that rape is mostly perpetrated by people known to the victims. In South Africa, between 2008 and 2011, there was a steady increase of reported rape cases from just over 54 000 to just over 56 000 rape cases reported respectively. In their study on intimate femicide in South Africa, Abrahams, Mathews, Jewkes, Martin and Lombard (2012) found that intimate partner violence in South Africa has now become the leading cause of death of women homicide victims with 65% of female homicides being committed by an intimate partner.

Study conducted by Jewkes, Levin, and Penn-Kekana (2002) revealed that over 97% of the black African women who were interviewed had experienced physical violence at some point. In that study out of 97% who had ever experienced physical violence, over 95% had experienced physical violence within the past year. The women in that study were from the province of Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga, and Northern Province and had a mean age of 32. What seems to emerge repeatedly from the few studies conducted in South Africa is that men are also victims of domestic violence and society is aware of the issue. However, the rate of domestic violence against men is still low compared to that of women. Male victims are reluctant or do not want to speak about their experiences (Geldenhuys, 2012).

2.3 The forms of abuse experienced by male victims

Tilbrook, Allan and Dear (2010) and Barber (2008) focused on the forms of violence experienced by men in their heterosexual relationships. They found that men are subjected to various forms of abuse which are not similar to those reported by women who are victims of domestic violence. Some men also appear to be subjected to multiple forms of abuse. The forms of abuse which men are subjected to are physical abuse, financial abuse and, emotional or verbal abuse. The abuse is characterised by violence, jealousy and an attempt by the partners to access control over everything the partner does. All these forms of domestic violence start in the same way that is when the perpetrator tries to control the victim and this can happen both in heterosexual or same sex relationships.
Men’s experiences are broad and not primarily limited to forms of physical abuse. This is understandable, as men’s physical size and strength are often greater than that of their female partners (Geldenhuys, 2012). Women who abuse men do not differ much from their abusive male counterparts. They hit, kick, punch, push or bite their victims. Women who are abusive, sometimes, also use weapons, such as knives, firearms or any object that can be used to strike such as pans, bottles, flower vases and spoons to attack the victim (in this case male).

Lambert (2013), in her study, examined forms of abuse on male victims of domestic violence and found that women rarely inflict physical abuse in the same way as men. However, it can still happen. In a study by Drijber, Reijnders and Ceelen (2012), their results revealed that the commonest forms of physical violence male victims encountered were hitting, kicking, pelting, or stabbing with an object, biting, seizing the throat and scratching. In 54% of the cases involving physical violence, the offender used an object, predominantly household items such as chairs, knives, flower vases, and tableware. Men who are being abused by women seldom use their greater size or strength to hurt their abusive partners, even when they themselves are being hurt. All these forms of abuse start in the same way, that is through a desire to have control (Tilbrook, Allan & Dear, 2010).

2.3.1 Emotional abuse

Barkhuizen (2010) indicates that many different terms for the concept of emotional abuse exists, for example, emotional abuse, psychological abuse or verbal abuse or mental abuse. Drijber, Reijnders and Ceelen (2012), define emotional abuse as exposing a person to behaviour that may result in psychological trauma including anxiety, chronic depression, or post-traumatic stress disorder. The commonest forms of emotional violence mentioned were bullying, ignoring, threatening, blackmailing and financial harm. It was also indicated that children were often used as a means of power, and those victims felt powerless out of fear of losing contact with their children.

Kempen (2012) describes emotional abuse as a pattern of degrading or humiliating conduct towards a complainant including repeated insults, ridicule, or name calling, repeated threats to cause emotional pain, or the repeated exhibition of possessiveness or jealous which constitutes a serious invasion of the complainant’s privacy, liberty, integrity or security. In this form of abuse, the abuser undermines the victim’s self-image by constantly belittling, criticising, calling him names, insulting, ridiculing, or verbally attacking the victim. The abuser may also use the silent treatment, or make and break promises.

Geldenhuys (2012) compared physical and emotional abuse and found that emotional abuse is often more damaging and long-lasting than physical violence because it is difficult to prove, and therefore, hard to stop. She further indicates that husbands are mainly subjected to emotional abuse rather than physical abuse, as the latter is likely to be rewarding for the abuser due to the differences in physical abilities of women and some professionals have observed that emotional abuse can be an area where women are often more brutal than men. An abusive woman can hurt a partner deeply- even driving the person to committing suicide without ever lifting a finger (Eckstein, 2009).

2.3.2 Physical abuse

Physical abuse is the use of force or threat of force that may result in bodily harm, or physical pain. The acts of physical abuse include hitting, slapping, punching, stabbing, burning and other types of contact that result in physical injury to the victims. For this study, physical abuse within a domestic violence environment is defined as the act of violence perpetrated by a female, directly or indirectly at her male partner or spouse, intending to cause feelings of intimidation, pain, injury, or other physical suffering or bodily harm (Barkhuizen, 2010). Drijber, Reijnders and Ceelen (2012), indicate that women initiate and carry out physical assaults on their partners as often as men do.

Despite the much lower probability of physical injuries resulting from attacks by women, assaults by women are a serious social problem, just as when men slap their wives. The National Coalition against Domestic Violence (NCADV) of (1978), (cited in Felson, 2007) states that one out of fourteen men has
been physically assaulted by a current or former spouse, cohabiting partner, boyfriend or girlfriend at some point in their lives. Barkhuizen (2010) states that physical abuse is the use of force or threat of force that may result in bodily harm, or physical pain.

Several studies, including at least two nationally representative studies reveal that women physically abuse men at a substantial rate. This physical abuse takes the form of both minor and severe abuse, and it cannot always be dismissed as self-defence (Hines & Malley-Morrison, 2001).

2.3.3 Sexual abuse

Lehane (2005) defines sexual abuse as the forcing of anyone against their will to have sex, or perform any sexual act. This also includes demoralising a person through sexual comments. Sexual abuse can be very devastating for male victims, particularly for their self-esteem, making it one of the hardest to disclose. Geldenhuys (2012) states that a man can be a victim of domestic violence when his female partner forces him to have sex or to engage in sexual acts against his will. She further indicates that there is a widespread belief that it would be almost impossible for a man to achieve or maintain an erection when threatened or attacked by a woman.

2.3.4 Economic Abuse

Financial abuse is also referred to as economic abuse. Research indicates that financial abuse is experienced in 98% of abusive relationships. As with all forms of abuse, financial abuse occurs across all socio-economic, educational and racial and ethnic groups. Financial abuse is the form of abuse where one intimate partner has control over the other partner’s access to economic resources. The abuser feels as though they have the power to control the finances in their household. In financial abuse one partner prevents the spouse or victim from acquiring resources, limits the amount of resources used by the victim, or exploits the economic resources of the victim (Younger, 2011). Kempen (2012) also describes this form of abuse as the unreasonable deprivation of economic or financial resources to which a complainant is entitled under law or which a complainant requires out of necessity, including household necessities for the complainant, and mortgage bond repayments or payment of rent in respect of the shared residence.

While Tilbrook, Allan and Dear (2010) argue that the control of the partners’ financial affairs, is often in an incompetent way. The motive behind preventing a victim from acquiring resources is to diminish the victim’s capacity to support him, thus forcing the victim to depend on the abuser financially (Kempen, 2012). Behaviour that constitutes financial abuse includes stealing from the victim, keeping the victim’s bank cards and harassing the victim at his workplace.

2.4 Factors that Contribute to Domestic Violence

There is no single cause that leads to domestic violence, but a number of risk factors are associated with the perpetrators and victims of domestic violence. For example, perpetrators’ alcohol and drug use, and the victims’ experiences of child abuse, pregnancy and separation may all increase the risk of domestic violence. Financial stress, personal stress and lack of social support are also strong correlates of violence (Mitchell, 2011). The World Health Report of 2002, (cited in Madzimbalale, 2007), reveals that domestic violence has been associated with certain factors such as alcohol abuse, low income and conflict or discordant relationships. Literature suggests that alcohol reduces inhibitions, and this result in a higher likelihood of aggressive behaviour. However, studies conducted by Felson (2007) found that, on intimate abuse, 25% of the women and 26% of men felt that alcohol was only “sometimes” the proximate cause of violence.

2.4.1 Alcohol use

Research has clearly demonstrated a statistical relationship between alcohol use and violence between partners. A review of 13 quantitative studies between 1980 and 1988 showed that alcohol use and abuse
were prevalent among men who batter women. It was concluded that chronic alcohol abuse by the male rather than acute intoxication is a better predictor of battering. Payne and Gainey (2009) state that alcohol use, abuse or alcoholism does not directly cause violence because alcohol is not involved in all cases of domestic violence, and violence often results when alcohol is not present. There is little scientific evidence to support the theory that alcohol and drugs such as cocaine and crack have chemical and pharmacological properties that directly produce violent and abusive behaviour. Data from the second National Family Violence Survey in 1987 were examined and they revealed that excessive drinking was associated with higher levels of wife abuse. Although the survey research demonstrates a substantial association between drinking and violence, alcohol use per se is not a necessary or sufficient cause of family violence (Fitzpatrick, 2002).

Tshikovhi (2004) and Tsae (2011) contradict Payne and Gainey (2009) by arguing that, alcohol abuse is a major contributory factor and trigger of domestic violence. It was indicated Tshikovhi (2004) that women who abuse men frequently are alcoholics or drug abusers, and that people who are intoxicated have less impulse control, are easily frustrated, have greater misunderstandings and are generally prone to resort to violence as a solution to problems. Alcohol may play a role in abuse but it is certainly not a simple cause (Mullender, 2002). On the contrary, Mitchell (2011) indicates that alcohol is a significant risk factor for domestic violence and many intimate partner homicides are alcohol-related.

2.4.2 Psychological theories

Jaffe, Lemon and Poisson (2003), state that there are many different theories about the causes of domestic violence. These include psychological theories that consider personality traits and mental characteristics of the perpetrators, as well as the social theories which consider the external factors in the perpetrators’ environment, for example, family structure, stress, and social learning. In addition, 80% of the women and 42% of the male respondents believed that violence is a learned behaviour and that socialisation played an integral role in their interaction with their own intimate partner.

Studies suggest that violent behaviour is often caused by an interaction of situational and functional factors. Abusers learn violent behaviour from their families or from people in their communities. The explanation of domestic violence is based on the feminist theory, which identifies the roots of violence in a patriarchal society in which women’s inequality and society’s tolerance of male violence is commonplace, especially in the context of intimate relationships (Jaffe, Lemon and Poisson, 2003).

2.5 The effects of domestic violence

The effects of domestic violence on victims are wide ranging and will differ for all victims, but perpetrators are also impacted by their abusive behaviour as they stand to lose children, suffer damaged relationships, and face legal consequences. In their research data, Tilbrook, Allan and Dear (2010) found that male victims of intimate partner abuse and their children suffer a range of consequences, such as psychological distress (including psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety disorders), suicidal ideation, impaired self-concept (in particular around one’s sense of masculinity), and loss of work. The major consequences of domestic violence include mental health issues and chronic physical health problems. Many men are being victimised in their intimate relationships. Therefore, the effects of their victimisation are worth exploring.

2.5.1 Emotional/Psychological effects of domestic violence

Domestic violence could lead to consequences such as depression, suicide attempts, and post-traumatic stress disorder, and abuse is used to diminish a person’s sense of self-worth and independence (Madzimbalale, 2007). Hines and Malley-Morrison (2001) investigated abuse against men in intimate relationships focusing on the effect of abuse, and their findings revealed that men can be victims of physical abuse in their intimate relationships with women, and also that abused men are at risk of emotional hurt, fear, helplessness, anger, revenge seeking, sadness, shame and humiliation, depression, stress, psychological distress and psychosomatic symptoms.
However, these studies have a number of major weaknesses. First, the researchers focused primarily on internalising symptoms; they did not assess other symptoms, such as alcoholism. Second, they did not assess other symptoms that have been found to be prevalent in women who are abused, such as posttraumatic stress disorder. Lastly, because the focus of many of these studies was the relative victimisation of abused female, they did not specifically address the psychological consequences of physical abuse against men.

Barber (2008) states that the effects of domestic violence against men and women have some similarities and some differences. Common unreliable experiences include feelings of fear, isolation, guilt, confusion and a loss of self-worth and confidence. Barber (2008) also found that male victims of domestic violence were less likely than female victims to report violence or abuse and that many were either arrested or threatened with arrest, thus perpetuating a culture of blaming the victim. In some cases, male victims were ignored by the police. Research studies show that domestic violence can trigger different responses in victims.

Men’s experience of emotional abuse can be very different from that of women. For instance, being called a coward, impotent or a failure can have a very different psychological impact on some men than the same insults would have on women. When a woman humiliates a man emotionally, in front of his friends or other men, the experience can be more devastating than physically abusing him. Emotional abuse can cause someone to feel worthless, and the commonest form of emotional abuse is verbal assault. Abusers can say things that would insult, demean, or cause their victims to doubt themselves (Younger, 2011). In most cases, male victims also experience depression, a low self-esteem and high levels of stress. According to the NCADV, men experience many of the same psychological reactions to violence as women, and these include guilt, shame, humiliation, anger and living in constant fear (Hines & Malley-Morrison, 2001).

2.5.2 Physical effects of domestic violence

Men who are victims of domestic violence are not only assaulted in self–defence or in retaliation for their own behaviour, they do suffer a range of physical injuries that can be serious. Injuries are resulting from being hit by blunt instruments, household ornaments, brooms etc. having objects thrown at them, being struck with a vehicle, being bitten, the use of an ‘actual’ weapon, e.g. a knife; scalding with boiling water or hot food (Geldenhuys, 2012). The physical effects include serious injury, sometimes permanent, and a great deal of pain. A more general deterioration in physical health is almost certain. Recent studies found that 2% of the men who reported experiencing minor or severe spousal abuse reported suffering broken bones, broken teeth, or injury to a sensory organ, and also that, sometimes, women may even throw things that could hurt their partners (e.g. dishes, boiling water, or a frying pan) or by brandishing a weapon.

2.5.3 Financial effects of domestic abuse

Younger (2011), examined effects of abuse from an economic (financial) perspective. His study revealed that financial abuse is the reason why about half of the domestic violence victims lose their jobs. The abusers feel as though they have the power to control the finances in their households. Financial abuse, according to Barber (2008), is defined as not allowing the victim to be financially independent. In their article about domestic violence against men, the impact of domestic violence is less apparent and less likely to come to the attention of others when men are abused men or subjected to various forms of abuse at the hands of their female partners. It was recognised that women can be violent and create a fearful environment for their husbands, but that there is insufficient evidence that this is as serious a problem as it is for women.
2.6 Reasons why male victims do not communicate the abuse

Culturally, it is difficult for men to bring the abuse to the attention of the authorities, as it is seen as unmanly and weak to be abused by a woman (Geldenhuys, 2012). In cultures where machismo is prevalent and where men are considered the heads of households in control of their families, wife battering may not be perceived as a serious behaviour that needs to be reported. Men hesitate to acknowledge their victimisation out of denial, guilt, embarrassment or shame (Jaffe, Lemon & Poisson, 2003; Tilbrook, Allan & Dear, 2010).

Claims are often made about the inaccuracy of data on the incidence of men as victims of domestic violence. It is commonly argued that men’s under-reporting of violence is due to barriers such as embarrassment. Whilst there is no doubt that there are some truths to this, women also underreport violence for reasons such as fear of reprisals, fear that their children will be taken away, and hope that their partners will change (Mulroney and Chan, 2001).

Geldnehuys (2012) argues that male victims do not report cases of domestic violence to the authorities due to issues such as unwillingness to disclose their suffering, the stigma they will suffer. A few men who report such cases are seen as weak and not man enough, while some who try to seek help sometimes find that they are being mocked and ridiculed (Geldenhuys, 2012). The law is more likely to rule in favour of a woman than a man.

According to Watson (2010), for male victims of domestic violence, the legal system can become another tool of abuse. He pointed out that battered men are often likely to be arrested even though they are the ones who call the police. Even after the arrest, the process of incarceration, restraining orders, divorce court and child custody hearings continue to disadvantage men. Therefore, for these reasons, men are bound to endure the abuse and keep quiet about their experiences.

Studies have shown that many police officers do not treat domestic violence against men as a serious crime, and often will view the male victim as a pathetic figure. It is for this reason, and also the fact that men are most often physically stronger than women, that male victims are often less likely to report domestic violence than female victims. When and if they do, men are often treated as the aggressors in the situation, and are often placed under arrest. Payne and Gainey (2009) indicate that victims tend not to report domestic abuse for a variety of reasons, which include taking the blame, saving their families from broken marriages, economic dependency, and lack of social support necessary to get away from an abusive wife and protecting their children.

The belief is that “a real man” is expected to be able to “control” his wife. Geldenhuys (2012) reveals that there is a lack of support and help for male victims, and that the underlying reason for this lack of support is due to society and government. This is because their only focus is on female victims and they do not consider domestic violence to be a male problem. These stereotypes and discrimination make male victims reluctant to seek help. Campbell (2010) states that some of the factors which prevent male victims from revealing their abused status are as follows:

- Most men are afraid that no one will believe them or take them seriously;
- For many men, it is embarrassing to admit the abuse and they may feel that they are less of a man for allowing themselves to be abused; and
- The belief that “a real man” is expected to be able to “control” his wife.

Statistics show that 5% and 12% of the men said that they choose to keep silent because to discuss abuse would “always” lead to divorce; and that 59% of women and 42% of the men believed that if the incidents of domestic violence were revealed the victim would lose their jobs (Geldenhuys, 2012). Lehane (2005) on the other hand, argues that there are virtually no services available for male victims of domestic violence as compared to those of female victims of abuse; A man does not report the abuse as he has no place to go. Battered women have women’s shelters to keep them safe and they can usually
find a sympathetic friend or relative to take them in. A battered man does not usually get that same sympathy, and there are virtually no shelters for battered men in this country.

However, in South Africa, there are few known organisations that fight the abuse against men. The Moshate Men’s Rights Organisation founded in 2010 is located in Johannesburg (Tsae, 2011), and another one is Thohoyandou, in Limpopo Province Munna Ndi Nnyi (Who is the Real Man), a leading non-profit organisation provides a range of vital services throughout the Vhembe District in Limpopo Province. This non-profit organisation was established in 1997 to encourage men to be responsible husbands, and to engage men in dialogue and leadership matters on the issue of gender-based violence in the community. The PRO of the organisation Mr Nemakonde, argues that they also encourage men to speak out against abuse as they have discovered that many men are abused but they do not report these things because they think they will be laughed at (Musetha, 2002).

These organisations also offer counselling, advice and support for men who are victims of abuse by women. They have become a platform and mechanism not only for men, but for the whole community to get to grips with abuse against men and to understand the phenomenon as a major source of most of the social problems we have (Tsae, 2011). Mr Mnisi who is a spokesperson of the Moshate Men’s Rights Organisation says that one of the biggest challenges his organisation faces is the perception that domestic abuse affects only women. We come from a society where men are discouraged from crying because it is supposedly a sign of weakness. When a man goes to report a case of abuse, the police tell him, ‘Hey, you are a man; you can solve your problems’.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed relevant and available literature for the study. The next chapter presents the research methodology which includes the following sections: Introduction; research design, population and setting of the study, sample and sampling procedure, pre-testing, data collection, data analysis, measures to ensure trustworthiness, and ethical considerations.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology of this study. The research methodology specifies how researchers may go about practically studying whatever they believe can be known (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). The chapter encompasses the adopted research design, population and setting of the study, sample and sampling procedures, pre-testing, data collection method and procedures, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

The current study adopted a qualitative approach and an exploratory design. The qualitative approach enabled the researcher to get in-depth information directly from the participants, in this case the male victims of domestic violence. The qualitative approach takes place in a natural setting (Flick, 2011). Qualitative research enabled the researcher to explore the reasons why male victims are silent on domestic violence. It allowed the male victims to speak for themselves and to describe their experiences, while the researcher listened to their experiences, comprehended and attached meaning to the information using intuition and bracketing.

The exploratory part of the design enabled the researcher to obtain the answers to the proposed research question. The purpose of exploratory studies is to establish the facts, to gather new data and to determine whether there are interesting patterns in the data. In addition, exploratory research is conducted when there are few or no earlier studies to which references can be made for information (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). Since no evidence was found in literature of similar studies on the silence of male victims on domestic violence in South Africa, the study attempted to explore and describe this new area of interest for male victims of domestic violence.

3.3 Population and setting of the study

The study population consisted of Tshivenda, Sotho, Tsonga and English-speaking men in heterosexual relationships in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa. Makhado Municipality is located in the far Northern region of the Vhembe District of Limpopo Province. According to the Integrated Development Plan Review of 2014-2015, the total population of Makhado Municipality is estimated at 495,261 and it is growing at about 14% per annum. It is composed of about 54.25% female and 45.75% male persons.

Makhado Municipality is under the Makhado Cluster policing area, which comprises of seven Police stations, namely Makhado SAPS, Mphephu SAPS, Tshilwavhusiku SAPS, Tshitale SAPS, Watervaal SAPS, Waterpoort SAPS and Mara SAPS. The study focused more on the following stations Makhado SAPS, Mphephu SAPS and Tshilwavhusiku SAPS, as these police stations have domestic violence registers SAP 508(b), which record information concerning victims of domestic. The annual crime statistics of the financial year 2011/2012 showed that the rate of domestic violence incidences reported in the Makhado Cluster policing area was very high.

3.4 Sample and sampling procedure

Participants were selected from domestic violence registers called the SAP 508(b) in which the names and addresses of victims of domestic related issues are registered at different police stations within the Makhado cluster. Non–probability purposive sampling was adopted to select the participants. The participants who were selected were those whose female partners complained of domestic related issues at the different police stations within the Makhado cluster. The researcher visited the houses of female complainants who came to the charge office requesting police assistance to resolve domestic related issues between themselves and their husbands. The researcher sought permission to speak to their husbands.
Purposive sampling was chosen because it depends not only on availability and willingness to participate, but the cases chosen are typical of the population and phenomenon being studied (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). The purposive sampling method was appropriate as Babbie (2010), indicates that it is based on the judgement of the researcher, and in this study, participants who are victims of domestic violence were able to provide information that was needed for the study.

At first the researcher got a total of 20 participants who agreed to participate but some due, to reasons unknown to the researcher turned her down at the last moment and refused to participate. The researcher ended up interviewing 12 males in the study. Ages of the participants ranged from 28 to 55 years of age and they were all in heterosexual relationships and were willing to participate in the study. Demographic information of the participants was collected.

An exploratory study, typically, does not use large sample. Instead, it calls for small samples that are chosen through a deliberative process to represent the desired population (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delport, 2005). Whereas the sample size does not allow for generalization within the larger population in Limpopo province, the findings from this study was on the quality of information obtained from the participants rather than on the size of the sample (Swartz, De la Rey & Duncan, 2004). Table 3.1 below provide the demographic profile of the study participants.

### Table 3.1: Demographic profile of study participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Employment status</th>
<th>Educational attainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant 1 LM</td>
<td>28 years</td>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Taxi driver</td>
<td>High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 2 L</td>
<td>38 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Taxi driver</td>
<td>High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 3 RL</td>
<td>43 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Shop assistant</td>
<td>High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 4 MK</td>
<td>36 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Shop assistant</td>
<td>High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 5 MT</td>
<td>32 years</td>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Security guard</td>
<td>High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 6 JK</td>
<td>34 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Tsonga</td>
<td>Police officer</td>
<td>Graduate degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 7 PT</td>
<td>48 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 8 TI</td>
<td>46 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Northern Sotho</td>
<td>Self employed</td>
<td>Did not complete high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 9 NL</td>
<td>53 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Police officer</td>
<td>Do not wish to answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 10 V</td>
<td>43 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Self employed</td>
<td>Technical college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 11 IA</td>
<td>43 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>(Self-employed) Business owner</td>
<td>Do not wish to answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 12 AM</td>
<td>47 years</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Graduate degree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5 Pre-testing

In order to ensure validity and reliability of the study, the instrument was pre-tested with two participants who were not part of the sample, who met the sampling criteria. Open ended questions were asked in order to establish whether the questions would elicit the information required. The results of the pre-testing were used to refine the research instrument and other methodological aspects. Golafshani (2003) indicates that pre-testing is useful in exploring the potential issues pertinent to the study prior to a more structured format being put in place. The participants in the pre-testing were not included in the main study to avoid familiarity with the questions.
3.6 Data collection

I started collecting data from the 15th of January 2015. However, my efforts were unsuccessful since some of participants whom I had selected and whose appointments I had confirmed failed to keep the appointments and some started to turn me down and refused to be interviewed. I was able to secure appointments with 12 participants who were very cooperative and agree to meet with me for interviews. I assumed that the reason most of participants turned me down was because I am a young female investigating a very sensitive issue. Some turned me down because I am a police woman, and they were afraid of being arrested. On the 12 of February 2015 I started the interviews with the first of the 12 participants. The whole process of collecting data was very long and the last participant was interviewed on 23 of September 2015. The time frame of data collection is attached (See Appendix A).

After agreeing to participate in the study and before collecting data, participants were requested to sign informed consent forms to indicate that they had agreed willingly and voluntarily to participate in the study and that they were giving the researcher permission to tape-record the interviews. Only one participant (Participant 12 AM) signed the consent form, but refused to be tape recorded and insisted that I write down the notes of our conversation as he was feeling uncomfortable about being recorded, I did as he asked.

Data were collected through personal, semi-structured interviews using a tape recorder, in order to explore their experiences. Apart from providing depth in the data generated due to its flexibility, the semi-structured interview was preferred because data collected in this manner are suitable for thematic content analysis (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). Interviews with participants were guided by an interview schedule (see Appendix F).

Participants were also given an opportunity to ask questions prior and after the formal interview. The interview ranged from 30 to 1.5 hours. Interviews with individual participants were conducted face to face in a private location of the participant’s choice. All the interviews were conducted in a language that the participant understood better, in order to allow the research participants to participate freely. The researcher, who spoke Tshivenda, Sotho, Tsonga, and English easily and, therefore, conducted all the interviews in order to maintain consistency in data collection, analysis and interpretation. Audiotapes were transcribed verbatim and resulted in close to 20 pages of transcribed data. The researcher did all the transcription, translation of the data collected during the interviews, and analysis of data.

3.7 Data analysis

Data were analysed using, the thematic content analysis method. The aim of the thematic content analysis is to identify key themes within the text (Marshall, & Rossman, 2006). Data from each man were examined separately, and emergent themes were noted.

Tape recorded data were first transcribed verbatim. Such transcriptions were read several times for the researcher to familiarise herself with the cases, and to identify and look for connections among the themes. This was followed with a comparison to the data from other men’s narratives. The researcher constantly noted minor discrepancies and consistencies among the participants and from this step, an initial list of categories emerged. Finally, data were rechecked after the master category list had been completed to ensure consistency of themes and to find any opposite explanatory categories during the results (Marshall, & Rossman, 2006). Saturation was achieved very early in the study when the common themes were repeated and no new information was coming forth.

According to Mazabow (2010) and Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006), thematic content analysis has several steps or phases which proceed in an orderly manner. The steps are as follows:

Familiarise and immerse yourself in the data – The researcher works with the transcribed interview (text) and immerses herself in the text, in order to gain insight and understanding. The researcher reads and re-reads through the data to become intimately familiar with the data (Marshall, & Rossman, 2006).
Step 1: *Inducing themes* – In the second phase the researcher derived common themes from the raw data.

Step 2: *Coding the data* – The researcher then breaks down data into labelled, meaningful pieces (subcategories) and then clusters the pieces together under a theme or heading.

Step 3: *Elaboration* – According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006), this step involves exploring themes more closely. The researcher then studied the themes in depth to gain a fresh view and to explore deeper and alternative meanings.

Step 4: *Interpretation and checking* – In this stage, the researcher goes through the interpretation with a fine-tooth comb and tries to fix weak points (Marshall, & Rossman, 2006; Mazabow, 2010; Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006).

### 3.8 Measures to ensure trustworthiness

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), trustworthiness is how a researcher can persuade his or her audiences, including herself that the findings of a research are worth paying attention to or worth taking account of. In this study, transferability, conformability and credibility were used to ensure trustworthiness.

#### 3.8.1 Credibility

The credibility of qualitative research depends on the ability and effort of the researcher. In order to ensure credibility, the researcher, as the primary instrument spends enough time with the participant, in order for the participant to come out with more information until the researcher feels that data saturation has been reached (Mouton, 2009). Member checks were also used to achieve credibility. The researcher did this by rechecking consistency and accuracy of the participants’ responses, the participants were sent their completed transcriptions and asked to notify the researcher of any discrepancies in their reports. Responses from all the men confirmed that the data was both conceptually intended and accurately recorded.

#### 3.8.2 Conformability

Babbie and Mouton (2001) indicates that conformability is a criterion for evaluating data quality with qualitative data, referring to the objectivity or neutrality of data. To ensure conformability, the researcher interpreted only what participants were saying, to ensure that the findings were free from the researcher’s preconceptions.

#### 3.8.3 Transferability

In order to ensure transferability, the description of data collected was inclusive enough to be able to transfer the findings to the other situations. This aspect was ensured by selecting the sample purposefully, by ensuring complete description of the methodology and literature control, and by giving quotes (verbatim) from the individual interviews (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). A detailed description of each of the themes developed from the research question was included in the results section to provide detailed findings from the study.

### 3.9 Ethical considerations

Elcioglu (2004) argues that research of abuse is not like other areas of investigation. The nature of the topic means that ethical issues are more important than in any other form of research. In this study, the following ethical principles, according to Terre Blance, Durrheim, and Painter (2006), were considered: autonomy, non-maleficence, and beneficence. Elcioglu (2004) indicates that obtaining ethical clearance (to conduct domestic violence research) is also recommended by the WHO.
3.9.1 Obtaining ethical clearance

Before commencing the study, ethical approval for the study was granted by the Health, Safety and Research Ethics Committee of the University of Venda and further access to data was obtained from the management of the South African Police Service, Makhado cluster.

3.9.2 Autonomy and respect for the dignity of persons

The principle of autonomy required that the participants be made aware that their participation was voluntary, and that it was for the purpose of the research participants are to be made aware that they have freedom to withdraw at any time, and that they have the right to anonymity in any publication that may arise (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). These requirements were verbally communicated to the male victims of domestic violence and through an informed consent form, which was signed by each participant and the researcher (see Appendix C).

According to Babbie (2010), protecting the participants’ interests and well-being is the same as protecting their identity. In this study, pseudonyms were used to protect the participants. The researcher also assured the participants that all the information that they provided would be kept confidentially and that all identifying information like names and addresses would be removed from the interview booklet when no longer necessary. Neither researchers nor readers of the findings would ever match the responses with a given participant. All the data from the study would only be available to the research team, and no one else.

3.9.3 Non-maleficence

It is well known that victims of domestic violence may feel deeply ashamed, experience extreme generalised fear and be filled with anxiety that they will be victimised again. Non-maleficence means that no harm should come to the research participants or any other person. Therefore, the first responsibility of the researcher is the protection of these participants (Elcioglu, 2004). No harm was expected to come to the participants during the research. However, the researcher was aware and vigilant, throughout the research process, of any physical, emotional or psychological harm that may have happened to the participants.

3.9.4 Beneficence

The principle of beneficence requires that the researcher designs a study that would be of benefit to the research participants, or to other researchers and society at large (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). The research study aimed at assisting male victims of domestic violence who are suffering in silent about their abuse to come forward so that they can get help. The narratives of the male victims provided new perspectives and a better understanding of men who are victims of domestic violence.
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the interviews conducted on the silence of male victims on domestic violence are presented and discussed according to the identified themes and sub-themes. The transcribed and translated interviews were analysed using the thematic content analysis method. Thematic content steps of data analysis were used to arrange the themes. Data analysed were then presented in the form of themes.

4.2 Results

From the data collected, three themes emerged. These themes were further broken down into sub-themes. The following themes emerged: forms of domestic violence experienced, reasons for not communicating the abuse and the effect of domestic violence. These themes were developed based on the research questions that the study intended to answer. To identify the participants, the researcher used numbers, and initials. This was done in order to preserve confidentiality and anonymity. Table 4.1 shows the main themes and sub-themes identified from the transcripts.

Table 4.1: Main themes and sub-themes identified

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forms of domestic violence</td>
<td>Physical abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experienced</td>
<td>Emotional or verbal abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for not communicating the abuse</td>
<td>Embarrassment and shame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear of being labelled a weak man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear of not being believed by police officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concern about their children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects of domestic violence</td>
<td>Physical effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1 Theme 1: Forms of domestic violence experienced

Results from data collected from all twelve participants interviewed showed that men experience domestic violence in the form of physical abuse, emotional or verbal abuse and financial abuse from their female partners.

4.2.1.1 Physical abuse

It is evident from the results that all participants experienced different types of physical abuse at the hands of their female partners. Some participants were kicked, slapped, stabbed with knives, grabbed by their private parts, and pushed, bitten and scratched with nails. Participants said that their partners used anything that they could get to hit them. Some reported being beaten or hit with household items such as flower vases, hot irons and sometimes with dangerous object like hammers. This is how they said it:

“She hit me on the head with a hot iron that was placed on the table and I still have a fresh scar to prove it” (Participant 6 JK).

“She became aggressive; slapped me with an open hand on the face. I pushed her and she quickly grabbed my private parts. I screamed because of pain begging her to stop” (Participant 1 LM).
“All of a sudden, I felt a sharp pain on my shoulder and realised that she had stabbed me with a knife. I was bleeding heavily” (Participant 4 MK).

From the interviews it is evident that some of the participants were being abused without them knowing that what they were going through was another form of physical abuse. Abusive women would sometimes use tactics that do not need physical strength. The can use actions to hurt their husbands. Some participants indicated that they are being denied food, while others indicated that sometimes they are denied sex. This is how it was said:

If I come home late at night, when I ask for food, she will refuse and I will sleep on an empty stomach” (Participant 9 NL).

“She also withholds her services (sex) from me; the last time we had sex was two months ago. When I ask her, she tells me that she’s not a sex machine. When I insist, she becomes very angry and we end up fighting” (Participant 11 IA).

Evidence shows that participants sometimes lose control and retaliate, but they are afraid that if they hit them back, they could easily kill or injure their wives. It was revealed during the interview some participants said the following:

“She became very angry and grabbed a broom and started hitting me with a broom stick in front of customers and my employees. I lost control and pushed her out of the shop and she nearly fell” (Participant 8 TI).

“She bit me on the hand which was holding a cell phone. She then picked a flower vase on the table and hit me on the head. I nearly hit her back but I didn’t” (Participant 3 RL).

4.2.1.2 Emotional or verbal abuse

Some participants mentioned emotional or verbal abuse as the other form of domestic violence they were experiencing at the hands of their female partners. It is evident from the participants; responses that the types of emotional abuse they are subjected to include yelling, screaming and shouting. The abusers use degrading language, insults, criticism, calls them names in front of their children or their friends, put them down or humiliate in the presence of other people. They try to control where the victim goes, who he talks to, and what he does. Most of the common phrases used by abusers to attack their spouses were, “stupid”, “fool”, “useless man”, and “pathetic”. This is how they said it:

“...If I don’t have money to give her, ooh! She will swear at me saying that I’m useless and pathetic. I will just keep quiet but, she just goes on and on calling me all sorts of names” (Participant 6 JK).

“She constantly calls me a fucking pervert and useless man accusing me of being unfaithful. She seems to know exactly what to say to hurt me deeply” (Participant 7 PT).

“One day, she insulted me in front of her friend calling me a scumbag who is good for nothing, because I had accidentally scratched the car while trying to reverse the car from the garage” (Participant 12 A M).

Some participants reported that they did not want to make things worse. During the violent episode, they will just leave or keep quiet, in order to keep peace at home. This is how it was said:

“I have to keep quiet and endure all her comments about me, that I am a useless and good for nothing husband. Her comments hurt me so much” (Participant 11 IA).

“Sometimes I will leave the house and wander around the streets not knowing where I’m going or find myself going to the nearby tavern just to cool off my head and come back later when her anger has subsided” (Participant 9 NL).
Participants reported that being criticised about their appearances and their bodily shapes are more devastating and hurtful than when being physically assaulted. Words cut deeper than the sharpest sword and it is difficult to forget when someone very close to you says something bad about you. Some indicated that sometimes they cry when they are alone, when they think about all that they are going through. This is how it was indicated:

“My wife will say that she’s ashamed of me and her friends laugh at her, because I have a big belly and I walk like a pregnant pig” (Participant 9 NL).

“My wife always makes nasty comments that she has never seen an ugly and dark man like me and she’s ashamed to go in public with me” (Participant 3 LR).

“I’m always feeling sad because of her derogatory criticism that I have an ugly body shape; even clothes don’t suit me. I’m unable to sleep during the night and sometimes I cry at night when I think about all those things she says about me” (Participant 11 IM).

### 4.2.1.3 Financial abuse

A few participants reported that they experience financial abuse at the hands of their female partners. It was evident from what the male victims said that their female partners do not give them access to their own financial affairs. Their spouses’ keep the bank cards because they suspect that they are having concubines and that they are wasting money unnecessarily. They are not allowed to buy something for themselves. They can only do so with their partner’s permission. Few participants indicated that when the wife is earning more than them, they experience difficulties as they depend on their wives financially. This is how it was indicated:

“My wife’s salary is more than mine. She will take my card and withdraw all my salary, leaving only twenty rand in the account. I must ask her for money every time I need it” (Participant 9 NL).

“My wife keeps my bank card and she spends all my money to buy herself expensive clothes and jewellery” (Participant 6 JK).

“When it is end of the month, I’m terrified to go home, because she demands that I give her my salary advice and bank statement and then explain how and on what I have spent every cent that I have earned” (Participant 10 VN).

“I cannot remember a time when I was not short of money. Whenever I need money to buy myself something, I must ask money from her” (Participant 4 MK).

Participants in this study reported that they try to keep peace by limiting verbal retaliation. Interviews conducted revealed that there is no doubt that men subjected to domestic violence from female partners experience serious abuse that is life threatening and likely to have a long lasting impact on them. These male victims keep quiet because they are not aware that there are support systems that are available to them.

### 4.2.2 Theme 2: Reasons for not communicating the abuse

When responding to the question about the reasons for not communicating the abuse they are experiencing, participants gave different reasons. Most participants mentioned similar reasons like embarrassment, shame, fear of being labelled a weak man, fear of being doubted by police officers, and some were concerned about their children. They keep quiet to protect the children from knowing that their parents are having problems, as this could affect their children’s well-being and their schooling. Children from unstable families tend to have problems when they grow up.
Some participants stated that another reason is that verbal abuse is very difficult to prove as there are no visible marks on their bodies to show as evidence, so nobody would ever believe them even if they spoke about it. Therefore, the victims have no other choice but to keep quiet and continue to suffer in silence.

All participants indicated that women are believed more than men. They can go and fabricate stories to the police that they are being abused by their husbands and they will be believed and the police vans will come in large numbers to arrest the man, but when a man says he is being abused by his wife, everybody will laugh at him. Participants also indicated that when a woman goes to report domestic violence the police will rush to the house in more than three police vehicles. This clearly shows that women are frequently viewed by the law enforcement and the criminal justice system as victims rather than the actual offenders of violence against men. Men, however, are viewed as perpetrators. The sub-themes that follow give details of this theme.

4.2.2.1 Embarrassment and shame

All participants interviewed reported that they could not talk about or report the abuse to the police due to the feelings of embarrassment and shame. A few reported that they are reluctant to go to the police to report because they are afraid that they will be laughed at and mocked. They indicated that they feel ashamed to talk about what they are going through. Some of them reported that it is even worse when the wife is hitting a man; the embarrassment will be too much if other people find out that the man is being abused by his own wife.

“I found it to be embarrassing to go to the Police station to report that my wife is physically abusing me. I am too ashamed; I don’t want people to know my private issues as people talk too much” (Participant 9 NL).

“I cannot bear the embarrassment you know. Just imagine a man of my age telling a young Constable that my wife is abusing me. I would never stoop so low. Those policemen will mock me and laugh at me; it is very much embarrassing” (Participant 6 JK).

4.2.2.2 Fear of being labelled a ‘weak man’

Some participants indicated that they do not want to talk about the abuse out of fear of being labelled weak men, who are unable to control their own wives. Some participants reported that they are afraid that their neighbours and friends will see them as cowards because they are being abused by women. Culturally, it is the man’s duty as head of the family to control his wife and children.

“I’m afraid people will think that I’m a weak man who cannot control his wife. I am not a coward” (Participant 3 RL).

“I won’t report her, because men are not supposed to show their weaknesses. They are viewed as the stronger sex, especially in a marriage” (Participant 5 MT).

Some participants indicated that they feel ashamed to say that they are being abused by their wives because, in their culture, husbands are supposed to exercise certain control over their wives.

“I don’t want to report the abuse because I know that I will be the talk of the whole village. People will mock me saying I am not man enough because I am unable to control my wife” (Participant 4 MK).
4.2.2.3 Fear of being doubted by police officers

Some of the participants reported that they do not want to report the abuse because whenever they go to the police station to report, the police do not believe them. Instead, they are told that they are the ones abusing their wives. Some also reported that they are sometimes told to go and fetch their wives to prove that what they are saying is true.

“The police will never assist a man because the law is on the side of the woman and I was not assisted when I went to ask for assistance at the station. My wife was refusing to let me inside the house because I was drunk and she locked me out of the house” (Participant 10 VN).

“I will never go to the police to ask for any help, I remember a friend of mine who went to the police station to lay a complaint against his wife. He was turned away and was told to go and put his house in order” (Participant 1 LM).

“I know that women are the first priority when we come to the issue of domestic violence. Therefore, I will never bother myself to go to the police because everyone believes that we are the abusers” (Participant 7 PT).

“I was the one who called the police when she was attacking me, but to my surprise, when the police came, they took me to the police station as if I’m the one abusing her” (Participant 8 TI).

4.2.2.4 Concern about their children

Almost all participants interviewed mentioned children as one of the reasons that prevent them from reporting their partners to the police. Some of the participants said that children are very important in the family and that they are more concerned about their children’s well-being. Therefore, they do not want to report their partners because a mother plays an important role in the upbringing of the children at home. Most participants indicated that they were afraid that if they reported their wives, the wives could get arrested, and the children would be affected more.

In a nutshell, the main reason for not reporting the abuse is to protect the children. Some participants indicated that they are afraid that reporting the mothers to the police might affect their children in a negative way in their school performance, and in their well-being. Another participant also mentioned that he did not report the abuse because he was afraid of losing the children. His wife would take the children and leave him alone.

“I’m afraid that if I report her, my children will be left without their mother when she gets arrested and who will take care of my children? My children are still very young” (Participant 11 IA).

“Family is very much important to me. I love my children very much. I don’t want them to be scorned by their friends about our problems” (Participant 10 VN).

“I’m scared that if I report her she’ll leave me and she’ll also take away my children. I don’t want to lose my children” (Participant 8 TI).

4.2.3 Theme 3: The effect of abuse on male victims

Concerning the effect of abuse on the male victims, almost all participants reported that the abuse had notable physical and emotional impact on them and also on their children.
4.2.3.1 Physical effect

Some had sustained physical injuries ranging from permanent scars, internal bleeding, bruises and stab wounds that are serious enough to require medical attention. Participants showed me scars to prove that physical abuse leaves evidence on their bodies. They even mentioned the objects that their partners used.

“You see this big scar here on my shoulder. My wife stabbed me with a kitchen knife. She accused me of cheating. I was admitted in hospital for two weeks” (Participant 4 MK).

“You see this scar on my forehead. My wife hit me with a hot iron” (Participant 6 JK).

“I have bruises all over my body that I sustained when she attacked me with a hammer. My right hand thumb has a permanent teeth scar because she bit me with her teeth” (Participant 11 IA).

4.2.3.2 Emotional effect

Most participants reported the emotional effects of the abuse that they encountered from their partners. Such emotional effects ranged from feelings of anger, humiliation and diminished sexual interest. Some participants also indicated that words from their female partners hurt deeply and could even drive a person to suicide. This is evidence that the victims are emotionally affected. Feelings of humiliation were also mentioned to justify the emotional abuse that they experienced.

“I will sometimes feel very angry and humiliated at the same time because my wife will insult me and say horrible things in front of my children” (Participant 11 IA).

“My wife likes to come to my shop and provoke me by shouting and screaming at me in front of my staff. Her outbursts anger me so much” (Participant 8 TI).

“My girlfriend will come to the taxi rank to humiliate me in front of my colleagues. She’ll be calling me names and saying that I am worthless and stupid” (Participant 2 L).

“I was depressed, emotionally hurt, feeling isolated and without dignity because she was constantly insulting and humiliating in front of her friends. My physical health has also deteriorated” (Participant 9 NL).

Some participants reported that the emotional taunts had an effect on their sexual interest and performance.

“I was obliged to have sexual relations with her whenever she demanded it or when she’s in a good mood” (Participant 5 MT).

“I lost sexual interest in her because she was constantly criticising and making funny comments about my manhood (penis) and my performance in bed” (Participant 9 NL).

“The thought of my wife sleeping with another man, makes me to lose sexual interest in her” (Participant 3 LR).
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the major findings of this study based on the common themes that emerged across all twelve participants are discussed. To understand the experiences and feelings that the participants had concerning domestic violence against men in heterosexual relationships, are interpreted and related relevant literature.

5.2 Forms of domestic violence experienced by male victims

The commonest forms of domestic violence experienced by male victims in this study are physical abuse, emotional or verbal abuse and financial abuse. Most participants indicated that they were not physically assaulted with a fist, but that their female partners just threw or hit them with objects such as cooking spoons, shoes and plates. Some reported that their wives use violence to control them or to let them do whatever they want. These findings are similar to those of Tsae (2011) who found that, in South Africa, violence is used as a means of obtaining and maintaining control in relationships within the family. Eckstein (2009) also indicates that the abuser wants to be in power in the family and uses violence as a way of obtaining that power. Most of participants were physically assaulted by their wives.

Retief and Green (2015) also stated that domestic violence manifests in physical, emotional, financial and sexual abuse. It was evident, in this study that men do not speak about the abuse they are experiencing in their heterosexual relationships. These findings are in line with those of Geldenhuys (2012) who states that male victims find it very difficult to disclose their abuse, so its occurrence remains unknown.

5.2.1 Physical abuse

Men, in this study, reported that they were physically assaulted by their wives or partners. They reported a range of physical abuse including direct assaults, being hit with objects, such as flower vases, hammers and hot irons. They were scratched, grabbed by their private parts or kicked on their private parts, and stabbed with knives. This shows that, irrespective of what is happening, these participants would be hit by any object that is around and accessible. This finding seems to corroborate what Geldenhuys (2012) indicates in her article that women hit, kick, punch, push or bite their male victims, and, sometimes, also use weapons, such as knives, firearms, or any object that can be used to strike such as pans, bottles, vases and cake rollers.

Participants indicated that they are also ashamed to mention that they are being abused by their wives because men are regarded as stronger than women. This finding supports Eckstein’s (2009) who indicate in his article, that society and media find it hard to believe that women, who are viewed as the weaker sex, are capable of causing physical injury or harm to men. It was also confirmed by Geldenhuys (2012) that men regard women as more vulnerable, so they are hesitant to hit them even though they are muscular and stronger than their female abusers. The findings of the study support Meadow’s (2001) finding that even if men are physically attacked by their wives or partners, many men will take a beating rather than hit back to defend themselves and avoid harming their wives. According to the hegemonic masculinity theory, man believes that a woman should be his subordinate.

5.2.2 Emotional abuse

Emotional or verbal abuse is common in heterosexual relationships because the perpetrator knows that it is not easy for the victim to prove it as there are no visible scars to show. Although the study found that women physically abuse their spouses, literature reveals that women do not usually use their physical strength to abuse their spouse, but, generally, women prefer emotional abuse tactics, making the abuse much more difficult to detect (Barkhuizen 2010). Male victims indicated that women are mostly good with words and they seem to know exactly what to say to hurt the man deeply, to the extent
that a man can be deeply hurt to the point of crying. This finding is in line with Barkhuizen’s (2010) who indicates that emotional abuse cuts to the very core of a person, creating scars that may be far deeper and more lasting than physical ones. The participants, in this study, indicated that it is devastating to be labelled “worthless” over and over again. Literature shows that people who are told they are worthless again and again begin to believe that they are. It has been was argued that it is the put-downs, name calling, insults, belittling and critical statements that have a serious and long-lasting effect on self-esteem as these messages keep repeating in the victim’s mind, years after the bruises have healed (Madzimbalale, 2007).

5.2.3 Financial abuse

Financial abuse is damaging and the experience of financial abuse is different for every victim. Some of the participants reported that they experience financial abuse. Financial abuse is more difficult to identify and quantify in comparison to physical and verbal abuse (Geldenhuys, 2012). In this study, which had some high profile people, such as policemen, teachers and businessmen, participants reported that their wives keep their bank cards and also control them on how they should spend their own money, forcing male victims to beg for money from the wives. They indicate that this makes life very difficult for them.

Some wives will use the money without first consulting their husbands. The findings are similar to those of Mullender (2002), Tilbrook, Allan and Dear (2010), who found that the abusers and survivors of domestic violence may be from any class, economic status, ability, or education and that financial abuse took the form of controlling the partner’s financial affairs, often in an incompetent way. Participants whose money is controlled and misused by their wives lose their source of livelihood and suffer severe debts to the extent that they cannot secure any financial loans from banks. This finding is in line with Fitzpatrick’s (2002) who found that men whose money are being controlled by their wives end up with big debts due to their wives overspendings.

5.3 Reasons for not communicating the abuse

The findings of this study revealed four main reasons to explain why male victims keep silent about the abuse they are experiencing in their heterosexual relationships. Male victims of domestic violence often do not talk about their experiences of abuse due to different reasons. The findings are discussed next.

5.3.1 Embarrassment and shame

Most of the participants indicated that they feel embarrassed or ashamed of what they are going through behind the closed doors of their homes. To say that their wives are physically or emotionally abusing them is too much for them, and they prefer to keep quiet about it to hide the embarrassment or shame. The findings are in line with Kimmel’s (2001) which indicate that some victimized men may feel or believe that it is too embarrassing to report their female intimate partners’ violence.

Some participants indicated that, to avoid embarrassment, they keep quiet because they do not want to hang their dirty laundry in public; they regard their experience as a private matter, which they must handle on their own. These findings are similar to Katerndahl, Burge, Ferrer, Becho and Wood’s (2010) which revealed that domestic violence against men, in Northern Ireland, has increased by more than 40% in nine years and that is just reported incidents. But this may be only a fraction of the true figure due to the reluctance of many men to come forward because of embarrassment and shame. Also the findings corroborate those of Geldenhuys (2012) which show that there may still be many male victims who do not report such incidents because of embarrassment and shame.

5.3.2 Fear of being labelled “weak men”

Some participants reported that being, insulted or called by names, yelling and shouting were the most common behaviors that their wives display in front of their children and friends, resulting in people and
friends making fun of and mocking them that they are weak and that they have failed as men by allowing their wives to abuse them. Another male victim also indicated that he feels somehow less of a man for allowing himself to be abused by his wife. This finding is in similar to Barber’s (2008) who found that domestic violence against men tends to go unrecognized because men are less likely to admit or report such incidents due to embarrassment, and fear of being ridiculed. The finding similar to that of Geldenhuys (2012) who found that a man is regarded as the head of the family and that he must be able to control his wife. Failure to do that will make him appear weak or not man enough. Such a man will be the laughing stock of his community. Culturally, it is very difficult for men to bring the abuse to the attention of the authorities because admitting that they are being abused by women is seen as being unmanly and weak (Geldenhuys, 2012).

5.3.3 Not being believed by police officers

Participants in this study reported that they do not want to report the abuse to the police because they are afraid of being doubted by the police. The society also had a great impact on the decision of male victims keeping quiet about the abuse they are experiencing. This finding is similar to Allen-Collinson’s (2009) findings in her study that few men reported their experiences of domestic abuse to the police because they were afraid of being disbelieved. Their abuse is compounded by the absence of help.

Literature shows that there are few local research reports that provide insight into the policing of domestic violence in South Africa, indicating a high level of dissatisfaction and negativity by male victims’ negativity towards the responses of police officers (Retief & Green, 2005). Apart from the responses given by research participants, the media always portrays men as the perpetrators of domestic violence and society usually believes that in a relationship, a woman is always the victim not the man (Geldenhuys, 2012).

It was also evident in this study, that, due to the fact that police laugh at victims when they open up and try to lay a complaint against their female partners, the men end up protecting their egos by just leaving without laying criminal charges against their female partners. This is consistent with Lehane (2005), and Retief and Green’s claims (2005) that men are violated from time to time because they are never believed by the people around them and the Criminal Justice System when they voice their own situations.

Due to the perception that the law favors women over men, participants would rather apply for a protection order than lay a criminal charge against their spouses. Unfortunately, this gives the women ammunition to abuse their partners (participants) knowing that they are protected by the law and they are regarded as victims and not as perpetrators of domestic violence. It is also clear in the campaign that takes place between the 25 November and 10 December on the 16 Days of Activism for no violence against women and children, that nothing is said about men who are also victims of domestic violence (Felson, 2007; Geldenhuys, 2012).

5.3.4 Concern about their children

It is also evident in this study that the concern about the children’s well-being was another reason that led the male victims to remaining silent about domestic violence. The victims do not want their children to be subjected to the trauma of being without both parents if their mothers were jailed. Some thought of the negative impact on their children’s well-being as a result of the discovery that their fathers are being abused by their mothers. This finding is similar to Doughty (2008) who found that children suffer badly from divorce or parental break-up, and that those brought up by a single parent are more likely to do badly at school, suffer poor health, and fall into crime, addiction and poverty as adults.

Some participants reported that they are afraid that they will lose contact with their children because the women can turn the children against them by telling the children lies about their fathers. This finding is similar to that of Medeiros and Strauss (2006) who discovered that some victimized men
may feel or believe that they might lose their children in a custody battle or that if the women leave with their children they would be less financially solvent because of the costs of the child support and the need to maintain two residences.

5.4 Effect of domestic violence on male victims

With regards to the effect of domestic violence on male victims, three themes emerged from the data. Participants reported that domestic violence had notable emotional, physical and financial effects on them as victims. The effects of emotional abuse are greater and more intense than the effects of physical abuse alone.

5.4.1 Effects of emotional abuse

Participants mentioned feelings of anger, frustration, shame, and loss of self-confidence because of what they are going through in their families. This finding seems to corroborate what Hines and Malley–Morrison discovered in their study, namely that abused men were significantly more likely to experience psychosomatic symptoms, stress, and depression than non-abused men. This finding is similar to Barkhuizein’s (2010), Eckstein (2009), and Drijber, Reijnders, and Ceelen’s (2012) who argue that emotional abuse can leave a person feeling depressed, anxious and even suicidal, as the fact that it has a negative impact on self-esteem and confidence. This is consistent with Geldenhuys (2012) findings that domestic violence robs the victims of their joy in life. The abusive behavior of their female partners leaves them feeling very angry and depressed. As a result, they can no longer concentrate at work.

Another participant stated that his wife called him ugly and too fat and this comment left him feeling very sad and hurt. This finding is similar to Geldenhuys’s (2012) who found that when a person is constantly called names and being criticized by the spouse the person’s self-confidence is eroded. The finding is also in line with Eckstein’s (2009) who purports that even though survivors of domestic violence may experience similar types of abuse, the response to trauma may vary from person to person. Participants also mentioned that they find it difficult to enjoy peace in the house to the extent that they end up preferring life with friends than with their abusive wives.

5.4.2 Effects of financial abuse

Participants in this study mentioned that they experience a lot of stress in their relationships due to financial control from their partners. Their partners control the way they spend money, while some indicated that they are denied access to their bank accounts. Most indicated that they are worried about how the bills will get paid and how they are going to live or survive without money. Some pointed out that, because of their damaged credit profiles; they are now unable to get loans from their banks. This finding is similar to Hafemeister’s (2003) who states that financial abuse can ruin someone’s life. It can strip away a person’s sense of security, independency and safety. The finding is also similar to Geldenhuys’s (2012) who argues that the short and long term effects of financial abuse can be devastating. The short term access to assets is imperative to staying safe. Without assets, survivors are often unable to obtain safe and affordable housing or funds to provide for themselves or their children. Ruined credit scores make it extremely difficult to gain independence, safety and long term security.

5.4.3 Effects of physical abuse

It is evident in the study findings that the physical effects of domestic violence involves sustained serious physical injuries which require medical attention, for example stab wounds, scars and bruises, broken bones. This finding supports Hines and Malley–Morrison’s (2001) findings that 2% of the men who reported experiencing minor or severe spousal abuse reported suffering broken bones, broken teeth, or injury to sensory organs. The finding also corroborates Nayback-Beebe and Yoder’s assertion (2012) that among possible health consequences of intimate partner violence is physical injuries that can lead
to disability and death, post-traumatic stress disorder, substance use disorders, insomnia, and chronic pain.

Most participants stated that their partners throw objects like flower vases, shoes, and even cooking pots. This finding is similar to Hines and Malley-Morrison’s findings that sometimes women may even score by brandishing a weapon or throwing things that could hurt their partners, for example, dishes, boiling water, or frying pans. In this study, almost all the participants, when asked about their injuries by other people, cover for their wives behavior by claiming that they got injured while performing some task at home, or they give excuses that they hurt themselves accidentally. This finding is similar to Hines and Malley-Morrison’s (2001) who report that domestic violence victims often cover up their injuries to avoid being questioned by others. Oftentimes, injuries are explained by claiming that one tripped and fell, or broke something that resulted in an injury.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research findings and related them to the literature reviewed. However, reviewed literature revealed that there is a lack of research on the direct effects of domestic violence on male victims of domestic violence. The next chapter will present the conclusion of the whole research study. It will include the following sections: limitations of the study and study recommendations.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the forms of domestic violence that male victims experience, reasons for not revealing the abuse and the effect of abuse on male victims are assessed in accordance with the aims of the study. Conclusions that were made by the participants concerning their experiences are also documented. Finally the limitations of the study and the recommendations of what can be done to assist male victims to break their silence on domestic violence are presented in this chapter.

6.2 Summary

The researcher revisits the research aim and objectives of the study as set out in chapter 1 and draws necessary conclusions as to whether the aim was sufficiently met and discussed. The aim of this exploratory research study was to investigate the silence of male victims on the domestic violence that they are experiencing at the hands of their female partners. For the purpose of this study, domestic violence signifies any behaviour that the receivers consider abusive and male victims refer to men who are victims of abuse.

The study concluded that male victims are reluctant to disclose abuse because of shame, fear of being labelled weak and fear of not being believed by police officers and society. Some do not want to be laughed at and some are very much concerned about the wellbeing of their children. Male victims are neglected and often ignored by the society.

To solve the problem of domestic violence, the social services have to identify the root cause and attend to it. Society focuses on women and child abuse, but it has they alarmingly missed the mark by accusing some abused men of being monsters. Women and children are not the only recipients of abuse, and men are not the sole abusers. The researcher found that one of the biggest challenges men face is that current legislation discriminates against men. The 16 Days of Activism awareness campaigns speak only for women and children, and is quiet on the side of men. Men are viewed as perpetrators of domestic violence and women as victims.

6.2.1 Research objectives

The basic conclusions drawn in relation to each objective are summarised below:

6.2.1.1 The forms of domestic violence experienced by male victims

The forms of abuse that men are subjected to are not different from those which women who are victims of domestic violence experience. Women who abuse their spouses also do not differ much from male abusers. These women who abuse their husbands hit, kick, punch, push or bite their victims. They sometimes use weapons such as knives, flower vases, pans or bottles.

The study concluded that swearing, yelling, mocking and calling names also resulted in deterioration in health and wellness of the victim and that these manifest as by low self-esteem, depression, frustration, fear, anger and humiliation. An example of emotional abuse was found in the study when a male victim testified that he felt humiliated when his wife criticised his body structure and how he walks.

Emotional abuse, according to these victims, is more devastating than physical abuse because words cut deeper than physical injuries. Some of the male victims’ subjected to domestic violence experienced financial abuse inflicted by their female partners. The study findings revealed that lack of money resulted in poor health and wellness, ruined credit scores, accumulation of debts, and poverty. Most victims testified that their wives keep their bank cards and whenever they need money, they are supposed to beg and explain what they need money for. If they refuse to give them the bank cards, some will experience silent treatment from their wives and others will be shouted at.
6.2.1.2 Reasons for not communicating the abuse

The study concluded that there are many reasons why male victims do not communicate the abuse. Culturally, men are viewed as being physically stronger than women. Consequently, male abused victims may not report incidents of domestic violence or seek help because of shame and embarrassment, fear of not being believed by authorities like the police, fear of being labelled weak, fear of not being heard or believed because of the widely held belief that domestic violence is something that men do to women. Some are afraid that they would be blamed for the abuse, that they must have done something to provoke it or that the woman was retaliating against the husband’s abuse of her.

The study revealed that male victims also suffer more when attempting to access help, as males are more likely to be labelled the abusers and to be treated with suspicion; the injuries they sustained in the abuse are likely to be minimised. It was evident from the interviews that male victims are mistreated and mocked by the police when they seek help at the police stations. Several participants indicated that instead of laying a criminal charge, they would rather apply for a restraining order against their female partners, in the hope that the abuse will stop.

A protection order is not the solution to domestic violence. Instead, male victims contribute to the underreporting of cases of domestic violence against them because most of them after getting a protection order they go back to the magistrate’s office and cancel it. Female perpetrators must be arrested and brought to justice, just like male perpetrators of domestic violence. Some victims indicated that the police should take their complaints seriously even if it is a man who is reporting the abuse because men also have the same rights to protection as women.

6.2.1.3 The effect of domestic violence on male victims of domestic violence

The study concludes that men are more deeply affected by emotional abuse than physical abuse. Humiliating a man emotionally in front of other men is more demoralising than physical abuse. All male victims who were interviewed reportedly experienced high levels of stress. Some men feel that they are not real men anymore and their self-esteem is affected. Some participants reported on-going psychological consequences of being controlled, being humiliated, and being physically injured.

There is a lack of information and support services for male victims of domestic violence. To improve the provision of services, society and the government need to increase people’s awareness of domestic violence against men, and also to encourage and support men to report domestic violence incidents against them.

6.3 Limitations of the study

The sensitiveness of the study made some participants deeply ashamed, reluctant and uncomfortable when responding to questions because the researcher was a woman. Many participants withdrew from the study because they were uncomfortable being interviewed by a young woman. The sample size of twelve was too small to generalise the findings to all the male victims in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province of South Africa. Due to lack of South African literature on the silence of male victims of domestic violence, this study relied heavily on foreign literature to situate its findings. The scope of the books and literature on domestic violence against men is quite limited. There is no significant research dealing directly with the silence of male victims on domestic violence.
6.4 Conclusion

The experiences of male victims of domestic violence are insufficiently acknowledged. There is need to encourage men, either as victims or as abusers, to contact service providers, in order to get help. This study showed that men may choose to remain silent about the abuse they are experiencing from their female partners in order to protect masculinities.

6.5 Recommendations of the study

The study recommends that:

- SAPS management needs to educate the police to take cases of abuse against men just as seriously as they take abuse against women,
- The Department of Justice ensure that women who abuse men are prosecuted just as they ensure prosecution of men who abuse women.
- Male victims of domestic violence should follow all the legal processes available to them to deal with domestic violence to which they are subjected. They do not have to suffer in silence as there are agencies and people who care and who can offer help, support and advice.
- Family members of male victims should take them more seriously and provide them with effective support and assistance (including ensuring their safety). They should encourage them to speak about their experiences and not to suffer alone in silence.
- To solve the problem of domestic violence, society must not view men as abusers only. Women and children are not the only recipients of abuse and men are not the sole abusers. Pointing a finger at men and turning a blind eye to women who abuse men will take us back to square one. The same orders to prevent male-on-female violence should also be available to protect men.
REFERENCES


Domestic Violence and Treatment Board, 19 (5), 603 -618.


APPENDIX A
TIME FRAME

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<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>LENGTH OF TIME</th>
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<tr>
<td>Draft interview schedule</td>
<td>09-16 January 2015 (2 weeks)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Run interviews with individual participants</td>
<td>15 January - 23 September 2015 (8 months)</td>
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<td>Data analysis</td>
<td>01 October - 28 December 2015 (2 months)</td>
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<td>Report writing</td>
<td>04 January - 4 February 2016 (1 Month)</td>
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APPENDIX B
INFORMATION LEAFLET

Introduction
My name is Ms Azwindini Brigate Modau. I am a Masters student at the University of Venda carrying out research on The Silence of Male Victims In Relation To Domestic Violence in Heterosexual Relationships in Makhado Municipality Limpopo Province.

You are being invited to volunteer to take part in a research study by expressing your opinions on the topic. For you to make an informed decision on whether to participate or not, you should have full information and understanding on what the study is about and how you will be involved. Please read the following information carefully, take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. If you would like more information or have any questions, please contact me on the following numbers: 015 519 4300 or 072 273 495 or email address bmodau@webmail.co.za.

What is the purpose of the study?
The main purpose of the study is to gather the views of men in Makhado municipality who are in heterosexual relationships on why they are silent about domestic violence directed at them. This information will be used to encourage men to break the silence about domestic abuse and suggest how authorities can help and support male victims in the same manner that they do with female victims.

How will you participate in the study?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part, you will be given this information leaflet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. However, even if you sign the consent form, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

What are your rights as a research participant?
Your decision to take part in this study is totally voluntary, that is to say you are free to refuse to take part in the study if you still have some doubts or think that your participation could leave you emotionally or psychologically disturbed. Should you agree to take part but change your mind later, you are allowed to withdraw yourself from the study at any stage and time, without being asked any questions or to give any reasons.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?
Since you shall only be answering questions on the topic being studied, there will be no possible physical injuries or harm that could result from your participation. You should not provide any
information about yourself that you do not want to share with other people or that could leave you feeling emotionally disturbed. You will not be asked to talk about your private life but to express your views on domestic violence against men.

**How will your personal privacy and confidentiality be protected?**
All views gathered in the study will be handled in a strictly confidential manner. Pseudonyms will be used instead of your real name and gathered information will not be linked to any name in the report. The gathered information will only be used for this study and not disclosed to any unauthorised people, and all the participants will have a chance to cross-check the information before and after it is put into a report.

**Has the study got approval from authorities?**
Permission to carry out this research will be requested from every individual who will be participating in the study. However, this does not mean that you should take part in the study against your will.

**APPENDIX C**

**CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN A STUDY**

University of Venda  
Department of Psychology  
Enquiries: A.B Modau

THE SILENCE OF MALE VICTIMS IN RELATION TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN HETEROSEXUAL RELATIONSHIPS IN MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY LIMPOPO PROVINCE

DECLARATION OF THE PARTICIPANT

I confirm that I,……………………………………… the participant was invited to take part in the study entitled *The Silence Of Male Victims in Relation To Domestic Violence* by Ms A.B Modau is being undertaken through the Department of Psychology, in the School of Health Sciences of the University at Venda.

It has been explained to me that:
I have to sign the informed consent form to participate in the study;  
There will be no payment offered for participating in the study;  
I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, if it makes me uncomfortable without fear of being punished by the researcher; and  
I have been informed that the information that is gathered during the interview will be treated confidentially.

I hereby agree to participate voluntarily in the above-mentioned study.

Signed at ……………on this day of ………………month………………year…………

Signature…………………………………

Witness………………………………….
APPENDIX D
PERMISSION LETTER

Makhado Cluster Commander
P.O. Box 12
Louis Trichardt
0920

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY
I am here by writing to request permission to conduct a research study in the Police stations under Makhado Cluster. I am currently enrolled in Master’s degree at the University of Venda, and I am in the process of writing my Master’s Thesis. The study is entitled: The Silence of Male Victims in Relation To Domestic Violence in Heterosexual Relationships in Makhado Municipality Limpopo Province.

I will be grateful if the Cluster Commander and the management team will grant me access into domestic violence registers SAP 508(b) of complaints of domestic violence in any of the 7 stations within the Makhado Cluster. Those who are interested or who volunteer to participate, will be given a consent form to be signed.

If approval is granted, participants will be interviewed in the institution at a quiet place, and the interview process should take no longer than one and half hours. The individual information obtained through the interviews will remain absolutely confidential and anonymous. Your approval to allowance to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated. I will follow up with a telephone call and would be happy to answer any questions or concerns that you may have about the study. You may contact me at my email address bmodau@webmail.co.za

If you agree, kindly submit a signed letter of permission on your institution’s letterhead acknowledging your consent and permission.

Sincerely,
Azwindini Brigate Modau
APPENDIX E
APPROVAL LETTER TO CONDUCT A STUDY

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Postbus/Post Office Box 12, Makhado, 0920

Reference 26/3/4

Navrae Enquiries BRIG. L.A Seopa
Telephone 015 - 519 4327
Fax number 015 - 519 4346

THE CLUSTER COMMANDER
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
MAKHADO CLUSTER
0920
2015-01-20

A.B MODAU. STUDENT NO: 9301375
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY IN STATIONS WITH MAKHADO CLUSTER: A.B MODAU 9301375.


1. Permission is hereby granted for Ms A.B Modau, student no: 9301375 to conduct a research study in Police stations within Makhado Cluster.

2. I hope you will find this in order

CLUSTER COMMANDER: MAKHADO CLUSTER
L.A. SEOPA

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
MAKHADO CLUSTER

LOUIS TRICHARDT
SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIE

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APPENDIX F
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Title: The Silence of Male Victims in Relation to Domestic Violence in heterosexual relationships in Makhado Municipality Limpopo Province, South Africa: An Exploratory Study.

1. Can you please explain the form of domestic violence you were experiencing within your heterosexual relationship?
2. When did the abuse start?
3. Why are you still staying with your abusive partner/wife?
4. How do you cope in the situation you are experiencing in your relationship?
5. What are your reasons for not laying criminal charges against her?
6. Please tell me, how did the abuse affect you?
7. How did you protect yourself from the abuse?
8. What must be done to encourage men out there to break their silence?

DECLARATION

I, Azwindini Brigante Modau (9301375), hereby declare that the dissertation for the Master of Arts (Psychology) degree at the University of Venda, hereby submitted by me, has not been submitted previously for a degree at this or any other university, that it is my own work in design and in execution, and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

Signature: A.B Modau
Date: 26 October 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I give thanks to Almighty God for giving me strength, hope, and the opportunity to complete this study. This dissertation would not have been possible without the active involvement of the following people and institutions/organizations:

- My supervisors: Dr. M. Makatu, and Dr. J.F. Takalani, for their patience, guidance and advice throughout the entire project;
- The University of Venda Research and Publications Committee for funding my study and for making the costs of this study affordable;
- The participants for their valuable contributions to the study, as well as for their time and effort;
- My family, more especially my husband, for supporting and encouraging me throughout the entire project; and
- My fellow colleagues, for their assistance and motivation.
ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:
Ms AB Modau

Student No:
9301375

PROJECT TITLE: The silence of male victims in relation to domestic violence in heterosexual relationships in Makhado Municipality Limpopo Province, South Africa: An exploratory study.

PROJECT NO: SHS/14/PSYCH/02/0412

SUPERVISORS/CO-RESEARCHERS/CO-INVESTIGATORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>INSTITUTION &amp; DEPARTMENT</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr M Makatu</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr J Takalani</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Co-Supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms AB Modau</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Investigator-Student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ISSUED BY:
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Date Considered: December 2014
Decision by Ethical Clearance Committee Granted

Signature of Chairperson of the Committee:
Name of the Chairperson of the Committee: Prof. G.E. Ekosse

University of Venda
PRIVATE BAG X5050, THOKOYANDOU 09550, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA
TELEPHONE (015) 962 8816/8313 FAX (015) 962 9060
“A quality driven financially sustainable, rural-based Comprehensive University”
The Effects of Using the Flipped Classroom Model in Teaching and Learning Calculus

Muhammed Syam, UAE University, UAE
Mohamed Salim, UAE University, UAE
Derar Serhan, Arizona State University, USA

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effects of using the flipped classroom pedagogical model in teaching Calculus. The participants were students at the College of Science in a public university in the United Arab Emirates. Ninety-five students participated in the study and were divided into two groups: Experimental group (35); and Control group (60). A quasi-experimental design was implemented and two research instruments were designed and used; a pre- and post-tests in addition to a survey. The research aimed at investigating the impact of using the flipped classroom model in one class and comparing the results with those of other sections, which followed traditional teaching methods. The results of this study showed that students’ achievements in the flipped classroom surpassed those of students in traditional classes. In addition to that, almost all students in the experimental class had a positive attitude toward the use of flipped classrooms and were satisfied with the video lectures used in the flipped classroom.

Introduction

Understanding the concepts of Calculus is of crucial importance to students in the science field. Calculus is the foundation for advanced courses in mathematics and is important in a wide array of other disciplines as well. Therefore, it is critical for math instructors to create opportunities for students to develop a clear understanding of the concepts of Calculus. Researchers and scholars in the field have strived to investigate, develop and use several teaching techniques and tools to improve student learning. For example, Serhan and Syam [1] used concept maps, Kadry and El Shalkamy [2] used the Microsoft office excel software, Estela M.R. et al. [3] used WIRIS Technology in Moodle environment, Estela J. [4] used interactive support on Moodle, Ellison [5] used computer and graphing calculators, Hohenwarter et al. [6] used the Mathematics Software GeoGebra, and Al-Refai et al. [7] used iPADs.

One of the models that were used to enhance students’ effective learning of Calculus is the flipped classroom. It is a form of blended learning according to which students learn content online and engage in learning activities discussing and solving Calculus questions. The model allows instructors to interact with students in a more personalized manner as teaching takes place in the form of guidance rather than lectures. The roles of students and instructors are different from those in the traditional classroom. The students spend time outside of class watching lectures and studying the required material. In class, the instructor is a facilitator who spends one-on-one time with each student. Class time is used to solve problems and practice instead of the traditional focus on delivery and review of content in the traditional classroom which afforded little time for applications. Although this model is relatively new, over the last three years several researchers have studied its effects on student learning in different fields such as nursing, physics and mathematics. Walsh [8] mentioned the following advantages of the flipped classroom:

- The flipped class model produces greater student engagement and allows for a more effective use of class time for problem solving, collaborative activities and group discussions that increase student engagement.
The flipped class model also produces deeper learning: this model allows spending more time in class on the higher categories of Bloom’s Taxonomy – analysis, evaluation and creation – rather than on the lower ones – memorizing and understanding, which are done outside the classroom.

2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of the use of the flipped classroom model on students’ concept images of the concepts of calculus such as limits, continuity, and asymptotes. Students face difficulties understanding many calculus concepts and are unable to make connections between their different representations. The use of the flipped classroom instructional approach requires students to spend time outside the classroom watching and, if needed, re-watching video lectures at home before the class session which is dedicated for discussions, activities and problem solving exercises. This model allows students to self-pace their learning as they can work ahead or slow down to make sure that they understand the required concepts. The video lectures explain the material and are readily available for them at all times. The model allows students the chance to understand the material and to organize their own thoughts in different ways such as graphically, algebraically, and theoretically.

The present study compared between the concept images that students formed of calculus concepts with and without using the flipped classroom model.

The main research questions were the following:

- Is there a difference between the concept images that students form before and after participation in the flipped classroom?
- What are students’ attitudes toward the flipped classroom model?

3. Method

3.1 Samples and Assessments: The students who participated in this study were enrolled in a Calculus I course at a major university in the United Arab Emirates in Spring 2015/2016. Ninety-eight students took the pre-treatment test and ninety-five took the post-treatment test. The responses of three students who did not take the post-treatment test were excluded. The students in this course used the book "Calculus Early Transcendentals ” [9]. The book covered many topics including: Limits, continuity, differentiations, and integrations. The textbook emphasized the real life application of the different concepts. Students were divided into two groups as indicated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE (1). Study Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flipped classroom group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Experimental)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional class (control)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students in the experimental group were all enrolled in one section while the students from the control group were enrolled in two different sections that were randomly selected. The assessments consisted of a pre-test, a posttest and a student survey. The pre- and posttests were identical and consisted of eight essay questions (see Table 2 for test specifications)
TABLE (2). Test Specifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content/Cognitive</th>
<th>Knowing</th>
<th>Applying</th>
<th>Problem solving and reasoning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Limits</td>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Q1, Q5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity</td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>Q6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymptotes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Q8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth mentioning that all problem solving and reasoning questions were open-ended essay questions while questions on knowledge and application were short answer questions.

3.2 Procedure. During the first week of the semester, the researchers explained to the instructors the purpose of the study. Data were collected from a pre-treatment test that was conducted during the first week of the semester as well as from a post-treatment test during the fourth week of the semester. The pre-treatment test aimed at collecting as much information as possible about the students’ concept images of limits and continuity. In addition, the students were asked to answer the following questions:

- Explain what the following means to you: limit of a function \( f(x) \) at \( x = a \)
- Explain what the following means to you: the function \( f(x) \) is continuous at \( x = a \)

The posttest was administered during the fourth week of the semester. Both tests were administered by one of the researchers and taken by students without any interference from the researcher. In the fifth week a survey was given to students in the experimental group.

3.3 Treatment. All participants agreed to participate in this study. The researchers gave all students a brief instruction session that lasted 30 minutes, they explained the flipped classroom instructional approach and gave examples. The experimental group received instruction according to the flipped classroom instructional model.

The participants in the flipped class model used WebAssign and their treatment was divided into two stages:
Before the class session: Students watched the recorded lectures on BlackBoard, then they worked on WebAssign pre-assignments and used the material available for them in WebAssign. The instructors analyzed the feedback from students’ pre-assignments, they prepared worksheets and mini-projects for the next class as well as designed an interactive PowerPoint presentation (short presentation).

During the class, students worked on the following: Solving worksheets (independently); working on mini-projects (team work); asking questions and participating in class discussions. The instructors did a short presentation based on the WebAssign’s pre-assignments feedback, they facilitated and supported students’ individual inquiries and collaborative work.

4. Analysis

The objective of the data analysis was to gain understanding of the students’ concept images and to compare between each student’s skills and concepts images of the limits and continuity before and after the treatment.

The collected data were divided into three parts: 1) students’ feedback regarding the use of the flipped classroom model; 2) the skills gained by the students using the flipped classroom model in comparison with the traditional teaching method; and 3) students’ images of the concepts of limits and continuity.

The students’ concept images of the limits were organized into four categories based on their responses on the pre- and posttests: formal mathematical definition (D); the word definition of limits “We can make \( f(x) \) as close as we like to \( L \) provided that we take \( x \) sufficiently close to \( a \)” (W); graphical meaning (G) and unclear statement (U). Students’ concept images of continuity were organized into four categories based on students’ responses: formal mathematical definition (D); the word definition...
of continuity “We can make \( f(x) \) as close as we like to \( f(a) \) provided that we take \( x \) sufficiently close to \( a \)” (W); graphical meaning (G) and unclear statement (U).

The following are samples from students’ answers in the U category for the limits:
- “limit from left equal to limit from right”
- “It means: the graph is connected”
- “function has no holes”
- “You can go through the graph of the function”
- The following are samples from students’ answers in the U category for the continuity:
- “Graph of the function does not go to infinity”
- “We have a nice function”
- “Limit exists”
- “Graph of the function does not have holes”

5. Results

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of using the flipped classroom model on students’ concept images, and to compare between each student’s skills and concepts images of the limits and continuity before and after the treatment. Tables 3-6 give a summary of students’ analyzed responses regarding the concept images of the limits and continuity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Traditional group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As evident in Table 3, more students in the experimental group emphasized the following concept images in the posttest in comparison to the pretest according to the following ratios: D (21 to 2), W (22 to 4), G (20 to 5). Before the treatment, the number of students who used unclear statements was 38 compared to 3 before treatment thus indicating that students who were in the flipped classroom were better able to form different images of the limit. In regards to the participants who were in the traditional classrooms, there was no significant change between their concept images in the pre and posttests: D (8 to 5), W(9 to 6), G(11 to 7) and U(48 to 54).

Table 4 represents the number of categories for students’ responses before and after treatment. Before the treatment, only 4 students from the experimental group mentioned more than one representation for the Limits; 31 out of 35 mentioned only one representation or none for the limits. After the treatment, using the flipped classroom model, the majority of students from the experimental group (21 out of 35) mentioned two or more representations for the Limits. The ratio of the students from the experimental group who mentioned one or more representation before the treatment was 11% compared to 60% after treatment. However, the ratio of the students from the traditional group who mentioned one or more representation before the treatment was 10% compared to 17% after treatment.
TABLE 4: Number of Students According to the Total Number of Categories for experimental and traditional groups (Limits).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of Categories used</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Traditional group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As evident in Table 5, students from the experimental group emphasized the concept images in the posttest compared to the pretest according to the following ratios: D (28 to 5), W (21 to 4), G (30 to 6). The table also shows that the number of students who used unclear statements in the pretest was 36 compared to 1 in the posttest. This is an indication that after the treatment, more students emphasized different images of the Continuity. In regards to the traditional group, there was no significant change between the pre and posttests: D(15 to 8), W(10 to 7), G(14 to 10) and U(56 to 64).

TABLE 5: The number of students in each category before and after treatment for experimental and traditional groups (Continuity).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Traditional group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 represents the number of categories for students’ responses before and after treatment. Before the treatment, only 4 students (11%) from the experimental group mentioned more than one representation for the Continuity; 31 students (89%) mentioned only one representation or none. After the treatment, using the flipped classroom model, 80% of students from the experimental group (28 out of 35) mentioned two or more representations for the Continuity. However, from the traditional group the percentage of students who mentioned one or more representation before the treatment was 13% and that number increased to 22% after the treatment.

TABLE 6: Number of Students According to the Total Number of Categories for experimental and traditional groups (continuity).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of Categories used</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Traditional group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students’ results for both the pre and post tests were analyzed using SAS. The mixed models procedure was used in the analysis to test the effect of experimental group type, time point, and experimental
group type x time interaction on the scores. Post hoc tests were done on least-squares means using Tukey adjustment for multiple comparisons (Table 7).

**TABLE (7). Statistical Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Difference (Post to Pre)*</th>
<th>P-value*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>11.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>21.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Tukey adjusted post hoc test

The overall test for difference in the scores over time was statistically significant, F (1, 93) = 672.30, p<0.001. The main effect of experimental groups variable was statistically significant, F (1, 93) = 43.93, p<0.001. The Interaction term between time and groups was statistically significant, F (1, 93) = 196.48, p<0.001. These results indicated that there is statistically significant difference in the scores overtime by experimental group. The pairwise comparison using Tukey’s test indicates that the posttest scores are significantly higher than the pretest across the groups but at different rate.

In regards to students’ attitudes toward the use of the flipped class model, most of the students (86%) had a positive attitude toward the classroom model in learning. Most of the students (83%) also indicated that the lecture videos—a main feature of the this model—helped them in understanding the calculus concepts. In addition to that, most of the students (86%) indicated their preference to enroll in classes that used the flipped classroom model rather than traditional classes and that they would recommend this model to other students as well.

6. Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of the use of the flipped classroom model on students’ concept images of the following calculus concepts: Limits, Continuity, and Asymptotes. The study also investigated students’ attitudes toward the flipped classroom model. Results of the study revealed that students who were enrolled in the flipped class were superior at communicating their understandings of the calculus concepts using multiple representations than students in the traditional classroom. Their test performance and math skills were also significantly better than the students in the traditional class. In addition to that, students had a positive attitude toward this learning model and believed that the features of such a model had a positive impact on their classroom learning.
References

Law No. 6360 on the Establishment of Fourteen Metropolitan Municipalities and Twenty-Seven Districts and Amendments at Certain Law and Decree Laws’ and Its Effect on Turkish Metropolitan Municipality System

Zuhal Onez Cetin, Usak University, Turkey

Abstract

The Municipal Law No. 6360 on The Establishment of Fourteen Metropolitan Municipalities and Twenty-seven Districts and Amendments at Certain Law and Decree Laws entered into force with the published Official Gazette dated 06.12.2012 and numbered 28489. In that regard, the metropolitan municipality numbers upgraded from 16 to 30, and all metropolitan municipality borders were expanded to the provincial borders. By the impact of that new Law, the new metropolitan system leads to structural changes in terms of administrative, financial, zoning and planning order. Critical amendments were made at administrative structure, financial system, political geography, personnel structure, the provision of services/service delivery and development and planning order. That transformation process changes the power-responsibility and service fields of the local governments. Within the context of the study, firstly the amendments that have been made within the context of that Law will be examined in detail. Secondly, a critical evaluation of Law No. 6360 will be made with putting forth its effect on Turkish metropolitan municipality system. Finally, the main criticisms towards that related Law will be examined in detail in order to assess the impacts of that Law on the administrative, political and social structure.

Key Words: Municipality, Metropolitan Municipality, Law No.6360, Turkey

Introduction:

The Municipal Law No. 6360 on The Establishment of Fourteen Metropolitan Municipalities and Twenty-seven Districts and Amendments at Certain Law and Decree Laws” put into force with the published Official Gazette dated 06.12.2012 and numbered 28489. Within the context of Law No.6360, the metropolitan municipality numbers raised from 16 to 30. That related Law also leads to changes in related with borders. In that scope, all metropolitan municipality borders were expanded to the provincial borders (Zengin, 2013: 5). By March 31, 2014 onwards, those listed metropolitan municipalities are established at Aydın, Balıkesir, Denizli, Hatay, Malatya, Manisa, Kahramanmaraş, Mardin, Muğla, Ordu1, Tekirdağ, Trabzon, Şanlıurfa and Van provinces (Law No. 6360 Article / 1. Item). In that framework, at Law No. 6360, at Article it was determined that the village and the first-tier municipalities’ legal personalities have been abrogated, that are located within the territorial boundaries of districts that are tied to the provinces being a metropolitan municipality; and the districts as neighborhoods; and the municipalities as a single neighborhood joined to the district’s municipality that they are tied to. Furthermore, at the Temporary Article 1/3; it was also mentioned that the abolished

---

1 The province of Ordu by Law No. 6447 dated 22.03.2014 became a metropolitan municipality.
municipality and village personnel’s all kind of movable and immovable goods, rights, assets and debts; by the commission decisions’ according to its relevance transferred to the ministries, metropolitan municipality, tied institution or district municipality and that transition is foreseen to be implemented at the first local government general election (Özaslan, 2014: 219).

That related Law not only leads to critical changes in the metropolitan municipality system, in general, it has an impact on whole local government units (Adıgüzel, 2012: 159). In that context, that new Law simplifies the establishment of the metropolitan municipalities. At the Metropolitan Municipal Law No. 5216 that was enforced in 2004, the establishment of metropolitan municipalities tied to the rigid provision in comparison with Law No. 6360. That related Law changed the metropolitan municipality determination, and the medium-sized cities have gained the possibility to gain the status of a metropolitan municipality in an easier way (Adıgüzel, 2012: 154). In this context, with the change in the definition of the metropolitan municipality, the population criteria is amended as having a 750 thousand population, and also the provisions such as the spatial settlement pattern and the economic development have been abrogated from the provision (Karasu, 2013: 6).

In that regard, the new metropolitan system originated structural changes within the aspect of administrative, political, financial, social, zoning and planning. By Law No. 6360, at the administrative formation those listed changes came to the front side; the removal of public legal personalities, the establishment of new public legal personalities, the amendment at administrative commitment, the changes at borders and division of powers. Additionally, the political geography is also affected by the change in the dimension of representation and participation with the change at election zones. Finally, there have also been changes in the development and planning order (İzci and Turan, 2013: 119).

Law No. 6360 that came into force after 30 March 2014 General Elections for Local Governments put forth those following issues listed below:

- At 13 provinces whose population surpass 750,000; Aydın, Balıkesir, Denizli, Hatay, Malatya, Manisa, Kahramanmaraş, Mardin, Muğla, Tekirdağ, Trabzon, Şanlıurfa and Van metropolitan municipalities established; and later with Law No. 6447, Ordu is articulated to the list of provinces at reaching the status of metropolitan municipality (Biricikoğlu and Duyar, 2015: 20). By those two laws, 14 provincial municipalities gained the status of new metropolitan municipality, the metropolitan municipalities numbers upgraded to 30; their borders’ were expanded to the provincial borders; metropolitan district municipalities boarders’ also overlaid with the district administrative borders.

- At the Metropolitan Municipality Law No. 5216, it was determined that in Istanbul and Kocaeli provinces, the boundaries of the greater city municipality on the effective date of this Law is the territorial boundaries of the province. In greater cities with population up to one million, the border line of the circle with semi-diameter twenty kilometers; if the Provincial Building is considered as the center, constitutes the boundary of the greater city; in greater cities with population from one million up to two million, the border line of the circle with semi-diameter thirty kilometers constitutes the municipal boundary; in greater cities with population over two million, the border line of the circle with semi-diameter fifty kilometers constitutes the municipal boundary provided that it is within the territorial boundaries of the province2. At that related Law, only the Istanbul and Kocaeli Metropolitan municipality borders expanded to the provincial borders; but by Law No. 6360, the provision which is

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2 For details, see, Metropolitan Municipality Law No. 5216, Transitory Article 2.
valid for only Istanbul and Kocaeli Metropolitan Municipality also applied to whole metropolitan municipalities (Biricikoğlu and Duyar, 2015: 20).

- The public legal entities of villages whose borders located at the provincial borders of Istanbul and Kocaeli are abrogated.

- By Law No. 6360; at the provinces gained the metropolitan municipality status; “Investment, Monitoring, and Coordination Directorates” (IMCD) have been established that are tied to the Governorates. In Law No. 6360 at item 28/ A; the responsibilities and duties of IMCD at the provinces having metropolitan municipalities have been expressed as follows;

  ✓ Making the investment and the services of the public institutions in an effective way, its monitoring and coordination,

  ✓ Coordinating and functioning of emergency call, disaster, and emergency assistance services,

  ✓ The publicity of the city,

  ✓ Coordinating and making the investments of the central government in the locality when necessary,

  ✓ Performing the representation, ceremony; rewarding and protocol services,

  ✓ Providing the guidance to public authorities and institutions in the city and realizing their audit,

  ✓ Guiding the public institutions and organizations at the city and realizing their audit³.

- 559 municipality having the population below 2000 transformed to the status of the village; 1076 first-tier municipality and 16,500 villages that their borders remained at the new metropolitan municipality lost their legal personalities and transformed to a neighborhood, and in addition to that the population threshold at the establishment of a neighborhood determined as 500.

- The provision of being a metropolitan municipality that was exceeding the municipal population of 750,000 replaced with the determination of the province’s population over 750,000.

- At the 14 provinces having new metropolitan municipality; 26 new districts established within the borders of the metropolitan municipalities; and the number of the metropolitan municipality district municipality raised from 143 to 549.

- The population criterion is rearranged as 20,000 being a district municipality of metropolitan municipality.

- Liquidation and sharing commissions have been foreseen for the municipalities and villages closed and transformed into the neighborhood.

- Special provincial administrations are abolished at 30 metropolitan municipalities.

- Local governments go to liquidation whose targets have been eliminated by the abolition of the special provincial administrations and by the transformation of the villages to the neighborhoods (Zengin, 2014: 103; İzci and Turan, 2013: 132-133; Genç, 2014: 4-5).

- The municipalities transferred shares from the general budget tax revenue were rearranged. By the enactment of Law No. 5779; it was determined that 2.85% of the general budget tax revenue allocated to the municipalities aside from metropolitan municipalities; 2.50% to the metropolitan district municipalities, and 1.15% to the special provincial administrations. The 5% of the total of the general budget tax revenue within the border of the metropolitan

municipality and 30% of the metropolitan district municipality pie from the total of the general budget tax revenue were allocated as metropolitan municipality share. At that allocation and distribution, calculated on a monthly basis by the Ministry of Finance, only the population criterion was taken into consideration (İzci and Turan, 2013: 134; Demircan, 2009: 350). The enforcement of Law No. 6360 led to some critical financial changes; such as within the context of Article 25 (item 2), that following determination has been put forth concerning the local government shares “1.50% of the general budget tax revenue allocated to the municipalities aside from metropolitan municipalities; 4.50% to the metropolitan district municipalities and 0.5% to the special provincial administrations”. An increase in the financial allocations has been provided to the new metropolitan municipalities and the metropolitan and district municipalities whose borders have been expanded for their provision of effective service provision (Çelikyay, 2014: 18).

An Assessment of Law No 6360: The Criticism Towards Law No 6360:

a) The Criticisms towards the Administrative Structure:

Law No. 6360 is under criticism from most of the academic circles concerning the violation of the Turkish Constitution. In that regard, there are criticisms in related with unconstitutionality (Güngör, 2012: 28-31, Gözler, 2013). From the aspect of legality and subsidiarity; it was determined that the removal of the public legal entities of local administrative units within the context of that related Law is contradictory to the Turkish Constitution. At that point, Article 127/1 of Turkish Constitution is influential in determining the Turkish local administrative structure in Turkey. According to that Article, it is determined that “Local governments are public legal personalities established to meet the common local needs of the inhabitants of provinces, municipal districts and villages, whose principles of constitution and decision-making organs elected by the electorate are determined by law”. At that context, SPA Law No.5302, Article 4th is also put forth the establishment and the abolition of the public legal entity of the SPAs in Turkey; it was expressed that “SPA shall be established by law concerning the establishment of a province and its legal personality shall cease to exist when the province is abolished”. As it is seen from those clarifications, while the SPAs have been functioning until the abolition of the province; its legal personality is abolished by Law No. 6360. In that scope, Gözler (2013:40) also made criticism towards the abrogation of the public legal entity of the SPAs in Turkey. The scholar stated that “If the province is not abrogated, the abolition of SPA is unconstitutional” (Gözler, 2013: 42). On that dimension, Gözler (2013) and Derdiman (2012) have the same opinion on the view that “before making a Constitutional change or abrogation of the province, the abolition of the public legal entities of local administrations is contrary to the Constitution”.

On the other side; while 30 Special provincial administrations’ public legal personalities abrogated at the metropolitan municipalities; at the other provinces in Turkey, SPAs public legal entity was preserved and this situation is declared as “dual structure” by some scholars in Turkey (Genç, 2014: 7). At that context, by that related Law, ‘Investment, Monitoring, and Coordination Directorates’ have been set up instead of the abrogated SPAs at the metropolitan municipalities. By that new mechanism, Koyuncu and Köröğlu (2012: 3-7) declared that that related Law leads to the increase in the burden of the municipal service provision, the governorship is redefined, and its managerial capacity is increased, the autonomy of SPA budget is abrogated, the control authority is transferred to the central government/governor, the function of project coordination reached to a legal ground. Additionally, Günal et al. (2014: 65) expressed that the amendment put forth by Law No.6360; the local autonomy of local governments has been deteriorated and SPAs stayed under the administrative tutelage of the central government.
b) The Criticisms towards the Provision of Local Services/ Service Delivery:

The expansion of the municipal borders to the provincial borders is evaluated from some academic circle as positive in terms of its benefiting local service provision effectiveness; however at the districts that are far away to the center with abolishing public legal entities of first-tier municipalities and villages, it can disrupt the local service provision of the metropolitan municipality and prevent the effective usage of the resources (Görmez, 2012; Günal et al., 2014: 63). Güler (2012: 8) take the attention to the tourism centers with its relation with the distance problem sourced from the enactment of Law No. 6360. Most of the criticisms can be gathered as the service quality alleviation, disruption of services, effectiveness and efficiency concerns at the service provision, extension of the time of service provision, alleviation of citizens’ satisfaction and the waste of resources, cost of services and additional transportation cost. Moreover, Koyuncu and Köroğlu (2012: 7) also declared that by the abrogation of the villages, the villages might be affected from the process with taking secondary importance at the city’s rank of priorities.

From the other side the angle, by Law No. 6360 municipal financial pie from the general budget tax revenue increased and the abolished municipalities’ personnel and equipment transferred to metropolitan municipalities; however the newly established municipalities have no experience in related with the rural service provision that it can create qualified service provision problem at meeting the services such as husbandry, land conservation, and agricultural based services. Most of the scholars expressed that metropolitan municipalities are not appropriate to provide services to the rural fields (Güler, 2012: 4-5; Çukurçayır, 2012, Turan and İzci, 2013: 128).

c) The Criticisms towards Political Structure:

One of the most important criticisms concerning the political structure is related with Charter of Local-self Government. Charter’s Article 4 and Article 5 are influential on that dimension. At Article 4th (Scope of local self-government); it was expressed that “Local authorities shall be consulted, insofar as possible, in due time and in an appropriate way in the planning and decision-making processes for all matters which concern them directly”. Moreover, at Article 5th, it is determined that “Changes in local authority boundaries shall not be made without prior consultation of the local communities concerned, possibly by means of a referendum where this is permitted by statute”. In that scope, Turkey is a part of that Charter that giving a particular importance to the citizens’ active participation to local decision-making processes.

The abolition decision of the SPAs, first-tier municipalities and villages should be taken by the application to the opinions of the local inhabitants in that area. By making a referendum with taking into account the views of local citizens who are directly affected from that process can take the possibility of the existence of the public legal personality of the local government unit (if the local citizens have a positive opinion on that dimension) or the demanded local government unit can tie to the central government. Not making referendum with the local citizens that limiting their participation to the local decision-making process can be the indicator of the central government’s determination and their participatory perspective (Günal et al, 2014: 63- 64). Çukurçayır (2012: 20-21) declared that process that comes out as a result of Law No. 6360 as “deficit of democratic legitimacy”. It can be stated that this new regulation is not a facilitator when evaluating from the context of participation (Keleş, 2013: 18). Finally, most of the scholars have the opinion that it also violates the arrangements concerning the basic rights and freedoms (Keleş, 2012, Keleş, 2013: 19, Görmez, 2012, Duru, 2013: 34).

Besides, the second criticism towards the political structure is concerning with the weakening of the democratic participation. In that scope; some scholars expresses their view that the possibilities of the democratic participation are deteriorated with the amendments come out after the enactment of the Law No. 6360 (Güler, 2012; İzci ve Turan, 2013: 136). By the expansion of the municipal borders to the provincial borders; the municipal councils’ representatives faced with a more sensitive program, and it
can cause delays and slow functioning of the participation process concerning the local issues (Koyuncu and Köroğlu, 2012: 7-8). At that new structure, the municipal mayors’ can come to the front side at the determination of the local politics that this situation is evaluated as the orientation to the formation of a centralized structure (Görmez, 2012)

d) The Criticisms towards Metropolitan Municipality Financial System:

By the enforcement of Law No. 6360, the change that is made concerning the municipal border led to the rise of the responsibility and authority of the local governments. At that context, the general budget tax revenue pies have been amended within the framework of the metropolitan municipalities and the local governments’ allocated pies have been re-arranged (İzci and Turan, 2013: 134). The enforcement of Law No. 6360 led to some critical financial changes. At Law No.5779 dated 2008 titled “The Law Related to the Allocation of Pies from the General Budget Tax Revenue to the Special Provincial Administrations and Municipalities” it was expressed that 2.85% of the general budget tax revenue allocated to the municipalities aside from metropolitan municipalities; 2.50% to the metropolitan district municipalities, and 1.15% to the special provincial administrations. The %5 of the total of the general budget tax revenue within the border of the metropolitan municipality and 30% of the metropolitan district municipality pie from the total of the general budget tax revenue were allocated as metropolitan municipality share. At that allocation and distribution, calculated on a monthly basis by the Ministry of Finance, only the population criterion was taken into consideration (İzci and Turan, 2013: 134; Demircan, 2009: 350). However, at Law No. 6360, at Article 25; it was determined that “1.50% of the general budget tax revenue allocated to the municipalities aside from metropolitan municipalities; 4.50% to the metropolitan district municipalities and 0.5% to the special provincial administrations”. At that point, Çelikyay (2014: 18) declared that an increase in the financial allocations had been provided to the new metropolitan municipalities, and the metropolitan and district municipalities whose borders have been expanded for their provision of effective service provision.

In that scope, within the context of Law No. 6360, at the villages that are included to the metropolitan municipality borders, the village inhabitants are obliged to pay property tax according to the Property Tax No. 1319. Additionally, the village inhabitants also started to pay tax, fee, and contribution rates according to Law on Municipal Revenues No. 2464 during the year of 2017. The estate, territory, and land taxes are launched to be taken with 100% incremental raise within the borders of metropolitan municipality as to Article 8th and Article 16th of the Property Tax Law (Adıgüzel, 2012: 171; Öz, 2012). Those related applications have been postponed for five years after the enactment of Law No. 6360; however, it is seen that by Law No. 6360 rural citizens confronted with new tax burdens (Genç, 2014: 10). The other negative sides concerning the financial dimension of the Law No. 6360 can be listed as follows; the village and municipal legal entities having their own assets, which can receive, purchase, rent goods, can make borrowing, employ staff turned to neighborhood, and their rights and privileges have been abrogated (Güler, 2012: 64; İzci ve Turan, 2013: 132). On the other hand, at the Justice and Development Party Report (2012:11) it was determined the increase at the municipal revenue by Law No 6360 provides a significant contribution to the increase at the qualified service provision.

e) The Criticisms towards Zoning Integrity and Planning Issues

Law No 6360 provides advantages concerning the planning activities implemented in the provincial scale. It was expressed that by that related Law planning activities reached to the possibility of implementation in a holistic way by the coordination of a single authority so that, it avoids diverse local unit preparation of may plans (Genç, 2014: 6). At that point, one of the most critical points of Law No. 6360 is declared as the unity and integrity principle at zoning and planning approach (Keleş, 2012). By that related Law, environment, master and development planning authorities are gathered at a single authority of the metropolitan municipalities and it paves the way for the preparation of the upper-scale plans by a single authority which is declared as appropriate approach in terms of planning principles for avoiding to tackle with the small parts of a province with disjointed and fragmented plans (Ersoy, 2013: 22-23). Likewise, At the Justice and Development Party Report (2012: 13); it was determined that by the provision of Law No. 6360, the district municipalities could solve upper-scale plan problem
with the close metropolitan municipality. Adıgüzel (2012: 168) expressed that Law No. 6360 also lead to the emergence of healthier urban structuring at the urban metropolitan areas. In that context, aside from Istanbul and Kocaeli Metropolitan municipalities, other metropolitan municipalities’ district municipalities allocated at least 10% of their investment budget for ten years to the investment services of the settlements that are newly included to the municipality borders within the context of that Law (Adıgüzel, 2012: 168).

f) The Criticisms towards the Social Structure:

Law No. 6360 brings fundamental changes in terms of the conditions of the villages. According to Zengin (2014: 113) “the peasants and the farmers will have difficulty in sustaining their rural life as a result of the legal, administrative, and financial losses. Instead of traditional and natural agricultural production, commercialized agricultural production will become widespread”. Additionally, by the change at the municipal borders the sociological and administrative based distinction have been disappeared in terms of urban and rural life (Zengin, 2013: 10). By Law No. 6360; the village inhabitants faced with influential disadvantages concerning representation because of the abolition of the public legal entity of the village (Dik, 2014: 77). Moreover, the metropolitan municipalities have no experience and capacity to manage animal husbandry that can lead to problems on the side of the rural inhabitants.

Conclusion:

By Law No. 6360, the metropolitan municipality numbers increased to 30, and all metropolitan municipality borders were expanded to the provincial borders. Law No. 6360 brings structural changes in terms of administrative, political, social, financial, zoning and planning order. At the study, it is seen that the abolition of the public legal entities of some local government units is declared as contradictory to the Turkish Constitution. Moreover, the abolition of the public legal entity of SPAs and the establishment of the ‘Investment, Monitoring, and Coordination Directorates’ also take criticisms from various scholars that its leading to centralization. Its administrative ground and functioning should be identified in a clear way. On the other side, there have also been problems about the local service provision to the rural fields by the metropolitan municipalities with expressing that those local government units are not eligible to provide services to the rural areas. In that scope, there are also criticisms towards the political dimension in terms of democratic participation and representation of local citizens by the abolition of some local government units. Moreover, other criticism is concerning with Article 4th and Article 5th of Charter of Local-self Government in related with the protection of local authority boundaries and the scope of the local governments. In this regard, the public legal personalities of local government units were abolished without consulting to the local citizens or without going to a referendum. Finally, Law No. 6360 also lead to advantages concerning the implementation of planning in a holistic way with the coordination of a single authority at the provincial scale. Consequently, it can be stated that there is no adequate research and projects to see the recent condition of the metropolitan municipalities after the enactment of Law No. 6360 that more researches and analysis are entailed to see advantaged and the disadvantaged sides of that related Law in Turkey.
References:


Socialization as a Strategy for Socio-Economic Development

Hassan Yousefzadeh, Al-Mustafa International University, Iran

Abstract

Beyond learning the rules of socialization and social patterns, socialization is a form of self-discovery. It is a process in which human beings realize their identity through interactions between themselves and others as well as the social environment. In this way, they reach a correct understanding of "I" or "we". It is obvious that according to this view, a person is not a passive entity and is not a mere reflection of social obligations, but is rather a determined and active entity that participates in practice socialization through bilateral relationships with peers, society, and the environment. People are social beings by nature. Because of this inherent characteristic, they are forced to learn the ways of interacting with others, not only being able to bring satisfactory styles and manners into their social relations, but also in their ability to build their social identity through coexistence with others. Concerning this brief overview of the concept of socialization, the main research questions of the study are: What are the characteristics of socialization from a religious perspective? What are the differences in comparison to the sociological and psychological theories? And the most important, what are the positive implications of religious socialization for society? Investigation of religious teachings indicates that socialization should begin before birth. Compliance with recommendations made by the religious doctrines has significant impacts on educating normal generations. In the next stages, compliance with these recommendations reduces the political and social costs of social control and monitoring. Basically, what is the process of socialization and what individual socialization is the result of which interactions? It can be said that it is firstly subject to the fulfillment of performing socialization mechanisms, procedures, and methods correctly and secondly, practicing affective factors and sources of socialization and their functions precisely.

Keywords: socialization, religious socialization, development, social development, economic development

Minakshi P. Hazarika, Jagannath Barooah College, Jorhat

Abstract

Economist and Philosopher, Amartya Sen while analysing the problem of “missing women” identified gender discrimination in health care and nutrition as the basic reason leading to low sex ratios in India. The fact that girls and women die prematurely in many regions of the world led Amartya Sen to determine that over 100 million women are “missing” worldwide. That is, given even roughly equal treatment and opportunities for boys and girls, and for women and men, there should be over 100 million more females in the world today than are presently alive.

In many parts of the world, women receive less attention in health care than men do, and particularly girls often receive very much less support than boys. Gender discrimination in health care practices, thus, has been attracting the attention of researchers and policy makers all over the world. One major source of finding information for this is data from hospitals. The present paper examines whether gender discrimination exists among the people of Jorhat and surrounding areas by analysing the information available in the hospitals and also surveying the area generally covered by these hospitals.

Introduction

Inequality between men and women is one of the most crucial disparities in many societies, and particularly India. Women in general tend to fare quite badly in relative terms as compared with men, even within the same families. This is reflected not only in education and literacy rates but also in fields of nutrition and health. The literacy rates for India according to the 2011 census shows that for males it is 82.14 and for 65.46 for females. The male and female literacy rates for Assam and Jorhat district are is 72.19 and 82.15 while the male and female literacy rate for Jorhat is 87.63 and 76.45.

This is in sharp contrast to the corresponding rates in developed countries like United Kingdom, Belgium and Canada which is 99% literacy rates each for both males and females, representing no difference between male and female literacy. This problem is not just unique to India but is seen in most of the developing countries and deserves public attention as a matter of urgency as literacy is one of the basic measures of human development.

Even though males outnumber females at birth, women tend to outnumber men substantially in Europe & N. America. It is a well known fact that the female-male ratio in India has steadily declined since the beginning of this century. The measure of sex ratio is exceptionally low for India, which stands at 940 and Assam with 954 according to 2011 census. It also has high disparity ranging from 1084 in Kerala (highest) to as low as 618 in Daman & Diu U/T. Even the north-western states, for instance, are notorious for their highly unequal gender relations as shown by Chandigarh with just 818. The sex ratio for Jorhat district is slightly higher than the national and state levels with 962. It is easily calculated that no matter what female-male ratio we use as a benchmark, we would find that there are many millions of ‘missing women’ in India. This indicator of gender inequality is important as it sheds throws light on other aspects of gender relations.

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In this study, an attempt has been made to examine if gender discrimination exists among women by studying the attention in health care received by women in Jorhat. Information has been collected from a few selected hospitals/nursing home’s run by different organizations in Jorhat. Since there are government, private and NGO run hospitals, we have selected one government hospital i.e. The Jorhat Medical College, one privately run i.e. Sanjivani and the Lions Eye Hospital run by the NGO Lions Club of Jorhat. A total of hundred samples have been collected from these three hospitals from the month of April, 2014 and the study also tries to incorporate their household food security levels.

**Objectives**

1. To study the number of male and female patients admitted into the different types of hospitals and find out their duration of stay.
2. To assess the different type of diseases for which they are treated.

**Hypothesis**

1. More male patients are admitted in the hospital than, suggesting that females report their ailments only when serious.
2. The duration of stay is shorter for women and longer for male patients.

**Analysis**

The Indian healthcare industry is growing at a rapid pace, and according to the Investment Commission of India the healthcare sector has experienced a phenomenal growth of 12 percent per annum in the last 4 years. Rising income levels and a growing elderly population are all factors that are driving this growth. Even so, the vast majority of the country suffers from a poor standard of healthcare infrastructure. Nearly one million Indians die every year due to inadequate healthcare facilities and 700 million people have no access to specialist care. And it is notable that 80% of specialists live in urban areas.

The following table displays the total number of patients admitted into the hospitals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Medical College (Govt.)</th>
<th>Sanjivani (Pvt.)</th>
<th>Lions (NGO)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>65.4%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data collected by the Researcher

Information about the type of hospitals for males and females was also collected in the survey. It is seen from Table 1 that, nearly 62.73 percent of hospitalization cases were in the public hospitals and the remaining 37.27 percent was in the private hospitals. It is seen that more male members in families are seen to be availing themselves of hospital facilities as compared to females (as shown by Fig 1). In the government hospital as well as the NGO run hospital the percentage of males admitted is much higher than females. Moreover, both these hospitals provide free treatment so the people belonging to the lower classes of income are seen to dominate.
From Table 2 it can be seen that maximum (i.e. 30%) number of patients come from the age group of 21 to 40 followed by the age group of 61 to 80 (29%). The area from where the patients come to the hospitals are mainly from Jorhat and also from the surrounding areas of the district. Some of them are also from Sivasagar, Golaghat, Nagaon, Tezpur, from within Assam and also from Nagaland to the Lions Eye hospital.

The diseases of the sampled patients show that a majority of the patients in the Lions Eye hospital come for cataract treatment and mainly belong to the low income group and people from the below poverty line group. And of course the number of female patients is just 40% in comparison to 60% of males.

In fact most of the other government hospitals patients with a cataract problem come to this hospital for their treatment. They provide the patients with dark glasses after the operation and a free night stay and free meals for the day. Most (60%) of the patients come from the age group of 61 to 80 as is obvious when their ailment is a cataract film which develops over the eye late in a person’s life.
In the Medical College, an interesting feature is that the capacity for male ward in the general medicine section is 60 whereas that for female is only 36. So that itself presents the picture that more male cases are reporting for treatment. So the general government hospital caters to 62% of male patients as compared to 48% female patients.

The reported picture for the male and female patients vary. More male patients reported of cardiac arrest and hypertension ailments followed by liver disease, appendicitis, anaemia, alcoholic withdrawal, gastric melena and surgery of the abdomen.

The relative survival rates of men and women in the older age groups were changing in favour of men, the main explanation may simply be the tendency of economic development to affect men more rapidly than women. In rural areas, professional attendance at birth remains rare to this date, while modern medical treatment is used to cure diseases.

MMR measures number of women aged 15-49 years dying due to maternal causes per 100,000 live births. Assam has the country's highest rate of maternal mortality (MMR), as per the latest official data. This shows that there are still non-institutional deliveries or denied access to health care resulting in very high MMR levels. According to the Sample Registration Services (SRS) 2007-2009, the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) for Assam was 390 per 100,000 live births - the highest in the country.

![Age-wise Patients(Govt.)](image)

**Figure 4**

India faces a huge need gap in terms of availability of number of hospital beds per 1000 population. With a world average of 3.96 hospital beds per 1000 population India stands just a little over 0.7 hospital beds per 1000 population³.

The majority of the female patients report anaemia as their reason for hospitalization followed by poisoning (Fig 5). Age wise sampled patients show that the maximum number comes from the age group of 21-40 yrs followed by 41-60 yrs (Fig 4). In case of female 24%, i.e. the highest reported, is for anaemia followed by psychiatric treatment (12%) and phenyl and kerosene poisoning (6% each).

![Disease Wise Sampled Female Patients (Government)](image)

**Figure 5**

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³ *Economic and Political Weekly* © 2005 *Economic and Political Weekly*
A few also reported of urinary tract infection, tuberculosis, gastric maligna, meningitis, cancer of the oesophagus and gall bladder surgery. In the case of women for the month of April there were 6% deaths in the female ward of the Government hospital which also suggests that female patients were brought at a more serious stage of their ailment.

**Figure 6**

The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is a measure of infant deaths per 1000 births during their first year of birth. Maximum IMR is in Madhya Pradesh (67) and minimum IMR in Kerala (12) and Assam has a IMR of 54. Female infants continue to experience a higher mortality than male infants both at the national level and state level, which again suggests unattended births (as shown by Table 3). Jorhat has an IMR of 57 in 2011 which is marginally higher than Assam. *Source: Annual Health Survey, 2010-11.*

**DISEASE–WISE MALE PATIENTS (PRIVATE HOSPITAL)**

**Figure 7**
Table No 3  INFANT AND CHILD MORTALITY IN INDIA & ASSAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>India (&lt;1 year) Mortality</th>
<th>Indian (&lt;5 year Mortality)</th>
<th>Assam IMR (&lt;1)</th>
<th>AssamIMR (Under 5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male/ 1000 live births</td>
<td>Female/ 1000 live births</td>
<td>Male live births</td>
<td>Female live births</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>(56)</td>
<td>(58)</td>
<td>(55)</td>
<td>(71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: RHS Bulletin, March 2012, M/O Health & F.W., GOI. Source: Annual Health Survey (AHS) 2nd Updation Bulletins 2012-13

Poverty and malnutrition exacerbate the risk of infants and children to various infectious diseases like diarrhea and pneumonia, and heighten the probability of death, particularly among children with low birth weight. We measure two main outcome variables, the infant mortality rate (IMR) and the under-five mortality rate (U5 MR) as these are important indicators of average population health and are widely used to document the progress made in the health sector.

DISEASE–WISE FEMALE PATIENTS (PRIVATE HOSPITAL)

Gender has been the most statistically significant determinant of malnutrition among young children. Nutritional deprivation has two major consequences for women: they never reach their full growth potential, and they suffer from anemia, which are risk factors in pregnancy. This condition complicates childbearing and results in mother and infant deaths, and low birth weight infants. As an adult they tend to be less likely to admit that they are sick and may wait until their sickness has progressed farther before they seek help or help is sought for them. Many women in rural areas die in childbirth due to easily preventable complications.
AVERAGE DURATION OF STAY IN HOSPITAL’S (MALE & FEMALE PATIENTS)

The average duration of stay is 3 days, however patients have stayed up to 8 days in exceptional cases where longer treatment is required. But from the bar graph, it is seen that the duration of stay is more for male patients in all cases except where the patients stay for just 2 days (as shown by Fig 9). Basic health care, family planning and obstetric services are essential for women – yet they remain unavailable to millions. Gender-equitable approaches to health are needed to enable women's full participation in the planning and delivery of health services.

The health of families and communities are tied to the health of women – the illness or death of a woman has serious and far-reaching consequences for the health of her children, family and community. This shows that in all categories the males have been hospitalized for a longer time, whereas in the case of the females, they stayed for a shorter time.

**Findings**

1. a) Data collected from all the hospitals show that of patients reporting with treatment needs, 57.2% were males compared to 42.8% females.
2. In the Lions Eye hospital, persons reporting in were only 30% females where 70% of the patients were males. In the government hospital 43% were females patients. This figure for high income groups varies at variance as in the private hospital 57% patients were females.
3. In the case of cataract operations in the Lions Eye Hospital, as is seen in the sample data, the number of male patients are much more with 67% and females only 33%.
4. In the Civil hospital, more male patients (24% each) reported of cardiac arrest and hypertension ailments followed by liver disease, appendicitis, anaemia, alcoholic withdrawal, gastric maligna and surgery of the abdomen, (12% each).
5. In the case of females 24%, the reported of anaemia followed by psychiatric treatment (12%) and phenyl and kerosene poisoning (6% each). In the case of women for the month of April there were 6% deaths in the female ward of the Government hospital which also suggests that female patients were brought at a more serious stage of their ailment.
6. Another interesting feature is that the capacity for male ward is 60 whereas that for female is only 36. So that itself presents the picture that more male cases are reporting in which has required increased capacity for the male ward.
7. It is seen that the duration of stay is more for male patients in all cases except where the patients stay for just 2 days.
Conclusion

From the analysis, we can conclude that gender inequality in health care seeking practices does exist in Jorhat. The analysis of the above figures suggest that in the case of women there is a tendency to hide diseases or come back home as fast as they can as is revealed by their duration of stay. The capacity of male and female wards reveal that there are more reported cases of male than of female.

We should aim for gender equality which is more than a goal in itself. The passing of Pre-natal Diagnostic Tech Act in 1994 has also been a step towards removing gender discrimination. This Act sought to end sex-determination tests and female foeticide and prohibits doctors from conducting such procedures for the specific purpose of determining the sex of the fetus.

The Government also announced the National policy for empowerment of women in 2001 to bring out advancement, development and empowerment of women. Over one million women have been elected to local panchayats as a result of 1993 amendment to the Indian Constitution requiring that 1/3 of the elected seats to the local governing bodies be reserved for women. So we can and will hope for a change in the near future.
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Additional Director General, Ministry of Tourism, Govt. of India, Joint Director, National Sample Survey Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and PI, Govt. of India, Kolkata.

Azad India Foundation, Line Mohalla, Kishanganj-855107, Bihar. Phn:06456-222483. Ms. Yuman Hussain, Executive Director, aif_org@yahoo.co.in

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Women and Writing in Modern Saudi Arabia

Hend Al-sudairy, Alfaisal University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

Saudi women’s writings exemplify an anxiety in many different periods of their writing journey and an awareness of their status, rights, struggle and social pressure on them. As a group, they mostly address contemporary historical female issues. Many factors such as education, openness to the other cultures and the world, enrolling in the work force, and the social issues of their own community have rendered their writings as a medium for history and social studies. Surprisingly, few of those women writers were concerned with international issues like the Palestine crisis, colonization of some Arab countries or even recently the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait and the American occupation of Iraq. This paper examines the Saudi woman’s development in her writing career highlighting the obstacles she faced and the achievements she secured.
Quantile Methods for Testing the Applicability of CAPM and FF-Model in Pakistan

Adnan Shoaib, COMSATS Institute of Information Technology, Pakistan
Muhammad Ayub Siddiqui, Bahria University, Pakistan

Abstract
Applicability of the invaluable financial models of CAPM and Fama-French has been tested in Pakistan for an extended period (2001-2010) employing monthly data in panel data models and quantile regression analysis. Findings of the study are useful for the investors, policy makers and academicians. Results of the quantile regression outperform panel data models in supporting the FF-model for KSE listed companies. Findings of the study support Connor and Sehgal (2001) perhaps due to the similar historical perspective of India and Pakistan. The results reveal linear exposure of stock returns and risk premium to market, size and value factors explaining the cross sectional variations in the stock returns. Findings of the study also support Brien (2008) that SMB and HML augment ability of the two models in explaining the expected returns. Significant findings of the study may be attributed to the extended data set, natural randomness of the companies for the period of 2001-2010, and efficient methods employed in the present study.

One of the objectives of the study was exploring significance of the Fama and French model for Pakistani corporate culture and secondary market environment. Findings of the study endorse applicability of the FF-model in the Pakistani context. Particularly, findings support the FF-model and its significance in the long run. An efficient calculation of required rate of return is recommended using the CAPM and FF-model. In this perspective, findings of the present study support the efficient market hypothesis (EMH), positively relating the principle of high risk with high returns. Evidence of risk-return relationship elucidated by the FF-model might be very useful for medium and long term investors.

Keywords: Fama-French; Pakistan; KSE; HML; SMB; CAPM; Efficiency; Long term consistency.
JEL Classification: G1, G3

1. INTRODUCTION
Performance of stock markets using stocks returns has long been contemplated by the researchers in the area of finance. The first ever explanation of variation in stock returns was given by Sharpe (1964), Lintner (1965), and Black (1972) in respect to different versions of the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM). CAPM remained the core of discussion among the financial economists for many decades until anomalies of this model were identified. Applicability of sole CAPM in different stock markets in order to measure efficiency through estimation of required rate of return and risk premium has not been a successful experience in various economies. This insufficient explanation of the efficiency of capital markets compelled researchers to include other factors that explain the cross sectional variations in returns other than excess market returns or market risk premium.

Studying behavior of stock returns help researchers to explore management of stock market in relation to the performance of the economy. CAPM and Fama-French (FF) models help determine the required rate of return which is considered as one of the tools for the investors to determine expected returns and value of their investment. The stock market returns indicate the prospects of investment in the economy. Estimation of market efficiency and expected stock price variation helps to overcome unusual market crashes and wavering trends. Econometric methods used in the estimation of CAPM and FF models enable us to measure whether or not the market rate of returns are matching with the required rate of return. This study explores cross-section relationships of expected returns of the portfolio with size, value and market risk premium using the panel data models and quantile regression techniques.
Studies\(^1\) have identified many other factors such as size of firms, book to market equity and leverage causing variation in stock returns. Fama and French defined the cross-sectional variation in the average market return as the common risk factor associated with the stock returns. They developed and employed variables such as Small-minus-Big (SMB) and High-minus-Low (HML) that explain the cross sectional variation in the stock returns and risk premium of the individual stocks. Findings of Connor and Sehgal (2001) from Indian stock markets also support the Fama and French model. O’Brien (2008) could not prove application of the Fama and French model on the Australian market and identified the inability of the Fama and French model in explaining the portfolios in the middle size quantiles.

Contradictory results of the previous studies\(^2\) might be on account of methodological issues and the sampling techniques. Current study attempts to test the Fama and French model by redesigning the model specification and using some alternative efficient methodologies. The current study also incorporates SMB and HML as the common risk factor in determination of stock returns for the companies listed in the Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE). The sample of the study on companies varies across the period of 2001-2010. The research design of this study is different from the previous studies. The study tests long term consistency of the model by employing data of all the listed companies of the KSE from 2001 to 2010 with fragility of the data set and the number of cross-sectional entities. The sample for the periods included the following number of companies 2001 (589), 2002 (553), 2003 (628), 2004 (581), 2005 (591), 2006 (568), 2007 (555), 2008 (560), 2009 (540) and 2010 (509).\(^3\) The varied number of companies over each year ensures the randomness of data by default. Very few studies have employed these models in the developing countries like Pakistan in order to study the dynamics of the Fama and French model. The panel data models are efficient models because they incorporate cross-sections (companies) and time series variation. The random effect, fixed effect and pooled regression models have been estimated to identify the time period and cross sectional variability. Additionally, this study estimates quantile regression models to explore cross-sectional variability of returns across different quantiles of the business entities (firms).

The Fama and French model explains most of the trends but it fails to explain long term trends of returns\(^4\). The motivation for the current study is to test the FF-model for the long term trend of the stock returns and risk premium based on three risk factors in Pakistan. Some macroeconomic factors were also employed by the previous studies\(^5\). The current study ignores macroeconomic factors because of their dynamics different from the market-specific and company-specific factors in Pakistan. Thus, the scope of the current study is different from the multifactor models employed by Merton (1973) and Ross (1976). In other words the Fama and French three factor model has better explanatory power than other models based on economic variables.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the area of financial economics during the last couple of years, behavior of stock returns in relation with risk factors has been the major focus of the researchers and academicians. The pioneer work relating stock return with risk has been in terms of the Asset Pricing Model of Sharpe (1964), Lintner (1965), and Black (1972). In this model Sharpe, Lintner and Black explain the stock return through market risk premium. The capital asset pricing model (CAPM) developed the way for the practitioners to think about the relationship between risk and return.

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\(^1\) Banz (1981), Basu (1983), Stattman (1980), Rosenberg Reid and Lanstien (1985) and Bhandari (1988); Fama and French (1992) combined the size and book to market value to capture the cross-sectional variation in the stock returns; Fama-McBeth (1973) employed similar variables using regression analysis for cross-sectional variation of the average returns; Fama and French (1993) further refined the three factor model.


\(^3\) See Appendix A for details

\(^4\) Jegadesh and Titman (1993) identified this trend of stock returns

\(^5\) Size (Banz, 1981), BE/ME (Rosenberg, Reid and Lanstien, 1985), E/P (Basu, 1983), C/P, and past sales growth (Shleifer, and Vishny (LSV), 1994)
CAPM has been tested empirically by many studies whose findings are diverse. The first study on the CAPM was conducted by Lintner (1966) and Douglas (1969). These studies revealed that the intercept was much bigger than risk free rate and beta had lower value with significance. The contradiction of results from CAPM has been attributed to measurement error and data related issues (Miller and Scholes, 1972).

Fama and McBeth (1973) performed the standard test for testing the CAPM on portfolio. The study estimated beta and risk premium using two different regressions. Beta was estimated using time series regression analysis of monthly data for the period of 1935-1968. This study used cross-sectional regression analysis for each month to compute risk premium. Fama and McBeth (1973) arranged twenty portfolios for this analysis and their results show that the beta coefficient is statistically significant though small in value for many sub-periods. Fama and McBeth (1973) have authenticated the applicability of CAPM on the NYSE. Tinic and West (1984) analyzed NYSE data from 1935-1982 and found unusual results indicating no effect of residual risk on assets returns with an intercept much greater than the risk free rate. In other words the CAPM does not hold in this case. When $\beta > 1$, the intercept is negative and when $\beta < 1$, intercept is positive (Black, et. al (1972). These results were contradictory to CAPM. Sharpe and Cooper (1972) examined the NYSE for studying the risk and return relationship. Their results are also divergent from the assumptions of CAPM.

Merton (1973) developed the Inter-temporal Capital Asset Pricing Model (ICAPM) and Ross (1976) explained the arbitrage pricing theory by employing state variables and macroeconomic factor loadings as determinants of risk premium. Though the models propounded new determinants of returns the pattern of change in economic variables is much different from the variation pattern of stock returns and capital market specific factors. The economic variables have their own pattern of variation which may not be matching with stock returns. Furthermore, these models are also unable to explain cross-sectional variations in stock returns. Studies explored other factors which explain variation in the cross-sectional stock returns.

Earlier studies\(^6\) indicated that the security market line is flatter than the one estimated with CAPM. Other factors were identified by different studies. Banz (1981) introduced firm size as the factor affecting returns of security. The firm with small size produces higher returns (Fama and French, 1992). Similarly, Bhandari (1988) explains that the leverage effect is also associated with the risk and return. Stattam (1980), Rosenberg, Reid and Lanstien (1985) affirmed the positive relationship between average return and book to market equity ratio. Basu (1983) explained the impact of earning to price ratio ($E/P$). The results show a statistically significant relationship of $E/P$ with returns after controlling for firm size and beta.

2.1 Fama and French Explanation

The failure of the CAPM model led to the development of multifactor models like ICAPM and APT model. Ball (1978) introduced the yield surrogates (proxies for identifying underlying risk) for explaining the average returns. Based on the surrogates identified in the literature Fama and French (1992) developed their model. Significant variables of the model which the current study has also employed include capability of size and book to market equity in explaining the cross-sectional variation of expected returns. Fama and French (1992) also included leverage and earning to price ratio in explaining the cross sectional variations of the expected return and they found that book to market equity and size both explained the cross sectional variation in the expected return. The leverage and $E/P$ ratio is by design incorporated when size and book to market equity are used to define the cross section. That is why the current study employs the two significant variables of the Fama and French (1992) such as HML and SMB. The average stock returns are not positively related to market beta when portfolios are formed based on size and beta (Fama and French, 1992).

Fama and French (1992) presented the model by combining market return, size, and the book to market equity ratio. The same set of variables is employed in the current study. Fama and French’s three factor model has been tested many times in various markets. The results proved three factor models better than CAPM single beta model.

Fama and French (1993) extend their model to the bond market. The basic purpose of this paper is to find out the explanatory power of the cross sectional variation through the variables employed by Fama and French. So the portfolios have been categorized into small and big in terms of size and high, medium

\(^6\) Black, Jensen, and Scholes (1972); Fama and MacBeth (1973).
and low in terms of book to market equity. Fama and French again revealed that maximum variation in stock returns were explained by book to market equity and size. The returns on small stocks are more sensitive to the risk captured by smaller than the returns on big stocks. The market portfolio of stocks also captures common variation in bond returns. Although market returns are much smaller for bonds than for stocks but SMB and HML, if used alone, have little power to explain bond returns. Fama and French (1995) analyzed the consistency of the behavior of stocks returns in relation to size and BE/ME and behavior of earnings in relation to size and BE/ME. The results show weak consistency especially concerning to the value factor i.e. BE/ME. However this inconsistency is attributed to the measurement error of the variables.

Fama and French (1996) explain the pattern of stock returns that are not explained by the capital assets pricing models. The CAPM model is unable to explain long term reversal in stock returns and short term stock returns continuation patterns. However, the Fama and French three factor model explains much of the anomalies of CAPM model except the continuation of short term returns. The results show that the three factor model explains reversal of long term returns. However other anomalies are still unaddressed. The current study employs long term data set on the monthly basis in order to overcome anomalies.

2.2 Testing of Fama and French Model

Efforts have been made in the literature to generalize the Fama and French model in different developing and developed economies under different economic circumstances. Most of the studies showed mixed results on Fama and French in explaining market efficiency in relation with cross-sectional average returns. Connor and Sehgal (2001) studied the Fama and French model in Indian stock markets. They used the methodology of Fama and French (1993) by introducing certain restrictions on the model. The study reveals linear exposure of stock returns to market; size and value factors and the factors explain cross sectional variations in the stock returns. However the analysis shows weak explanatory power of these variables (size, value and market) in explaining earnings growth rate. In other words, earnings are not tied to the same factors as that of returns. This inconsistency in explanation, to some extent, is also predicted by Fama and French (1995). However the findings are supportive to the Fama and French model when applied to Indian stocks.

O’Brien (2008) studied the Fama and French model and CAPM in Australian stock markets. The methodology of Fama and French (1993) is employed and the GMM (Generalized method of moment) technique is employed for the estimation of CAPM and Fama and French models (O’Brien, 2008). The results confirmed that the Fama and French three factor model explains average returns better thanCAPM. However the Fama and French model is unable to explain the returns of middle and small size quantiles and there is a weak relationship of size on small portfolios.

Faff (2001) tested the Fama-French model on daily data of Australian stocks and revealed that the three-factor model provides weak explanation of cross-section variation in expected returns and identified negative size-effect. However Drew and Veeraraghavan (2003) studied Australian stocks and revealed a significant effect of size and book-to-market value in explaining variation of average return. Prajuntasin (2010) compares the ability of the Fama and French three factor model in explaining the average returns of high leverage firms and low leverage firms in rational pricing conditions. The results of the study identified Fama and French as explaining risk of low leverage firms better than high leverage firms. Manatsasan (2007) tested the three factor model on the Thai energy sector’s stocks for the period from January 2003 to December 2007. The results of this study are contradictory to the hypothesis of Fama and French that high returns are associated with small cap and value stocks. Rather, high returns are associated with low BE/ME and big size.

Chang, Johnson and Schill (2001) revealed the significance of SMB and HML in the higher-order systematic co-moments in the cross-sectional regressions for portfolio returns, otherwise the SMB and HML emerge insignificant. Clare Priestley and Thomas (1998) identified a prominent and significant role of beta in explaining expected return. They also discovered some role of size effect. Kothari, Shanken and Sloan (1995) also claimed a significant role of beta and small role of size in explaining expected returns and confirmed the association of HML and SMB with higher-order co-moments.

Pham (2007) tested applicability of the Fama and French model on Japanese style index, using the Generalized Method of Moment (GMM) for analysis. Results of the study indicate weak support for the Fama and French model but the analysis proves reversal of the size effect.
Ferson and Harvey (1999) explained that ignoring conditioning information was one of the factors for rejecting the multifactor model. The study claims that identified predetermined conditional variables (market return, three-month Treasury bill return, expected inflation) have explanatory power to explain cross-sectional variation in portfolio returns. However, Ferson and Harvey (1999) rejected the three factor model advocated by Fama and French (1993) and concluded that factor loadings of these conditional variables were vital over and above Fama and French’s three factors.

Mallin and Veeraraghavan (2004) tested the robustness of the Fama and French model in developed countries including Germany, France and United Kingdom. Findings indicate that growth stocks generate higher returns than value stock contrary to the Fama and French model. However the results support the usage of multifactor asset pricing model (Fama and French model) rather than single index model (CAPM). It can be concluded that Fama and French has mixed success rates in different markets of developed and developing economies.

2.3 Extension in Fama and French Model in Special Cases


The inability of the Fama and French model in explaining persistence of returns was also identified in Fama and French (1996). This persistence of returns is also known as momentum anomaly which motivated Carhart (1997) to extend the three factor Fama and French model by introducing the momentum factor. For this purpose Carhart (1997) introduced a momentum variable that is, the highest 30%, 11 month returns lagged one month minus lower 30%, 11 month return lagged one month. Evidence of this model is consistent with size, book to market, and momentum factor in explaining the persistence of returns. The study recommend that the funds with persistently poor performance should be avoided, the funds with higher past returns lead to higher than average returns in the following period; the expense ratio, investment cost are negatively related to performance.

François L’Her, Masmoudi, Suret (2003) investigate implications of four factor model of Carhart (1997) in Canada. They introduced the momentum factor as WML-Winner minus loser, that is the highest returns minus the lowest returns. Results of this study are consistent with the Carhart four factor model. The momentum factor depicts the anomaly of persistent earnings that was left out by the Fama and French three factor model.

Chen and Zhang (2010) addressed further anomalies in terms of the positive relationship of average returns with short-term prior returns and earnings surprise; negative association of average returns with financial distress; net stock issues, and asset growth. In order to address these anomalies Chen and Zhang (2010) developed another three factor model based on the q-theory of analysis. They employed market factors, investment factor and return on assets factor to explain variations in stock returns. Findings of this new model are based on excess market returns, low minus high investment factor, and high minus low return on assets factor. The model shows remarkable results because the methodology of q-theory and the factors capture all the anomalies of Fama and French (1992, 1996). The hypothesis is also developed on Tobin’s q theory and reveals that the model can be used to estimate return for different applications such as, mutual funds’ performance, abnormal returns, cost of equity, and stock valuation. In this model, ROA and Investment factors are not interpreted as risk factors on the pattern of Fama and French (1993) SMB and HML. The q theory tied the expected returns with the firm characteristics. Furthermore the SMB and HML factors are based on market equity which directly involve market and behaviorists sometimes use market equity as a proxy of mispricing. But the factors of this model are based on economic fundamentals rather than market equity in order to avoid mispricing. According to the study, factors based on economic fundamentals explain better results of expected returns than the market based factors. Thus the literature singles out certain anomalies which the Fama and French model is unable to explain through size and value factors.

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2.4 Fama and CAPM Model

The difference between capital asset pricing model and Fama and French three factor model is that one is solely based on market returns and other incorporate size and value risk factors associated with firms. CAPM is the first asset pricing model. It is one of the reputed models on account of its convenient application and simple estimation. One of the assumptions of this model is that investors choose portfolio based on Markowitz mean variance criterion. ‘Expected returns of stocks are equal to beta of the stock times the excess market returns’ is the well identified estimate of CAPM. Beta is the covariance of returns of asset and market to the variance of the market. Other multifactor pricing models attempted to estimate the cross-section of average return. The ICAPM, Inter Temporal Capital Asset Pricing Model, of Merton (1973) and the Arbitrage Pricing Model of Ross (1976) are based on consumption and macroeconomic factors. Roll (1977) indicated weakness of the CAPM in explaining complete variations in stock return because of its unrealistic assumptions. Furthermore, the CAPM model is unable to explain stock price anomalies as identified in literature.

The CAPM and Fama and French three factor models are usually tested in different markets to compare the validation of these models and in most of the markets. Fama and French outperforms CAPM in explaining variation of required return. The efficiency of Fama and French can be on account of stock price anomalies through SMB and HML. While empirically testing the error term in FF results is less than what it is observed in case of CAPM (Fama and French, 1996). The error term of CAPM is three to five times greater than the Fama and French model (Fama and French, 1996). Lakonishok, Shleifer and Vishny (1994); Haugen (1995) and MacKinlay (1995) explored capability of the Fama and French model in explaining the stock returns. They built three arguments in justification of the Fama and French model. The model accounts for investor’s over-reaction to the market, incorporates empirical observation of stocks with low returns and financially distressed, it incorporates well-diversified portfolios of stocks with high as well as low ratio book to market and that the same variance of the stock return is observed.

Critics of the Fama and French model identified the reasons for success. Kothari, Shanken and Sloan (1995) identified survivorship bias and Kim (1997) claims Data-snooping that leads to false results, and supported the CAPM model for estimating the expected returns. O’Brien et. al (2008) compare the CAPM and Fama and French three factor model and analyzed that the Fama and French model explains stock returns better than the CAPM model because Fama and French model incorporates size and value factor in the analysis. They used both time series and cross section tests in comparing efficiency of the two models.

Bartholy and Peare (2004) compared the performance of Fama and French and CAPM. The study reported least difference in explanatory power of these two models. According to the study, neither of the models is useful in explaining the cost of equity. However, in case of Fama and French the study finds significant results with higher value of $R^2$. Lam (2005) compared effectiveness of the two models in the Canadian stock market and revealed validation of the Fama and French model which explained results better than the CAPM because of incorporation of size and value risk factors. Lam (2004) also finds that the Fama and French model is period specific model in cross-sectional framework.

Studies have also been conducted on the Pakistani environment. Iqbal and Brook (2007) identified a nonlinear relationship between risk and return in Pakistani environment and rejected the CAPM. Iqbal, et al (2008) tested CAPM and Fama and French (1993) three-factor model for Pakistani markets and revealed that the pricing model with higher order co-moments were not a superior model. Ahmad and Qasim (2004) analyzed volatility and asset pricing behavior and examined positive fluctuation being prominent effect on expected volatility as compared to negative effect.

In the context of previous studies related to the Fama and French model, main gaps have been identified in terms of improper sample selection, model specification and diagnostic tests. The amount of work done in studying the Fama and French model in Pakistan is much less than its empirical significance.

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Studies on Pakistani stock markets also single out the gaps mentioned earlier. The present study is an effort to bridge the gaps identified from the previous studies. The current study incorporates extended data set for the last ten years of the all the listed companies of the KSE with normal history. Methodologically, the present study employs one of the efficient methodologies such as the panel data models and quantile regression model with tests of linearity on the coefficients. The study incorporates cross-section and time series variation. The random effect, fixed effect and pooled regression models are estimated to identify the time period and cross sectional variability. The quantile regression helps to compare variation across various quartiles of the companies through the application of restrictions on the parameters. The writers could not find any previous study to have employed such a methodology on Pakistani data.

3. METHODOLOGY

Required rate of return is significantly important for the investors. Estimation of required rate of return is main philosophy of the two leading models of finance such as the CAPM and Fama and French models.

This study employs the methodology of Fama and French (1992) in defining the variables. However, the method of estimation employed includes panel data models and quantile regression to explore the dynamics of CAPM and Fama-French models. The model can be expressed as follows:

\[ R_i - R_f = f[(R_m - R_f); SMB_{it}; HML_{it}] \] \hspace{1cm} \text{Equation 1}

which can be written as a formal expression in terms of Equation 2.

\[ (R_i - R_f)_{it} = \beta_1 + \beta_2(R_m - R_f)_{it} + \beta_3(SMB_{it}) + \beta_4(HML_{it}) + \mu_{it} \] \hspace{1cm} \text{Equation 2}

Where

\[ R_i = \text{Stock returns of the } i^{th} \text{ company at time } t \]
\[ R_f = \text{Risk free rate of return} \]
\[ R_m = \text{Market return of the stock market using KSE 100 Index as proxy.} \]
\[ SMB = \text{Small minus big in terms of size} \]
\[ HML = \text{High minus low in terms of value factor} \]

In order to overcome the problem of heteroskedasticity, regression equation is transformed as follows:

\[ \frac{(R_i - R_f)_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} = \beta_1 \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_{it}} \right) + \beta_2 \left( \frac{R_m - R_f)_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right) + \beta_3 \left( \frac{SMB_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right) + \beta_4 \left( \frac{HML_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right) + \left( \frac{\mu_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right) \] \hspace{1cm} \text{Equation 3}

In this equation the effect of heteroskedastic variances \( \sigma^2 \) of each panel is sliced through transformation of the equation. Further simplification specifies the equation 3.

\[ \sum \left[ \left( \frac{\mu_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right)^2 \right] = \sum \left[ \left( \frac{(R_i - R_f)_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} - \beta_1 \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_{it}} \right) - \beta_2 \left( \frac{R_m - R_f)_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right) - \beta_3 \left( \frac{SMB_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right) - \beta_4 \left( \frac{HML_{it}}{\sigma_{it}} \right) \right]^2 \] \hspace{1cm} \text{Eq 4}

The greater the value of \( \sigma \), the lower will be the weight assigned to each term. Parameters can be obtained through minimization of the equation 4 with respect to betas.

Variables used in the model are described in the paragraphs to follow.

3.1 Book to Market Equity Ratio

The book to market equity ratio is calculated as book value of equity (BE) of the firm divided by market

value of equity (ME) of firm. Fama and French (1992) considered common equity plus deferred taxes as the book value and market value was the market price of share as on 30 June times the outstanding shares.

**BE/ME Ratio = Book value of equity / Market value of equity**

Studies\(^{11}\) have employed BE/ME ratio to reveal certain characteristics of firms. High ‘book to market equity’ firms are characterized as value firms and low book to market equity are characterized as growth firms. Many studies\(^{12}\) have followed Fama and French in calculating ‘book to market’ equity ratio. Negative book to market equity is usually ignored following Fama and French (1992).

### 3.2 Size

Overall value of the firm defines size factor employed in the previous studies. Fama and French (1992) defined size as the market price times outstanding shares at period \(t\). In this study ‘size’ as the variable has been represented by total assets of the firm.

Most of the studies\(^{13}\) followed the Fama and French model in using ‘market capitalization’ as the proxy of size. The difference involves only description of the variable. One is market based and the other is accounting based. Accounting based description of ‘size’ has greater explanatory power of cost of equity than market based description of business risk\(^{14}\). This study employs the ‘size’ based on total assets on the balance sheet and portfolios.

### 3.3 Small minus Big (SMB)

The SML variable is generated using anomaly in stock returns in terms of size. The SML means small minus big stock returns of the portfolio. In other words SML is the difference between the stocks returns of the small firms’ portfolio and stock returns of the big firms’ portfolio.

\[ SML = \text{Average returns of small firms portfolio } - \text{Average returns of big firms portfolio} \]

Fama and French (1993, 1995) find that non market risk factors are important in explaining the cross section of average returns. According to Fama and French (1993), the SML variable mimics the risk factor associated with the size of the firm. Studies\(^{15}\) traced the movement of SML and find that the associated coefficient of SML is positive for small firm portfolio and negative for big firm portfolio. This indicates that there is a premium for portfolio of small firm. SMB is only applicable for higher order co movement\(^{16}\).

### 3.4 High minus Low (HML)

The HML variable is developed to incorporate value factor that explains variations in the stock returns. The HML means high minus low, which is, the difference between returns of the portfolio with high BE/ME and the returns of the portfolio with low BE/ME.

According to Fama and French (1993) HML mimic the risk factor in stock returns associated with the value of the stock. Studies\(^{17}\) identified that the slope of HML remains the same for small and big stocks. HML is also a proxy for the co-movement that leads to the mispricing of the stocks.

Many studies\(^{18}\) indicated that through SMB and HML the higher order co-movement is priced and SMB and HML represent characteristics and not co-movement. The inclusion of higher order co-movement along with SMB and HML leads to the improvement in explanatory power of asset pricing model. In this research the SMB and HML are calculated using the method identified by Fama and French (1993).

---

\(^{11}\) Rosenberg Reid and Lanstien (1985) identified that there is a positive relationship between average return and book to market equity ratio. Fama and French (1992) used book to market equity ratio as the measure of value effect


\(^{15}\) Iqbal, Brook and Galagedera (2008)

\(^{16}\) Iqbal, Brook and Galagedera (2008)


3.5 DATA

This study employs 10 year monthly stock prices of all the companies listed in the Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE) from January 2001 to December 2010. Annual and biannual reports of the companies were quite handy in the construction of SMB and HML. The sources of data are:

- Annual Reports of the Companies
- B-recorder Database [http://www.brecorder.com/]

Quite a long span of the data set for the period of 2001-2010 provides an opportunity to critically explore application of the Fama and French model under different economic situations which the Pakistan economy has passed through. FF has been estimated for every year from 2001 through 2010. This is the first study in Pakistan to evaluate the Fama-French model not only for such a long period as 2001-2010 but also appraising the model for each period on cross-sectional time series basis. Variation in the number of companies in each year can be on account of mergers, bankruptcy, shut downs and so on. The companies with an abnormal history were not considered for the subsequent period. Sampling is based on criteria rather than techniques for this study.

Based on the described criteria, companies considered for each year are listed in the Table I.

**Table 1: Sample Design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Companies in Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>628</td>
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<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>581</td>
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<td>2005</td>
<td>591</td>
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<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>555</td>
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<td>2008</td>
<td>560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>509</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A brief review of methodologies employed by some of the leading studies reviewed for this study is presented in Table 2 given below for perusal of the readers.

**Table 2: Methodology Review**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Country of Study</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vu Thang Long Pham (2007)</td>
<td>Japanese style index</td>
<td>GMM along with GRS test</td>
<td>Supportive to Fama and French model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunil K. Bundoo (2006)</td>
<td>Mauritius Stock market</td>
<td>GLS using GARCH (1,1) series as market return proxy</td>
<td>Predict accuracy in Fama and French model through this method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tawanrat Prajuntasen (2010)</td>
<td>Thailand Stock market</td>
<td>Multivariate Regression</td>
<td>Support Fama and French model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenneth Lam (2005)</td>
<td>Canadian stocks</td>
<td>Cross section and Time Series Regression analysis</td>
<td>Doesn’t support Fama and French model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gregory Connor and Sanjay Sehgal (2001)</td>
<td>Indian Stocks</td>
<td>Multivariate Regression and GRS statistics</td>
<td>Supports Fama and French model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michele A. O Brien (2007)</td>
<td>Australian Stocks</td>
<td>GMM along with GRS test</td>
<td>Support Fama and French model</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6 Quantile Regression Analysis

Quantile regression provides estimates of the linear relationship between regressors and a specified quantile of the dependent variable (Koenker and Bassett, 1978). ‘Least absolute deviations (LAD)’ is one of the special cases of quantile regression which corresponds to fitting the conditional median of the response variable.

Quantile regression describes better conditional distribution of the response variable than conditional mean in the OLS analysis. Researchers can analyze any selected proportion of the response variable affected by the regressors included in the model. It is a robust method of modeling because it is not based on assumptions related to the distribution. The slope equality test (the Wald test) tests the hypothesis that the coefficients across different quantiles are the same and the conditional quantiles are identical. Symmetric quantile tests assume that the average value of two sets of coefficients for symmetric quantiles around the median will equal the value of the coefficients at the median.

Quantile regression model\(^{19}\) corresponding to linear regression model is described in Equation 5.

\[
(R_p - R_f)_t = \beta_1^{(p)} + \beta_2^{(p)} (R_m - R_f)_t + \beta_3^{(p)} (SMB)_t + \beta_4^{(p)} (HML)_t + \mu_t^{(p)}
\]

... Eq. 5

Where \(0 < p < 1\) indicates the proportion of under quantile at \(p\).

Expected value of the error terms is 0 in linear regression model. Corresponding quantile regression is shown in Equation 6.

\[
Q((R_p - R_f)\| (R_m - R_f)_t, SMB_t, HML_t) = \beta_1^{(p)} + \beta_2^{(p)} (R_m - R_f)_t + \beta_3^{(p)} (SMB)_t + \beta_4^{(p)} (HML)_t
\]

... Eq.6

The difference in the error term of the different quantiles can be written as shown in Equation 7.

\[
\mu_t^{(P)} - \mu_t^{(Q)} = (\beta_1^{(P)} - \beta_1^{(Q)}) + (\beta_2^{(P)} - \beta_2^{(Q)}) (R_m - R_f)_t + (\beta_3^{(P)} - \beta_3^{(Q)}) (SMB)_t + (\beta_4^{(P)} - \beta_4^{(Q)}) (HML)_t
\]

...Eq.8

4. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Results are based on estimates of the models such as panel data models and quantile regressions for the period of 2001-2010. All the estimates are based on monthly data set making the total cumulative sample of 120 months altogether with the adjustment of companies in each year. For the dynamic analysis the data set includes 586 companies for the year 2001; 553 companies for the year 2002; 628 companies for the year 2003; 581 companies for the year 2004; 591 companies for the year 2005; 568 companies for the year 2006; 555 companies for the year 2007; 560 companies for the year 2008; 540 companies for the year 2009 and 509 companies for the year 2010.

Size and the value factors are significantly important for the FF model. Significance of the models has been tested using redundant tests on all the estimated models such as quantile regression, panel and pooled data sets. Highly significant values for all the periods prove consistent validity of FF model on the Pakistani KSE. The results also reveal that FF model is better than CAPM in determination of individual security risk premium and the required rate of returns. The 10-year results of the monthly data are presented in Table 3 for perusal. These results also prove FF hypothesis that value and size of the companies play significant role in the determination of required rate of return and risk premium.

Sequence of the tests applied is as follows. The common constant method, presents results under the principal assumption that there are no differences among the data matrices of the cross-sectional dimension. This, in other words, means estimation of common constant for all cross-sections.

\(^{19}\) Koenker and Bassett (1978)
Panel EGLS is employed to control heteroscedasticity across the entities included in this study. This improves results of the study. For space saving, only EGLS results have been reported in the Table 3.

In order to estimate firm specific and time specific heterogeneity this study employs fixed effects models and compares the results of pooled data set and those calculated using fixed effects models by employing the redundant fixed effects tests. Wald redundant coefficients tests are employed to check the validity of CAPM and the FF models. The Hausman test is employed to compare random effects models and fixed effect models. Another of distinctions of the study is that it employs quantile regressions which require less stringent assumptions than simple OLS method.

Size and the value effects are significantly important in Fama-French models. In this study SMB represents size variable and the HML covers value aspect of the companies. MPREM is the market risk premium. In all the regression equations the dependent variable is security risk premium (SPREM). All the variables are estimated in matrix of complete vector of more than 500 companies in each year based on monthly data. Theoretically there should be positive relationship of dependent variable with each of the variables of MPREM, Size and Value.

Results in the Table 3 reveal positive and significant effect of market risk premium on the vector of security risk premium across the companies in the long run from 2001 through 2010 in all the models including pooled data, fixed effects, random effects and quantile regression models. Positive sign of MPREM beta prove the fact of high risk associated with the higher premium.

The results reported in the table for each of the 10 year period reveal estimation of modified SML spurred research for the FF-model. Validity of the financial models is tested in two stages. In the table given below the results reveal two-tailed t-values with the null hypothesis that market risk, value risk and size related risks do not cause return from investment in portfolio of securities. Results at the first stage with two-tailed tests reveal rejection of the hypothesis and prove that all the three risks positively cause portfolio risk premium for all the sets of securities in all the ten years of 2001-2010. Market risk premium are significantly different from the individual security or portfolio risk premium for almost all the periods from 2001 through 2010. Nevertheless, the HML beta, the value risks inversely affect security risk premium during the periods of 2006 and 2008. The values of all the risks in terms of betas are consistent for the monthly data of 2001-2010 with their values always less than 1. The value of MPREM less than 1 elucidates market risk premium exceeding security or portfolio risk premium.

Results related to the SMB-beta prove Fama and French hypotheses that small firms show higher expected returns because of the positive causal effect of SMB-beta on stock returns or portfolio returns and risk premium. With the positive and significant values of HML-beta and SMB-beta the results are consistent with Fama-French model (1992), as these factor loadings have had significant effects on the risk premium for the historical data of KSE companies comprising the period of 2001-2010.

The intercept term is also significant revealing different style of management in the corporate units included in this study. Quantile regression results outperform all the other estimators considered for this study. Details about the Quantile regression models are given in the section of methodology of this study.

Wald redundant coefficients tests were employed to test if the individual assets have the same level of risk as the market index; if the level of individual security risk premium varies identically with the variation of size and value of the assets of representative portfolio. The results are significantly different from the null hypothesis of 1 in almost every year. Findings rouse market risk premium exceeding the security risk premium; whereas size and value of the assets seem to have significant role in the determination of risk premium of securities.

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20 Results of the redundant tests were intentionally skipped for space saving.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Pooled EGLS</th>
<th>Fixed</th>
<th>Random</th>
<th>Quantile Reg.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
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<td>(-0.0670*)</td>
<td>(-0.0670*)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>(0.5637*)</td>
<td>(0.5637*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>(0.0191)</td>
<td>(0.0214)</td>
<td>(0.0215)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SMB</td>
<td>(0.1253*)</td>
<td>(0.1932*)</td>
<td>(0.1932*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>(0.064*)</td>
<td>(0.0637*)</td>
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<td>0.639*</td>
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<td>(553 companies)</td>
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<td>(0.908*)</td>
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<td>(-0.010)</td>
<td>(-0.010)</td>
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<td>(0.280*)</td>
</tr>
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<td>(581 companies)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>(-0.053*)</td>
<td>-0.054*</td>
<td>-0.044*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
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<td>Coefficients</td>
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<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Random</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.066*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(8.50)</td>
<td>(8.31)</td>
<td>(3.70)</td>
<td>(13.299)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.144*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>(13.60)</td>
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<td>(8.09)</td>
<td>(8.904)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-Stat</td>
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<td>2.93*</td>
<td>136.9*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(568 companies)</td>
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<td>(-31.07)</td>
<td>(-32.62)</td>
<td>(-14.53)</td>
<td>(-23.162)</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.361*</td>
<td>0.443*</td>
<td>0.339*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(16.8)</td>
<td>(17.03)</td>
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<td>-0.003</td>
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<td>(-0.108)</td>
<td>(-1.901)</td>
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<td>0.055*</td>
<td>0.092*</td>
<td>0.059*</td>
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</tr>
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<td>(5.32)</td>
<td>(5.47)</td>
<td>(4.54)</td>
<td>(4.951)</td>
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<tr>
<td>F-Stat</td>
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<td>1.73*</td>
<td>52.32*</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007</td>
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<tr>
<td>(555 companies)</td>
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<td>0.416*</td>
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<td>0.273*</td>
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<td>(19.07)</td>
<td>(18.58)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6.63)</td>
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<td>(4.34)</td>
<td>(5.061)</td>
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<td>97.36*</td>
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<tr>
<td>2008</td>
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<td>55.14*</td>
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<td>2009</td>
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<td>Coefficients</td>
<td>Pooled EGLS</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Random</td>
<td>Quantile Reg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(11.37)</td>
<td>(11.30)</td>
<td>(6.20)</td>
<td>(6.778)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HML</td>
<td>0.069*</td>
<td>0.0697*</td>
<td>0.121*</td>
<td>0.031*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6.61)</td>
<td>(6.83)</td>
<td>(5.99)</td>
<td>(4.382)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMB</td>
<td>0.080*</td>
<td>0.0776*</td>
<td>0.135*</td>
<td>0.021*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(8.01)</td>
<td>(7.92)</td>
<td>(6.95)</td>
<td>(3.115)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-Stat</td>
<td>64.57*</td>
<td>1.29*</td>
<td>34.54*</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(509 companies)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-0.041*</td>
<td>-0.0407*</td>
<td>-0.0360*</td>
<td>-0.050*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-10.34)</td>
<td>(-10.38)</td>
<td>(-4.14)</td>
<td>(-9.636)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPREM</td>
<td>0.812*</td>
<td>0.8196*</td>
<td>0.7917*</td>
<td>0.741*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(26.01)</td>
<td>(26.46)</td>
<td>(11.55)</td>
<td>(15.402)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HML</td>
<td>0.031*</td>
<td>0.0300*</td>
<td>0.0411**</td>
<td>0.021**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4.29)</td>
<td>(4.22)</td>
<td>(2.61)</td>
<td>(2.530)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMB</td>
<td>0.154*</td>
<td>0.1561*</td>
<td>0.3583*</td>
<td>0.186*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(7.86)</td>
<td>(8.01)</td>
<td>(8.31)</td>
<td>(7.930)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>F-Stat</td>
<td>409.9*</td>
<td>3.30*</td>
<td>125.76*</td>
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*Significance level at 1%
**Significance level at 5%  [The values in brackets are the t-values].

5. CONCLUSIONS

Fama and French (1992, 1995) models are of substantial importance for the purpose of pricing of financial assets. They are being considered valuable methods for the appraisal of required rate of returns which can of use in the capital budgeting techniques. This study is an attempt to estimate valuable financial models in Pakistan for an extended period of 2001-2010 on monthly data using panel data models and quantile regression analysis. Such an appraisal of the Fama and French models is the first ever attempt on the Pakistani data with complete KSE listed companies meeting the selection criteria specified for this study (as explained in the section of methodology). Findings of the study can be a guide for investors, policy makers and academicians. Though it cannot be firmly stated but our sense of the situation is that neither of the methodologies has been employed by the previous studies. Hence, the current study can be considered as an academic contribution in the literature of corporate finance.

Form among all the methodologies employed in this study, the results from quantile regression outperform panel data models in supporting the FF models for KSE and the financial sector of Pakistan. SMB, HML and MPREM were found to have significant positive contribution in explaining variation in the risk premium of companies’ portfolio. Stocks with small size, as explained by SMB, and high value factor, as explained by HML, have higher expected returns and risk premium than stock of big size firm and low value factor.

Findings of the current study support previous studies on Indian economy conducted by Connor and Sehgal (2001). The results identified the linear exposure of stock returns and risk premium to market, size and value factors which explain cross sectional variations in the stock returns. The findings of current study also support Brien (2008) that SMB and HML increases the power of explaining the returns except the variable of market risk premium (MPREM). These results also prove FF model’s superiority over traditional CAPM which was also tested but the results were not reported for space saving.

Nevertheless, findings of the current study are different from Faff (2001), Manatasanam (2007) who could not find their data supporting dynamics of Fama and French model. Findings of Faff (2001), Manatasanam (2007) provide weak explanation of cross-section variation of expected return and identified negative effect of size. Significant findings of the current study may be attributed to the
extended data set, natural randomness of the companies across the period of 10 years from 2001 through 2010, and better econometric methodologies employed in the present study.

One of the objectives of the study was exploring significance of the Fama and French model for Pakistani corporate culture and secondary market environment. Findings of the study confirm that Fama and French model is applicable in Pakistani stock market. In sum, long term results support Fama and French model and its significance for Pakistani business environment. Long-term results from quantile regression can be considered as an academic contribution in the area of corporate finance. For investors, the findings may guide them to determine the required rate of return from any prospective area of investment.

Further research is recommended by employing different definitions of the variables, such as HML and SMB, in the FF models. For any research in future the limitations in acquiring appropriate data set of the companies must be taken care of. There is need for a study related to family owned business corporations and non-listed business entities whose data could not be made available for current study despite utmost efforts.

From amongst the implications of studying Fama and French hypothesis the calculation of required rate of return which is to be compared with market portfolio returns. Fama and French model supports efficient market hypothesis (EMH) through required rate of return according to the principle of high risk associated with high returns. If returns increase with book value to market value, the stocks with high book value to market value must be relatively more risky than the other stocks. Most of the time, small value happens to deliver higher returns with higher volatility. This risk-return relationship elucidated by Fama and French model might be very useful for medium and long term investors. In sum, small cap stocks have higher average returns than large cap stocks. The model can be more useful for medium and long term investors than short term investors.
6. REFERENCES


Prajutasen T., (2010). does financial leverage affect to ability and efficiency of Fama and French three factors model? The case of SET100 in Thailand. 2nd international conference on logistics and transport, New Zealand


Repetition Phenomenon of the Formed Grammatical Example in Heritage Books: The Example of "Zaid is Going", (Zaidon Montalekon) as a Model

Abdulmohsen Altabtabae, Kuwait University, Kuwait

Abstract

This research investigates the repetition phenomenon of the grammatical example for the grammarians and other scholars through different ages by investigating the grammatical example (Zaidon Montalekon). It aims at identifying the nature of the grammatical example, searching for reasons of repetition and knowing methods of using it by the grammarians. By tracking this phenomenon, it is obvious that the grammarians started to use this example since Sibawayh, continuing until the present day. Many of them have recurrently conveyed the form of the previous grammarians without addition or modification until the grammatical example establish itself in the acknowledged way of the present time. The research also investigates the use of the grammatical example represented by the example (Zaidon Montalekon) by non-grammarians. It is evidenced that many jurist, experts in Quranic exegesis, rhetoricians, linguists, logic scholars and philosophers used to apply this example and mention it in many topics and issues in their books. Through their examples, the grammarians also express various forms of the example by improvising new derived examples through adding a word or a letter or more to the original example. In this way, the new forms achieve the intended goals by using them in different grammatical sections. The research also embarks on asking real questions regarding the validity of using the ancient grammatical example in the present day, the differences between the ancient and modern audiences, and the contemporary scholars' opinions in the repetition phenomenon of these formed examples.