JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol. 14 No. 2	2011

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN

1

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol.14 No. 2	2011

Note:
Views expressed in the articles of this journal are of authors and do not reflect the views of the Journal of Educational Research.

EDITORIAL/ ADVISORY BOARD

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol.14 No. 2	2011

CONTENTS

Success Pattern of Learners of B.Ed Programme with Specificity to Indra Gandhi National Open University Regional Centre Lucknow

Ashwini Kumar

Abstract

Even though mere enrolment into a programme is an asset for an institution, it cannot be an indicator for the effective utilisation of the learner support services rendered in the Institution. Effective transaction of the academic curriculum and the administrative facilitation is manifested in the number of successfully completed learners. This is true for both the Conventional Educational System (CES) and the Distance Educational System (DES). The B.Ed Programme of IGNOU launched in the year 2000 and is accessible to in-service graduate teachers having two years full time teaching experience. The programme is very popular among the untrained teachers involved in academic transactions at the School level. The present paper explores the access and success pattern of learners enrolled into the B.Ed programme from the year 2000 to 2006 (seven cohorts of enrolment) at IGNOU Regional Centre Lucknow and were awarded the degrees between 14th convocation (2003) to 20th convocation (2009) on the basis of selected Socio Demographic Indicators (SDI). The paper uses three criterions namely success rate, division obtained in the final examination and duration taken to complete the programme to describe the success pattern of the learners. The Study utilizes the learner enrolment data as available with the IGNOU Regional Centre Lucknow and the data of the learners who have been awarded degrees in Lucknow region of IGNOU from

14th convocation held in the year 2003 (The convocation in which first batch of successful learners of B.Ed programme were awarded degree certificate) to 20 convocation (2009). The analysis of data revealed the high rate of programme completion (76.5%) with nearly ninety percent completers obtaining more than sixty percent marks and also elucidated no significant difference between the level of success (Division) and the SDI of learners. The study further showed the declining rate of success with the increase in the duration of completion of the programme, which in turn indicates that the interest of learners starts diminishing in the pursuance of the programme over a certain period of time.

Keywords: Bachelor of Education, Success Rate, Teacher Education, IGNOU

Introduction

The role of teacher has always been considered very important for the over all development of the society. There is a universal fact that only competent teachers can produce good citizens. Therefore, Koul and Menon (1992) asserted that teacher education has always been recognized as one of the most crucial means of social and national

Deputy Director, IGNOU Regional Centre, Lucknow 226022, Uttar Pradesh. Email: ashwini_ak@yahoo.com

development (p.1). Keeping in view the shortage of Teacher Training Institutions in India, "the Kothari Commission (1964-66) recommended creation of facilities for training prospective teachers, for continuous professional development of in-service teachers and clearing the backlog of untrained teachers through correspondence mode of education" (Sangai and Garg, 2009, p.150). This has encouraged the universities to offer Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) programme through correspondence/ distance mode of education.

Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) launched the B.Ed programme in January 2000 in collaboration with National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) for in-service graduate teachers with two years teaching experience. The programme was initially offered at 20 Learner Support Centres (LSC) activated in teachers training colleges approved by NCTE with maximum intake of 100 learners per LSC. The admission to B.Ed programme of IGNOU is offered based on the score obtained in All India Entrance Test. As on 2010, there are 280 Learner Support Centres activated for this programme (Student Hand Book & Prospectus, 2011) making the total intake of learners to 28000.

The programme has completed a decade in the year 2009 and a few cohorts of learners have completed their maximum and re-admission periods. It was felt appropriate to assess success pattern of learners enrolled in IGNOU, as the number of the successfully completed learners is an indicator of the compatibility of the system and add to the human resources generated by the System. While enrolment is a need driven activity, the success in the programme indicates the persistence of the learners in complying with the norms and academic mandatory requirements prescribed by the system as part of the programme curriculum. They become the unpaid promoters of the programme to the potential clientele in the far-flung areas in the society where they are placed. The present paper gives the success pattern of learners enrolled into the B.Ed programme during the years 2000 to 2006 and have been awarded the degrees between 14th convocation (2003) and 20th convocation (2009) at Lucknow Regional Centre, one of the second tier administrative setup of IGNOU functioning in the State of Uttar Pradesh on the basis of selected Socio Demographic Indicators (SDI).

B.Ed Programme offered by Indra Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU)
The Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) Programme of IGNOU aims at imparting all the knowledge, skills, and values that are required by practising teachers through a judicious mix of theory and practical courses. It enables the in-service teachers to select and organise the learning experiences according to their requirement. In addition, the programme aims at developing an understanding of areas such as educational evaluation and school management, etc.

The Duration of the Programme is Two years. However, the learner has the option to complete it within maximum duration of four years. The learner may also take re-admission in any of the courses not yet completed after the expiry of maximum duration of four years. The re-admission period is valid for the period of two years from the date of completion of maximum duration. The programme comprises the four groups of courses. A learner enrolled up to the January 2008 session from the inception of the programme had to earn 48 credits to complete the programme as per following course option schedule:

Table-1: Course option in B.Ed. Programme

S.No.	Group of courses	Number of courses available	No. of courses to be opted	Total. Number of credits
1.	Core Courses	05	05	20
2.	Content-based Methodology Courses	04	02	08
3.	Special Courses	05	01	04
4.	Practical Courses	03	03	16

However, the learners enrolled from the academic session January 2009 onwards have to complete 56 credits to get the degree (Programme Guide, Bachelor Education-2009).

The instructional system of B.Ed. programme of IGNOU is based on the multi-media approach consisting of self-instructional print material, audio-visual material, assignments, face to face counseling sessions, counselling through teleconference, and practical work in school and workshops at LSC. The self-instructional materials (SIM) are the main component of learning material for both theory and practical components of the programme. Each course is divided into blocks and one block is further divided into units. The SIM is presented to the learners in the form of blocks.

The audio and video programmes are supplementary, meant for clarification and enhancement of understanding. Besides, the video programmes and live discussions are also telecasted on the national television network of Gyan Darshan. The B.Ed. programme was launched in IGNOU Regional Centre, Lucknow in the year 2000 i.e. the inception year of the programme. It was activated at one Learner Support Centre (LSC) in Varanasi. Over the years, the programme has shown a continuous growth in terms of learner intake with the establishment of more Learner Support Centres for the programme. In the year 2008, Regional Centre Lucknow was trifurcated with the creation of two more Regional Centers at Aligarh and Varanasi. Accordingly, the LSC were reallocated among the three Regional Centres based on their vicinity to the Regional

Centre. The growth of Learner Support Centres for the B.Ed. programme in the Lucknow Region of IGNOU is given in Table 2.

Table-2: Growth Learner Support Centers for B.Ed programme under Regional Centre Lucknow

Cohort of enrolment No.	Number of Learner Support Centers	Number of Enrollees
2000	01	98
2001	01	100
2002	02	200
2003	05	499
2004	05	500
2005	08	800
2006	18	1799
2007	18	1798
2008	22	2199
2009	13	1292

It can be observed from table 02 that the number of LSC was on the increase and subsequently a decrease in the LSC under the jurisdiction of the Lucknow RC was noted in the cohort of enrolment for 2009 due to shifting of the Nine Learners Support Centres to Varanasi and Aligarh Regional Centres.

Research methodology
The methodology used for the study is being discussed under the headings namely research objectives, the method of data collection and the data analysis

Research Objectives
    Describe the profile of learners who have taken admission in B.Ed. programme of IGNOU, from the session January-2000 to January-2006.

    Analyze the success rate of learners of B.Ed. programme, who have been awarded degree up to 20th convocation (2009) based on their socio demographic indicators (SDI).

    Examine the achievement of the successful learners on the basis of their division obtained and duration taken to complete the programme.

Data Collection
The data of enrolled learners was collected from admission record of IGNOU Regional Centre Lucknow. The data of successful learners eligible to receive the degree certificate

in convocation at the Regional Centre is provided by Student Evaluation Division (SED), IGNOU, Maidan Garhi, New Delhi to the concerned Regional Centre. The same was used to tabulate the success rate. The data was further validated by the grade card of the learners available at the website of IGNOU (www.ignou.ac.in) on the random sample basis.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed using MS-Excel-2003, MS-Access-2003 and Dbase-III software. Frequencies, percentages and means were utilized to analyse and describe the findings. To study the level of success of completers, the grades obtained by them have been converted into percentage based on the model developed by Ghosh and Garg (2008). The levels of success of the completers have been classified into three categories on the basis their percentage of marks as per the norms of IGNOU as depicted in Table 3.

Table-3: Classification of percentage of marks

S.No	Division	Percentage of Marks
1.	First Hons	Marks $\geq 75\%$
2.	First	$60\% \leq$ Marks $< 75\%$ 3.
	Second	$50\% \leq$ Marks $< 60\%$

Three criterions namely *Success Rate*, *Division obtained*, and *Duration taken for the successful completion of the programme*, were used to describe the success pattern of the learners. One way Analysis Variance (ANOVA) and *t-test* were used to compare the success pattern of the learners on the basis of their Socio Demographic Indicators (SDI). All tests were run at the 0.05 alpha levels.

Population

The population for the evaluation of success pattern of the learners comprised the learners who have taken admission up to January-2006 session since the launch of B.Ed. programme (2000) at the various LSCs of the IGNOU Regional Centre, Lucknow (N=3996) and the learners who have been awarded degree at IGNOU Regional Centre, Lucknow from 14th convocation (the convocation in which first batch of learners of B.Ed programme were awarded their degree certificates) to 20th convocation held in the year 2009 (N=3057).

Major Findings

The major findings of the study is being discussed under the headings namely Profile of the Learners, Success rate of learners, Learners' achievement in terms of Division obtained and Completion of the programme based on duration taken by the learners.

Profile of the Learners

The profile of the learners enrolled in B.Ed. programme was analyzed on the basis of their gender, category, age, place of stay, marital status, social status and the status with respect to physically handicapped category (PH). The number and percentage of the enrollees based on SDI is given in Table-4

Table-4: Profile of the Learners admitted in B.Ed. Programme

	SDI	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Total Available Frequencies
Gender	Female	59(60.2)	55(55)	89(44.5)	235(47.1)	202(40.4)	405(50.6)	1024(56.9)	2069(51.8)
	Male	39(39.8)	45(45)	111(55.5)	264(52.9)	298(59.6)	395(49.4)	775(43.1)	1927(48.2)
Category	Gen	88(89.8)	91(91)	163(81.5)	413(82.8)	386(77.2)	728(91)	1711(95.1)	3580(89.6)
	Scheduled Caste (SC)	7(7.1)	8(8)	33(16.5)	82(16.4)	107(21.4)	65(8.1)	84(4.7)	386(9.7)
	Scheduled Tribe (ST)	3(3.1)	1(1)	4(2)	4(0.8)	7(1.4)	7(0.9)	4(0.2)	30(0.8)
Age (in Years)	<25	17(17.3)	20(20)	53(26.6)	134(29.4)	120(24.4)	197(25.4)	433(24.7)	974(25.1)
	25-35	70(71.4)	68(68)	128(64.3)	287(62.9)	328(66.8)	511(65.9)	1153(65.7)	2545(65.7)
	35-50	11(11.2)	12(12)	18(9)	35(7.7)	42(8.6)	66(8.5)	166(9.5)	350(9)
	>50	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	1(0.2)	2(0.3)	3(0.2)	6(0.2)
Place of Stay	Urban	77(78.6)	83(83)	135(67.5)	325(65.1)	320(64)	555(69.4)	1158(64.4)	2653(66.4)
	Rural	20(20.4)	17(17)	65(32.5)	173(34.7)	180(36)	245(30.6)	632(35.1)	1332(33.3)
	Tribal	1(1)	(0)	(0)	1(0.2)	(0)	(0)	9(0.5)	11(0.3)
Marital Status	Married	61(62.2)	60(60)	103(51.5)	241(48.3)	295(59)	449(56.1)	1028(57.1)	2237(56)
	Unmarried	37(37.8)	40(40)	97(48.5)	258(51.7)	205(41)	351(43.9)	771(42.9)	1759(44)
Social Status	Ex Serviceman	2(2)	12(12)	14(7)	29(5.8)	39(7.8)	46(5.8)	3(0.2)	145(3.6)
	War Widow	(0)	1(1)	1(0.5)	2(0.4)	1(0.2)	1(0.1)	11(0.6)	17(0.4)
PH	Gen	96(98)	87(87)	185(92.5)	468(93.8)	460(92)	753(94.1)	1785(99.2)	3834(95.9)
	Physically Handicapped	2(2)	2(2)	7(3.5)	17(3.4)	16(3.2)	16(2)	21(1.2)	81(2)

Gen	96(98)	98(98)	193(96.5)	482(96.6)	484(96.8)	784(98)	1778(98.8)	3915(98)
TOTAL	98	100	200	499	500	800	1799	3996

Note: Numbers in parenthesis denote the percentage

In relation to quantum of enrolment with respect to variables under the study, the various aspects as revealed through Table 4 are being discussed below:

Gender
The quantum of enrolment in B.Ed programme with respect to gender indicates a fluctuating trend. The numbers of women enrollees are higher than men for the cohort of 2000, 2001, 2005 and 2006 whereas, from the cohort 2002 to 2004 men have dominated women in numbers. However, the total numbers of women enrollees are higher (51.8%) as compared to men (48.2%). The high percentage of women candidates could be attributed to teaching being the preferred profession by women.

Category
Approximately 90% of enrollees are from General category (89.6%) followed by Scheduled Caste (9.7%), and ST (0.8%). It is significant to mention that reservation policy of Govt. of India is followed in admission of B.Ed. programme of IGNOU. The vacant seats are filled by the candidates of General category only in the event of non availability of candidates of reserved category. Up to the year 2006, reservation for the OBC candidates was not adopted in IGNOU and therefore the candidates of OBC category were treated as General.

Age
The data in Table 4 reveal that 91% of the enrollees were below the age of 35 years at the time of their admission into the programme. The numbers of learners in the age group of 25-35 years constituted almost two-third (65.7%) of total populace of the enrollees. Only six learners above the age of 50 years, representing nearly 0.2% of total enrollees, have taken admission during 2000-2006. It is interesting to note that no learner above the age of 50 years had enrolled during the first four years of the launch of the programme (2000-2003). It may be due the fact that the teachers above the age of 50 years might have attained the required qualification or their priorities might have changed.

The average age of enrolled learners as on the Ist January of their enrolment cohort varied from 27.04 years (unmarried learners) to 31.14 years (married enrollees). The average age of enrollees based on their SDI are depicted in Table 5

11

Table-5: Average Age of Learners

Particulars		Age in Years
	Female	28.95
Gender	Male	29.78
	Gen	29.4
Category	SC	28.87
	ST	29.98
	Urban	29.49
Place of Stay	Rural	29.07
	Tribal	29.99
		31.14
Marital Status	Marriarried	27.04
ed		
	Unm	
Social Status	Ex Service man	30.03
	War Widow	30.07
Physically Handicapped (PH)		28.25

Place of Stay
Number of enrollees belonging to urban area (66.4%) is approximately two times the learners of rural area (33.3%). The quantum of enrolment of learners pertaining to tribal area is much less (0.3%) as compared to the learners of Urban and Rural areas. After the two years of launch of B.Ed programme, the enrolment of learners of rural area has reached to the level of 30 percent of total enrolment, which indicates that it takes little longer time duration after the launch of the programme to reach to the rural areas.

Marital Status
Both married and unmarried individuals have enrolled in B.Ed. programme of IGNOU. Except for the cohort of 2003, the number of married learners is more as compared to unmarried learners in all cohorts of enrolment.

Social Status
The enrollees under Ex-serviceman social category have taken admission in the B.Ed Programme for all seven cohorts of enrolment (2000 to 2006); likewise the enrollees whose social status is War widow have enrolled in the six cohorts of enrolment (2001-2006). Such learners were enrolled under the reservation policy of Government of India as a welfare measure to "men in the uniform" and to their widows.

Physically Handicapped (PH) learners
As per the policy of Government of India, three percent reservation has to be provided to physically handicapped persons in the admission to B.Ed programme. However, the

number of enrollees under PH category varied from 1.2% to 3.5 % across the cohorts of enrolment studied. It was highest (3.5%) in the cohort of 2002 and lowest in 2006 (1.5%). In four cohorts (2000, 2001, 2005 and 2006) seats reserved for Physically Handicapped learners were filled by the learners of General category due to the non availability of eligible candidates under this category. In the remaining three cohorts (2002 -2004), numbers of qualified candidates under PH category were more than the available seats and therefore, some of them having higher scores on par with the General category learners in the Entrance Exam were enrolled under General Category as per their turn in the merit list standing.

Success rate of learners
Individual background variables have been considered as important variables for determining the success rate of the learners by many researchers (Vrasidas& McIsaac, 1999; Osborn, 2001; Jusung, 2005). Therefore, the programme completion rate of learners has been analysed on the basis of their Socio Demographic Indicators.

The study indicates that rate of completion of B.Ed. programme varied from 68% (2001) to 87% (2003) across the various cohorts of enrolment under the study. The Mean success rate (MSR) in B.Ed programme of IGNOU was 76.5%, which may be considered as high. The finding is consistent with the study conducted by Sangai and Garg (2009), who had reported the rate of completion of B.Ed. programme of IGNOU as more than 90%. However, this is contrary to the findings of Carr (2000), which state that completion rate of programme in distance education is low This could be due to the high motivation of the learners towards the successful completion of the programme.

The number and Mean Success Rate of the learners based on their Socio Demographic Indicators (SDI) are summarized in Table 6.

Table-6: Success rate of Teacher Educators

SDI		2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Total Available Frequencies (MSR)
					Cohort of Enrolment				
Gender	Female	41 (69.5)	41(74.5)	70(78.7)	217(92.3)	157(77.7)	324(80)	747(72.9)	1597(77.2)
	Male	30(76.9)	27(60)	83(74.8)	217(82.2)	232(77.9)	300(75.9)	571(73.7)	1460(75.8)
Category	Gen	62(70.5)	63(69.2)	129(79.1)	364(88.1)	307(79.5)	563(77.3)	1256(73.4)	2744(76.6)
	SC	7(100)	4(50)	21(63.6)	67(81.7)	78(72.9)	57(87.7)	58(69)	292(75.6)
	ST	2(66.7)	1(100)	3(75)	3(75)	4(57.1)	4(57.1)	4(100)	21(70)

13

Place of Stay	Urban	55(71.4)	56(67.5)	104(77)	285(87.7)	249(77.8)	428(77.1)	817(70.6)	1994(75.2)
	Rural	15(75)	12(70.6)	49(75.4)	148(85.5)	140(77.8)	196(80)	494(78.2)	1054(79.1)
	Tribal	1(100)	NA	NA	1(100)	NA	NA	7(77.8)	9(81.8)
Marital Status	Married	49(80.3)	39(65)	81(78.6)	209(86.7)	232(78.6)	355(79.1)	760(73.9)	1725(77.1)
	Unmarried	22(59.5)	29(72.5)	72(74.2)	225(87.2)	157(76.6)	269(76.6)	558(72.4)	1332(75.7)
Age (in Years)	<25	10(58.8)	14(70)	42(79.2)	115(85.8)	89(74.2)	160(81.2)	321(74.1)	751(77.1)
	25-35	52(74.3)	47(69.1)	94(73.4)	256(89.2)	266(81.1)	394(77.1)	851(73.8)	1960(77)
	35-50	9(81.8)	7(58.3)	16(88.9)	30(85.7)	30(71.4)	52(78.8)	113(68.1)	257(73.4)
	>50	NA	NA	NA	NA	1(100)	2(100)	1(33.3)	4(66.7)
Social Status	Ex Service man	(0)	9(75)	10(71.4)	25(86.2)	34(87.2)	34(73.9)	3(100)	115(79.3)
	WW	NA	1(100)	1(100)	1(50)	0	1(100)	9(81.8)	13(76.5)
	Gen	71(74)	58(66.7)	142(76.8)	408(87.2)	355(77.2)	589(78.2)	1306(73.2)	2929(76.4)
PH	PH	1(50)	2(100)	7(100)	16(94.1)	12(75)	13(81.3)	15(71.4)	66(81.5)
	Gen	70(72.9)	66(67.3)	146(75.6)	418(86.7)	377(77.9)	611(77.9)	1303(73.3)	2991(76.4)
Number of completers (MSR)		**71(72.4)**	**68(68)**	**153(76.5)**	**434(87)**	**389(77.8)**	**624(78)**	**1318(73.3)**	**3057(76.5)**
Number of Non-completers (Mean rate)		**27 (27.6)**	**32(32)**	**57(23.5)**	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**

Note: Numbers in parenthesis denote the percentage

With regard to relation between success rate and SDI, Table 6 indicates following: The MSR of females (77.2%) is higher than the males (75.8%). The programme completion rate of females is also higher in all cohorts of enrolment except for the cohorts of 2004 and 2006. The paired *two -tail t-test for mean* suggests no significant difference in success rate between males and females [$t_{Stat}=1.26$, $t_{critical} =2.45$]. This corroborates with the study conducted by Osborn (2001) but, is not consistent with the findings of Zhang, J (2001)

Category wise analysis of the programme completion rate reveals the fluctuating outcome. The Learners of General category recorded highest success rate for three consecutive cohorts of enrolment (2003-2005) whereas, learners of SC and ST categories were ranked first in two cohorts each in terms of the programme completion rate. This finding is further authenticated by the ANOVA single factor test, which indicates no

significant difference between success rate and the category of the learners [$F_{observed}$ (2, 18) =0.025, $F_{critical}$ (2, 18) =3.55)].

It is satisfying to note that although number of admitted learners of tribal area is very low (0.3% of total enrolment) but their MSR (81.8%) is higher than the MSR of learners of Rural (79.1%) and Urban (75.2%) areas. Higher success rate of learners of rural and tribal areas indicates that place of stay may not be a constraint in successful completion of the programme. Significant difference between success rate and the place of stay of learners was indicated by ANOVA single factor test [$F_{observed}$ (2, 14) =6.31, $F_{critical}$ (2, 14) =3.74)].

The MSR of Married learners (77.1%) was higher as compared to unmarried learners (75.7%). It is interesting to know that unmarried females (78%) recorded highest MSR where as, the MSR of unmarried males (72.7%) was lowest as shown in Table 7.

Table-7: Gender and Marital Status-wise Success Rate

Marital Status	Gender		Number of completers (MSR)
	Female	Male	
Married	819(76.4)	906 (77.8)	1725 (77.1)
Unmarried	778(78)	554 (72.7)	1332(75.1)
Number of completers (MSR)	1597 (77.2)	1460(75.8)	3057 (76.5)

Note: Numbers in parenthesis denote the percentage

This may be due to relatively higher level of focused approach of unmarried females to teaching profession as compared to unmarried males.

The MSR of learners below the age of 35 years (77%) was relatively higher than the MSR of learners of the other age groups. No significant difference between success rate and the age has been manifested by ANOVA single factor test [$F_{observed}$ (2, 18) =0.98, $F_{critical}$ (3, 20) =3.10)]. This seems to be inconsistent with the study conducted by Fjortoft (1995).

The MSR of physically handicapped learners (81.5%) and dependants of ex-serviceman category (79%) than the over all MSR of enrollees (76.5%) can be attributed to their higher motivational level and well defined employment opportunities and reservations in the recruitment process governed by the Government of India as a means for self sustenance of these individuals in the society. The learners who could not complete the programme even after the availing the period of their re-admission (six years from the year of their registration) have been considered as Non- completers. The percentage of Non completers varied from 23.5% (year 2002) to 32% (year 2001).

Learners' achievement in terms of Division obtained

Grade obtained in any exam is indicative of the "higher reading comprehension and scholastic competence" (Deka & McMurry, 2006, p. 1) of learners of distance education system. It reflects the reward that the learner attains towards the completion of the programme. Higher the marks, better is the level of success (Division). The level of success in terms of division obtained by the learners is summarized in the Table 8.

Table-8: Achievement of successful learners in terms of Division obtained

SDI		First Hons	First	Second	$F_{observed}$	$F_{critical}$	$t_{observed}$	$t_{critical}$
			Division		**ANOVA-Single Factor Test**		**Two tail t -Test**	
Gender	Female	326 (15.8)	1186 (57.3)	85 (4.1)	Not Applicable		0.0731	4.303
	Male	52 (2.7)	1187 (61.6)	221 (11.5)				
Category	Gen	376 (10.5)	2165 (60.5)	203 (5.7)	0.007	5.143	-	
	SC	2 (0.5)	196 (50.8)	94 (24.4)				
	ST	(0)	12 (40)	9 (30)				
Place of Stay	Urban	341 (12.9)	1526 (57.5)	127 (4.8)	0.005	5.143	-	
	Rural	36 (2.7)	841 (63.1)	177 (13.3)				
	Tribal	1 (9.1)	6 (54.5)	2 (18.2)				
Marital Status	Married	198 (8.9)	1337 (59.8)	190 (8.5)	Not Applicable		0.529	4.303
	Unmarried	180 (10.2)	1036 (58.9)	116 (6.6)				
Age (in Years)	<25	103 (10.6)	583 (59.9)	65 (6.7)	0.015	4.066	-	
	25-35	234 (9.2)	1521 (59.8)	205 (8.1)				
	35-50	27 (7.7)	206 (58.9)	24 (6.9)				
	>50	(0)	4 (66.7)	1 (16.7)				
Social Status	Ex Service man	14 (9.7)	91 (62.8)	10 (6.9)	0.001	5.143	-	
	WW	2 (11.8)	9 (52.9)	2 (11.8)				

Gen	362 (9.4)	2273 (59.3)	294 (7.7)	
PH	1 (1.2)	52 (64.2)	13 (16)	
PH	-	0.324	4.303	
Gen	377 (9.6)	2321 (59.3)	293 (7.5)	
Number of completers (MSR)	378 (9.5)	2373 (59.4)	306 (7.7)	-

Note: Number in parenthesis denote the percentages

From Table 8 the following can be observed:
1. More than three fourth of learners (76.5%) enrolled in B.Ed programme of IGNOU were able to complete the programme. Among the completers, 12.4 % have achieved *First Hons* division, 77.6% have qualified the examination with *First* division, and only 10% of completers have obtained *Second* Division.

2. Female learners obtaining 60% or more marks are relatively higher (73.1%) than Males (64.3 %).

3. The learners of General Category have relatively attained the better divisions in their final examination as compared to the learners belonging to SC and ST Categories. No completer of ST Category could secure *First Hons* division. Similarly the successful learners residing in urban areas have relatively attained better division than the learners living in Rural and Tribal areas.

4. In relation to the level of success (Division) obtained, *t-test* and *ANOVA-Single factor* analysis revealed no significant difference between the level of success and the SDI based groups.

Completion of the programme based on duration taken by the learners
The provision of additional time period beyond the minimum duration of completion of programme is unique feature of Open and Distance Learning System. This helps the learners to pursue their studies as per their convenience and at the same time it also indicates the persistence of the learners towards the successful completion of the programme. The success rate of learners in terms of time taken by the individual to complete the programme is given in Table 9.

17

Table-9: Success rate on the basis of duration of completion of programme (in %)

SDI		Min Period	Extended Period				Re-Admission Period				ANOVA-Single Factor Test		Two tail t-TEST	
		2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	$F_{observed}$	$F_{critical}$	$t_{observed}$	$t_{critical}$
Gender	Female	48	20	4.8	2.9	1	0.2	0	0.1	0.1			0.235	2.306
	Male	43.9	19.3	7	3.2	2	0.3	0.1	0	0.1				
Category	Gen	47	19.9	5.3	2.9	1.2	0.3	0	0.1	0.1	0.008	3.403		
	SC	38.1	17.6	11.1	3.9	4.1	0.3	0.3	0	0.3				
	ST	33.3	16.7	6.7	10	3.3	0	0	0	0				
Place of Stay	Urban	45.4	19	5.7	3.2	1.6	0.2	0	0.1	0	0.005	3.403		
	Rural	47.2	20.8	6.2	2.8	1.4	0.4	0.1	0	0.3				
	Tribal	45.5	36.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
Marital Status	Married	46.1	19.9	6.3	2.8	1.5	0.4	0	0.1	0			1.049	2.306
	Unmarried	45.9	19.3	5.3	3.3	1.5	0.1	0.1	0	0.2				
Age	<25 Years	47	20.1	5	3.4	1.2	0.2	0	0	0.1	0.01	2.901		
	25-35 Years	45.8	19.9	6.1	2.9	1.7	0.3	0	0.1	0.1				
	35-50 Years	47.1	17.4	5.7	2.9	0.3	0	0	0	0				
	>50 Years	50	0	16.7	0	0	0	0	0	0				
Social Status	Ex Service man	42.8	17.2	10.3	4.8	4.1	0	0	0	0	0.001	3.403		
	WW	52.9	11.8	0	11.8	0	0	0	0	0				
	Gen	46.1	19.8	5.7	2.9	1.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1				
PH	PH	43.2	16	13.6	6.2	1.2	0	0	0	1.2			0.468	2.306
	GEN	46.1	19.7	5.7	3	1.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1				
MSR		46	19.6	5.9	3	1.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1				

The following can be observed from Table 9:

1. Approximately 46% of the enrollees have successfully completed the programme in the minimum duration of 2 years. The quantum of female learners (48%) passing the final examination in the minimum duration were relatively higher than the males (43.9%); likewise the percentage of learners of General category, who have qualified their final examination in the minimum duration, is relatively higher as compared to the learners of SC (38%) and ST (33.3%) categories.

2. It is satisfying to note that all the successful learners belonging to tribal area have completed their programme in the duration of 2.5 years. Similarly the completers above the age of 50 years have taken 2-3 years to pass the final examination. This may be due to their high motivation level.

3. Approximately 30% of the learners availed the opportunity of extended period (2.5 year to 4 years) for the completion of B.Ed. programme. It is interesting to note that the success rate of learners gradually declined with the increase in the duration of completion of programme. This indicates that the interest of learners starts diminishing in the pursuance of the programme over a certain period of time. This corroborates the study conducted by Mishra et al (2009) in the evaluation of undergraduate Physics programme of IGNOU.

4. In relation to the duration of completion of B.Ed. programme t-test and ANOVA-Single factor analysis reveals no significant difference between the duration of completion of the programme and the groups based on various socio demographic indicators.

Suggestions for further Research
The following are the some suggestions for undertaking further research;

1. The present study was confined to analysis of the success pattern of learners enrolled in B.Ed programme of IGNOU under the jurisdiction of its Regional Centre at Lucknow, A comprehensive study involving complete enumeration of the all Regional Centres may be undertaken.

2. A study may be conducted incorporating study habits, motivational level and goal centeredness of learners of B.Ed programme in various distance education institutions in India on their completion and drop out rate.

3. Student support services provided at the study centers plays important role in the conduct of all academic activities of B.Ed programme of IGNOU including the coordination with mentors and principals of the schools selected for practice teaching by the learners. Field studies on the quality of service being rendered by the above functionaries on the performance of the learners and their persistence with programme might help the policy makers.

4. Studies can be conducted to know the impact of Teacher- Training provided by IGNOU in developing the professional skills and changing the attitude of it's passed out learners towards teaching in the field.

Conclusion
Training the school teachers is one of the challenges met by the B.Ed programme of IGNOU. Based on the enrolment data available at the Lucknow Regional Centre and the corresponding number of passed out learners, the present study summed up the profile of the learners enrolled into the programme and the quantum of passed out against the

learners at the enrolment level based on their SDI. The study revealed the mean success rate of learners enrolled into B.Ed programme as 76.5%, which may be considered as high. This may be attributed to "high motivation of learners for acquiring necessary eligibility for a regular job or their urge for vertical mobility" (Sangai and Garg, 2009, p.164). The grade card status, the term end examination in which they have passed the B.Ed programme is also touched upon to elaborate the level of success attained by the learners and the time taken by them to complete the programme of study. Approximately ninety percent of completers have attained more than sixty percent marks in their final examination and about sixty percent of the successful learners have completed their programme within minimum stipulated time of two years. The suggestions given for further research, if complied, might throw light into the various dimensions touched upon in the study and in ascertaining the quality of performance of the learners besides their standing in the society.

References

Carr, S. (2000). As distance education comes of age, the challenge is keeping the students. *The Chronicle of Higher Education,* Feb 11, 2000, A39. Retrieved January 12, 2009, from http://chronicle.com/free/v46/i23/23a00101.htm

Deka, S.T. and McMurry, P. (2006). Student Success in Face-To-Face and Distance Teleclass Environments: A matter of contact? *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 7(1), 1-15. Retrieved June 15, 2010 from http://www.irrodl.org/index.php/irrodl/article/view/251

Fjortoft, N. F. (1995). 'Predicting persistence in distance learning programs'. Paper presented at *Mid-Western Educational Research Meeting,* Chicago II, October. Retrieved Feb 2, 2011 form http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED387620.pdf

Ghosh, C.K. and Garg, S. (2008). On Modeling Conversion of Grade Point Average to Percentage - A Case Study of Professional Programmes of IGNOU. *Indian Journal of Open Learning*, 17(3), 225-234.

IGNOU (2009). Programme *Guide - Bachelor of Education*. IGNOU: New Delhi.

IGNOU (2010) Student *Handbook and Prospectus-2011 - Bachelor of Education*. IGNOU: New Delhi.

Jusung, J. (2005). Understanding Drop out of Adult Learners in E-Learning. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Georgia, Athens. Retrieved August, 03, 2010 from www.coe.edueap/adminpolicy/desssertation-pdf/z005/Jun2000phd.pdf

Koul, B.N., and Menon, M.B (1992). Teacher education through the Distance mode. *Indian Journal of Open learning*, 1(2), 1-9.

Mishra, A., Vijayshri and Garg, S. (2009). Evaluation of the Undergraduate Physics Programme at Indira Gandhi National Open University: A Case Study. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 10(6), 106-123. Retrieved august, 04, 2010 from http://www.irrodl.org/index.php/irrodl/article/viewArticle/753/1434

Osborn, V. (2001). Identifying at-risk students in videoconferencing and web-based distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 15(1), 41-54.

Sangai, S. and Garg, S (2009). Evaluation of Bachelor of Education Programme of IGNOU: An Appraisal by the Beneficiaries. *Indian Journal of Open learning*, 18(3)149-165

Vrasidas, C., & McIsaac, M. S. (1999). Factors influencing interaction in an online course. American *Journal of Distance Education*, 13(3), 22-36.

Zhang, J., Li, F., Duan, C., and Wu, G. (2001). Research on Self-efficacy of Distance Learning and its Influence to Learners' Attainments. In: C. H. Lee (Eds.), *Proceedings of the International Conference on Computers in Education (ICCE)/ SchoolNet 2001,* Incheon, South Korea: Incheon National University of Education, *1510-1517* retrieved July, 15, 2010 retrieved from http://tccl.rit.albany.edu/papers/conferenes/Zhang2001ICCE.pdf.

Bullying and its Psychological Effects on Adult and Adolescent Students

Qudsia Tariq

Asma Tayyab

Abstract

The aim of the study was (1) to examine the effects of bullying on psychological wellbeing among students, (2) the relation of bullying with self-esteem and life satisfaction, (3) how adult and adolescent groups differ in showing psychological reactions to peer bullying and (4) to access which age group is more vulnerable to bullying. It was hypothesized that (i) the rate of bullying would be higher in adolescent students than in adult students, (ii) the bullied adolescent students would have poorer self-esteem as compared to adults and, (iii) the bullied adolescent students would have more depression, more socially isolation, and less life satisfaction than adult bullied students. A 2 x 4 factorial design was selected for this research to study the interrelation of all the variables. The time frame decided for the research was six months as it involved a detailed procedure. The data was collected within the expected time frame. The sample consisted of 70 students was randomly selected from schools, colleges, and university. Sample included both males and females. The age range for adolescent students was 13 - 19 and for adult students was 20 - 26. The measures used to see the psychological impact included 1- Rosenberg's (1965) self- esteem scale, 2-Depression scale by S. D. Hollon and P. C. Kendall (1980),3- Life satisfaction scale by Diener et al. (1985) and 4- Social isolation scale developed by Dean (1961). For statistical analysis the co -relations & t- test were calculated between all the variables Very strong positive relations were found between bullying and all the 4 variables .The significant difference was also found between adolescents and adults on all four mentioned psychological

variables. It was concluded that bullied adolescents have less life satisfaction, more depression, less self-esteem and more social isolation.

Keywords: Bullying, Psychological Effects, Hostile Behaviour, Adolescent Students, Self-esteem

Introduction

The aim of the study is to see the difference in the rates and psychological effects of bullying between adolescents and adults. Bullying is understood as systematic and repeated hostile behavior towards an individual who can not properly defend him or her self (Olweus, 1991). This may mean direct (e.g., hitting, name-calling) as well as indirect (e.g., social isolation, spreading nasty rumors) aggressive attacks. School bullying first became a topic for psychological research with the work of Olweus in Scandinavia in the 1970s (Olweus, 1978). Since then, surveys have been conducted in many countries around the world, all showing that bullying is a significant problem for large numbers of children (Smith et al., 1999). It is a problem of growing concern for researchers,

University of Karachi, Pakistan

University of Karachi, Pakistan

educators, and clinicians (e.g., Ambert, 1995; Dawkins, 1995; Hazler & Hoover, 1996; Olweus, 1993a; Ross, 1996; Slee & Rigby, 1994). It is not only limited to older children; such maltreatment by peers has been found in kindergarten students as well (Kochenderfer & Ladd, 1996).

The problem of the greatest concern is the potentially debilitating effects produced by the bullying on the victim. In recent years growing numbers of investigators have asked whether victims of peer aggression experience psychosocial maladjustment (depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, and the like). It is clearly important to know the answer to this question, so that children's distress does not go unrecognized. Cross-sectional studies of this type are increasing in number rapidly. At least six were published in 1998 alone (Craig, 1998; Crick&Bigbee, 1998; Graham & Juvonen, 1998; Kumpulainen et al., 1998; Salmon, James, & Smith, 1998; Stanley & Arora, 1998). Independently of such studies, converging theoretical and empirical perspectives suggest that victims may suffer greater psychosocial maladjustment than non-victims.

According to the meta-analysis conducted by Hawker and Boulton (2000) victimization seems to be strongly associated with depression, moderately related to low self-esteem, and significantly, but less strongly, related to anxiety. In some cases bullying has been associated even with the suicides among victimized children (O'Moore, 2000; Olweus, 1978). A number of theorists have argued that certain social psychological experiences, reminiscent of peer victimization, play a central role in the development of depression and of other forms of psychosocial maladjustment. For example, Gilbert (1992) outlined how attacks on peer-group rank, with strong similarities to physical victimization, maintain depression; Baumeister and Leary (1995) suggested that threats to social bonds (cf. relational victimization) can lead to anxiety, loneliness, or depression. Second, empirical research has shown that certain types of maladjustment (such as loneliness, depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem) are positively associated with such peer relationship difficulties as submissiveness, social withdrawal, and unpopularity with peers (e.g., Parkhurst & Asher, 1992; Strauss, Lahey, Frick, Frame, & Hynd, 1988; Vosk, Forehand, Parker, & Rickard, 1982; Walker & Greene, 1986). These peer relationship difficulties are themselves positively related to peer victimization (e.g., Bjo$ rkqvist, Ekman, & Lagerspetz, 1982; Boivin, Hymel, & Bukowski, 1995; Boulton & Smith, 1994; Perry et al., 1988; Schwartz, Dodge, & Coie, 1993). Bullying may have long-term effects for the victims as well. It seems to cause depression (Olweus, 1994) and possibly also problems in interpersonal relationships (Gilmartin, 1987) in young adulthood.

One very robust finding (at least in cross-sectional research) is that the number of children reporting being bullied tends to fall with age (Smith et al., 1999). Frequency of incidents is therefore generally lower in secondary schools than in primary, after an initial rise particularly among boys, who use aggression to establish dominance in new groups,

but then use it less once the hierarchy emerges (Pellegrini and Long, 2002). As Smith et al. (2001) have pointed out; this trend means that the relationship between bullying and its various risk factors should become stronger and more reliable in older childhood.

This study will be beneficial to the society in a way that it will make people attentive to the issue that is most prevalent and most common in various forms in our society as well but to which no serious attention has been paid till. The findings would help to create awareness among significant members like teachers and parents in dealing with those who are being bullied and implementing interventions to overcome the effects of bullying once they have been identified. This study is different in the sense that the sample not only includes students from the adolescent age group but also from the adult's age group. Thus, the finding will help to identify which age group is more prone to bullying and its psychological impact. This will eventually help in designing and implementing age-relevant interventions for the students.

Hypothesizes
On the basis of the literature review, it was hypothesized that
1- The rate of bullying would be higher in adolescent students than in adult students
1. 2-The bullied adolescent students would have poorer self-esteem as compared to adults
2- The bullied adolescent students would have more depression, more socially isolation, and less life satisfaction than adult bullied students.

Methodology
The sample size consisted of 70 students with equal representation of adults and adolescents i.e., 35 adult students and 35 adolescent students. Adults were selected from the University of Karachi whereas adolescents were selected from schools and colleges. The age range for adolescent students was 13 - 19 and for adult students was 20 - 26.Both male and female were included in the sample

Measures
Demographic sheet was used, asking basic information like name, gender, age, educational status, and information that may help to identify the social status of the individual like cast, religion, residential area, number of family members employed, average grades in exams, and number of friends.

Life satisfaction scale by Diener et al. (1985) was used to measure life satisfaction which consisted of five items. This is a seven-point scale i.e., 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree. For scoring, responses

on all items are simply added. Thus, the lowest possible score is 7 and the highest possible score is 35 indicating highest life satisfactions.

Depression scale by S. D. Hollon and P. C. Kendall (1980) was used. This is a five-point scale with 1 = not at all, 2 = sometimes, 3 = moderately often, 4 = often, and 5 = all the time. For scoring, responses on all items are simply added together. The lowest possible score on the measure is 30 and the highest possible score is 150.

Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale was used. This scale consists of ten items and is a four-point rating scale (1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = disagree, 4 = strongly disagree). For scoring, item numbers 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7 needs to be reverse scored and then the responses of all the items are scored together. The scoring range was from 10 (low self-esteem) to 40 (high self-esteem).

Social isolation scale was used which was taken from the alienation measure developed by Dean (1961) was used. This consists of 9 items and is a five-point scale to indicate the level of agreement with the statements i.e., 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = uncertain, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree. For scoring, item numbers 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8 needs to be reverse scored and then the responses of all items are scored together. The lowest possible score is 9 and the highest possible score on the scale is 45 (high social isolation).

To measure bullying, a scale which was developed by Delfabbro et al. (2006) for their study was adapted. The original scale was developed to measure bullying by peers and by teachers in students. Since the current study focuses only on peer bullying, so the items dealing with teacher bullying were omitted from the questionnaire. The bullying questionnaire consisted of two sub-scales, i.e., bullying at the institute and bullying outside the institute.

Each scale consisted of same four items describing the four most common types of bullying. Lowest possible score on each sub-scale is 4 and thus, total lowest possible score is 8 indicating that the person is not the victim of peer bullying. Whereas, the highest possible score on the scale is 32 i.e., 16 for each sub-scale.

Design and duration of study
A 2 x 4 factorial design was selected for this research to study the interrelation of all the variables. The time frame decided for the research was six months as it involved a detailed procedure. The data was collected within the expected time frame.

Result

Table-1: Correlation between Peer Bullying and Psychological Variable

	N	Mean	Correlation
Life satisfaction	70	21.528	+0.75
Peer bullying	70	14.728	
Depression	70	71.828	+0.89
Peer bullying	70	14.728	
Self-esteem	70	27.328	+ 0.77
Peer bullying	70	14.728	
Social isolation	70	27.828	+0.62
Peer bullying	70	14.728	

This table shows that there is a positive inter relationship of peer bullying with all the variables

Table-2 : Rate of Bullying in Adult and Adolescent Students

N = 35	Never bullied		Seldom Bullied		Often Bullied	
	F	%age	F	%age	F	%age
Adults	7	20	8	22.86	20	57.14
Adolescents	6	17.14	2	5.71	27	77.14

This table shows that rate of bullying was greater in adolescent students than that in adult students.

Table-3: Comparison of Adults and Adolescents in Effects of Bullying on Psychological Variables

	Groups	N	Mean	Mean difference	t	df	level of significance
Life satisfaction	Adults	28	24.285	6.423	4.347	55	P < 0.05
	Adolescents	29	17.862				
Depression	Adults	28	59.392	31.848	5.757	55	P < 0.05

	Adolescents 29	91.241				
Self-esteem	Adults 28	29.571	5.502	4.148	55	P < 0.05
	Adolescents 29	24.069				
Social isolation	Adults 28	26.357	3.746	2.696	55	P < 0.05
	Adolescents 29	30.103				

This table shows that a significant difference was found between adolescents and adults for all psychological measures i.e., life satisfaction, depression, self-esteem, and social isolation.

Discussion

The problem of the research was to see the comparison between adolescent and adult students in the rate of peer bullying and its psychological effects. First, it was hypothesized that rate of bullying would be greater in adolescent students as compared to that in adult students. Obtained findings are consistent with the hypothesis (refer to table 2). A considerable difference was found in the rate of students who are often bullied between adults and adolescents. Rate of the students who were often bullied in adult group is 57.14% as compared to 77.14% in adolescent age group. Rate of students who were never bullied was 20% for adult students whereas 17.14% of the adolescents scored to be represented as never bullied. That is, not a considerable difference was found in the rate of students who were never bullied. Students who were categorized as never bullied reported 'never' for all items on the bullying measure, whereas often victimized meant reporting being 'often victimized' on one or more of the four items. (This meant combining the two categories of 'pretty often' and 'very often').

One very robust finding (at least in cross-sectional research) that the number of children reporting being bullied tends to fall with age (Smith et al., 1999a) may be used to support the present findings. These might be due to that adult students were all selected from the university population. Adulthood is the age when students have grown up and are ready to enter into the phase which demands more maturity, more sense of responsibility on their part, challenges of life and competition must be faced in order to succeed in life and thus, their focus is more towards goals like professional education, establishment of career, forming intimate relationships etc. Students at this stage may not want to spend their time in such foolish acts i.e., bullying. Students are being bullied at this stage too but the frequency with which they are often bullied is less than that of adolescent as shown in table 2.

There may be another possibility that the perception of being bullied is changed at this stage. Students may not want to take it seriously and thus, ignore it because they have

other more important issues to be dealt with as some of the students commented while questionnaire being administered that they considered them as normal and thus, rated themselves as never bullied.

Whereas adolescent is the age period when peer relationships become much more important for an individual than familial or parental relationships. Being rejected or being humiliated by others effect much more at this stage because physiological, psychological, social, and emotional development, all are taking place and thus, this stage is more vulnerable to negative effects of bullying. Since at this stage, student pays more importance to their peers and friends, their self-esteem and their satisfaction is more dependent on their peer relationships and acceptance by peers. Thus, when adolescents get bullied by their peers, they suffer more from depression, have less self-esteem, less satisfied, and become more socially isolated as compared to adult students. This may support the findings consistent with second hypothesis that adolescent bullied students have more depression, less life satisfaction, less self-esteem and more social isolation.

Since adulthood is characterized with more challenges and responsibilities, students may not take bullying seriously, and may not allow such foolish things to affect their lives, and thus, continue moving in the direction of their goal. At this stage, though social relationships are important and peer relationships are one major aspect of the social relationships, no doubt, but psychological variables like depression, self-esteem, life satisfaction, and social isolation are much more dependent on the achievement of goals like completing education, getting job, succeeding in career, and forming good relationships. This could be one of the reasons for the variable of bullying not hindering with their psychological wellbeing (refer table 3).

Bullying has a negative impact on the self image it would hinder in developing a positive self concept thus lowering the self esteem .Adolescence is the stage where the child is searching for the real self and fighting against identity crisis and is vulnerable to be disillusioned by his her/her actual skills and potentials .The findings on table 3 also reveal that bullying lowers self-esteem. The self esteem and self concept has a very strong relationship with low mood and depression since the depression and self esteem are also highly correlated to bullying (refer to table 1) this could have been one of the reasons for adolescents low self esteem and vulnerability to depression (refer to table 3).

The important limitation of the research was the language of the questionnaire. Since the questionnaire was given in English language which was difficult for most of the participants to comprehend. If the questionnaire was given in the native language, it would have been easier for every one to comprehend. Besides, another important limitation was that the term 'bullying' should have been properly defined. It was observed that most of the participants were not cleared about the concept of bullying.

Thus, proper definition of bullying must be given to the participants. Since the sample of the present study consisted of majority of females, gender differences could have effected the observations. For Future research, it is suggested that gender difference should also be studied in order to have clearer picture of the phenomenon. The sample should include more diversified age groups as children under 12 years of age are also vulnerable of being bullied .It would be interesting to examine the coping techniques being used by them to handle negative impact of bullying. The sample size should be large to portray the exact scenario

Reference

Ambert, A.-M. (1995). Toward a theory of peer abuse. *Sociological Studies of Children*, *7*, 177-205.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*, 497-529.

Bjo$ rkqvist, K., Ekman, K., & Lagerspetz, K. (1982). Bullies and victims: Their ego picture, ideal ego picture and normative ego picture. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *23*, 307-313.

Boivin, M., Hymel, S., & Bukowski, W. M. (1995). The roles of social withdrawal, peer rejection, and victimization by peers in predicting loneliness and depressed mood in childhood. *Development and Psychopathology*, *7*, 765-685.

Boulton, M. J., & Smith, P. K. (1994). Bully} victim problems in middle-school children: Stability, self-perceived competence, peer perceptions and peer acceptance. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, *12*, 315-329.

Craig, W. M. (1998). The relationship among bullying, victimization, depression, anxiety, and aggression in elementary school children. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *24*, 123-130.

Crick, N. R., & Bigbee, M. A. (1998). Relational and overt victimization: A multi-informant approach. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *66*, 337- 347.

Dawkins, J. (1995). Bullying in schools: Doctors' responsibilities. *British Medical Journal*, *310*, 274-275.

Gilbert, P. (1992). *Depression: The evolution of powerlessness.* Hove, U.K.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gilmartin B. 1987. Peer group antecedents of severe love shyness in males. *J Pers September*: 467-489.

Graham, S., & Juvonen, J. (1998). Self-blame and peer victimization in middle school: An attributional analysis. *Developmental Psychology*, *34*, 587-599.

Hawker D, Boulton M. (2000). Twenty years' research on peer victimization and psychosocial maladjustment: A meta-analytical review of cross-sectional studies. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry 41*:441-455.

Hazler, R. J., & Hoover, J. H. (Eds.). (1996). Putting bullies out of business. [Special Issue]. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Problems*, *5*(*1*).

Hollon, S. D., and Kendall, P. C. (1980). Cognitive Self-statements in Depression: Development of an Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire." *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 4,* 385 - 95.

Kochenderfer, B. J., & Ladd, G. W. (1996). Peer victimization: Cause or consequence of school maladjustment? *Child Development*, *67,* 1305-1317.

Kumpulainen, K., Raesaenen, E., Henttonen, I., Almqvist, F., Kresanov, K., Linna, S. L., Moilanen, I., Piha, J., Puura, K., & Tamminen, T. (1998). Bullying and psychiatric symptoms among elementary school-age children. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, *22*, 705-717.

Olweus D. (1978). *Aggression in schools: bullies and whipping boys*. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

Olweus D. (1991). Bully/victim problems among schoolchildren. In: Pepler DJ, Rubin KH, editors. *The development and treatment of childhood aggression*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlebaum. 411-449.

Olweus, D. (1993a). *Bullying at school: What we know and what we can do.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Olweus D. (1994). *Bullying at school. Long term outcomes and effective school based intervention program.* In: Huesmann, editor. *Aggr Behav: Current Perspectives*. New York: Plenum Press. 97-129.

O'Moore M. (2000). Critical issues for teacher training to counter bullying and victimization in Ireland. *Aggr Behav 26*: 99-111.

Parkhurst, J. T., & Asher, S. R. (1992). Peer rejection in middle school: Subgroup differences in behavior, loneliness, and interpersonal concerns. *Developmental Psychology*, *28*, 231-241.

Pellegrini AD, Long JD. (2002). A longitudinal study of bullying, dominance and victimization during the transition from primary to secondary school. *Br J Dev Psychol 20:259-280.*

Perry, D. G., Kusel, S. J., & Perry, L. C. (1988). Victims of peer aggression. *Developmental Psychology*, *24*, 807-814.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image.* Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Ross, D. M. (1996). *Childhood bullying and teasing: What school personnel*, *other professionals*, *and parents can do*. Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Salmon, G., James, A., & Smith, D. M. (1998). Bullying in schools: Self-reported anxiety, depression, and self-esteem in secondary school children. *British Medical Journal*, *317*, 924-925.

Schwartz, D., Dodge, K. A., & Coie, J. D. (1993). The emergence of chronic victimization in boys' peer groups. *Child Development*, *64*, 1755-1772.

Slee, P. T., & Rigby, K. (1994). Peer victimization at school. *AECA Australian Journal of Early Childhood*, *19*, 3-10.

Smith, P.K., Madsen K. C., Moody, J. C. (1999a). What causes the age decline in reports of being bullied at school? *Educational Research, 41*, 267 - 285.

Smith P.K., Morita Y, Junger-Tas J, Olweus D, Catalano R, Slee P, editors. (1999b). the Nature of School Bullying: A Cross-National Perspective. London: Routledge.

Smith PK, Shu S, Madsen K. (2001). Characteristics of victims of school bullying: developmental changes in coping strategies and skills. In: Juvonen J, Graham S, editors, Peer Harassment in School: The Plight of the Vulnerable and Victimized. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Stanley, L., & Arora, T. (1998). Social exclusion amongst adolescent girls: Their self-esteem and coping strategies. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, *14*, 94-100.

Strauss, C. C., Lahey, B. B., Frick, P., Frame, C. L., & Hynd, G. W. (1988). Peer social status of children with anxiety disorders. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *56*, 137-141.

Vosk, B., Forehand, R., Parker, J. B., & Rickard, K. (1982). A multimethod comparison of popular and unpopular children. *Developmental Psychology*, *18*, 571-575.

Walker, L. S., & Greene, J. W. (1986). The social-context of adolescent self-esteem. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *15*, 315-322.

Effectiveness of Learning Styles: A Comparison between Students Learning Individually and Students Learning Collaboratively

Sarwat Sultan

Frasat

Kanwal   Sana

Khurram

Abstract

In Holocene epoch, learning has been reconceived from a linear process portrayed by an individual's effort to acquire skills to a collectively-acquired process. Utilizing repeated measure design and experimental approach, this study was conducted to compare the utility of two learning processes; Individual vs. Collaborative Learning. Employing experimental approach with two conditions; using individual and collaborative learning processes, 80 undergraduate students studying in two parallel sections of Psychology Class were studied. In condition I, the teacher used the individual learning process with section 1 and in condition II the teacher used the collaborative learning with section II. Before employing the experimental conditions at the start of semester, the students of both classes were tested on their levels of academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence. At the end of the semester, the students were again tested on these three variables. The study indicated two significant findings. 1. Academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence were significantly higher among students learning collaboratively than students learning individually. 2. There were significant differences in the levels of these three variables for the students learning collaboratively when they started course and when they ended the course. It implies that students by collaborating improved their confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence which are the essential potentials for learning. On the basis of these findings it is recommended that course instructors must encourage shared learning that will give students an opportunity to engage in discussion, take responsibility for their own learning, and thus become critical thinkers.

Introduction

The light lines used in lettering the motivation among students in a classroom evoke vehemence on more creative, challenging, participating, and academic activities (Forsyth & McMillan, 1994). These actions of students during classroom can develop the

Department of Applied Psychology, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan

Department of Applied Psychology, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan

Department of Applied Psychology, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan

ebullience and feeling of obligation in students. Well-designed pedagogy systems like Collaborative Learning tender several likely gains and profits to students (Panitz, 1998). Many empirical researches devastatingly support collaborative learning as one of the most efficient methods of education than individual learning (Johnson & Johnson 1986). In spite of the significant admiration and acceptance of this method used by instructors and researchers, the prototype is still very uncommon among teachers. This is the reason of writing this article to address the benefits of collaborative learning for students used in classroom by teachers (Rau, & Heyl, 1990).

Collaborative learning as an inspiration method can be defined as a learning conditions where learners independently and freely work to achieve success in their tasks in group. Students are asked to work on assignments jointly with their peer group to gain knowledge and competency on the said tasks. Intrinsic Motivation is a fundamental component in learning and education process (Forsyth & McMillan, 1994). Productive Intrinsic Motivation evokes participation, formulates attitude, breeds skills, and encourages meaning and expression within distinct learners. In the whole extent of educational literature, the construct of collaborative learning has been widely studied and addressed. In the method of collaborative learning students get the opportunity to work jointly for shared and common objectives within a small group. Learners held accountability for one another's acquisition and for their own as well. Therefore the accomplishments of one learner facilitate the success of other learner. Contradictory to this, the individual learning method encourages the students to work on assignments at their own behalf without listening to any point of views of their peers.

As a teaching method in collaborative learning when students debate on their thoughts with other students to build an agreed judgment as answer to question, and discuss findings with the whole classmates, they in turn develop academic confidence, increase a potential for novel ideas, and enhance a social sense (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec 1990). The Johnsons' strategy of pair activities demands more planning, formulation, and construction that will develop problem solving capability among students. Ken Brufee (1993) postulated that collaborative learning implies providing more ripen groups of learners who are more creative, more intelligent, and more competent in their academics.

Advocates of Collaborative Learning arrogate that dynamic transfer of thoughts in class groups maintain concern and involvement among students which elevates their academic confidence. Johnson and Johnson (1986) were of the view that there is convincing prove that students learning collaboratively experience high cognition and hold knowledge for a long time period as compared to the students learning individually. The combined learning provides learners a chance to participate in talk, and to obligation for their own studies, and therefore result in reasoning, thinking, and competing (Totten, Sills, Digby, & Russ, 1991). In our culture and at present Pedagogy structure, participation is

significant element. Students contribute to the achievements of whole group and then develop a sense of responsibility. It also develops the hefty, positive, and facilitating relationships with people (Panitz 1996; Cohen & Cohen 1991). Sherman (1991) suggests that new paradigms in educational system emphasis on discussion patterns for mending self-esteem, academic achievement, and internal locus of control. Collaborative learning boosts competency and mastery while individual learning encourages the inactive credence of knowledge from a teacher. In a routine college classroom focusing teaching, A teacher finds short time to discuss the problems, mistakes, and ideas of students in the classroom setting. But with the collaborative learning strategy, students find themselves in the environment where they can discuss their problems, mistakes, and ideas. They have more clear and compound understanding of the constructs under study.

The research questions examined in this study were:

Will there be significant differences in academic confidence, achievement motivation, and creativity between students learning individually and students learning collaboratively?

Will there be significant differences in three tested variables among students learning collaboratively between the time of beginning and closing the course?

Method
Participants
The participants for this study consisted of 80 undergraduate students studying in two parallel sections of Psychology Class enrolled in BS 4-Year Program at Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan-Pakistan. Students were divided equally in each section.

Academic Confidence Scale
Academic Confidence Scale (Sander & Sanders, 2003) measures how students differ in the extent to which they have a strong belief, firm trust or sure expectations of what university has to offer. It has 24 items with 5-point likert scale. To get a total score, items are scored by summing up numeric values of 1 for not at all confident and 5 for very confident. A high score represents high level of academic confidence while low score indicates low level of academic confidence.

Creative Disposition Scale
The self-assessment exercise designed by Mcshane and Glinow (2003) was used to estimate the extent to which students have a creative disposition. The list is an adjective checklist with 30 words. The students are asked to put a mark beside boxes for words that can accurately describe them. The exercise would be completed alone so that students access themselves without concerns of social comparison. The score may range from -12 to +18. Students who score above +5 are considered as creative people and who score

less than +5 were considered as non-creative people. The scale has alpha reliability co-efficient of 0.72, and validity co-efficient of 0.72

The Emotional Quotient Scale
The Emotional Quotient Scale developed by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, (2001) was used to measure emotional intelligence. It is a 5-point scale with 12 items. A student can respond by opting "1" for "Strongly Disagree", "2" for "Disagree", "3" for "Neutral", and "4" for "Agree", and "5" for "Strongly Agree". The exercise was completed alone to avoid social pressures. The score may range from 10-60. The scores are obtained by adding the responses to each question Participants who score above 25 are considered as highly emotionally intelligent people. The scale has alpha reliability co-efficient of 0.91, and validity co-efficient of 0.79.

Procedure
In this study, instructor's way of teaching was independent variable with two levels; individual learning and collaborative learning. Learner's academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence were the dependent variables. Using experimental approach, class instructor employed the individual learning style in one section, and collaborative learning style in second section. In individual learning, the teacher explained the assignment to the students. The students then worked on the assignment by themselves at their own level and rate. While in collaborative learning style, the teacher clearly explained the assignment to be completed under the collaborative learning structure. Students were encouraged to discuss the matter under study with other students in the class, and were also instructed to listen carefully to comments of each member of the group and be willing to reconsider their own judgments and opinions. All the students in both sections were tested on three measures under study. Students were pretested prior to the treatment. The pretest was helpful in measuring students' prior levels on three variables. The students were then post tested to measure treatment effects. They were compared first on their scores on pre and post testing, and then were compared with the students of other section. Results were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The level of significance (alpha) was set at 0.05.

Results
Table-1: Differences in the levels of Academic Confidence, Creativity, and Emotional Intelligence between the Scores of Pre and Post Testing of Students Learning Individually (N=40)

Scales	Pre-Testing		Post-Testing			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*

Academic Confidence	52.52	9.83	67.34	10.43	0.573	0.164
Creativity	7.62	5.11	8.04	7.08	1.851	0.215
Emotional Intelligence	23.61	7.88	27.35	9.26	0.362	1.012

df. = 38, p = non significant

Table 1 shows the non significant differences between the scores of pre and post testing on academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence of students learning individually. Findings suggest that the individual learning does not promote academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence.

Table-2: Differences in the levels of Academic Confidence, Creativity, and Emotional Intelligence between the Scores of Pre and Post Testing of Students Learning Collaboratively (N=40)

Scales	Pre-Testing		Post-Testing			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Academic Confidence	63.21	9.73	96.99	10.12	2.443	0.004**
Creativity	7.20	7.09	14.53	8.58	1.991	0.021*
Emotional Intelligence	28.14	8.62	48.85	9.83	3.362	0.003**

*df. = 38, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01*

Table 2 shows the significant differences between the scores of pre and post testing on academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence of students learning collaboratively. Findings suggest that the collaborative learning promotes academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence.

Table-3: Differences in the levels of Academic Confidence, Creativity, and Emotional Intelligence between Students Learning Individually and Students Learning Collaboratively (N=40, 40)

Scales	Individual Learning (N=40)	Collaborative Learning (N=40)	

	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Academic Confidence	67.34	10.43	96.99	10.12	2.385	0.02*
Creativity	8.04	7.08	14.53	8.58	1.851	0.03*
Emotional Intelligence	27.35	9.26	48.85	9.83	3.013	0.00**

df. $= 78$, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$

Table 3 indicates the significant differences in the levels of academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence of students learning individually and students learning collaboratively. Results imply that the students who learn collaboratively are higher on the variables under study as compared to the students learning individually.

Discussion
Focusing on the concepts of individual vs. collaborative learning, the present research was conducted to answer the questions that which one learning style is advantageous to the students' outcomes and performance. Collaborative learning is not only a technique of classroom but also a personal philosophy. Both learning styles could be best in classroom environment depending on many factors. But when the question of comparison of both methods, collaborative learning in all conditions provide the opportunity to students to come together in groups, which in turn promotes academic abilities in students. It was hypothesized that individual learning will not make significant differences between pre-testing and post-testing on measures of academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence of students. The findings supported the hypothesis and indicated that though slightly mean differences were found between pre-testing and post-testing scores for the students in the class that learned individually but the differences are not significant (Table 1).

It was also hypothesized that there will be significant differences between pre-testing and post-testing on measures of academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence of students learning collaboratively. The findings supported the hypothesis and postulated that the mean of the posttest scores for the students in the class that studied collaboratively was slightly higher than that of their pre-testing. A t- test (Table 2) on the data showed significant differences between the two testing scores.

"There will be significant differences in academic confidences, creativity, and emotional intelligence between students learning individually and students learning collaboratively" was another assumption of the present study. The means of the posttest scores (Table 3)

for the students in the class that studied collaboratively were higher on their levels of academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligence than the students of class that studied individually. This finding is in consistent with the theories of learning purported by exponents (Webb, 1985) of collaborative learning.

These findings are in tune with the theoretical views of Vygotsky (1978), who proposed that when students are advised to crop in a situation where collaborative learning is offered to them, they perform creatively, become highly academically confident, and develop an approach of emotional intelligence as compared to the students when are expected to work individually. Findings of the present study can be justified on the facts that within a group, members' interactions with each other enhance the knowledge and experience which in turn imparts positively to the learning process. Findings are also supported by the debate by Bruner (1985). He fenced that collaborative learning meliorate problem- solving strategies and students experience more academic efficacy due to social interactions and exchange of ideas. The classmates' support system facilitates the students to incorporate both cognition and critical thinking abilities then that are transferred into tools for reasoning, creativity, and emotional intelligence.

Conclusion
From this research study, it can be concluded that collaborative learning fosters the development of academic confidence, creativity, and emotional intelligent through exchange of views, elucidation of thoughts, and analysis of views of others. Though, individual and collaborative learning schemes of teaching were discovered to be evenly efficient in acquiring academic knowledge and creativity. However if the goal is to develop competency, confidence, social interactions, creativity, and cognition, then collaborative learning would be more advantageous and efficient.

Limitations & Suggestions
Regardless the substantial findings of the present study, there are many notable limitations. For instance the sample approached in the study was just taken from one discipline in university. While students from other discipline may have different personality attributes, which could have diverse effects on the findings of this study. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized to the other students. Another limitation concerns with gender because study didn't explore the gender differences that might be a factor in determining creativity, emotional intelligence, and academic confidence. Furthermore, demographic variables may also be considered as influencing factors.

On the basis of these findings it is recommended that a teacher should consider collaborative pedagogy as a process of enhancing students' skills to learn. The teacher should not beam knowledge, but should function as a assistant for learning. Future

research studies need to investigate the effect of different variables in the collaborative learning process.

References

Bruner, J. (1985). Vygotsky: An historical and conceptual perspective. *Culture, communication, and cognition: Vygotskian perspectives*, 21-34. London: Cambridge University Press.

Brufee, K., (1993), "Collaborative learning: Higher education, interdependence and the authority of knowledge",

Cohen, B.P., Cohen, E.G. (1991). "From group work among children to R & D teams: interdepence, interaction and productivity" in E.J. Lawler (Eds.) *Advances in Group Processes* Vol 8: 205-226.

Forsyth, D. R. and McMillan, J. H. (1991). "Practical Proposals for Motivating Students." In R. J. Menges & M. D. Svinicki (eds.) *College Teaching: from Theory to Practice. New Directions for Teaching and Learning* # 45. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. & McKee, A. (2001). Primal leadership: The hidden driver of great performance. *Harvard Business Review, 79 (11),* 42-51.

Johnson, R. T., & Johnson, D. W. (1986). Action research: Cooperative learning in the science classroom. *Science and Children*, 24, 31-32.

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. J. (1990). "Cooperation in the Classroom." Edina, MN: *Interaction Book* Co.

Mcshane. L. S., & Glinow.V. A. M. (2003). Creativity and team decision making. *Organizational Behavior.* Pp: 295-304.The McGraw Hill.

Panitz, T. (1998). "Benefits of Collaborative Learning." Posting to the listserve of the Professional and Organizational Development Network (pod@iastate.edu).

Rau, W. & Heyl, B. S. (1990). Humanizing the college classroom: Collaborative learning and social organization among students. *Teaching Sociology*, 18, 141-155.

Sander, P. & Sanders, L. (2003), Measuring confidence in academic study. Available on Internet summary report. Electronic *Journal of Research in Educational Psychology and Psycho pedagogy*, 1, 1.

Sherman, L.W. (1991). "Cooperative Learning in Post Secondary Education: Implications from Social Psychology for Active Learning Experiences." *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, Chicago, IL

Totten, S., Sills, T., Digby, A., & Russ, P. (1991). *Cooperative learning: A guide to research*. New York: Garland.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Webb, N. (1985). Student interaction and learning in small groups: A research summary. *Learning to Cooperate, Cooperating to Learn*, 148-172.

Academic Reflections on Family Fragmentation and Child Socialization

Haroon-ur-Rashid Rana

Hafeez-ur-Rehman Chaudhry

Abstract

The paper presents research findings regarding Street Children in Pirwadhai, Rawalpindi, in the province of Punjab, Pakistan. This study explains the various issues in terms of role of the home (family, parents' carelessness, domestic violence etc.), and educational institutes (teacher's conduct, corporal punishment etc.), and their impact on children which they encounter throughout their life. This study depicts, inter-alia, street children's sufferings with which children are raised up and continue to experience it in the street. This home, school and street culture changes the attitude and behaviors of the children towards the society. Distrust, aggressiveness and deviance were found very common among the street children.

Keywords: Street Children, Home Atmosphere, Domestic Violence, Teacher's Conduct, Corporal Punishment, Carelessness

Introduction

"We are guilty of many crimes, but our worst sin is abandoning the child: neglecting the foundation of life. Many of the things we need, can wait, the child cannot. We cannot answer tomorrow. Her name is today" Gabriela Mistel said. The said quotation of a renowned writer depicts the most awful situation of children in the world as a whole. Based on this analogy, the proposed study is entirely focused on street children (age group between 8 to 18 years old), their basic issues and role family and education institution in social context. "The Individual Concerned are all minors under 18 years of age, but from a broad age spectrum including teen age and near teen youth as well as children as young as 5 (Panter, 2003)". Primary responsibility for the better upbringing of the children rests with the family; however, secondary is with the community and the state to provide them equal opportunity to succeed, access to the resources and adequate protection without any discrimination. The presence of street children in the research area indicates that the family, society and state are failing in their duty to fulfill their responsibility in providing them safe and progressive social environment. Constant care, safe environment and warm family relations were not available to the children who were

Department of Anthropology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad and Head of Training Affairs/Senior Program Officer, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), Islamabad

Chairman, Department of Anthropology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad

neglected or abandoned. They live on the streets unprotected and unsupervised, under stress due to various socio-economic reasons, the most vital among these being the family problems.

The growing unemployment, uncontrolled price hikes and the economic crunch has created a situation in a household where parents have started losing their tempers, have become aggressive and treat their children harshly. Obviously the social injustices, tyrannical practices of those who hold power, corrupt departments, inadequate justice system, furtherance of materialistic aims and consolidation of vested interests through out the country has generated frustration and discontentment among the people including parents and have made them less caring and less loving. Street children too as citizens of the country have a right to claim these resources and environment necessary for their survival and well-being no matter under what reasons they opted for street life. "Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself/herself and his/her family, including food, clothing, housing, medical care and necessary social services, everyone has the right to education, to work, and to social security (Pakistan Human Condition Report 2002)". The children themselves and the society as a whole including the government are aware of the socio-economic insecurity, unemployment, denial or inadequate access to education, healthcare, sanitation, unaffordable expensive services or lack of sports and entertainment, recreational facilities, and all types of vulnerabilities. They did try to overcome the said issues but the pace was not only slow but unsatisfactory too. Government of Pakistan has established National Commission for Child Welfare and Development (NCCWD) on December 16, 1980. At the provincial level, the Government of Punjab has established Child Protection and Welfare Bureau (CPWB) on February 24, 2005 under Punjab Destitute and Neglected Children's Act 2004. Both bodies have responsibility to protect, support and provide training to the children and youth but their standard and performance are very low, with no long lasting sustainable impact on their future.

Similarly, the ever-growing trend of violence in the society, and the lack of enforcement of law that could check the domestic violence, makes children vulnerable to torture not only from their parents but also from other members of their families. On the whole this is an abuse in its broader sense. "A cruel or immoral treatment to children, by neglecting them, beating them or (especially) by involving them in sex acts (Oxford Dictionary, 1992)". Likewise, child abuse is also prevalent in the house, on the street, at working place and in the schools which are expected to teach children, how to behave, how to inculcate moral values, how to become successful individual, and how to become a part of collective wisdom that is essential for the development of humans and society. The ground realities were showing a different and nasty picture of these educational institutes and their harmful teaching methods.

Another dilemma was substantial number of children visible on the streets, who belong to poor families living slums. Their life and living culture was very weird and they remain exposed to abuse permanently because their parents move out for earning and were absent for long hours. The structure of their houses was observed as unsafe and unsuitable to protect them while their presence in such strange houses made them more vulnerable to various kinds of dangers. Nevertheless, these children had been provided congenial living environment, they too would have shown intelligence, capability, energy, talent and aptitude to become respectable citizens. Their proper nurturing, decent practices, socialization; favorable environment and interaction with good people would have given them a chance to become productive citizens of this country. "Street children are deprived and denied of their rights and childhood. Their potential should not be undermined because they have talent that needs to be harnessed in a positive manner to steer them back to the mainstream of the social life (The Dawn, 2002)".

Children of Family Discord
These children found themselves equally at risk living in their homes or wandering on the streets the only difference being the variation of intensity. They preferred the street life to their home life because it offered a more independent environment. They found street life as less different and enjoyable except for the threat of physical and sexual abuse. In order to keep themselves safe they devised certain ways, for instance they tried to avoid gang up and learned to escape from such dangerous situations instantly. They appeared to act in a mature manner when compared to the protected children of the same age. They faced dangerous situation in the beginning when they first acquired the street life, but later they themselves became troublesome for others depending upon the degree of their socialization with the ill-behaved. Those children who became part of some theft-gang and indulged into other crimes moved towards criminal tendencies and those who joined the hard working groups preferred to became laborers. The street being completely unsupervised they were more exposed to threats that ranged from minor to severe consequences including abuse, maltreatment and impeding their development.

Negligence has less intensity as compared to abandonment. While negligence could be turned into care through love and counselling and accommodated sooner or later, abandonment could not be reversed easily. Neglect was basically overlooking or ignoring something for a shorter period of time whereas abandonment was to get rid off permanently. Almost 21% children found on the street were there due to the negligence of their parents and experienced the same discriminatory attitude from other people around them, which was unbearable for them. Two of those said, "After all we too are human beings, so why people hate us, neglect us and why do they not care for us? Don't they consider us humans? Please trust us and we would prove that we are like other, citizens of Pakistan, we too love Pakistan, we also want to do something for our parents, siblings, and for the development of this country but unfortunately we are looked down

upon and labelled as untrustworthy and delinquents."

Neglect is basically a soft type of abuse that often turns into damaging abuse leading to unsafe environment for both, children and society. They always countered detestation from elders and the people around them. People used abusive language, carried misconception and pre-defined irritation for street children, which has naturally a detrimental effect on their personality development and behavior. Because of the repulsive attitude of the people, the street children develop a strange type of feeling and perception about others and react rudely and disrespectfully. Honor and dignity lose their meanings before them and such children remain oblivious to the likes and dislikes of others, exhibiting a behavior that is emotionless. A little care from the society could turn them into useful members of the society, and they could gradually become well-behaved and well-mannered humans. *Professionals have defined four types of neglect: physical, emotional, educational and medical. Neglect is so difficult to identify. Neglect often is an act of*omission. But neglecting children's needs can be just as injurious as striking out at them.*

Due consideration is required to be given to these children to fulfill their basic needs. Street children usually receive maltreatment from those with whom they interact or get socialized. But in broader sense socialization could be either constructive or destructive. Positive socialization and meaningful interaction leads them to become obedient and constructive human beings and negative socialization or neglect drives them to be deviant and destructive humans, and badly hampers their development. The extraordinary stress induces parents to ill-treat their children unintentionally, thus drug addicted parents were more likely to abuse or neglect their children and force them to leave home. The carelessness of the parents sometimes plays a positive impact on the children and pushes them to take the challenge of life at an early age. There were a few examples where such ignored children continue to maintain links with their families and supported them financially and morally. They overcome numerous challenges, remained steadfast and were able to make out a successful future for themselves.

The interpretation of data in the following table indicated that 51% children adopted street life because of family feuds. The reasons for such feuds varied from unmet basic needs, remarriages to divorces, family compositions from large to joint, and inattention etc. the main responsibility for taking care of their children, providing them shelter, food and education rested on the parent/family. The primary responsibility of the primary agents of socialization was required to be fulfilled in accordance with the standard rules of any society.

---

* http://psychologytoday.com/conditions/childneglect.html

Table-1: Family Feuds

Family Feud	Number of Children	Percentage
Yes	43	51
No	41	49
Total	84	100

Child of Separated / Remarried Parents (A Case Study)

A boy xyz is just eleven years old and belongs to a very poor family that has been separated. He was living with his mother, three younger brothers and two sisters in a rented flat. After two years of his parent's separation, his mother got remarried. He got upset with this situation; felt ignored at home and finally decided to leave home. He had not enough food to eat, some time he slept without having any food at all at home. According to him poverty would have stopped his mother to trace him. Also he himself is not interested to go back to his home. He started living on the roof tops of Pirwadhai shops and survived on left over. Later another street adult who used to be a street child and spent his whole life as a street child took him with the promise to provide food, shelter and protection. He always carries knife with him for protection and his ambition is to become a Badmash (vagabond with an immoral character). He is involved in drug business, supply of drugs in order to satisfy his boss and to earn some money for a reasonable living. He has good relationship with police as he used to clean Pirwadhai Thana (police station) every day. He said people take him as Kachra (garbage), which should be removed from the street at its earliest. He is involved in stealing, snatching of purses and phones and small thefts. He himself is addict of samad bond.

Parents Responsibility

Parents were aware of the importance of education and health for their children yet they hardly cared about it and compromised due to several reasons, primarily among these was insufficient resources. There is no doubt about it but it was also observed that there was a lack of realization, which was found to be a bigger problem than poverty.

It is the traditional perspective that the care, protection, and upbringing of children should be the duty of their parents. Such a belief is predicated on age-long traditions and norms of societies that children must be properly socialized at home and at school to prevent them from engaging in antisocial or improper behavior. However, these socialization and nurturance functions of the family are becoming difficult as rapid urbanization, widespread poverty, and economic depression

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH (Vol.14 No.2) 2011 Dept Of Education IUB, Pakistan

continue to affect major parts of the world. As a result, many parents are unable to give adequate care and attention to their children (Moazzam, et al, 2004).

Parents by nature are given a mandate and responsibility to groom their children according to the given circumstances. If parents are not there or become part of problem then how will the street children be groomed and their development looked after? Children made their decision without realizing the hardships of world outside their homes. Some of them were forced to live on the streets and the others willingly lived on the streets. Parents and family exhibited most irresponsible role and put their children on point of no return. The children had different needs and demands from their parents but parents also had a lot of expectation from their children. For the fulfillment of those expectations in some cases they tortured their children mentally and physically. Family environment had serious repercussions on the lives of street children; one might call them the upshot of family feuds or broken families. Misery, monetary constraints and social exclusion were the fundamental reasons for such parental behavior. Domestic violence, rural-urban migration, filthy settlements, unemployment, and troubled families were some of the countless reasons that pushed the innocent souls to adopt street life.

A Case Study: Lack of Interest in Education and Adoption of Deviant Practices

Sixteen years old boy belonged to Pushtoon family. He was living in a joint family system with one brother and two sisters. He was not interested in education and wanted to become a musician. His father forced him to go to school and get education in which he was not interested at all. Due to harsh attitude of his father and regular malign he decided to leave his home. He reached Pirwadhai where he stayed in a hotel for a day or two because he had that much money only at the time he left his home. Later one of the sex workers took the boy with him, kept him for few days, and provided him food and shelter. First he abused him sexually and then convinced him to adopt this work as a profession. The same boy is now a full-fledged sex worker and is unable to do any other work except sex. He earns Rs.300~400 per night and resides at the hotel. His main duty is to find people who are interested in staying at the hotel and offers them males and females and convinces them to get sexual satisfaction. He keeps a record of contact numbers of many male and female who are involved in sex business. In the day light he works as loader in vegetable market and in the night he offers his services as a sex worker. He is a heavy user of Samad Bond, Niswar and cigarettes. He is aggressive and bold and is not afraid of mobile phone snatching or stealing when and wherever he gets a chance.

Role of Schools in Social Context

Schools are also considered the secondary source of socialization where children learn to behave in society: how to play a default role or role designated to him or her by the society in an appropriate and culturally prescribed way. These roles are essential in the upholding the smooth and peaceful operation of the society.

The formal system of education in all societies is conservative, because the avowed function of the schools is to teach newcomers the attitudes, values, roles, specialties, information, and training necessary for the maintenance of society. In other words, the special task of the schools is to preserve the culture, not to transform it. Thus, the schools indoctrinate their pupils in the culturally prescribed ways. Children are taught to be patriotic. They learn the myths and the superiority of their nation's heritage; they learn who the heroes are and who the villains are (Gelles,1995).

Those children are called malignant, who had less or no chance to enact these roles; did not recognize their responsibility and failed to perform according to expectations of the society. Primarily street children did not had access to education, if they had an access luckily then they found school environment less caring, corporal punishment and asking for funny body postures like *Murgha* (cock) as a punishment is so common in schools. In Private/Public schools and Religious institutions (Madrassas) the form of violence that shatters the confidence of children and breaches their dignity and self-respect, is corporal punishment, physical acts include slapping, pulling ears, spanking, asking children to position themselves in ridiculous postures (Murgah etc) and psychological acts include verbal abuse, degradation, targeting, belittling, humiliation etc (The daily Times, 2002). Schools are producing incompetent and paralyzed individuals instead of teaching positive and creative roles and behaviors among the children and youth. It was because of the double rather multi standards of education, unhealthy and ethnocentric competitions, unfair segregation of Urdu and English medium education, rooted frustration and higher percentage of drop outs. Education was supposed to provide equal opportunity through which the disadvantaged got an opportunity to move upwards. This was why it was also said, "The higher the educational attainment, higher the income". But education system did not in any way exhibit equality of opportunity through education. It was evident that other than the family, educational institution has become one of the largest sources of driving the children to the street. This was either due to high dropout rate or their useless teaching methods and curriculum at schools. Such education was only producing unproductive youth without any basic skills that were so important for employment. It was also filling up the streets with children who were selfish, had immoral characteristics, were ill behaved and vulnerable to any social evil with few exceptions where by chance, a small percentage of street children

who could retain themselves as self-righteous and self-sustained, and so they became some useful members of the society.

A Case Study: Moulvi's Perversion Forces Child to Street

Nine year old boy was living in nuclear family set up with his two brothers and two sisters. His father was an ex-serviceman and was hired by private company as a security guard. He was receiving reasonable salary and was able to provide his children good education in government school at cheaper rates. His company was responsible for providing free transport from home to school as it was provided to other staff. But in spite of this facility his father decided to send his son to Madrassa because the *Moulvi* (religious teacher or prayer leader) of the mosque who was friend of his father and convinced him to send his son to the Madrassa. Finally the boy was admitted to Madrassa for education. The young lad was good looking *Launda* (boy) for his age and had fair complexion. The Moulvi an adult teacher could not resist his perverse desires and gradually lured the boy into his trap to fulfill his sexual desire. The boy couldn't stop himself from his being used by the Moulvi for the latter's ulterior motives. Due to his father and Moulvi's friendship he was unable to disclose what happened with him. He could not tolerate it anymore and one day he run away from the Madrassa and reached Pirwadhai where he was caught by Police who after initial investigation handed him over to drop in center. There he lived for a month or so and left it afterwards when he came to know that his father is coming to fetch him and take him home. He wanted to become *Hafiz* (who learns Holy Quran by heart) but due to the attitude of the Moulvi he escaped to the street. Now he doesn't trust anyone, has become very aggressive and abusive towards people around him, uses drugs especially glue sniffing.

Conclusion

This study focused on the role of the home and school institution who nurture children in a way that street children transpire as a result of carelessness and violent behavior of these institutes. Corporal punishment, denial of basic needs and abuse compel the children to distance away from their schools and homes, and encourage them to adopt street life. While unemployment, family problems, and economic crises were the main reasons of compelling the parents to ignore their children. This research indicates that the street children are unique individuals in their attitudes and behaviors, their conduct with others at all levels is exceptionally different. Street children are viewed with overwhelming negativity by the people and are considered a social burden. The challenges encountered by the street children outcastes them from the mainstream while at the same time labeling them as either obedient or deviant or in extreme cases as social evils.

References

Anwar M. (2002). Street Freedom, *The Dawn - The Review* 12th December 2002)
http://www.almudo.com/PakistanStreet freedom.html

Gabriela, M. (n.d). *Pakistan Human Condition Report-2002*, Centre for Research on Poverty Reduction and Income Distribution (CRPRID), P-27, Chapter-1.

Gelles, R. (1995). *Contemporary Families: A Sociological View*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Stanely, E. D., and Z. M. Baca. (2002). *Social Problem*, 8th edition, USA: Allyn and Bacon.

Moazzam, A, S. Shahab, U. Hiroshi, and A. de Muynck (2004). Street children in Pakistan: A situational analysis of social conditions and nutritional status. *Social Science & Medicine 59. 1707-1717.*

Panter, B. C. (2003). Street Children, Human Rights and Public Health: A Critique and Future Directions, Children, *Youth and Environment Volume-13, N0. 1. Spring (p. 149).*

Oxford University Press, (1992). *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*; Encyclopedic Edition.

Pakistan Human Condition Report (2002). *Centre for Research on Poverty Reduction and Income Distribution (CRPRID).*
http://www.childdevelopmentinfo.com/development/temperament_ and_your_child.htm
http://psychologytoday.com/conditions/childneglect.html

Significance of Female Education in the Modern Age:
An Analysis of Government Schools in Hyderabad

Zareen Abbasi
Ayaz Chachar
Muneer Soomro
Noreen
Bhutto

Abstract

Education is the key element to acquire reputable jobs. In our social sector, female education is ever neglected by the supporter of society. It is not easy task for women to get educated and maintain career along with her social responsibilities. The purpose of this paper is that how skills can play very important role to develop female to compete in the market and can recognize them in the society. There is a need to introduce innovative training programs that helps to enhance the caliber of the female in rural areas, by establishing vocational training centers, language learning centers and computer skill enhancement centers. There is need to implement educational quality enhancement plans by local government in particular areas.

Keywords: Handiness, Teaching, Revolution, Principles, Regulations

Introduction

Education helps to reduce crisis from society (Qudus, 1979). It brings change and develops society (Qureshi, 1975). It is the way to rood decision (Qudus, 1979). Education is the realization of consideration (Iqbal, 1967).

Education helps to acquire a noteworthy profession (Aftab, 1979). It is essential to develop infrastructure before building institutions (Qasmi, 2000). Following table show the enrollment according to the Economic Survey of Pakistan.

Table-1: Enrollment in Educational Change

Education	1998-99 (E) (000 No)	1999-2000 (E) (000 No)	Change During 1999-2000	% age Increase in total Enrollment

Associate Professor, Department of Public Administration, University of Sindh, Jamshoro

Lecturer, Department of Public Administration, University of Sindh, Jamshoro

Assistant Professor, Institute of Commerce, University of Sindh, Jamshoro

Research Associate, Department of Public Administration, University of Sindh, Jamshoro

Total primary level (Class I-V)	18731	20399	1668	8.2
Male	10893	11720	827	7.1
Female	7838	8679	841	9.7

Source: Economic Survey, 1999-2000: Note: E [estimated]

The education set-up in Pakistan is complex and had an inadequately educated female populace (Dawn, 1992). In this competitive age, only those countries can prosper where female human resources have expertise, guidance & excellence in academic terms. Education is a device to human resource development (Economic Survey, 2006-2007).

Female are partially the world's population, education. Worked more than man and received less in comparison of male because of male dominant society. It is not possible to bring change and socio economic development until female are deprived and don't have equal facility to earn money and get education. Female are facing high poverty and suffers low status in the developing.

Following tables show the female participation as labor force in his years 1990-91, 1995-96 and 2003-04 according to the Labor force of Pakistan 2003-04.

Table-2 Female Participation in Labor Force

Year	Labor Force [Millions]	Female [Participation
1990-91	31.09	12.76
1995-96	33.77	11.39
2003-04	45.23	15.93

Source: Labor Force Survey 2003-04

The above table shows the total male and female labour force in millions out of total we can easily c the actual participation of female ratio that is alarming not satisfactory.

Table-3 Female Participation according to the Industry/Sector

Industry/Sector	2001-02		2003-04	
	Total	Female	Total	Female
Agriculture	16.37	3.68	17.97	4.75
Manufacturing /Mining	5.38	0.8	5.37	1.03
Construction	2.35	0.02	2.43	0.02
Whole sale /Retail	5.77	0.02	2.4	0.01

Trade				
Financing /Insurance	0.35	0.01	0.44	0.01
Construction/				
Community/ Service	6.03	0.99	6.27	1.12

Source: Labor Force Survey of Pakistan, 2003-04

The above table shows the status of female participation in agriculture, manufacturing/mining, construction, and whole sale/retail trade, and financing/insurance, construction and community plus services sectors. This table shows very low percentage out of total [male and female ratio] and this is not good for the development of the country.

Literature Review
In Quranic words the birth of the daughter brings grief on their faces (XVI, 58-59). The Holy Prophet (PBUH) Said "heaven lies when they accept the mothers orders (Sahi Muslim). His supporters, make known her daughter as the female of Heaven" as the representative of her sex (Ali, 1980). The Prophet Muhammad (Peace be Upon Him) declared Daughters as glory of residence" [Bukhari Sharif]. It is clearly confirmed in Quran-e-Pak that the male and female are outfits of each other [Bukhari]. The Holy Quran says female is a basis of harmony for male [Surah Al-Araf]. The Holy Quran declares that don't undergo workers work [Surah Al-Imran].

Education has been visualized as training for life considered important for socio economic development leads progress in cavity. Education built in sophistication in the human that brings change in society by increasing productivity. Many studies have shown the positive correlation between a country's educational pains and its cost-effective status that has been accredited to education for example see Cochrane, Cochrane, Chaduri, Lockheed Colcough, Guisinger, Subbarao and Raney and Mujahid.

Problem Statement
Female ratio in academic institutions is not up to the level that creates a great hindrance to develop a country. The main problem is that because of inadequate facilities regarding female education caused drawbacks and creates a hitch in developing process.

Research Methodology
This study is based on qualitative and quantitative research. In this study, data were collected with the help of primary and secondary data. In this study, the sample is Hyderabad government schools [63] and sub sample is girls schools [28] out of which twenty girls' schools were selected through random sampling. While 120 respondents from schools faculty members were selected and ten close ended dichotomous questionnaires was designed and used to collect the data plus a ten question of schedule

51

was asked. The secondary data was also collected via Economic Survey of Pakistan, Statistical Survey of Pakistan, UNDP Survey, etc to support study. The data were organized by using tabulation and graphical presentation via charts and mean and standard deviation statistical tool is used to signify the data.

Data Analysis
Following is the list of twenty selected schools for study

Table-4: Name of Selected Girls Schools

	Names of Girls Schools
1	Government (N) Apwa Girls Higher Secondary School
2	Government Cantt Girls High School
3	Government Girls Double Section High School
4	Roshan-ul Islam Girls High School
5	Government Jinnah Girls High School
6	Government CDO Education Girls Primary School
7	Government Sir Syed Girls High School
8	Government Girls Comprehensive High School
9	Government Girls High School Fakir Ka Pir
10	Shah Latif Girls High School
11	Sir Syed Girls High School
12	Government Girls Model School GOR Colony
13	Government Girls Pilot School GOR Colony
14	Government Himayat-ul-Islam Girls High School
15	Khadija Memorial Girls High School (Govt)
16	MA Jinnah Girls High School
17	Madarsatul-Banat Girls High School
18	Marium Siddiqa Girls High School
19	Memon Anjuman Girls High School
20	Roohy-Islam Girls High School

Following is the analysis of data shown with the help of tables and graphs in which data are signified by mean and standard deviation.

Ttable-5 show the responses received from the respondents that are shown in the form of Yes and no when asked close ended questionnaire from selected respondents. 37 are agreed that female education is neglected while 83 are in the favor of that the education set up in is very problematic.

Table-5: Responses on value of education

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	37	0.03	0.05
No	83	0.69	0.075
Total	120		

Table-6, show 48 are responding in no in response of asking education is the key element to acquire reputable jobs and career while 72 are saying that most of the problem faced to female are due to the lack of impracticable planning.

Table-6: Responses on education and jobs

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	48	0.4	0.057
No	72	0.6	0.07
Total	120		

Table-7, show 39 are responding in Yes in response of asking education is the key element to acquire reputable jobs while 81 response is no and saying that most of the problem faced to female are due to the lack of impracticable planning.

Table-7: Responses on education as key element

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	39	0.32	0.057
No	81	0.67	0.075
Total	120		

Table-8, show 42 considers education as a tool to increase productive result and can be helpful to improve the life of students while 78 said no.

Table-8: Responses on education and productivity

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	42	0.35	0.054
No	78	0.65	0.073
Total	120		

Table-9, 47 respond in Yes as training is the only element that can be considered as a tool that can bring 73 said no.

Table-9: Responses on training as tool

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	47	0.39	0.057
No	73	0.6	0.71
Total	120		

Table-10 show that there is a need to introduce innovation training programs answered by 100 in yes to enhance the caliber of the of the female in rural areas by establishing vocational training centers, language learning centers and computer skill enhancement centers.

Table-10: Responses on training

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	100	0.83	0.083
No	20	0.16	0.037
Total	120		

Table-11, 48 answered in yes about the need to implement educational quality enhancement plans by schools.

Table-11: Responses on educational quality

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	48	0.4	0.057
No	72	0.6	0.07
Total	120		

Table-12 shows that 86 consider female education as a helpful tool in character building of nations.

Table-12: Responses education as tool

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	86	0.71	0.077
No	34	0.28	0.048
Total	120		

Table-13, 40 are agreed that female education is neglected and education set up in is very problematic as mishandled and deregulated while 60 are not in that favor.

Table-13: Responses on female education

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	40	0.33	0.052
No	60	0.5	0.064
Total	120		

table-14 show that 47 consider factual information as a tool to increase productive result while 73 are respond in no.

Table-14: Responses on information and productivity

Respondents		Mean	Standard Deviation
Yes	47	0.39	0.057
No	73	0.6	0.07
Total	120		

Conclusion and Recommendations

Today the rate of education in female is rising comparatively in past. Every educated women does not find it easy to be a house wife and mother and a career as well admittedly it is quit different and hard to manage in the condition that prevail today. There is a great need to give top priority to develop villages for primary education. Innovative training program specially geared in rural areas to teach local female teachers. Education plans should be made in the rural areas in consultation with the villagers and not in air-conditioned planning offices. Implementation of education plans should be handed over to the local grass root level communities in the urban and rural areas rather than the bureaucracy. The expenditures on building should be drastically reduced and diverted to out reach programs, improving quality of education, training of local teachers.

Following are some recommendations that if can be implemented that can produce fruitful results. Introduce different policies and rules and regulation which can help to improve human resource skills.

> Survey research on monthly basis regarding attendance of in schools
> Implementation of discipline policy that will help to improve skills
> Launching of schools website
> Introduction of Women guard training
> Exchange programs with other countries
> To arrange training workshops at each level

References
Iqbal, M. (1967). *Education in Pakistan*. Lahore: Aziz Publications. P.8.

Qudus, S. A. (1979). *Education and National Construction of Pakistan*. Lahore

Qureshi, I. H. (1975). *Education in Pakistan: An Inquiry into Objectives and Achievements.* Karachi: MA ARFE Limites. P. 8.

Aftab, T. (1979). *Challenges for Change: Literacy of the Girls Today and the Women of Tomorrow*. B. C. C and University of Karachi. P.7.

Qasmi, M. (2000). *Female Education in Sindh*. Lahore: Al-Hamd Publications P.155-156.

Government of Pakistan (2007). *Economic survey of Pakistan*. Ministry of Finance. Economic Advisors Wing. Islamabad. Pp.163-67.

Ali, S. A. (1980). *The Spirit of Islam. Pakistan Publishers*. Lahore: Victoria Chamber 2-A, Haroon Road Karachi. P. 228.

Cochrrane, S. (1979). *Fertility and Education: What We do Really Know?* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.

Cochrane, S. (1979). Educational Differentials in Mortality of Children. Washington: World Bank Mimeo.

Chaduri. (1979). *Education, Innovation and Agricultural Development: A Study on North India (1961-72).* London: Croom-Helm.

Lockheed. (1980). Farmer Education and Farm Efficiency: A Survey. *Economic Development and Cultural Change, 29(4).*

Colcough, C. (1982). The Impact of Primary Schooling on Economic Development: Review of the Evidence, *World Development, 10(3).*

Guisineger, S. (1984). Earning Rates of Return to Education and the Earning Distribution in Pakistan. *Economic Educational Review, 3(4).*

Subbarao, K. and Raney, L. (1995). Social Gain from Female Education: A Cross-National Study. *Economic Development and Cultural Change 44.1: 105-128*

Mujahid, M. E. (1998). *Indicators on the Status of Women in Pakistan. Ministry of Women Development Social Welfare and Special Education,* Islamabad, Government of Pakistan.

An Investigation into the Determinants of Efficiency of University Teachers

Zahida Aziz Sial
Ana Naqqash

Abstract

The article is based on a study conducted in the year 2008 to investigate the determinants of efficiency of university teachers. The study was delimited to 58 male and 46 female teachers of Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan. The technique of simple random sampling was used for drawing sample. The total sample comprised one hundred and four teachers. A questionnaire with five point rating scale was developed for the teachers and used for data collection. The questionnaire was based on different determinants of efficient teachers and contained 22 items. The collected data was analyzed by using mean score, S.D and Z-test. Through this study it was found that majority of the teachers were strongly agreed on the statements. For person measurement, Z-test was used. It was found that the mean performance of male teachers was better than that of the female teachers and the mean performance of Arts students was better than that of Science students, and the mean performance of highly-qualified teachers was better than the low-qualified teachers.

Keywords: Efficiency, University Teacher, Feedback, Highly Qualified Teacher, Performance

Introduction

Quality of education depends mostly on the quality of a teacher. In most of the institutes teachers have different qualities, characteristics and have their own importance. They know the difference about what is bad and what is good. In any society teachers are respected and honored. Performance of most of the educational system depends on the performance of teachers. So they are of much importance and are identified with their characteristics. According to Thompson (2008), many people remember a special teacher because of how he presented him to students. Anyone can be a teacher, but a good teacher displays certain characteristics that are found both in and outside the classroom. According to Stancic (2008) every teacher has an image of what is for him a model of a" good" pupil. This concept largely depends on qualities as Reliability, Credibility, Comparability, Flexibility and Support.

 Assistant Professor, Department of Education, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan

  Research Assistant, Department of Education, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan

In education teachers are those who help students or pupil to learn. The objective is typically a course of study, lesson plan or a practical skill, including learning and thinking skills. The teachers are able to deal with students with different abilities and with learning disabilities. It is difficult to define teacher efficiency because the determinants involved in successful teaching are intricately woven with student variables and environmental factors of the specific system in which teaching activity takes place.

Therefore it may appear that identifying all the characteristics of efficient teachers and variables that are interconnected with teacher effectiveness would be impossible. A successful person always thinks positively, sees well when facing difficulties because it is important to be successful. As according to Kelly (2008), a positive attitude is a great asset in life. A positive attitude helps to cope with the problems in the best way. Sauter (2008) describes that good teachers promote positive behavior patterns for students and manage behavior problems on an individual basis.

A teacher as a master of his subject has knowledge; skills about his subject then he can better provide information and instruction to his pupils with confidence, in less time and clear checking. Clark (2008) explains that a good teacher talk about current developments, present origin and background of material. Relate the subject to current events and other fields; provide insights or knowledge beyond that in the text. A word of praise or commendation will easily enhance the pupil's interest in any course of action. As according to Stronge (2008), Homework reinforces familiar concepts, and quality is more important than quantity; effective teachers review it regularly and give feedback. Teachers use a variety of assessment practices to determine the effectiveness of a lesson, evaluate student progress, and use the information to tailor lessons to students' needs and reteach material to students not achieving mastery.

Feedback to students is corrective -not simply right or wrong answers but explanations about what is correct, why, and how to fix problems. Patience values a lot as a reason for achievement of a teacher. Virtues are gradually and slowly cultivated by the students. Hence the teacher has to deal with large number of students. According to Uwec (2008), a good teacher strives to look at all aspects of the situation and remains highly fair and objective under most difficult circumstances. He believes that problems can be resolved if enough input and attention is given by people who are affected. Aggarwal (1995) describes that a teacher has to deal with a large number of students having low and high power of understanding. He may have to repeat his lesson many a time for the sake of the less intelligent and he does not irritate in doing so. Some students pick up lesson very slowly and a teacher possesses the required patience to make them understand gradually.

For any efficient teacher it is important to have original thinking then he can find out original solutions of any problem. As Shahid (2000) describes that a teacher with his

quality can offer original solutions to a problem and thus encourage the students towards original thinking**.** According to Wink (1997) "A good teacher remains patient enough to accept the fact that she can't control other's beliefs; she can only live her own". Someone can be efficient if he respects the students as persons and not merely as numbers. McGee and Fraser (2005), "Building a respectful classroom, Culture requires teachers to have a genuine regard for their students - their progress, their humanity and the essence of who they all. Students quickly sense when their ideas are welcomed, encouraged, dismissed or rejected. A teacher may verbally acknowledge and build upon a student's idea".

Leadership is one of the key factors in every society for efficiency of a person. A teacher may increase his efficiency by becoming a leader Harris and Lambert (2003), "Leadership is about learning together and constructing mean in and knowledge, collectively and collaboratively". In order to make the present system more meaningful, it is important to improve teacher's performance in Pakistan. Teachers play a vital role in any educational system of any society. Keeping in view the importance of teachers the researcher tried to point out those determinants which may influence teachers' performance and may be fruitful in increasing their efficiency.The present study aimed at an investigation into the determinants of efficiency of university teachers.

Objectives of the Study
The study was conducted with the objectives (1) to identify the determinants of efficiency of university teachers (2) to compare the opinions of Arts and Science teachers towards determinants of efficiency in 'Bahauddin Zakariya University ,Multan (3) to compare the views of male and female teachers towards determinants of efficiency in 'Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan and (4) to compare the views of highly qualified and less qualified teachers about efficiency of teachers in 'Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan.

Methods and Procedures
A five point rating scale questionnaire was developed to collect data. The questionnaire had twenty-two (22) items broadly based on the different determinants of efficiency of university teachers. The tool employed was got validated by some experts. The intended target population was all the teachers (male, female, science, Arts, highly-qualified, less-qualified) of Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan. One hundred and four teachers were selected through simple random sampling technique. The number of teachers from the university, in different samples was as under.

Male teachers = 58
Female teachers = 46
Total sample   = 104

The questionnaires were delivered and collected personally. The weightage to options were given as SA(strongly agree)5,A(Agree)4,U(indecisive)3,D(Disagree)2and SD(Strongly disagree)1.For negative statements, the order of weightage was reversed. After awarding marks to each option, total was computed. To reach certain conclusions, percentage, arithmetic mean, standard deviation and Z-test (critical ratio) were used to compare the opinions of teachers Science and Arts teachers, Male and Female, highly-qualified and less-qualified. The norm (M.S.) for acceptance or rejection of statements on the part of teachers was 3.00.Mean score greater than 3.00 showed the agreement while the value of mean score less than 3.00, indicated the disagreement. The critical ratio was calculated with the help of the formula, given by Garrett (1961).

$$CR\ (Z) = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(SD_1)^2}{N_1} + \frac{(SD_2)^2}{N_2}}}$$

Where

CR	=	Critical ratio
M_1	=	Mean of scores obtained by group1.
M_2	=	Mean of scores obtained by group 2.
N_1	=	Number of students in group 1.
N_2	=	Number of students in group2.
SD_1	=	Standard deviation of scores obtained by group 1.
SD_2	=	Standard deviation of scores obtained by group 2.

Results

The arithmetic mean of male and female teachers was (98.8) (97.2) respectively, Mean performance of male sample teachers was better than that of female teachers based on difference of means. The CR value was (2.74) greater than the table value (1.96).It means that difference of responses between male and female students is statistically significant.

Table-1: Gender-Wise Comparison of Teacher's Responses

Name of category	N	$\overline{X}$	S.D	Calculated Value (Z)
Male	58	98.98	16.5	
Female	46	97.2	5.5	2.74

T.V = 1.96 (α0.05) and C.V = 2.74

Arithmetic mean of Science and Arts teachers was (98) and (97) respectively. The difference of means indicated the better performance of science teachers. The CR value (0.59) was less than the table value (1.96).It means the difference of responses between the Arts teachers and Science teachers is statistically insignificant.

Table-2: Subject-Wise Comparison of Teacher's responses

Name of category	N	$\overline{X}$	S.D	Calculated Value (Z)
Arts Teachers	58	97	4.9	
Science Teachers	46	98	10.5	0.59
T.V =		*1.96 (α0.05) and C.V =*		*0.59*

The arithmetic mean of highly-qualified and less-qualified teachers was (98.2) and (96.13) respectively. The difference of means indicated the better performance of science teachers. The CR value (0.03) was less than the table value (1.96).It means the difference of responses between the highly-qualified and less-qualified teachers is statistically insignificant.

Table-3: Teachers' Qualification-Wise Comparison

Name of Category	N	$\overline{X}$	S.D	Calculated Value (Z)
Highly Qualified	56	98.2	13.6	
Less Qualified	48	96.13	17.5	0.03
T.V =		*1.96(α0.05) and C.V =*		*0.03*

61

Table-4: Results of the opinion of the respondents

S. No.	Statement	Level of Response	Frequency	Percentage	Mean Score
1	Presentation of thought provoking ideas increases the efficiency of a teacher.	SA	79	76%	
		A	20	19%	
		U	5	5%	4.7
		D	-	-	
		SD	-	-	
2	Honesty in working with others increases efficiency of a teacher.	SA	68	65%	
		A	28	27%	
		U	6	6%	4.6
		D	2	2%	
		SD	-	-	
3	A teacher should be fair in behaving students in the classroom.	SA	63	60%	
		A	35	34%	
		U	3	3%	4.5
		D	2	2%	
		SD	1	1%	
4	Undue favour to some students leads to frustration among others.	SA	54	52%	
		A	46	44%	
		U	4	4%	4.5
		D	-	-	
		SD	-	-	
5	A good teacher makes proper use of time.	SA	56	54%	
		A	44	42%	
		U	3	3%	4.5
		D	1	1%	
		SD	-	-	
6	Self-assessment by a teacher increases his efficiency	SA	36	35%	
		A	62	60%	
		U	5	5%	4.3
		D	1	1%	
		SD	-	-	
7	Demonstration of interest in the subject matter increases efficiency of a teacher.	SA	44	42%	
		A	56	54%	
		U	2	2%	4.4
		D	2	2%	
		SD	-	-	

8	High expectations of a teacher help students to achieve good marks.	SA	46	44%	
		A	54	52%	
		U	3	3%	4.4
		D	1	1%	
		SD	-	-	
9	Lesson planning creates confidence in the teachers.	SA	51	49%	
		A	45	43%	
		U	4	4%	4.4
		D	4	4%	
		SD	-	-	
10	Good teachers possess the ability to understand their students' behaviour accurately.	SA	49	47%	
		A	49	47%	
		U	3	3%	4.4
		D	1	1%	
		SD	2	2%	

Findings of the Study

Majority of the teachers were strongly agreed on the following determinants such as.

Presentation of thought provoking ideas may increase the efficiency of the teacher.

Honesty in working with others increases efficiency of teacher.

A teacher should be fair in behaving students in the classroom

Undue favour to some students leads to frustration among others.

A good teacher makes proper use of time.

Self-assessment by a teacher increases his efficiency.

Punctuality and regularity of teacher increases his efficiency.

Demonstration of interest in the subject matter increases his efficiency.

High expectations of teachers help students to achieve good marks.

Lesson planning creates confidence in the teachers.

1. According to this study, apparently, the mean performance of Science teacher is better than the Arts teacher.
2. The study indicates that the mean performance of female teachers is better than that of male teachers.
3. This study also indicates that the mean performance of less qualified teachers is better than that of highly qualified teachers.
4. In case of item analysis, on 21 statements out of 22 statements mean score was more than 3.00.it shows the higher level of agreement of teachers on given statements.

Recommendations

Recommendations given here are based on the result observed in the questionnaire. The recommendations suggested are given as

1. By keeping in view the responses of teachers about individual differences, which is important between students it is recommended that efficient teachers should treat each student as a valuable individual.

2. As most of the teachers showed disagreement on lesson planning therefore, it is recommended that teachers should be good lesson planners.

3. As most of the teachers showed disagreement on flexibility in attitude therefore it is recommended that there should be flexibility in attitude of teacher.

4. By keeping in view the responses of teachers about emotional stability of teachers it is recommended that teachers should show good attitude towards every one.

References

Aggarwal, J. C. (1995). *Teacher and Education in a Developing Society,* New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House.

Clark, J. M (2008). *Introduction,* Retrieved September 20, 2008 from http:// www.google.de/search?q=qualities+of+effective+teacher&hl=de&start=10&sa=N

Harris, A and Lambert, L. (?from new books). *Building Leadership Capacity for School Improvement,* Philadelphia Open University Press.

Kelly, M. (2008). *Top Six Keys to Being a Successful Teacher,* Retrieved on from http://712educators.about.com/od/teachingstrategies/tp/sixkeys.htm

McGee, C and Fraser, D. (2005). *The Professional Practice of Teaching*, Thompson Dunmore Press.

Sauter, L. (2008). *The Makings of a Good Teacher,* Retrieved 2008 from http://ematusov.soe.udel.edu/final.paper.pub/_pwfsfp/0000185.htm.

Shahid, S. M. (2000). *Educational Administration*, Lahore Majid Book Depot.

Stancic, Z. (2008). *Teacher's Attitude towards Teaching,* Retrieved 2008 from http://www.isec2000.org.uk/abstracts/papers_s/stancic1.htm.

Stronge, J. H. (2008). *Qualities of Effective Teachers*, Retrieved on 12, 2008 from http://www.aacompcenter.org/cs/wested/view/rs/387?x-t=wested.record.view.

Wink, J. (1997). *Critical Pedagogy Notes From the Real World*, Addison Wesley Longman.

Marxism in Twenty First Century: A Critical Review

Muhammad Ijaz Latif
Rehman Afzal Khan

Abstract

With the disintegration of Soviet Union, Marxist ideology or Marxism was criticized by the thinkers and philosophers who were in favour of capitalism. They linked the fall of Soviet Union with the failure of Marxism. This study

presents an insight analysis of the notion presented abstove and analyses Marxism within the context of its potential utilization in 21 century. We have explored and analyzed Marxism not as a competing philosophy against capitalism but as a philosophy that may share, based on experiences, some good alternatives that can be utilized for future. Globalization offers a complex set of challenges and it requires an engaging approach towards analyzing 20th century philosophies and their utilization and application for future. This study therefore, focuses more on what Marxism and Capitalism can potentially share than the differences of Marxism and Capitalism in the classical sense.

Key Words: Marxism, Political Philosophies, Capitalism, 20th Century Philosophies, Socialism

Introduction

With the fall of Soviet Union and with the subsequent collapse of Eastern European communist states it was argued by the Capitalists that Marxism stands refuted by these historic events, in other words, it no longer provides a usable or workable theoretical framework for the solution of future problems, in other words collapse of Soviet Union was argued as collapse of Marxist ideology or Marxism. It however, has multiple dimensions. It can be seen that the core of arguments like these are in accepting the relationship and representation of Soviet Union as a true Marxist state. On the other hand the Marxists argue that demise of Soviet Union cannot be attributed to the death of Marxism and according to their argument the real 'history' is yet to begin and it has not already ended with the fall of Soviet Union and the Eastern European communist states. The case of China may be used as an example in this regard. This context leads us to two different, competing set of arguments about how, and what Marxism can offer for the future. We have argued that despite the fall of Soviet Union, Marxism can offer a set of good alternatives that can be utilized today and therefore we need to revisit the extreme

Head, Department of International Relations, the Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan
Lecturer, Government Degree College for Special Education Bahawalpur, Pakistan

'they versus us' approach of Marxism in such a way that we could focus on what Marxism can offer and how.

Nevertheless, to analyze the potential of Marxism for the future or 21st century perspective, we need to establish a balanced point of view of political and theoretical position of Marxism. We will have to focus on what Marxism can potentially offer for future. This will enable us to use experiences of Marxism as a tool to share its goods along with prevailing capitalism and shaping a more active political and economic system that is beneficial for the masses.

Scope and Organization of Study
The scope of this study is limited to the study of potential of Marxism and its utilization for future mainly in the context of twenty first century political and economic environment. We have followed natural sequence of past, present and future for our study. First, we have explored the philosophy of Marxism and then analyzed that why and how Marxism has the potential and relevance to share for future. Then, we have discussed capitalism in its present form and its overlapping with Marxism. Finally, we have discussed the potential future role of Marxism followed by a brief conclusion.

Explaining Marxism
What actually we mean by Marxism is crucial for our study and analysis. This simple question has a complex answer because it is linked with the different interpretations of an ideology and that is not a simple task. Further, detailed interpretation of Marxism is beyond the scope of this study and for the sake of simplicity and focus; we can refer Marxism to as antithesis of capitalism. Taking this simple explanation of Marxism into account, we can argue that this explanation itself is a dimension of our case that Marxism may not be entirely ruled out when capitalism is a prevailing philosophy. Moreover, the targeted society of Marxism in the past is still alive and though went through considerable transformation after the fall of Soviet Union, still offer an opportunity for comparison and transition from Marxism to Capitalism.

Marxism was a dream to change Capitalism (Kagarlitsky, 1999, p. 63). In classical sense, therefore, Marxism is there when Capitalism is there. Losurdo (2000) argues that the Communist Manifesto developed its analysis at a moment when no movement of emancipation was to be seen in the colonies and as a consequence of these conditions, relations between countries were, or seemed to be, more or less equal with a more or less homogeneous level of development as compared to present where globalization is also an instrument with which the great powers try to regain control of the economy of countries that have shaken free of colonial dominance. However, application of Marxist theories in past have considerable importance for our study as the study of these applications and their implications for these countries can offer those characteristics that can represent the

potential of Marxism for present. We have analyzed the case of Soviet Union in first place to explore that whether an ideal Marxist society existed in the case of Soviet Union, if not, then principles of Marxism may need to be revisited in the context of twenty first century challenges faced by Capitalism.

Ideal Marxism: Analyzing the Case of Soviet Union
Fall of Soviet Union was a historic event that is argued by many as demise of Marxism. This logically means that we take Soviet Union as an ideal practicing Marxist state. However, facts prove otherwise. Masses that made happen Russian revolution of 1905 and 1917 were not inspired by Marxism and its anti-capitalist theme rather they were following the slogans of peace, land and social justice (Kagarlitsky, 1999, p. 71). Things started off in Soviet Union were on the slogan of Marxism but what happened after 1917 revolution in Soviet Union was something that turned away Soviet Union from the ideal Marxism.

The dictatorship that was supposed to be transitional, until the sustainable rule of the working class was converted into a bureaucratic power structure and politically incorporated in favour of the few to accumulate power and from this point onwards the Soviet Union, though taken always as a Marxist state, never actually followed the true Marxism. Actually, USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) used socialism on the front hand but it never incorporated true socialist culture.

Economically, socialism promotes state control over production and distribution of goods. On the other hand, true communism is more concerned to collective ownership of properties and organization of labour. In political terms, socialism rejects class-based society but there is no change in the character of state necessarily to achieve this. Whereas Communism speaks for change through revolution and a transitional dictatorship until an absolute working class rule is established. The technological and industrial power that Soviet Union gained in post Second World War era should also be taken into its correct perspective and the military might that it built afterwards was a logical consequence of the then dictatorship in power.

It is important to focus here that had Soviet Union been an ideal Marxist state, it would have surely been transferred the power to the working class. However, there was nothing like this. We would emphasize the point that Soviet Union used the slogan of socialism and in other words the bureaucracy and dictators exploited Marxist slogan for the continuation of their own rule. However, they were successful in gaining the attention of the people and the 'nationalist' theme was present at strength in the people of Soviet Union. During the period of cold war, Soviet people did own the military might of their country but after some time the domestic economic situation did shake their belief. Those

who refused to come out of the utopia had to suffer from a loss of faith in the system and the future of the country.

Further, the desire to expand the red empire may not be attributed to the Marxist ideology. Dictators in power shaped Soviet Union internationally as a hegemonic and oppressive country to fulfill their own designs but it had nothing to do with the ideology of Marxism. Based on above, we can safely argue that Soviet Union practiced socialism to some limited extent but it never was a true and ideal Marxist state. In these terms, we should not relate the collapse of Soviet Union with the demise of Marxist philosophy. Most importantly, the majority rule of working class in absolute terms had neither been achieved nor practiced in former Soviet Union.

Fall of Soviet Union: Implications for Marxist ideology
Fall of Soviet Union may not represent the demise of Marxism yet it is one of the most important historic events of twentieth century. To evaluate the future potential of Marxism it is imperative to bridge the gap between the fall of Soviet Union and the present and to see what happened after the collapse of Soviet Union and Eastern European communist states. Fall of Soviet Union had a definite disappointing effect on the Soviet people. The population that was effected by the domestic economic crisis was confused about the future. As pointed out earlier, those who were living in utopia were surely going to face the shock.

From the perspective of capitalist block, it was a marvelous victory. However, the most important point for discussion here is that it was taken as the forces of West had won and the threat of communism was so forcefully propagated that it was thought logically that now all problems would be solved and peace would prevail. In other words, capitalism had now no opponent and it was an ideological hegemonic force. The development and power of capitalism after the fall Soviet Union was massive but it was not alone. In post Soviet Union world, the last decade of twentieth century was marked with an unprecedented technological development, ethnic and identity conflicts, emergence of non-state actors and the mushroom growth of multinational corporations. These MNCs constitute one of the most powerful economic webs. Globalization made the whole scenario more active and responsive.

This background is important to understand what happened with the Marxism and capitalism in this decade. Marxism as an ideology of the past was on the defensive in this period and capitalism was perceived to be surfing on the highway of development as an ideology, unchallenged. For our study, it is important to focus here not on the weakness or absence of Marxism but the perceived development of capitalism. It may be noted that it was the unchallenged development of capitalism that kept on revealing its weaknesses.

Capitalism itself went on evolving during this period but on the other hand, the basic potential faults of capitalist system and society also kept on surfing.

The high hopes of end of discrimination and a free society after the fall of Soviet Union and the scale of disappointment can be well understood by these words of Bulgarian intellectuals written to their western colleagues.

"*We all have spent a long time living in a separated world. We dreamed about a free society where we could satisfy our artistic curiosity by visiting each other, accumulating creative stimuli, expending our experience and opportunities of the audiences to face a broader range of work. It was our dream of a world without borders, which kept us positive in the shade of the iron wall. If only the great liberation day would come! The day came and passed. And nothing happened. Once it was the wall. Today it is the economic crisis. Once it was the fear of communist censorship. Today it is the phlegm of totally disintegrated and desperate society. To make things even worse there came the notorious Schengen treaty. We are in the checking lounge again. We sit on our suitcases and look forward to crossing the borders"* (Kagarlitsky, 1999; p. 11).

The Asian financial crisis of 1997-98 is another example of the fragility of the capitalist system. It is important to note that it did not hit the weak nations but the Asian economic tigers the most. The magnitude and its domestic impact on the population of these countries had a long-term effect. The internal weaknesses of apparently strong economic power centers revealed the fragility of economic development. It can be argued that capitalism enjoyed hegemonic lead in the post Soviet Union world but it was failed to register as the 'solution of all the problems'. Especially in the absence of 'active communist' threat, it pointed out to the missing factors and the need to look to other philosophies for sharing of good and workable principles to overcome the inherent faults within the prevailing system.

The 1990s saw the dramatic emergence of a global environmental crisis threatening the biological survival of the human species, the growing polarization of wealth between rich and poor nations and between wealthy and impoverished people within most nations (a conspicuous manifestation of the contradictions of capitalist society), the worldwide attack on social-welfare safety nets, and increasing conflicts between transnational capital and the national interests of the peoples of the world, all these led in 1998 to a worldwide focus of attention on the 150th anniversary of the Communist Manifesto (Nature Society and Thought, 1998).

Now the next segment of our study and will explore Capitalism-Marxism overlapping for potential sharing of good principles.

69

Capitalism-Marxism Overlapping

Present world scenario of capitalism in comparison to Marxism present some important dimensions. We shall analyze the impact of capitalism keeping in view that Marxism is not in the foreground. We shall evaluate this by the character of state, economic and political system.

First segment is the character of state. It is interesting to note that capitalism and Marxism overlap with each other. If Marxism presents a state owned production system and it is criticized for that, we find on the other hand that in many developed western countries where capitalism exists state controls and manages most of the basic and important sectors such as health, railways, roads etc.

Now we focus the economic system. It may be argued that in the last decade of the twentieth century, one economic formula is not good for the whole world. This statement can be substantiated with the fact that if capitalist formulation was the solution of all the problems then why it has failed to address all the critical issues of economy, most importantly, the poverty. It not only failed to do so in the developing countries but also in the developed countries who has adopted the capitalist economic system in letter and in spirit. The above mentioned example of Asian Financial crisis of 1997-98 is an example of that. To add we can take the example of current economic crisis, which has shaken the economic foundations of some of the most developed countries. Further, after the recent financial crisis of 2008-2009, the developed states like United States and United Kingdom have taken a U-turn on their economic policies and have started to re-acquire (nationalize) the corporations and financial institutions and have provided generous bail-out packages out of the tax payers public money. The move to fund private enterprises from the public money has initiated a great debate and has pointed to a critical contradiction to the core of capitalist philosophy and the concept of "Free Market Economy". The rate of unemployment is record high and the purchasing power is declining. This is the picture of developed countries. This again points out the incompleteness within the capitalist approach and a requirement to consider other approaches for potential sharing.

Donald (1999) analyzes the capitalist economy, *"One result is that the capitalist economy creates wealth that tends to be pooled into the hands of fewer and fewer people. In other words, while capitalism creates wealth, it also creates poverty. Recent trends indicate that the bottom 60 percent of families in America lost ground in terms of income measured in constant dollars between 1977 and 1992, while the top 1 percent saw an average increase in income to the tune of $676,000 a year. Perhaps it is more telling to look at who owns capital-producing wealth. Here the top 10 percent of families own more than 90 percent of such wealth, while the top ½ percent own approximately 50 percent. In 1989, some 200 corporations controlled half of the nation's economy. With*

the frenzied pace of recent corporate mergers, we can only assume that this number is significantly smaller today. Also at that time the economist Thomas Dye estimated that "around 3500 corporate leaders in business [controlled] the bulk of the economy.". This analysis briefly substantiates our argument and presents the weaknesses of a capitalist economic system.

The third major segment is the political system. After the fall of Soviet Union, it was believed that western style democracy is the key to enter into the 'civilized' world and it is the key to address all the problems. Again, the domestic values, culture, history and regional settings were ignored and the result cannot be called satisfactory. Democratic institutions today face the challenge of collapse of institutions and it is because they are being bypassed in economic decision making and to some extent in political process making (Kagarlitsky, 1999, p. 6). This challenges the core "Free Society" element of capitalist. Goottfried (2005, p.142) argues that capitalist society is being replaced by an administered society.

The collective result of above mentioned failures is the exploitation of elites. Even in the most developed and democratic societies the elites tend to cut the welfare of the general population to exploit them and to extract maximum interest. The net result of this elitist culture is almost the same all over the world. Whether it is developed, developing or underdeveloped country, the middle class is shrinking and vanishing. This is no ordinary phenomenon. It has altered the contours of societies i.e. the gap between the rich and poor is increasing. Communist aggression was considered to be a grave threat for the whole 'civilized' world during the cold war period. Nevertheless, in the post Soviet Union world the hegemonic aggressions have not stopped. They are continued with different name and slogans; sometimes in the name of 'preemptive defense', sometimes for 'humanitarian intervention'. However, the result is the massive human sufferings and large-scale destruction.

More important to our discussion is the view that capitalism alone, have also failed in providing peace and justice to the world. The important factor is that the demise of bipolar world order was supposed to bring peace and stability in the international political and security environment. However, it has brought more and more conflicts and destruction. The new world order introduced new hegemonic and aggressive trends. This new world order did not bring any economic betterment for the needy but more suppression. This leads to the dilemma of dominance and at this point, we can argue safely that the solution is not in the presence or dominance of one system over other rather it has to be found on the mutual scale i.e. by adjusting, revisiting and sharing good principles of both the approaches, Capitalism as well as Marxism. This argument advances our discussion to the potential future role of Marxism.

Potential of Marxism for Future

Future of Marxism is in sharing good principles with Capitalism. Future world scenario is very different from the old cold war days i.e. the days of bipolar world. Today globalization and technological developments have enabled different societies to come together and share their views, values and concerns on an unprecedented scale. Whether we accept it or not but the social dimension has very silently appeared as the most critical dimension of the present as well as for future. One of the new security paradigms argued for the next century has included social dimension as one of the five key dimensions of security (Buzan, 1991). This indicates a major rethinking and requirement for the time ahead. Even in the capitalist economies, in the strict for-profit environment there is now a concept of social responsibility in business.

Marx itself portrays history as a progressive process (Sayers, 1998, p. 145). It is argued that Marxism is reduced to theory and has become more and more the affair of intellectuals (Pierson, 2001, p. 179). There are characteristics that can be shared as Somerville (2005) presents that although the specific characteristics of the struggles between classes may be different for obvious reasons as compared to capitalism, the Marxist holds that the same point applies, in the sense that these struggles too are independent of the will of the persons involved, once the economic relationship has been entered into. We, to an extent, agree that Marxism is much more beneficial in identifying the problems of capitalism rather than practically offering a complete alternative to capitalism. Even in this restricted context, it offers some very important social dimensions which can be used to overcome the problems of modern day society. What we suggest is an overlapping in a mutual and positive way. No one approach can be the perfect solution. The demise of 'welfare-state' has not made the world just and peaceful (Kagarlitsky, 1999, p. 70).

This is the strongest motivation to go for sharing of good principles. Nevertheless, before sharing principles, it has to be taken into account that like Capitalism, Marxism too, cannot present a whole and complete alternate. This is a fact that there is no switching of capitalism to Marxism, not even in ideal transitive terms. Marxists need to understand the fact that capitalism is the prevailing ideology. What we lack in present and we require for future is the balanced approach between the two systems so that sharing of good principles can happen. We will have to accept Marxism as a different society, not worse, not better, just a different society (Kagarlitsky, 1999, p. 7). Once we accept this, we will be able to learn from the Marxist ideology what it has to offer in terms of social welfare and most importantly the workable ideas. How these ideas will be incorporated into the capitalist system is another important question and needs to be examined separately. Based on the above discussion, we can argue here that capitalism itself is a mix. The roles of state, social responsibility, etc are the indicators of a present mix. They also signal the tendency of a system for further adjustments.

Conclusion

Summing up the discussion, it can be argued that Marxism and Capitalism are more often studied in extremes. If one looks deep into both of the philosophies though contradicting in classical sense can share the good principles. This means that neither a pure capitalistic nor a pure socialistic approach can offer a complete solution. The real solution is in sharing of good principles of two philosophies, which first carefully identifies the problem in the existing system and then presents an alternative solution based on the above mentioned approach. Marxism categorically identifies three main problems in capitalism and those are inefficiency, exploitation and alienation, yet the important point is an acceptable and workable solution.

As argued above, Soviet Union did not represent an ideal Marxist state and therefore it can be implied that the whole philosophy of Marxism may not be analyzed by just restricting the context to the success or the failures of Soviet Union. If Marxism is considered to be the core reason of the fall of Soviet Union then it raises the question of why China survived. This exhibits a relationship, a sharing potential of the philosophies for development. A careful study of the history of communist states reveals that they did go for transformation after the end of cold war. The case of Chinese development and progress has important implications to the context of this study. Overlapping of socialism and capitalism and especially the current financial crisis has critical readings and those need to be interpreted within the context of potential sharing of the good principles of both approaches.

There are concerns about the sustainability of economic growth under capitalism. Current financial crisis present the same fragile picture. Based on the observations presented above, it can be argued here that the development made under a strict capitalistic regime encourages exploitation of the weak by the elites. This also raises questions about the genuineness of the development. Democratic government has become a pre-requisite for good governance. Nevertheless, these democratic institutions can be bypassed and used by the elites. It is same for developed, developing and under-developed countries.

As mentioned earlier the new global environment is information driven and the global political economy has its own requirements that are sensitive in term of social dimension. Here we can clearly see that every company whether domestic, national or multinational has to address the social dimension. Environment is another area of common concern. 'Profit only' approach in capitalist economies has challenged the peaceful coexistence of nature and the human beings. Pollution has become a nightmare for the future but the required control and legislation is strongly resisted by the capitalist profit takers. These powerful economic power players have access to the political power centers of the world. Even in the developed countries, these big companies have a strong role in influencing the decision-making.

Our focus here is on the challenge of sustainable development because increase in exploitation is expanding the gap between the rich and the poor. There is another destructive dimension of this 'profit only' approach and that is the spread of corruption. However, comparing both the approaches, we can safely and conclusively argue that future is in using the good principles of both the approaches.

Marxism as an ideology that can be utilized for extracting workable solutions and these solutions can potentially be incorporated in the present day capitalist framework for collective good. Fall of Soviet Union alone, as argued above, could be taken as an instrument of denial for future potential utilization of Marxist ideology. We have mentioned earlier that there are good and practical examples that it is already present in modern society like the concept of corporate social responsibility. Neither total rejection nor total acceptance of any of the approach will be beneficial for the future. Both approaches should be revisited with the intention of adaptation and potential sharing. Not for rejecting each other. Social dimension is critical and tend to remain critical for the future. As we have witnessed in the past and even in the history of Marxism itself that the slogans of peace, justice and welfare have always been followed irrespective of the ideologies. These should be the focus for future sharing.

References

Armok, A. (1993). *From Neo-Marxism to Democratic Theory: Essays on the Critical Theory of Soviet-Type Societies.* New York: M. E. Sharpe.

Bartolovich, C., Lazarus, N. (2002). *Marxism, Modernity, and Postcolonial Studies.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Buzan, B. (1991). *People, States and Fear: An Agenda for International Security Studies in the Post Cold War Era.* London: Harvester Wheatsheef.

Crystal Bartolovich, N. L. (ed.). (2002). *Marxism, Modernity and Postcolonial Studies.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Donald, J. (1999). Marxism and Sustainable Development: The Ecological Limits of Capitalism. *Nature Society and Thought*, 12 (1).

Elster, J. (1986). *An Introduction to Karl Marx.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Femia, J. (1993). *Marxism and Democracy*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Goottfried, P. (2005). *Strange Death of Marxism: The European Left in the New Millenium.* USA: University of Missouri Press.

Heilbroner, R. (1980). *Marxism, For and Against.* New York: W. W. Norton.

Kagarlitsky, B. (1999). *New Realism, New Barbarism: Socialist Theory in the Era of Globalization.* London: Pluto Press.

Losurdo, D. (2000). Marxism, Globalization and the Historical Balance of Socialism. *Nature Society and Thought*, 13 (3).

Marxists (2010). *Internet Archive.* Retrieved 01 09, 2010, from www.marxists.org: http://www.marxists.org.

Nature Society and Thought. (1998). Marxism and the New Millennium. *Nature Society and Thought*, 11 (4).

Pierson, S. (2001). *Leaving Marxism: Studies in the Dissolution of an Ideology.* Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Sayers, S. (1998). *Marxism and Human Nature.* New York: Routledge Publishers.

Somerville, J. (2005). The Philosophy of Marxism. *Nature Society and Thought,* 18 (1).

Measuring Reading Comprehension of Pakistani Legal Discourse Community With Reference to Legal Textbooks and Law Review Journals

Naveed Ahmad

Abstract

Legal English has distinct linguistic features which make it different from General English (GE). The genre of legal English is further divided into various sub-genres like statutes, legal judgments and textbooks/law review journals etc. Focusing on legal textbooks/law review journals, in this paper, I measured the reading comprehension levels of the members of legal discourse community i.e. law students and recent law graduates who started practicing law. The context of the research is Pakistani academic and occupational legal settings. As a tool of data collection, three questionnaires were designed having similar items on them. Information related to reading comprehension of Pakistani legal discourse community with reference to legal textbooks/law review journals was gathered from teachers of law, recent law graduates, and senior lawyers (under whom supervision recent graduates start practicing law). Subsequently, data was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings are highly useful as they provide insights to policy makers and course designers in the context of legal education.

Key words: Legal Education, Language and Law, Reading Comprehension, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Legal English

Introduction

Legal education in Pakistan is a subject of great debate with reference to medium of instruction. Law has been taught in Urdu and English at various academic institutions of Pakistan. However, the language of law is English in Pakistan because most laws are written in English. As the language of law is English, members of legal discourse community i.e. law students, lawyers, teachers of law and judges have to read a great number of legal texts in English. As English is not the mother tongue of the legal discourse community in Pakistan, earlier empirical studies (see for example, Ahmad, 2009) have revealed that the users of legal English in Pakistan encounter difficulties in academic and professional legal settings. This made a strong case to initiate an investigation in this area. In this context, Ahmad (2006) thoroughly investigated the existing levels of competence of legal discourse community from a variety of angles, however, the discourse community's competence in reading of textbooks/law review journals have never been explored. This unexplored area requires attention as reading of

Assistant Professor, Department of English, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Pakistan;
Email: naveedahmad@bzu.edu.pk

textbooks and law review journals are routine academic and occupational activities. To fill this gap, I have investigated the existing level of competence of legal discourse community in Pakistan with reference to legal textbooks and law review journals. In this context, the research question for the present project was:

To what extent do law students and recent law graduates (who have started practicing law) in Pakistan have competence in comprehending legal textbooks/law review journals in academic/occupational settings?

Literature Review

The term 'language of law' or 'legalese' encompasses a number of "usefully distinguishable genres" having communicative purposes they tend to fulfill in different academic, professional and specific social contexts. The linguistic status of legalese is open to dispute among persons within the field of law and language. It is considered by some (Charrow and Crandall 1978; O'Barr n.d.) to be a dialect in its own right. It can alternatively be viewed as a register of English, a form of jargon-that is,- a speech variety restricted to an occupational group, or a form of diglossia, as Danet (1980) has suggested, diglossia being a distinct speech variety restricted to use on formal, public occasions, contrasting with speech varieties used for everyday purposes (Berk-Seligson, 2002).

Over the past three decades, there has been a dramatic expansion of interest in studying the language of law. Bhatia (1987) indicates that the interest in the language of law is due to developments in at least three disciplines:

> the inclusion of pragmatics in the study of language has encouraged linguists to look for the use of language in real life settings,
>
> in applied linguistics, where the main concern has been to design and teach language support courses for academic as well as professional legal purposes, and
>
> in social science disciplines, where legal language has become the object of sociological inquiry because it is increasingly being recognized as the vehicle for social action.

As the present study relates to legal journals (also known as law review journals) and textbooks, it seems appropriate to review literature related to these two sub-genres:

Journal article is a common genre used in academic legal settings. Feak et al. (2000) divide the material published in legal journals into two categories: law reviews and law notes. The difference between these two is noted in the following manner:

Law reviews, one kind of legal journal, are an interesting forum for academic legal scholarship… A typical review will contain several articles authored by scholars and or practitioners, reviews of books, and a small number of single-authored student written articles known as law review notes (henceforth Notes) Notes clearly have a lower status

than do law review articles written by scholars and practitioners as evidenced by the fact that:

> *they are placed at the back of the reviews;*
>
> *in some law reviews Note titles are in lower case, while titles of articles written by scholars and practitioners are in all capital letters;*
>
> *the name of a Note author, if provided at all, is often placed at the end of the Note rather than on the first page;*
>
> *most reviews do not provide bio-data for students, but do so for the scholars and practitioners (Feak et al. (2000:199-200)*

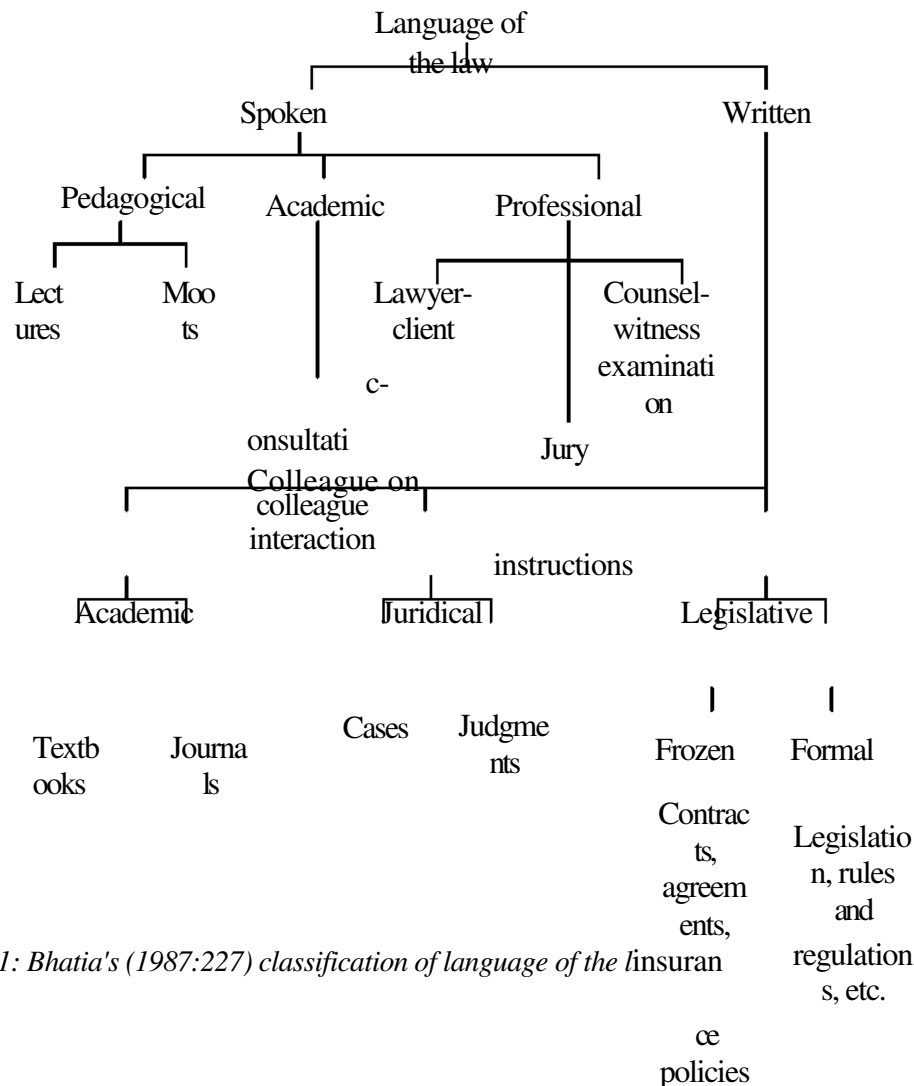Bhatia (1987:227) classifies further the language of law in the following manner in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Bhatia's (1987:227) classification of language of the law.

78   , etc.

Further, it has been mentioned:

Nevertheless, these Notes are interesting not only in themselves as pieces composed by ambitious students, but because they are a regularized and institutionalized opportunity for second and third year students to present their views to a broad and critical audience and do so with the possibility, albeit small, of affecting the thinking on a particular legal issue. Moreover, a published note may perhaps be the most important academic accomplishment of a law student (Feak et al. (2000:200). Feak et al. (2000) focus their study on analysis of published student-written legal research papers, which can serve a model for teaching seminar paper writing. After a discussion of some general characteristics of these research papers, they focus their detailed analysis on the introductory sections, and show how they are both similar to and different from those found in research articles (RA) introductions as described in Swales (1990).

Textbooks are most commonly used in pedagogic settings. Like other disciplines, textbooks of law have "instructional communicative orientation". However, each discipline has some distinct characteristics as Swales (1981) indicates, 'a commonly identified communicative act such as defining can have different discourse functions in different academic subjects as Science and Law'. Bhatia (1987), commenting on legal textbooks, points out those special methodological and conceptual features of law require a different treatment of various commonly used communicative devices.

Another interesting work on legal textbooks is that of Wickrama (1982). His work indicates that within a legal textbook, there are significant variations in the rhetorical structuring. In fact, different parts of a case have different rhetorical structuring. Recently, Candlin et al. (2002) carried out a research on "Improving Legal English: Quality Measures for Programme Development and Evaluation" at the City University of Hong Kong. They evaluated 37 currently available legal writing books in terms of their suitability for the use in EALP writing contexts. The study concluded:

Although in recent years we have seen a significant increase in the development of resources for legal writing, very few of them are targeted at second language learners…., although certain aspects of the available books can be useful, most are generally unsuitable for use in such contexts. Three approaches are then offered for developing legal writing materials that will meet the criteria of suitability. First, the materials can be customized in various ways to meet the needs of second language users studying law in the medium of English. Second, the materials can adopt a more language and discourse-based approach. Third, rather than packaging materials exclusively in book form, they can be made available as a computer-mediated resource bank (Candlin (2002:229)

Method

To gather information three questionnaires were designed: Questionnaire 1, Questionnaire 2 and Questionnaire 3. Questionnaire 1 was for teachers of law.

Questionnaire 2 was for recent law graduates, and Questionnaire 3 was for senior lawyers. Information related to students' competence with reference to the reading of textbooks was gathered from teachers of law and recent law graduates through Questionnaire 1 and Questionnaire 2 respectively.

For information related to comprehension of law review journals, senior lawyers were taken under consideration. The reason for this was that recent law graduates start practicing law under the supervision of senior lawyers. Senior lawyers assign them tasks that require them to read law review journals. Therefore senior lawyers have clear understanding about the existing competence of those who enter the profession of law as practicing lawyers.

All the three questionnaires were similar in design. The only difference was that Questionnaire 1 and Questionnaire 2 dealt with legal textbooks whereas Questionnaire 3 was about law review journals. Each questionnaire had two items: a quantitative one and a qualitative one. Both these items required information about the existing levels of competence in comprehending legal textbooks/law review journals. The quantitative item was close-ended that provided five options to the subjects: "extremely adequate", "adequate", "inadequate", "extremely inadequate" and "no opinion".

The subjects were to tick any one of these options in response to the question that gathered information about the existing level of competence with reference to legal textbooks/law review journals. The second item was open-ended as it required the same information from the subjects in a qualitative manner i.e. subjects' comments. A method of purposive sampling was followed. In this context, the selection of research sites to draw population sample was based on my prior knowledge and experience. Five cities and their universities were selected to gather information.

The number of questionnaires sent to each population group, and the number of returned questionnaires and the rate of return have been shown below in Table 1:

Table-1: Number of questionnaires sent to each population group, the number of returned questionnaires and the rates of return

Questionnaire	Population Group	Number of Sent Questionnaire	Number of Returned Questionnaires	Return Rate
Questionnaire 1	Teachers of Law	400	197	49.25%
Questionnaire 2	Recent Law Graduates	400	220	55.0%
Questionnaire 3	Senior Lawyers	400	207	51.75%
		Total: 1200	Total: 624	Overall: 52%

80

Quantitative data was analyzed by entering responses into an Excel (2002) workbook. Data were then imported into SPSS version 11.5 (2002). For qualitative data, responses to open ended questions were entered using the Word. Next, a separate 2 column table was created for open ended question. Word-for-word responses of the participants were entered in the first column and the summary of the main idea in response was entered in the second column.

Data Analysis
Data was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. For quantitative analysis, first, perceptions of teachers are reported. This is followed by perceptions of recent law graduates and senior lawyers respectively. Comparative analysis of combined groups' perceptions is given in the end.

Reading of Textbooks/Law Review Journals
The total number of respondents in case of teachers and lawyers was one hundred and ninety seven (n= 197) for each group, whereas two hundred and fourteen (n=214) recent graduates responded.

Teachers of Law
Out of a total of 197 teachers, more than half i.e. 59.4% (n=117) responded that learners' comprehension is inadequate, whereas 7.6% (n=15) perceived that it was extremely inadequate. However, 20.3% (n=40) said that reading comprehension of textbooks was adequate, additionally, 12.7% (n=25) considered it extremely adequate. There was no respondent who opted for the choice "no opinion" (Table 2). Mean in this case was 2.83 with the standard deviation of .803 (See Table 2). Collapsing answers into broader categories, we see that out of these 197 teachers, for 67.0% (n=132) students had either inadequate or extremely inadequate ability and for 33.0% (n=65), they had adequate or extremely adequate skill in this area (Table 2).

Table-2: Frequency Analysis: Teachers' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading textbooks

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1. extremely inadequate	15	7.6	7.6	7.6
2. inadequate	117	59.4	59.4	67.73.
adequate	40	20.3	20.3	87.34.
extremely adequate	25	12.7	12.7	100
Total	197	100	100	

Table-3: Descriptive Statistics: Teachers' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading textbooks

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Reading of Textbooks	197	1	4	2.83	.803

Table-4: Count Percentage: Teachers' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading textbooks

	Inadequate	Adequate	Total
Count % within sample group	132	65	197
	67.0%	33.0%	100.0%

Recent Law Graduates

For Questionnaire 2, the returned number was 220. Out of 220, the respondents who did not indicate any of the four choices of this item and went for the fifth option "no opinion" were 6 in number. Out of the remaining 214, 61.7% (n=132) of the graduates mentioned that they had inadequate skill in this linguistic activity, whereas 3.7% (n=8) said that they had extremely inadequate skill. However, 25.2% (n=54) were of the opinion that their skill in this area was adequate, and 9.3% (n=20) said that they had extremely adequate skill in comprehension of textbooks (See Table 2.4). Mean was 2.40 with the standard deviation of 0.710 (See Table 2.5).

In summary, the respondents who felt that they had either extremely inadequate or inadequate skill were 65.4% (n=140), whereas those who felt that they had either adequate or extremely adequate ability were 34.6% (n=74). See Table 2.6

Table-5: Frequency Analysis: Recent law graduates' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading textbooks

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1. extremely inadequate	8	3.6	3.7	3.7
2. inadequate	132	60.0	61.7	65.43.
adequate	54	24.5	25.2	90.7
4. extremely adequate	20	9.1	9.3	100.00
Total	214	97.3	100.00	
Missing	6	2.7		
Total	220	100.0		

Table-6: Descriptive Statistics: Recent law graduates' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading textbooks

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Reading of Textbooks	214	1	4	2.40	.710

Table-7: Count Percentage: Recent law graduates' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading textbooks

	Inadequate	Adequate	Total
Count % within sample group	140	74	214
	65.4%	34.6%	100.0%

Senior Lawyers

Senior lawyers were to provide information related to professional settings; therefore they were asked for comprehension of law review journals instead of textbooks (as was in the case for information related to academic settings gained from teachers and graduates).

The lawyers returned a total of 207 questionnaires. Ten respondents answered "no opinion" to this item of the questionnaire. From the remaining 197 respondents, majority of the lawyers were of the opinion that recent law graduates were good at reading law review journals: 47.2% (n=93) indicated that the graduates had adequate ability, while 10.2% (n=20) mentioned that they had extremely adequate skill in this area. Nevertheless, 32.5% (n=64) perceived that the graduates practicing under their supervision had inadequate skill, and for 10.2% (n=20) had extremely inadequate ability. Mean in this case was 2.57 with a standard deviation of 0.809.

The lawyers who said that the graduates working under their supervision had either inadequate or extremely inadequate ability were 42.6% (n=84); on the other hand, those who said that the graduates had either adequate or extremely adequate ability were 57.45% (n=113). Tables 2.7 through 2.9 provide the details.

Table-8: Descriptive Statistics: Recent law graduates' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading textbooks

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Reading of Textbooks	197	1	4	2.57	0.809

Table-9: Frequency Analysis: Senior lawyers' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading law review journals

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1. extremely inadequate	20	9.7	10.2	10.2
2. inadequate	64	30.9	32.5	42.6 3.
adequate	93	44.9	47.2	89.8
4. extremely adequate	20	9.7	10.2	100.00
Total	197	95.2	100.00	
Missing	10	4.8		
Total	207	100.0		

Table-10: Count Percentage: Senior lawyers' perceptions with regard to the skill of reading law review journals

	Inadequate	Adequate	Total
Count % within	84	113	197
sample group	42.6%	57.4%	100.0%

Comparative Analysis of Combined Groups' Perceptions

For reading comprehension of textbooks/law review journals two groups i.e. teachers and recent law graduates indicated that learners had inadequate ability to comprehend textbooks/law review journals, whereas one group i.e. senior lawyers believed that the skill was adequate. The overall picture shows that out of 608 respondents of all these three groups, 356 i.e. 58.6% indicated that this skill was inadequate, whereas 253 i.e. 41.1% indicated that the skill was adequate.

Table 2.10 is a cross table showing count percentage differences between adequate and inadequate of perceptions of three groups with overall percentage of combined groups for information related to reading comprehension. Table 2.11 is a Ch-Square test.

Table-11: Perceptions of individual and combined groups with regard to the skill of reading textbooks/law review journals

	Sample Group	Inadequate (Count %)	Adequate (Count%)	Total
1	Teachers of Law	67.0% (n=132)	33.0% (n=65)	100.0% (n=197)
2	Recent Graduates	65.4% (n=140)	34.6% (n=74)	100.0% (n=214)
3	Senior Lawyers	42.6% (n=84)	57.4% (n=113)	100.0%

				(n=197)
Total	Combined Groups	58.6% (n=356)	41.4% (n=252)	100.0% (n=608)

Table-12: Chi-Square Test

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	304.514	2	.000

Graph-1: Perception of reading skills

Perceptions Related to Skill of Reading Textbooks/ Law Review Journals
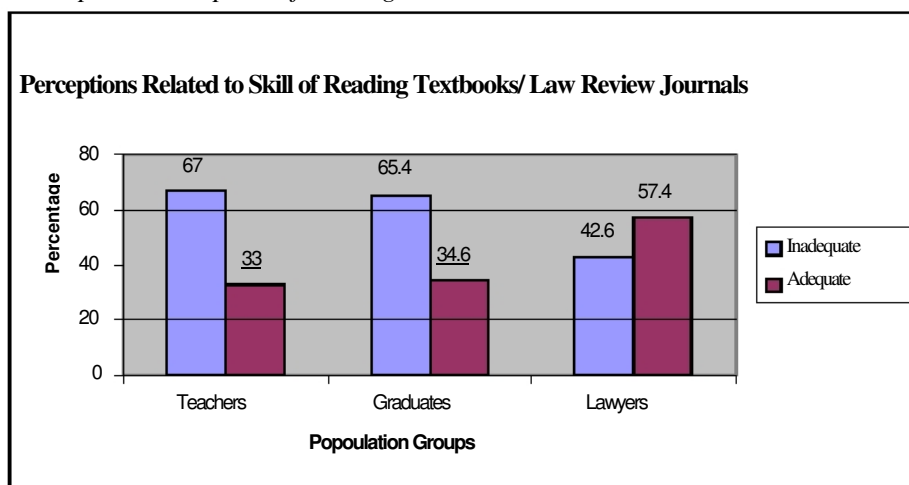
Graph-2: Combined group perception

Combined Groups' Perceptions with Regard to Skill of Reading Textbooks/Law Review Journals
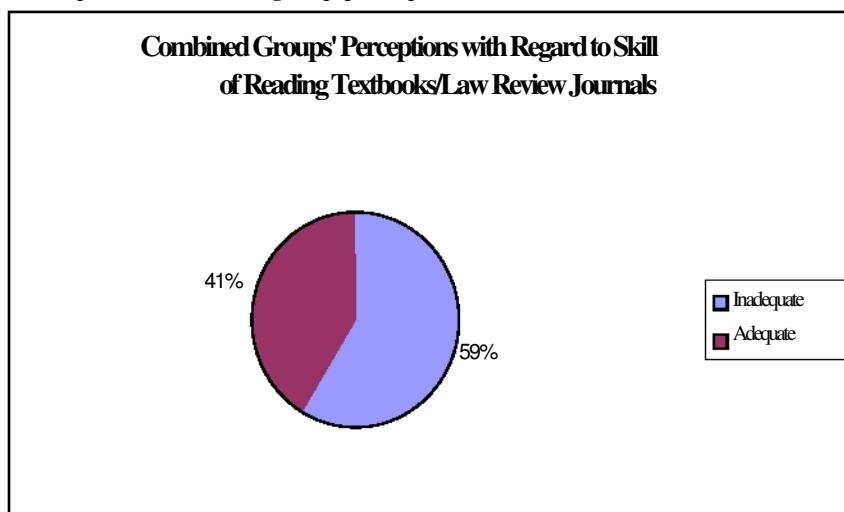
Qualitative Analysis
In this section, I will provide qualitative findings related to reading of textbooks/law review journals.

The questionnaires that were distributed to teachers of law, recent law graduates and senior lawyers had an open ended item as the participants were required to comment on reading comprehension of statutes. The total number of returned questionnaires in the case of these three questionnaires was 624. Out of 624, the number of missing data was 97 as 521 participants provided their comments on this item. From the responses of 521 participants, 2 themes emerged which are outlined below:

> Theme 1: Legal text books have difficult language
> Theme 2: Training required

Theme 1
Legal textbooks/law review journals have difficult language
Out of 521 respondents in total, 325 fall under this category. These include 110 graduates, 117 teachers and 98 senior lawyers.

The respondents who fall in this category perceive that legal textbooks have difficult language. The respondents believe that the difficulty is due to the complex nature of legal language which is distinct from General English (GE). Most respondents commented on the difficulty of vocabulary. It was also noticed that that the archaic nature of legal language cause difficulty in terms of understanding the lexical items. A great number of respondents mentioned that within legal textbooks/law review journals, there are different types of sub-genres of legal English: a textbook/law review journal comprises of various extracts: statutes, parts of legal judgments and philosophical discussions. Each has its own style, which causes difficulty in comprehension. Below, I present some extracts of the participants that took part in the survey.

A law student mentioned in his comments regarding the existing level of competence with reference to legal textbooks:
… our text books are the worst ones. They are written very bad manner. I have a feeling of very difficulty because its words are not from common life. Words are very old and we doesn't use these words in our lives. Then, how I can understand them.

A recent law graduate opined:
… while studying law we felt that the English written in our textbooks are not from this world. It was from somewhere else. It was too difficult. Words were difficult. Sentences were difficult. Understanding was difficult. Everything was difficult. Jumping from

statutes to argument and then again from argument to statute was also something that made everything very complex. We were in difficulty. …

Similarly, the following extract taken from a senior lawyer's response is worth mentioning:

According to my opinion, the recent law graduates that work under my supervision for the sake of having training in their recently started profession of practicing law feel difficulty in adequately comprehending the legal points given in law review journals. Most of them take much more time than the time they should have taken in reading the assigned tasks related to law review journals. For them, the language of these law review journals is tough.

Theme 2
Training Required
Out of 521 respondents in total, 196 fall under this category. These include 90 graduates, 55 teachers and 51 senior lawyers.

Respondents from all the three population groups under discussion believed that some sort of training is required to improve the understanding of legal textbooks/law review journals. For them, the language of law is difficult to understand due to its complex nature with reference to sentence structures, lexicon and discourses. Moreover, there is complexity of thought patterns that is very clearly reflected in the legal textbooks/law review journals. Therefore, to cope with situation learners should be given special training sessions to equip them with the understanding of legal texts produced in textbooks and law review journals. Without the training sessions, learners' ability to get appropriate meaning from the text in an appropriate time will remain inadequate. The following extracts are the examples in this context.

A law student commented:
What is our fault? We are not having any sort of practice or training in understanding our legal textbooks which are in complex English. Nobody can learn anything without training. The government should made policies in ways which is giving us lot of training to us and this will made us good reader of our legal textbooks.

Another participant in the survey viewed the situation in the following manner:
I have done my law degree very recently. We faced problems in studying law in English but we were to study it. Because language of law is English due to our heritage. Still, I feel difficulty in fully understanding laws in English whether in textbooks or law review journals. So, the only solution is giving us training in a special manner to understand law fully.

The following comment from a senior lawyer is valuable:
In the developed world, institutions of legal education provide a special course of legal English to their students. This course equips students with tools to understand the complex nature of legal language written in law review journals and in other forms as well. We should also do the same.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I have reported the findings related to reading in academic and professional legal settings with reference to textbooks/law review journals. Perceptions of the three groups have been reported: teachers, recent graduates and senior lawyers. According to the analysis reported above, it is evident that the level of adequacy for reading of textbooks/ law review journals and statutes is not up to the mark. The respondents, who believe that learners have inadequate ability in reading textbooks/law review journals, are 58.6%. Although this percentage is not very high, majority believe that learners have inadequate competence with this regard. Findings of the qualitative analysis revealed that the language of textbooks and law review journal is complex causing difficulty in comprehension; however, a course that provides training will help in this regard. This shows that quantitative findings correlate with the qualitative findings. The study is highly useful in a number of ways: 1) no earlier empirical study was available with refrence to reading comprehension of textbooks and law review journals. 2) the study findings provide useful insights to the stakeholders: policy makers, law teachers, material designers and textbook writers in this context.

References

Ahmad, N. (2009). Developing and Implementing Legal English Course to Develop the Rule of Law in the Context of Transition in Pakistani Society. In *The Export of Legal Education: Its Promise and Impact in Transition Countries*. Ronald A. Brand and D. West Rist (Eds). Farham: Ashgate

Ahmad, N. (2006). *Legal English: A Case for ESP* PhD Thesis, Department of English, Bahauddin Zakariya University.

Berk-Seligson, S. (2002). *The Bilingual Courtroom: Court Interpretations in the Judicial Process*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press

Bhatia, V. K. (1987). Language of the Law. In *Language Teaching: The international abstracting journal for language teachers and applied linguists,* 18 (2): 228-234

Candlin, C.N., V. K. Bhatia and C. H. Jensen (2002). Developing legal writing materials for English second language learners: problems and perspectives. In *English for Specific Purposes*, 22 (1): 299-320.

Charrow, V. R. and J. A. Crandall (1978). *Legal Language: What is it and what can we do about it?* Arlington, Va: American Institute of Research and Center for Applied Linguisti.

Danet, B. (1980a). Language in the legal process. In *Law and Society Review,* 14: 445-564.

Feak, C. B., S. M. Reinhart and A. Sinsheimer (2000). A preliminary analysis of law review notes. In *English for Specific Purposes*, 19: 197-220.

Swales, J. M. (1981). Definitions in Science and Law-evidence for subject-specific course component. In *Fachsprache*, 3 (4): 106-11.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in academic and research settings*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wickrama, D. U. W. (1982). Linguistic features of commercial law texts and their pedagogical implications. M.Sc. thesis, LSU, University of Aston in Birmingham.

Academic Reflection on Politics of Federalism in Pakistan during Ayub Regime

RaziaMusarrat

YasminRoofi

Muhammad Salman

Azhar   Mohammad Mohsin

Javed

Abstract

The paper analyzes the federal system introduced in Pakistan under the constitution of 1962. The rise of Ayub regime was end of the federal democracy in Pakistan as well as loss of any chance for Bengalis, the majority partners of Pakistan, to participate in the country's power structure through constitutional means. The period of military rule was absolutely dominated by the West Pakistanis appeared to the Bengalis as alien rule. The constitution of 1962 provided only a central legislative list of subjects but did not identify any concurrent or provisional list. The Bengalis, the majority partners of Federation of Pakistan lost their chance in power sharing through constitutional means. Paper analyzes that superior status of the center was maintained in so for as the provinces were denied exclusive jurisdiction over any subject and provincial autonomy was ignored which is the corner stone of successful federal system.

Keywords: Legislation, Federalism, Centralization, Provincial Autonomy, Constitution

Introduction

The constitution of 1962 described the country as "a form of federation with the provinces enjoying such autonomy as is consistent with the unity and interests of Pakistan as whole" (constitution of 1962) in the constitution of 1956 Pakistan was described as a federal republic, the central government as a federal government, the central list of subjects as a federal list. In the constitution of 1962 the word "federal" was replaced by work "central" and the state was simply designated as the Republic of Pakistan. A perusal of constitution showed that, except for the preamble, the expression "Federal" was not used anywhere else in the entire document. (Ahmad, 1920)In practice the "interests of Pakistan" had a peculiar habit of coinciding with the interests of the power block dominated by Punjabis, Muhajirs and Pusthuns (Alqama, 1995).

Professor, Department of Political Science, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, e-mail: drrazia_mussarat@yahoo.com

Assistant Professor, Department of Political Science, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

Lecturer, Department of Management Science, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

M.Phill Scholar, Department of Political Science, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

As for the structural distribution of power between the center and the provinces, the constitution favored the center. Though Pakistan was declared to be a form of federation and provisions were made to give provinces a high degree of local autonomy. Provisions were made for governor, council of ministers and assembly for the provinces (Articles 66, 70, 80). The provincial executive did not have coordinate or equal status with the central executive organ; rather it was subordinate to the directions of the governor. The governor of province being appointed by the president, therefore in the performance of his functions was subordinate to the directions of the president (Article 80) similar was the provision under the 1956 constitution, but it must be remembered that under the constitution of 1956 feral executive authority in the provinces was exercised by the provincial cabinets which was responsible to the provincial legislature So under the constitution of 1962 the governor was not merely a figure head but the holder of the real executive authority in the provinces. However the governor could not appoint or remove a provincial Minister without the consent of the president, so all the provincial executive authority was directly subordinate to the president. Such concentration of power is against the spirit of federalism. According to the rules of business if there is any disagreement between a secretary and his minister, the mater has to be placed before the governor for final decision. (Khan, 1967) So far as the constitutional position is concerned, it is clear that the center's control over the provinces had been stated in unmistakable terms.

Similarly, in a conflict between the governor and the provincial assembly the matter will be referred to the National Assembly for resolving the dead lock. The National Assembly was therefore given a power of interference and arbitration in the provincial matter which again is contrary to the true federal principle. However, the centralization of authority gave stability and policy coherence to the regime in comparison with the instability of the civilian regime. It did not foster the process of bargaining and consensus building essential in federation which is always a multiethnic polity. The constitution of 1962 created in effect only one national institution the presidency.

Ch. Muhammad Ali had described it as, "Government of the president, by the president and for the president" (Sayeed, 1967). Limiting the powers of National Assembly meant limiting the scope for the Bengali counter elite's participation in the system. Since all power was concentrated in the hands of the president and since Ayub's real power was more personal than institutional, the participation provided in the 1962 constitution was very limited indeed. It was also in contradiction to Ayub's own view on the issue of provincial autonomy expressed in his 1954 memorandum. In his memorandum of 1954 Ayub expressed that there was need for treating the Bengalis as equal partners. This he thought was possible only by granting the provincial autonomy and that means in addition to the subjects already in their hands, communication except interprovincial industries, commerce, health, commerce etc. should be handed over to the provinces, and

only defense, foreign affairs and currency in the hands of the center. With his rise to power, Ayub's views on the issue of provincial autonomy also changed.

Besides the administrative and legislative control which the central government through the president exercised, the provisions of emergency made in Article 30 (b) of the constitution gave the president the power to proclaim emergency if he was satisfied that a grave situation exists in which the security or economic life of Pakistan is threatened by internal disturbance beyond the power of the provincial government to control.

Judged by the criteria of federal system provided under the constitution seems to be peculiarly lacking in some of the essential characteristics of the federal system. There was, for instance division of legislative powers between the two sets of government. But contrary to well established practices in federal constitution, the responsibility of deciding whether a legislature central or provincial, had the power under that constitution to make a law as that of the legislature itself and the validity of a law could not be called in question on the ground that the legislature by which it was made had no power to make the law (Article 133). This Article clearly restricted the power of the court to decide whether a legislature in framing laws had over stepped the central or provincial domain. However this article had been designed only to restrict the power of the courts and not that of the central legislature, the judiciary had any control over the central legislature when it crossed its legislative domain in the name of national interest, a power guaranteed to the center under Article 131 (Sayeed, 1967).

Judiciary had been specifically debarred from acting as an umpire between the two sets of authority. Moreover there was no any other impartial machinery for interpretation as in United States the Supreme Court performs the duty of umpire.

The distribution of legislative power under the Government of India Act 1935 was unique in its character. It had three lists of powers. Following the model of that Act, the 1956 constitution also divided the lists of subjects into central, concurrent and provincial. The constitution of 1962 however, provided a central list of subjects but did not identify a concurrent or provincial list. (Ziring, 1971) Hence it was assumed that those subjects not found in the third schedule of the constitution were the responsibility of the provincial governments. Article 131 of the constitution,

According to Raunaq Jehan,"Granted the center overriding power to legislate for the whole or any part of Pakistan, whenever the national interest in relation to security (including economic and financial stability), planning or coordination, or the achievement of uniformity in any matter in different parts of Pakistan so required'(Jehan,1972).

The constitution of 1962 gave forty nine subjects in comparison with thirty subjects under the 1956 constitution, on which the central government had exclusive powers of legislation and proceeds.

In case of dead lock between the Provincial Assembly and the Governor, the matter was referred to the National Assembly for resolution (Article 74) So the essentially superior status of the center was maintained in so for as the provinces were denied exclusive jurisdiction over any subject. In this way provincial autonomy was injured which is the cornerstone of successful federal system. Jehan (1972) is of the opinion that the constitution of 1962"Provided a highly centralized political structure". Commenting on the Constitution of 1962 it may be said that the constitution had a quasi-federal structure. Sayeed (1967) also expressed his views that it would be difficult to describe Pakistani federalism as even quasi federal the provinces were expected to function as mere administrative agencies very much like local governments, in a unitary state. Moreover Ayub's 1962 constitution established a de-facto unitary form of government having a strong central government. Feldman (1985) summarized the position in the words, "A unitary form of government would probably be congenial to East Pakistan and less congenial to the Western Province".

On the other hand, that form of federal administration in which the center exercised extensive powers of administrative and financial control, especially with reference to trade, industry and government expenditure generally was less acceptable to the East wing -such a highly centralized political structure. Bengalis had for a long time demanded a federal parliamentary government with full regional autonomy but Ayub Khan introduces highly centralized political structure. It was naturally on anathema to the Bengali Counter elite. Ali (1985) explains that the constitution of 1962 tightened the federal grip over the provinces".

In view of the extensive powers of the president without necessary checks and balances and the subdued position of the indirectly elected National Assembly, the federal aspect of the constitution lost its significance. It may be commented that we believe in the grand conception "one country, one people one government, one legislature and one purse politically this period saw the formalization of centralized executive rule.

For the country's political and social malaises Ayub sought the remedy in full concentration of power in his person. Ayub's constitution, by creating one strong institution at the cost of participation by other groups, limited their stake in the system. He neither had the mandate from the nation to frame a constitution nor was the constitution put to referendum. It was imposed on the people. To large number of Pakistanis both in East and West Pakistan, the constitution of 1962 was like a jacket which has been put on the country to obtain political stability.

The formal manifestation of regional subjugation was contained in the 1962 constitution which embodied the dominance of an unrepresentative central government (Noman, 1988). While stressing centralization the regime recognized the people's need for a sense of participation in the system. It is imperative to note that the participation was controlled and urban areas were disfranchised, and the rural areas were mobilized as a counter weight.

The East Pakistanis felt that parliamentary government did not fail in Pakistan, but it was not allowed to work there. Again the same mistake was made instead of opting for a federal form of government and a consociation type of executive power elite decided in favor of highly centralized unitary government with a strong central rule.

It may be said that in Montague Chelmsford reforms of 19l9; power was kept firmly under colonial grip. At the provincial level diarchy was a shadow more than the substance of devolution. All that they were willing to concede was a degree of autonomy to the provinces. Provincial autonomy therefore, came not as a result of agitation in the provinces for self-government but as a concession to the freedom movement, the demand for strong provinces was persistently pressed by the Muslim expression of fear of Hindu domination in India from which Pakistan held out a hope of deliverance. A strong center in the new state was intended to meet the challenge to its survival. However overwhelming the advantage of a unitary center, for a country essential like Pakistan, geographically divided into two separated regions, a federal center was inevitable. But even a federally constituted center could be a powerful and unifying force, if capable of evoking the loyalties of the people by a dedication to the ideals of nationalism and democracy. Pakistan was a demand for a separate homeland for the Muslims of the subcontinent as a whole. The patriotic feeling which had the movement, however did not last long. The broad based nationalism soon gave way to partisan and parochial politics, both at the center and in the provinces.

Whatever the grounds for the advocacy of a strong center, the identity of the provinces and the autonomy exercised by them in the pre-independence period, could not simply be brushed aside. The provinces were there to stay unless and until, of their volition, they decided to abdicate the powers inheriting in them under the constitution. So long as the Quaid-e-Azam was alive, the center was all powerful. The people had every hope of getting a fair deal from him and no fears of discriminatory treatment. But after his death the struggle for place arid power began; so constitutionally federal government became central. Managed or mismanaged by leaders with tenuous claims to leadership, it fell into the trap of a power hungry bureaucracy.

Forcibly suppressed, the demand for autonomy asserted itself more vigorously than ever before. The political order gave hardly any scope to East Pakistanis for effective and

equal participation in national affairs. They had no share in decision making process. In any vital national issue they could only react, they could never act. No self-respecting group could tolerate this state of affairs. Nationalism cannot be expected to flourish in vacuum. It is only through participation and sharing responsibility that people develop national feelings, there was hardly any scope for the East Pakistanis to develop common national feelings with the West Pakistanis apart from the religious bond of Islam. So they became more and more conscious of region rather religion. The Islamic ideology, on which Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah had based Pakistan, began to fade away and regional feelings grew fast in East Pakistan. It is natural that the East Pakistani politicians would be against such a constitution for the simple reason that the National Assembly was the only institution where they could try to redress the balance of power in favor of their province against a government which was dominated by West Pakistanis. They started thinking that there had been a conspiracy to concentrate power in the hands of certain West Pakistani circles. The constitution provided for a unicameral system whereas most existing federal systems have a bicameral system. The National Assembly would have 156 members 78 from each wing (Chudhary, 1962). Six seats were reserved for women three East and Three from West Pakistan.

The East Pakistanis felt that their majority was reduced to equality in the National Assembly. According to Maniruzzaman (1982), "The 1962 constitution did provide for parity of representation between East and West Pakistan in the National Assembly but the parity formula of 1955-56 was based on the twin premises that there would be a parliamentary system of government in Pakistan and that the legislature would have the sovereign power to make and unmake the government". Inspire of East Pakistan having larger population, was treated in representative House equal to West Pakistan having less population. This parity formula was anti majority rule and runs against the democratic principle so was totally unsatisfying.

Sheikh (1986) asserted that the political limitations of parity became increasingly apparent under Ayub's rule. She further said that " for not only was the National Assembly effectively deprived of any means of representing even what might have been construed as the national political consensus but the very existence of any semblance of formal parity beyond the confines of the central legislature, seemed to be in doubt". The National Assembly had no effective control over the executive, legislative or financial powers which of course reduced its overall significance. The President who was from West Pakistan enjoyed enormous Dowers. More over the members of the Assembly were not elected by universal adult franchise but were instead elected by "Basic Democrats" and six women were chosen by the members of Provincial Assemblies. Thus the main political representatives of Ayub Government did not represent the public opinion of the country (Jehan, 1972). According to Rashiduzzaman, (1969-70), "it was dominated by the government party, which was unwilling to tolerate or deal constructively with an

95

opposition" There was no scope far East Pakistanis to participate in decisions at the highest level of state of authority During the period of Ayub rule no East Pakistani has even gone within one hundred yards of the highest decision-making centers of Pakistan. A remarkable provision, aimed at ensuring harmony between the two wings, actually gave the country two federal capitals a political one at Dacca, where the National Assembly would meet, and an administrative one at Rawalpindi. The same purpose was sought by providing that if the president was absent or sick, the elected speaker of the National Assembly should act for him and that if the person who held the former post was a West Pakistani, the later must be an East Pakistani and vice versa (Stephen, 1967).

The government announced that on 28 April 1962, the first National Assembly election under the new constitution would be held. The political parties were banned. The leaders of the progressive political parties of East Pakistan who had been arrested under the Elective Bodies Disqualified Order (EBDO) decided to boycott the election and launch a mass movement to restore democracy.(Bhuiyan,1982) Before EBDO, on March 25, 1959, the Public Officer (Disqualification), Order (PODO) was promulgated, which also prescribed disqualification from becoming a member of an elective body for up to 15 years if the accused went before a tribunal and was found guilty of corruption, the non EBDO free politicians, who were generally second-echelon political leaders were in favour of giving the constitution a try, of working through the constitution to change the system. So the Bengali counter elite participated in the election, though they did so sore on an individual than a party basis, meant in effect that they complied with the regimes system. Nevertheless, by failing to accommodate the "first string" of political leaders, the participation provided by the constitution proved inadequate and, indeed, counterproductive (Ahmed, 1986). The new National Assembly showed the same differences between East and West Pakistan members as had existed in the past See the follows.

Table-1: Age distribution of members of National Assembly, 1962 and 1965

Age Group	East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	1962	1965	1962	1965
40 or below	25	17	35	31
40 to 49	12	30	22	21
50 or above	36	28	19	18

Source: Ahmad (1970). Government and Politics in Pakistan, P.235.

Table No.1 shows age distinction of members of the National Assembly from East and West Pakistan in 1962 and 1965.

Table-2: Education of members of the National Assembly, 1962 and 1965

	East 1962	Pakistan 1965	Wet 1962	Pakistan 1965
Graduate and above	55	58	36	35
Matric and above	4	10	15	20
Below Matric	10	5	14	14

Source: Jehan (1972).Pakistan Failure in National Integration,. P147.

Table No.2 indicates the educational position of the members of National Assembly from East Pakistan and West Pakistan in 1962 and 1965.

Table-3: Occupation of members of the National Assembly, 1962 and 1965

	East 1962	Pakistan 1965	Wet 1962	Pakistan 1965
Lawyers	27	30	17	11
Businessman and	9	20	4	10
Industrialists Land Lords	4	7	38	32
Other	23	19	8	18

Source: Jehan (1972). Pakistan: Failure in National Integration, P. 147.

Table No.3 highlights the differences in occupation of the members between East and West Pakistan. The East and West Pakistani members of the National Assembly differed not only in age, literacy and socio economic back ground as well as their attitudes towards the regime and constitution. The grouping which emerged in the Assembly showed that the majority of opposition leaders came from East Pakistan whereas the majority of supporters of the regime and the constitution were from West wing. The division of the Assembly thus reflected the general picture in the country, it was a division between the political haves and political have not' and not a division between differing economic and social programmes.

Elected on a non-party basis, the National Assembly was not properly organized for the discharge of its functions. The House was a collection of unattached individuals and various groups with no affiliation to parties and no commitments to programmes.
The grouping of the members was an invitation to group politics, giving group leader a lever to bargain with the president. The concept of the Government and the opposition inside the House in the Parliamentary system had reappeared in the new Presidential system. It was on Parliamentary lines that the Assembly functioned, Ministers and their supporters sitting on the Treasury Benches, advocating government policies and the opposition criticizing those policies. Initially the East Pakistani opposition members tried to focus their attention on national rather than regional issues but as the regime

strengthened its hold in the Assembly, the East Pakistani opposition members increasingly turned their attention to regional issues, and questions about economic disparity and East Pakistan's problems began to assume priority for them. It was not a good sign in a federation.

As the regional question increased in number, the tone of the Bangeli demands changed. In 1948-49, the Bengali complaint had been mainly one of neglect, accompanied by a demand that the central governments do more for East Pakistan. By 1955; however, the complaint of neglect had become a complaint of exploitation. And by 1963, the complaint against the central government and a political clique had turned into an alignment in a bitter, general, east - west controversy.

There should be partnership of Provinces on the basis of equality and mutual respect. But there was neither statutory provisions establishing the administrative relationship between the center and the provinces. Neither provinces nor the government adopted such policies which satisfied East Pakistanis. It may be said that the structural distribution of powers favored the center and the presidency. An unrealistic idea that "only a strong center can keep Pakistan together" was dominating. But the government elites never knew East Pakistan well or they were representing the class of the vested interests. The necessary political understanding required for a national integration was missing and the people of two regions began to move away from each other very fast. But in spite of regionalism, the National Assembly of 1962 had been able to focus its attention on important national issues, political parties, fundamental rights, franchise and foreign policy. East Pakistani opposition members even focused on interest in the regional problems of 'West Pakistan.

Infect, the 1962 Assembly was a great educating device for the liberal democratic forces of the country and it managed to mobilize nationally at least the opposition of the two wings, but the masses had not yet been reached. They were nationally mobilized by the elections of 1964-65. The members of the National Assembly of 1965 were elected, on party basis because the Political Parties Act, 1962 had facilitated the rebirth of political parties(Mujahid,1965), The composition of the Assembly would have been very different at the elections preceded and not followed the election of the President. After the defeat of opposition presidential candidate, whatever independence the Electoral College had enjoyed earlier, was gravely undermined. The future of Basic Democracies, the more aptly, of the Basic Democrats was bound up with the administration which was already under the control of the President. From that source alone they could hope for patronage and powers not from the Assembly. The election of the Assembly had therefore, lacked the urgency and sense of purpose so vigorously displayed in the presidential polls. The opposition never had any faith in the efficacy and impartiality of indirect elections. After the defeat of Miss Fatima Jinnah, criticism on Basic Democracies became more

pronounced. As a result the Combined Opposition's performance in the National Assembly election was disastrous.

In a House of 150, Ayub's Pakistan Convention Muslim League won 120 seats the opposition secured only 15 seats and remaining went tri the independent candidates (Bhuyen, 1982). The election results indicated clearly that the National Assembly was completely dominated by the President Ayub Khan and his ruling party, the Pakistan Convention Muslim League. This provided opposition members gave no opportunity to challenge the regime. This was more so because the constitution armed the government enormous powers, of which a good example is President's powers. The President once elected became a constituent part of the National Assembly without being responsible to it, the President was not accountable the legislature for his acts. He had ample scope to hinder the law making process of the legislature casting a further aspersion on the sovereignty of the legislature. The president could either assent to the bill or refer the matter for referendum on the question whether such bill should or should not be assented to under Article 24 of the constitution.

Control of the purse is power which every legislature is supposed to exercise either there is presidential or parliamentary system. The fact remains that the financial powers giver to the National Assembly under the presidential system were much less than those its predecessors enjoyed during the parliamentary regimes. In a parliamentary system, because of the control of the cabinet over the parliament, the financial powers enjoyed by a legislature are not as great as those enjoyed by the American Congress. The National Assembly of Pakistan which functioned under a presidential system seems to enjoy financial powers which were far inferior to legislatures of either the presidential or parliamentary variety. Indeed, by restricting the powers of Assembly in such way, the government seems to suggest that even the educated few, who had been elected to the National Assembly, were not yet mature and responsible enough to control the executive, the opposition therefore spent most of its time in the .Assembly in eliciting information and venting grievances.

They looked upon these factions as especially important because the press and other media of communication are being increasingly controlled by the regime. Moreover, the West Pakistani component of the opposition in the National Assembly was very small compared to that of East Pakistan and as such it assumed the character of a sort of regional opposition. The opposition leaders were increasingly frustrated and reduced in importance by the handicaps under which they had to work within the Assembly. It is a fact that the East Pakistani participation in the new political system established under Ayub's constitution was limited because the representative institutions were weak participation in these bodies failed the Bengali elite a sense of effective power-sharing.

Jehan (1972) was of the view that, "Limiting the power of the National Assembly meant limiting the scope for Bengali counters elite's (and that of other sub-nation groups) participation in the system". In the later years of Ayub's rule, the regime adopted repressive measures and the Bengali political opposition representation continued to dwindle. At that time Abdul Monem Khan, the Governor of East Pakistan adopted a strict policy towards the opposition parties and leaders. Infect his policy towards them was one of total suppression. It must he argued that the 'center could control and manipulate even the minutest detail of East Pakistan administration.

It may be concluded that the regime failed to accommodate the Bengali view because it looked upon the demand for autonomy in East Pakistan as being essential by inspired by Communists, Hindus and Indian agents and as posing a threat of disintegration to the country. Clearly the underlying principle here was to the East Pakistanis not what they wanted but what the regime thought was good for them. Since the constitution did not satisfy any of the Bengali counter elite's demands, its introduction was followed by wide spread public protest in East Pakistan.

References

Ahmad, M. (1970). *Government and Politics in Pakistan*, Karachi: Space Publishers.

Ali, M. (1985). Federalism and Regionalism in Pakistan in Research series, Vol. 1, Karachi: Pakistan Study Center Karachi University.

Alqama, K. (1995). *Bengali Elites Perceptions of Pakistan: The Road to Disillusionment: Uneven Development of Ethnicity?* Karachi: Royal Book Company.

Bhuiyan, Md. A.W. (1982). *Emergence of Bangladesh and Role of Awani League*, New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

Chudhary, G.W. (1969). *Constitutional Development in Pakistan*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Feldman, H. (1967). *Revolution in Pakistan*.

Government of Pakistan (1962). *The Constitution of Republic of Pakistan,* Karachi: Government of Pakistan.

Jehan, R. (1972). *Pakistan: Failure in National Integration*, New York: Columbia University Press.

Jehan, R. (1970). *The Years of Ayub Khan and the Problem of National Integration*. Oxford University Press.

Khan, M. A. (1967). *Friends not Master.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Mahmood, Dr. S, (2000). Pakistan: Political Roots and Development, Karachi: Oxford University Press.

Maniruzzaman, T. (1982). *Group Interests and Political Changes: Studies of Pakistan*

and Bangladesh, New Delhi: South Asian Publishers Pvt. Ltd.

Mujahid S. (1965). *The Assembly Election in Pakistan*, Asian Survey.

Noman, O. (1988). *The Political Economy of Pakistan 1947-85*, London: KPI Limited.

Rashiduzzan, M. (1969-70). National Assembly of Pakistan under the 1962 Constitution*, Pacific Affairs, Vol. XLll*. Columbia: University of British.

Sayeed, K. B. (1967). *The Political System of Pakistan*, Boston: Houghton Miffin Company.

Sayeed, K. B. (1965). The Political System of Pakistan, Oxford University Press.

Sheikh, F. (1986). Islam and the Quest for Democracy in Pakistan, *Journal of Common Wealth and Comparative Politics*; 6, 2

Stephen, I. (1967). *Pakistan*, London: Ernest Benn Ltd.

Talbot, I (1999) Pakistan: A Modern History, Karachi:

Oxford University Press.

Ziring, L. (1971). *The Ayub Khan Era: Politics in Pakistan 1958-69*, New York: Syracuse University Press.

Ziring, L. (1999) Pakistan in Twentieth

Century, Karachi: Oxford University

Press.

101

TO THE READER

The Journal of Educational Research is an HEC Recognized Journal; published twice a year. It is indexed with Directory of Open Access Journals, IndexCopernicus, EBSCO, and Ulrichs' Directory. The primary aim of the journal is to encourage and co-ordinate research in all the areas of education. Authors are desired to send two copies of their paper, not previously published along with computer disc according to the following guidelines.

1. Reports of original educational research, reviews of recent research in all educational areas or discussion articles on research topics will be preferred.
2. The article should be in English.
3. The article should begin with a brief summary, and should not normally exceed 3000 words.
4. The intrinsic interest of the article, conciseness and clarity are important considerations.
5. Technical jargon should be avoided, and where possible statistical data should be summarized in the text, although tables may be included if clearly presented.
6. Authors are encouraged to describe their findings in terms intelligible to the non-expert reader.
7. Reference should be in the following pattern: -
    [i]   Author's name (Surname, Initials)
    [ii]   Edition No. (if any)
    [iii]   Publishing Year
    [iv]   Book's name
    [v]   publishing place (e.g. country)
    [vi]   Publishing company
    [vii]   Page No. (if any)

Authors receive one complementary copy of the journal.

Inquiries comments and suggestions are welcome and should be addressed to:

The Chairman
Editorial Board,
Department of Education
Islamia University, Bahawalpur
(iub.journal@gmail.com)

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

| Vol.14 No.2 | 2011 |

Inquiries, comments and suggestions are welcomed and should be addressed to:

The Chairman
Editorial Board
Department of Education
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
(iub.journal@gmail.com)

103