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Parental Approaches for Educating Children in Bahawalpur, Pakistan

Nasreen Akhter*
Humara Bano**

Abstract

Results of this paper are based on a survey study aiming to detect the approaches of parents regarding education of children in Pakistan. It used data collected through questionnaire from 759 intermediate level students and found out some styles of parents that negatively affect education of children at school level. These were practice of preferring son or daughter, polarization in case of decision making regarding education such as subject selection, preferring tuition instead of helping themselves or contacting teachers and ignoring call by school. Study suggested parents to apprehend the desires and necessities of siblings, and to adopt approaches helpful in promotion of children through better educational process.

Key words: Parental approaches, Gender discrimination, Polarization, Segregation

Introduction

Education is generally considered learning at school but in reality educational process is related to both school and home. A child spends some hours at school and most of time with the family. Role of family in education and personality development of a person is vital. Family provides basis for role of a person in society. From first day of life, child starts observing parents. He smells sense of love in the lap of mother and shelter of father. This situation remains same almost in all societies especially until the child becomes an adult. After getting independence in life at young age too, every one turns to family members, especially to parents in severe difficult situations and expects family to help him to face cruel realities of life. Parents have lot of loving and caring attitudes for children at all stages in all societies of the world.

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In developing and under developing societies, parental role is different from developed societies. Conditions in a poor family are severe for every member. Socio-economic status (SES) related factors such as wealth, status, education and prestige depicts attitudes of human beings too. Observations show that economic conditions of life, environment of area, prestige of a person in society create different styles in human beings. Parents introduce picture of life to child from their own angle. In the process of education, parents also affect differently the educational and personality grooming of their child.

Parents belonging to different socio economic status, life conditions and having different experiences react differently to their children. From educational perspective, some approaches of parents help children for better learning. Many styles of parent, on the other hand leave bad effects on education and training of a child. It is valuable to study the role of parents and their helping styles for the education of their children to improve parenting styles and educate people especially in educationally poor areas. Therefore, keeping in view the role and importance of parents and family in the process of education of a child, this study was conducted to explore different variables related to parental preferred attitudes and styles towards education of their children.

**Review of Related Literature**

Parental supportive styles and attitudes influence child’s attainment level at school. Some parents know these effective skills. In view of many educationists and researchers, parents need to adopt those attitudes that affect positively the learning of students. Some positive and negative attitudes of parents have been discussed below.

**Encouraging styles**

Some parents encourage their children to read. They support children by not only providing good facilities for studies such as good books and other resources needed but also encourage children to read at home. They ask children about their homework. They help children in studies and react positively to school report, whereas parents do not take interest in educational activities of children at home, children show poor reports at school. Therefore, it is better to encourage children on good results and try to understand student’s problems in case of poor performance.

Some parents practice physical punishment or emotional abuses also at poor performance of their children. This attitude is not good. An average attitude (not too strict or too loose) is always appreciated. Kothari (2003, p.466) viewed “parents should not discourage the children. They should serve as friends and philosophers to them”. Encouragement of children on doing well strengthens children to perform excellent in future. Tension hinders the fluency or success of educational process. If parents create tensions and frustration by abusing, punishing or stressing, children can tense. Hurlock
(2005, p.509) viewed, “parents are good for example, if they help the children, but ‘bad’ if they frustrate them.” This shows good parents never try to frustrate their children. They remain trying to provide relaxed environment at home because it directly affects the attitude and thinking of children.

**Segregation and abusing**

Segregation (differentiation between son and daughter) is an indicator of child abuse in our society. No doubt, children in some cultures are entirely powerless because they are dependent on their parents and guardians for their most of basic needs. Families with weaknesses are more likely to come in criteria to adopt this behavior because of their problems. Abusing child may be physical, emotional or neglect can be harmful for a child not only physically but also can harm other aspects of a child’s personality. It can harm performance of children at school and society. Kay (2003, p.34) views, “the children be abused at home can leave physical, emotional and psychological problems. These can include physical injury, anxiety, nervousness, aggressiveness and inability to participate in experiences of enjoyment.”

In Pakistani society, child abuse is condemned socially and religiously but prevails in the form of segregation and neglect of girls. Segregation between son and daughter is adept in almost all social groups. Mahadevan (2007) viewed, a girl is supposed to be a liability for parents. Education of a girl is thought as unnecessary, waste of energy, waste of time and waste of resources for parents. This viewpoint of parents not only is harmful for promotion of society but also for those whom they prefer. Sometimes this encourages girls to work hard or discourage them to think a useless part of human society.

**Love and care**

Love and care from parents needs helping a child to gain the feeling of stability and harmony. Sometimes, parents neglect their children in some ways. Suppose a child loses his father or mother as result of divorce or unhappy relations between parents, child is left with any one. This badly affects personality of a child. Surfleet (2003, p.39) supported, “it is important to the child’s whole development that his family relationship should be well adjusted. Loss of any parent can develop violent behavior, resistance to authority, bad temper in feelings of inferiority, jealousy or hate in different ways”. In the same way, loving attitude of parents help children gaining confidence. Confidence helps children to perform well and be successful in every field of life.

**Authority for decisions**

Many parents do not adopt the best styles to deal with children in Pakistan. Sometimes they do not allow their children even to take necessary decisions about themselves. It is not good and can badly affect the performance of their children not
only in the field of education but also in all aspects of a child’s personality. Broom and Selznick (2006, p.98) viewed “within the personal relations of parent and child, the parent’s authority tends to invade every area of life and to frustrate the youth’s expectations of unlimited love and approval.” Remarkably, in general observation some parents do not show confidence on children. They try to give commands to children at all stages instead of leasing them free for deciding their necessary matters of life. In fact, these parents show their authority in every field of life and frustrate their children. It is not a good tradition and must be avoided. It can badly effect the educational attainment of students and can damage the personality of a child.

Proper guidance and helping styles

One of the most important responsibilities of parents is to guide children in proper ways. If child needs some type of help may be in material or non-material form, parental help give confidence to face difficulties boldly. Parents in any case can help children to solve their problems. If sometimes parents cannot solve problem of their children, they can do some other arrangement. It is important to enable child to perform well in education. Kothari (2003, p.29) argued, “children need someone to love them. However, love alone is not enough. Understanding and guidance is necessary”. Each child has a different personality, different needs and even different kind of guidance. It is duty of parents to understand the problems of children and guide them.

School visit routine

It is necessary for parents to visit the school of their children, discuss problems of children with teachers and be aware about their progress. There is strong connection between school visit and academic success. The best and valuable attitude of parents is to meet teachers at school because they can communicate important messages and suggestions about child’s performance. Patten (2000) viewed, attending school occasionally means education of child is very important near to them. It also shows that parents want their children best in attainment. Akhter (2006, p.96) concluded, “children showed best results at school if their parents visited school time by time”. Parents having interest in the best performance of their children try to develop contacts with school and teachers. Parents having interest in education of their children always adopt best styles. They look serious to guide them properly. They try to provide best resources of education to their children.

Objectives of the Study

The study was conducted to achieve following objectives:

1. Explore approaches of parents that they normally adopt about the education of their children.
2. Analyze parents’ approaches keeping in view the effective educational conditions.
3. Recommend some guidelines for parents that can be beneficial for effective education of their children.

**Significance of the Study**

The study has enriched literature related to culture of Pakistan. It has explored knowledge about the background attitudes and expectations of parents that they normally adopt. Findings of this study are helpful for teachers to understand the expectations of parents and problems of students. The study is valuable for parental counseling specifically in Bahawalpur, Pakistan and generally all over the world having cultural similarities with Pakistan.

**Methodology**

Data for study was collected through a self-developed questionnaire depending on statements about behaviors of parents along with a scale. There were two options to collect data. One was to collect data from parents. Second was to collect it from students. First option seemed impossible because parents could provide wrong data to show their ideal role. Moreover, many parents were uneducated and collection of data could be difficult because uneducated parents could not read the questionnaire nor could write their answers. Interview at so large scale also seemed difficult because many parents selected for data could refuse to be interviewed. Moreover, it could be time consuming too. Second option, to collect data from children looked more feasible and appropriate. It was assumed that children could better explain the attitudes of their parents. So students studying at intermediate level were chosen as sample. Intermediate level students (approximately aged 17-19 years) could better express their feelings, observation and experiences about their parents that their parents adopted.

Bahawalpur district from Punjab, Pakistan was selected as sample keeping in view the convenience of researcher to collect data. Total 840 students studying in colleges and higher secondary schools in 11 and 12 grades in Bahawalpur were picked randomly. Questionnaire was distributed to the students selected in sample. At the time of distribution of tool to sample, students were explained about the objectives of data collection to motivate them providing correct information. Data provided by 759 students from 840 was found completely filled and correct by verification process. So, only 759 completely filled questionnaires were selected for analysis. To find out the results of study, percentages of responses were calculated to analyze the data of study.
Findings

Findings of study were based on data of 759 respondents including 50% male and 50% female. Results indicated different positive and negative approaches of parents that have been reported under different classes.

Table 1 shows that majority (69%) of parents wish that their children should be able to learn good ways of life and majority (73%) also desire that education must prepare children to start a business or get good job to be able to earn in future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents aim to educate children to be able spend good life in future.</td>
<td>Yes 69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents wish, education needs to train children “how to establish and run business/ get good job”</td>
<td>Yes 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No 27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 explored that parents discriminate between son and daughter in different matters regarding education of their children. A prominent majority (81%) give importance to son on daughter. Furthermore, majority (71%) spends more on education of sons and majority (65%) differentiates between male and female children as well. This indicates negative approaches of parents towards giving equal educational opportunities to children on basis of their gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education of son is more important than daughter near to parents.</td>
<td>Yes 81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents spend more on education of male children.</td>
<td>Yes 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Son and daughter are equal for parents.</td>
<td>Yes 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No 65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 describes that parents show their authority on children in various manners. Majority (65%) of parents do not allow children to select the subject of their own choice. Majority (61%) also impose students to study subjects according to their will ignoring the selection, interest and choices of students. Only 25% encourage children to do decisions according to their own will and many (56%) do not admire decision of their children regarding choosing options.
Table 3 Parents show authority on children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You selected subject area of your own choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents impose their decisions about the selection of subjects on children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents encourage children to do decisions by self.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents respect decisions of children to choose options.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 depicts styles of parents to encourage them for better studies. It points out that majority (79%) of parents appreciate children on doing well in examinations. Many (57%) also give rewards to students on achieving good position in examinations but majority (67%) discourage children to participate in co-curricular activities and majority (77%) also ignore children’ failure in examinations and school tests.

Table: 4 Does parents encourage students to do well in studies?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents appreciate children on doing well in examinations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents give rewards to children on getting position in tests/examinations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents encourage children participating in co-curricular activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents ignore children in case of having failure in examinations/tests.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 5 Are parents conscious about good performance of children at school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents attend school meetings to discuss progress of children with teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents visit school even they are not called by teachers/Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents require children to help them in household work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents suppose children to study only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents demand children to work for earning to bear expenses for education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 shows some attitudes of parents that indicate their level of realization regarding good attainment of their children at school. It depicts that a prominent majority (87%) of parents ignore school meeting. A great majority (91%) do not do random visit of school to know the performance of children at school. Luckily, many (59%) encourage children to study only and demand no help from them but majority (63%) suppose children to help them in household work and some (11%) demand children to earn for their educational expenditures.

Table 6 explains that parents are serious about the better grades of students. Although, great majority (93%) of educated parents do not help students in study but majority (77%) feel that tuition for remedial studies is necessary. Similarly, majority (71%) of parents arrange tuition for their children to cover their educational deficiencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educated parents help students in study</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents feel tuition/ extra help necessary for better education of children</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents arrange tuition for courses where children feel difficulty</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

Children, no doubt, are most precious for parents. Parents have targets to satisfy needs of their children. They have to earn and spend on upbringing of children. Education is necessary for children to train about demands of society and enable them to adjust in the skeleton of social structure. Children need severe attention of parents. Children belonging to a family enjoying better socio economic status and getting love and care from parents are fortunate in a sense that they grow without many deprivations. Growth of these children is possible with better results. Peaceful environment at home help children to grow without jealousy and frustrated feeling of inferiority. These also influence education and training of children. Results of present study indicate a mix view about the positive and negative approaches of parents to deal educational matters of children. A critical review of these behaviors is given as under.

A positive approach of parents supported by the study includes; parents desire a role of education to enable children to learn and adopt better ways of life. Moreover, they want their children to learn art to establish business or manage job regarding earning point of view (Table: 1). Both of the targets of parents are admirable in a sense that these are necessary to train children to live a balanced life. Furthermore,
approaches of parents “providing incentives (rewards and appreciations) to children on showing good performance at school” (Table: 4) points out parents’ love and care about the good deeds of their children. On the other hand, both of the preferences of parents are good in a sense that they affect positively the performance of children in examinations in coordination of the results of previous study of the author (Akhter, 2006).

Results regarding gender discrimination (Table: 2) indicate negative approach of parents that they differentiate between son and daughter. This attitude is serious in a sense that results of a previous studies of the author (Akhter, 2006) pointed out negative impact of gender discrimination on performance of children at school. No doubt, giving equal attention to son and daughter is necessary for balanced upbringing of children. Results pointed out by the study supporting a view to practice authority on children even in educational matters (Table: 3) indicated that children are not free to decide even “what area of study they have to choose?” as discussed in a previous study of the author (Akhter, 2006), this attitude is harmful from educational point of view. Previous study of the author (Akhter, 2006, p.82) pointed out “children studying courses of their own choices attained best results in examinations”. A student studying subjects against his will and self-choice can never be an interesting task for him. This approach of parents can spoil abilities of children. Parents need to consider that ignoring students’ interest in study can be one of the fundamental mistakes to spoil results of students in examinations also.

Results (showed in table: 5) indicate that parents have a weak contact with teacher at school as they do not attend school meetings. It is critical and shows that parents give less importance to teacher and school. Probably, parents’ approach to arrange tuitions (Table: 6) is also linked with the idea that teacher at school is not doing well for their children. On the other hand, it supports that parents are touchy about the education of their children. They feel that an arrangement for extra help in studies for their children is essential. They arrange tuitions for them even when they are educated (Table: 6). It also indicates a trend in Pakistani society to promote tuition culture. It may be because of that parents are dissatisfied with the coaching by teachers at schools or because of the reason that parents are low educated or uneducated. They feel that whenever child does not show good results at school, arrangement about the private study is necessary. Teachers and administrators of schools need to analyze the situation in such cases and think about “how to accomplish needs of students at school”.

Conclusions

Parents are touchy about the education of their children. They are good to think that education must enable their children to learn the effective skills of good life. They help their children to fulfill their needs regarding education. Although they do not help them in studies but support them to provide extra help in education and celebrate their
educational achievements by giving them rewards. They concentrate problems of children in case of earning poor grades in school. Parents have adopted some approaches that are harmful for children. They do gender discrimination, prefer son on daughter, discourage children to participate in co-curricular activities, ignore parent teacher meetings, feel tuitions necessary for children ignoring target of school to improve deficiencies of students and impose decisions on children even not allow them to study courses of their own choices.

**Recommendations**

1. Government needs to educate parents about the positive attitudes of parenting. Seminars in schools can be conducted and services of media can be taken to achieve the purpose.
2. Parents need to understand that children are best evaluators to decide about the areas of study for them. School and teacher can play role for helping children to adopt the subjects of study that is suitable and according to interest of students. Selection of subjects at secondary level should be based on results of aptitude test.
3. Parents need to respect teachers and rely on school policies. Instead of sending children to tuitions for private study, parents must discuss with teacher about “how to improve children in studies at school”.
4. Remedial coaching classes for weak students must be arranged in all schools to provide extra coaching after school timings.

**References**


Western Education and Social Change in Nigeria: The Case of Ekiti-land in the Twentieth Century

Olukayode Abiodun Faleye*

Abstract

This paper examines the functionality of western education in Nigeria using Ekiti-land as a case study in the twentieth century. It particularly focuses on the social change brought about by the development of western education in the country. The adaptability and responses of actors to the phenomenon were examined. Using case study analysis, this work argued that Western education was functional in the colonial era, but dysfunctional in the post-colonial period due to cultural-lag in the society.

Keywords: Colonialism, Cultural lag, Curriculum, Politics, Social Change, Western Education

Introduction

Western Education came to Africa due essentially to European imperialism in the continent during the nineteenth century. The missionary bodies, merchants and diplomats from Europe found it necessary to institute their educational system in order to support the colonial regime. In Nigeria, Western Education was planted in 1842. The planting of western education at this time was necessary for the spread of Christianity and provision of low and middle manpower for the colonial system. Thus, in the colonial era western education was interwoven with Christianity (Ajayi 1965; Fafunwa 1974; Ayandele 1966; Taiwo 1981; Adesina 1980).

Ekiti-land is located in southwestern Nigeria between longitudes 40°51’ and 50°451’ East of the Greenwich meridian and latitudes 70°151’ and 80°51’ north of the Equator with a total land Area of 5887.890sq km. According to the 2006 population census conducted by the National Population Commission, Ekiti-land was home to 2,384,212 people (‘Overview’, Retrieved 15/12/2013 from http://ekitistate.gov.ng/about-ekiti/overview/).

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Western oriented education was intimately bound up with the introduction of Christianity into Ekiti-land in 1894. The missionary societies established the western type of education at primary school level based on the three pillars on which instructions in religious matters rested – Reading, Writing and Arithmetic (Adetiloye 1974, 39). The planting of Western education witnessed the erosion of the age-old indigenous education in the area. While Western education served the need of the colonial society, it was dysfunctional in the post-colonial era. Indeed, the planting of western education created a landmark in the history of Nigeria and Ekiti-land in particular. This social change came with new pattern of stratification that re-enacted dependency in the post-independent era. In this regard, it will be interesting to unravel the impacts of the European type education in Nigeria during the twentieth century, using Ekiti-land as a case study.

**Conceptual Framework**

The functionalist perspective emphasizes the vital role played by education in society. According to Haralambos and Heald, the expansion of the economies of industrial societies was accompanied by a corresponding expansion of their educational systems in order to cater for the necessary skilled personnel required in industries. Thus, the functionalists have argued that ‘the provision of mass elementary education in Britain in 1870 can be seen as a response to the needs of industry for a literate and numerate workforce at a time when industrial processes were becoming more complex and the demand for technical skills was steadily growing’ (Haralambos & Heald, 1980, p.177). Examining the functionalist perspective, Haralambos and Heald (1980, p.178) posit:

The functions of education in industrial society may be summarized as follows: the transmission of society’s norms and values; the preparation of young people for adult roles; the selection of young people in terms of their talents and abilities for appropriate roles in adult life; the provision of the knowledge, skills and training necessary for effective participation in the labor force.

Social change refers to the transformations that had taken place in society over a given period of time. These must have impacted considerably on the structure of society over time (Reading 1976; Moore 1963). Social change is a product of several social factors such as cultural diffusion which is inevitable in our globalizing world. However, some problems of social adjustment arise in the process of culture contact - this may be material or ideational. This happens due to “cultural lag”, that is, a situation in which all aspects of culture do not change simultaneously. While material culture changes much more readily, non-material culture changes gradually (Ogburn & Ninkoff...
,1958, cited in Olurode & Olusanya 1994, p.19). Thus, colonization in Nigeria necessitated cultural contact between the British and Nigerians. This led to the planting of Western education in an environment characterized by high level informality. While Western education emphasizes formal training and acquisition of certificate for job placement in the Eurocentric structure, African indigenous education emphasizes informal training and acquisition of vocational and technical skills needed to function in an informal African society. While the colonial manpower development was meant to perpetuate dependency (Mazrui 2002; 2003; Atalas 2000), the planting and development of Western education in Nigeria was a step towards this direction. According to Illich (1971), the school system is a repressive institution which indoctrinates students to destroy their initiatives, induce conformity and brain-washed pupils in accepting the agenda of the imperialists. In this regard, the school system derives its authority from its ability to issue credentials which rewards in the labor market. Thus, Western education (when politicized by the human agency) confuses teaching with learning, grade advancement with education and a certificate with competence (Illich, 1971, cited in Haralambos & Heald, 1980). In the colonial era, the school system trained and certified students who are ‘willing and able’ to acquire the necessary training needed within the colonial structure. This is in line with the postulations of functionalist theorists such as Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore, who argues that education is a means of role allocation. In this regard, education is a mechanism for ensuring that the most talented and able members of society are allocated to those high rewarding positions which are functionally most important for society (Davis & Moore, 1967, cited in Heralambos & Heald 1980, p.176).

However, the post-colonial period ushered in a new regime directed by the new Nigerian political elites. Unfortunately, the colonial educational system was upheld for nearly two decades after independence (Alokan 1977; Ogunlade 1969). This era witnessed inter-ethnic rivalry and politics of nepotism in governance, the educational sector was not spared. This is so due to the awareness by the political elites of the role played by Western education in the social stratification of the emerging state-centric society. The politicization of western education shifted attention from the functionality of education in the society - emphasis was laid on the acquisition of certificates as a tool of political and economic aggrandizement without consideration for sustainable development. The consequence was the over saturation of the job market with (mostly) misfit graduates of educational institutions. This denotes cultural lag in the society.
Mapping Educational Development and Social Change in Ekiti-land

Before 1894, Ekiti-land had instituted indigenous educational system for training its youths. This form of education was developed to suit the need of the peoples’ environment. The techniques and method of training were passed from generation to generation. This system of education was specifically designed to give every individual the opportunities to acquire necessary skills needed to contribute positively to the general well-being of the society. This is a form of informal education in which the young ones learn from the elderly members of the society. It implies learning by participant observation and apprenticeship. According to Oral tradition, in Ekiti-land prior to the incursion of the colonialists, the indigenous system of education performed two major functions – it impacted wisdom and gainful skills. While the youths learnt the local history, norms and values of society, they also learn required skills necessary to feed themselves and their families. As Fafunwa (1974) and Jekayinfa (2003) noted, African indigenous education emphasized social responsibility, job orientation, political participation, spiritual and moral values. Children and adolescents were engaged in participatory education through ceremonies, rituals, imitation, recitation ceremonies, and demonstrations. They were involved in practical farming, fishing, weaving, and cooking. Recreational subjects included wrestling, dancing, drumming, and acrobatic display. While intellectual training involves the study of local history, legends, the environment. In this era, vocational training in agriculture and craftwork helped to produce a productive workforce and responsible citizens of the society. Thus, the pre-colonial pattern of education in Ekiti-land was relevant to the need of the society and unemployment was a taboo.

According to Adetiloye (1974), Western education was closely bound up with the introduction of Christianity into Ekiti-land in 1894. Literary education in Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and Religion was the basis of the curriculum. The school system prepared the recipients for new job opportunities in the colonial system; teachers, church evangelists, pastors, clerks, and interpreters. Although the church missionary society had established their mission in Badagry in 1843, in Abeokuta in 1846, and in Ibadan in 1875, the Yoruba wars of the 19th century militated against the establishment of Christianity vis-à-vis Western education in Ekiti-land until the end of the wars in 1893. The end of the Kiriji war (1877-1893) witnessed the return of enslaved Ekiti people who were earlier sold by the Ibadan army to the Ijebu and the Egba. The enslaved returned to Ekiti-land with a new faith – Christianity. Among the pioneer missionary workers in Ekiti-land includes Mr. Vaughan, Dorcas Oloju, Mrs Helena Doherty and Famuboni (later Babamuboni) who arrived Ekiti-land between 1893-1894 to pioneer the planting of Christianity and Western education in the area.

The system of evangelization through the village school was the motto of the early Christian missions in Ekiti-land. Babamuboni, an evangelist, went everywhere
with copies of the English alphabets. He was among the first generation of educated elites who introduced the western formal system of education to Ado-Ekiti in 1894 and from where the knowledge radiated to other parts of Ekiti-land. In 1894, Babamuboni introduced Bishop Philips and James Johnson to Ewi Aladesanmi I (the traditional king of Ado-Ekiti - the Ekiti Capital) as a bearer of peace and prosperity. Following a favorable report forwarded to the Church Missionary Society (CMS) authorities by the two dignitaries, the Church began to send additional missionary workers to the area beginning from 1895. In this period, Babamuboni persuaded the monarch of Ado Ekiti and his Chiefs to donate pupils to the elementary school system. The tenacity with which he collected the pupils who started the first school earned him the nickname “Agbomolowooolomo” (the one who snatched children from their parents). The missionaries constructed schools in Ado Ekiti in 1896, Ise and Ijero Ekiti in 1897, Ayede Ekiti in 1911, Usi Ekiti in 1912, and Uyin Ekiti in 1914. The 1930s marked the evolution of post-primary education in Ekiti-land with the establishment of Ekiti Central School (later Christ’s School) Ado Ekiti in 1933. In the 1930s, the Ven. Archdeacon H. Dallimore gathered in the CMS compound at Ado Ekiti, twelve boys aged fourteen years recommended from various schools as being good, sound fellows, the object being to train them as pupil teachers. These students lived in the CMS compound and were taught standard six subjects but were also given instruction in school method and had a little practice in Emmanuel school, Ado Ekiti (It was otherwise known as Pupil Teachers’ Centre – PTC). The PTC was changed to become standard V and VI for all pupils in the district. By January 1933, the PTC had become Ekiti CMS Central School. In January, 1942, the school was extended to class III in which were taught mathematics, literature and Science. Between 1944 and 1945, the most brilliant students in the school were groomed for the Cambridge School Leaving Certificate – they were all successful. These students spread the ideology of secondary education to other parts of Ekiti-land. The school curriculum included the study of English, Mathematics, History, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, and Geography. The vocational aspect of schooling included carpentry, plastering, building, brick-making, tailoring, sewing and weaving. This was necessary to enhance basic “literacy” and produce semiskilled workers for the colonial system. For example, some school buildings were constructed through the direct labor of students under the supervision of resident European managers (Adetiloye 1974). Indeed, the curriculum and training provided by the school system was centered on the need of the colonial society.

The Nigerian educated elites convened the National Curriculum Conference of 1969. Its recommendations formed the basis of the National Policy on Education (NPE) published in 1977 and revised in 1981. In the new reform, secondary education was designed to take six years in two stages of three years each; junior secondary and senior secondary schools. While students who leave school at the end of the junior high school stage were supposed to pursue a carrier in apprenticeship and vocational education, the
Senior Secondary School was designed for students who are willing and able to complete six years of secondary education (Federal Government of Nigeria, NPE 1981; Alokan 1977; Ogunlade 1969).

The NPE perceived primary and secondary education as preparatory for both vocation and advanced academic endeavor. Technical Educational institutions were expected to produce independent craft men and technicians, while the Tertiary institutions were designed to produce high level manpower for Government Departments and industries (NPE, section 3-6, 1981). Despite criticisms against the NPE in the literature (Aladekomo 2004; Aluede 2006), the policy emphasized vocational orientation at primary and secondary school levels. It further craved for industrial input in the academic curriculum – whether this is done as required depends on the implementation of the policy. However, since the 1980s, the politicization of education in Nigeria witnessed the emergence of curriculums that overemphasized theoretical training at all levels. This has suppressed and ridiculed vocational training and entrepreneurship at the primary and secondary school levels. The manipulation of tertiary education as a tool of political and economic domination has led to a scramble for University degrees. In this regard, the extermination of able lower and middle manpower and the replacement of same with a mass of disabled high level manpower created widespread joblessness in the last quarter of the twentieth century. This suggests a cultural lag in the society.

It is pertinent to state that government’ and international donor organizations’ perception of education often focuses on increasing the so called level of “literacy” in Nigeria and Africa in general (Tabulawa, 2003). They have failed to critically address the functionality of western education in the societal structure. This attitude is misleading – as what constitute “literacy” differs from one society to the other. For instance, the pre-colonial Ekiti people were not illiterates. They were very much aware of the dynamics of their environment and were able to institute the indigenous system of education that met the need of the pre-colonial society. The citizens trained in this system were responsible members of society who are able to cater for their personal, family and societal needs. According to Oral tradition, in this period, unemployment was a taboo and the unemployed were considered “illiterates”. Thus, indigenous education was functional in the pre-colonial era. The colonial regime encouraged the planting and development of western education as a means to meet the needed manpower in the colonial era. To this end, the colonial educational curriculum instituted the learning of European language, religion, vocation, and theories necessary for the colonial society. However, in the post-colonial era, the functionality of western education experienced a transformation from an instrument of dependency to a tool of political and economic aggrandizement. The consequence were many - mass
unemployment, crime, corruption, nepotism, and widespread poverty in Ekiti-land and Nigeria in general.

**Conclusion**

The development of the western education in Ekiti-land in the colonial era witnessed the suppression of indigenous education. While indigenous education remains resilient, it was disconnected from the institutional support of the state. The colonial school curriculum included theoretical, moral, and vocational training that was paramount to sustain the colonial society. Pupils learn Arithmetic, English, writing, elementary science as well as bricklaying, carpentry, sowing and weaving. In fact, many early school buildings were constructed by the semi-skilled pupils. The bulk of the colonial school curriculum was designed to produce workers needed in the colonial system. Thus, Western education under colonial rule was functional - it served the need of the colonial society.

At independence, the review of the educational curriculum was ripe, yet it was delayed for about ten years and implemented nearly two decades after independence. This lackadaisical attitude of the political elites cannot be farfetched from inter-ethnic politics and disbelief in nation-building that culminated into violence in the first quarter of the post-independence era. Since the 1980s, the provision for vocational training in the Nigerian Policy of Education has been eroded by an overwhelmingly theoretical curriculum. This is due to the politicization of western education as a tool of political and economic aggrandizement – too much emphasis was laid on the acquisition of certificates without consideration for sustainable development. The consequence was the over saturation of the job market with school graduates who cannot key into the pragmatic structure of society. This denotes a cultural lag. Thus, to achieve sustainable education and development, there is the need for a decertification of the Nigerian educational sector. The issuance of certificates as a measure of skills should be abolished; rather, practical skill acquisition and ingenuity should be emphasized at all levels of learning. This is necessary to stimulate a functional educational system in an informal society competing in a globalize world and a technological age.

**References**


Investigating Factors Affecting Faculty Retention at Business Schools

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Shaukat Ali Raza**
Muhammad Dilshad***

Abstract

Faculty retention is a major challenge for business schools in competitive market for academic talent. The present study investigated institutional, work-related, and personal factors affecting faculty retention in selected Pakistani business schools. The study relies on the opinions of 15 faculty members from 04 business schools collected through a semi-structured questionnaire and semi-structured telephonic interviews. Content analysis was used to examine and classify the qualitative data. The absence of high rates of compensation, faculty-friendly management practices and administrative structure, cultivation of research environment, and positive institutional attributes have demotivated faculty members to continue their job for a long period. The study suggested business schools to fulfil economic needs of faculty and provide opportunities for their professional growth.

Key Words: Business schools, faculty retention, institutional factors, work-related factors, personal factors

Introduction

Owing to increasing demand of business education, the number of business schools has grown up to meet the heterogeneous needs of the business market (Stumpf, Najdawi, & Doh, 2002; Trotman & Brown, 2005) creating niche for more faculty members in the business schools (AACSB, 2003). Moratis, Baalen, Teunter and Verhaegen (2005) argue that supply of qualified faculty for business schools shall remain a problem in the years to come. Moreover, 40% of the doctoral qualified faculty pursues career outside their academies (Business Week, 2004) as business schools are unable to retain them over a long period in ‘the war for talent’ (Ambrose, Huston, & Norman, 2005: 387).

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This situation accumulates the enduring problem of faculty shortage in business schools making faculty retention a challenge for business schools’ administration. It calls for a need to investigate the issue of faculty retention, in various business school settings, which has been considered as an important phenomenon by management of business schools internationally (Moratis et al., 2005). This study investigates institutional, work-related and personal factors that affect the retention of faculty at Pakistani business schools.

**Literature Review**

Business schools are facing interrelated challenges to survive in the highly competitive market (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004) and recruitment and retention of qualified faculty members is a big problem for business schools (Verhaeghen, 2005). The quality of business faculty is correlated with standards of business education and the goodwill of business schools in academia and job market (Dee, 2004; Verhaeghen, 2005). The experienced faculty provides quality education to students (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003) and mentoring services to the novice teachers (Futernick, 2007) and above all, attract both of them towards the business schools (Alexander, 2001). The departure of such teachers destabilizes the school at the one hand and motivates remaining faculty to consider options outside the school (Joiner, 2005) on the other. It means that faculty retention is a big problem for business schools and its solution demands identification of factors that could influence it.

Different studies (see Verhaeghen, 2005; Guarino et al., 2006; Borman & Dowling, 2008) provide inventories of factors affecting faculty retention that could be summarized as institutional factors, work-related factors and personal factors contributing towards faculty retention. Institutional factors cover salary and other financial benefits, impact of institution’s culture and values, influence of leadership and management style, provisions of research facilities and academic stature of institute and other organizational aspect. Salary alone may not be an effective retention force (Ambrose, Huston, & Norman, 2005) but when blended with academic freedom, research opportunities, personal and professional development (Verhaeghen, 2005) it shows a positive correlation with retention of novice teachers (Stockard & Lehman, 2004). However, Conklin and Desselle (2007) report a poor salary as the key factor of faculty turnover in pharmacy faculty. Fringe benefits such as pension (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007) and vacation (Conklin & Desselle, 2007) bear a positive correlation with retention (Taylor, 2000). Rich organizational culture and values (Dee, 2004; Fogg, 2006), leadership style (Juhl & Christensen, 2008; Swars, Meyers, Mays, & Lack, 2009), research facilities (Juhl & Christensen 2008), and attributes of business schools such as reputation and international rating (Conklin & Desselle, 2007) play important role in faculty retention.
The work-related factors cover teaching conditions, workload, collegiality, job security, and professional development opportunities. Juhl and Christensen (2008) hold academic freedom as an important source for retaining competent faculty in business schools. Similarly, relaxing workload (Barmby, 2006; Conklin & Desselle, 2007), friendly relations between colleagues (Verhaegen, 2005; Swars et al., 2009), and job security (Lewis, 2006; Conklin & Desselle, 2007) are major determinants of faculty retention. Professional development opportunities too, can be another persuading tool for retaining faculty. Institutional support for professional development (Moratis et al., 2005) and mentoring facilities available for junior faculty help them deal with faculty concerns effectively and efficiently (Yankeelov, 2009). Yankeelov et al. (2009) include individual traits (gender, experience, academic designation, and qualification) of faculty in faculty retention factors along with institutional and work-related factors.

Researchers offer mixed results about influence of gender on faculty retention. Tamada and Inman (1997) find that gender is unrelated to retention in the context of a private liberal art college. Harrigan (1990) also notices that gender plays neutral role for faculty retention at university level. Contrarily, the meta analysis of empirical studies on teacher retention (Guarino et al., 2006) and Callister’s (2006) survey on science and engineering faculty shows that females have higher rate of turnover than that of male counterparts. Female faculty members in European business schools reported less level of satisfaction towards key determinates (working environment, job security, opportunity for personal and professional development etc.) of faculty retention as compared to their male colleagues (Verhaegen, 2005). It is important to note that the number of female faculty members is significantly lower in comparison to males in the business schools (Verhaegen, 2005).

Callister (2006) reports teachers switching to new jobs at early and later stages of their jobs. It means the management of business schools should take care of their novice as well as experienced teachers especially if they are frustrated because of working in same designation. They could be retained by promoting them to higher designations (Verhaegen, 2005). Otherwise they would quit as teachers with higher qualifications have more potential to get handsome offers from other business schools (Guarino, Santibañez, & Daley, 2006) as discussed in case of salary under institutional factors above.

The above discussion establishes the contribution of institutional, work-related and personal factors in the faculty retention motives of business schools. In Pakistan, business education has been one of the most popular areas of education (Khan, 2006) and this popularity of the discipline has resulted in the establishment of a large number of business schools in the recent past (HEC, 2009, Online). Almost 50 doctoral qualified faculty members are serving in 28 public and 59 HEC recognised private
business schools (Khan, 2006; HEC, 2009) highlighting a shortage of qualified faculty; an issue of faculty recruitment and retention of faculty. This research explores the factors contributing towards faculty retention and suggests ways to improve retention rate by investigating faculty opinions taken from the selected Pakistani business schools. More specifically, the study pursued answers for the following two research questions:

1. What are the factors that affect the faculty retention in the selected Pakistani business schools?

2. What strategies may be adopted to improve the faculty retention in the business schools?

**Methodology**

This qualitative study, based on the M.Phil. thesis of the first researcher, follows the interpretive paradigm to understand and explore the dynamics of faculty retention in the light of subjective experiences (Cohen, Mainion, & Morrison, 2007; Yankeelov, Barbee, Sullivan, & Antle, 2009) of faulty of business schools. First of all four (two public and two private) business schools were selected on the basis of availability of 10 to 15 faculty members and official websites containing e-mails of faculty for ready contact as teachers were contacted via this route. Then a database of all 55 full time faculty members was developed by using websites of respective business schools. From this database, all of the 40 teachers (18 from public and 22 from private business schools) having more than one year of experience were invited to participate in this study as potential sample of which 15 faculty members returned the semi-structured questionnaires.

Out of fifteen respondents, five (two female and three male) gave their consent for 10-15 minutes follow-up interview over telephone by providing their telephone numbers in separate email. Of these five, one female and two males belonged to the public business schools whereas the other two represented private business schools. A semi-structured questionnaire (Creswell, 2005) followed by semi-structured telephonic interviews were used to collect the data avoiding weakness associated with one data collection instrument (Borzillo, 2006) through ‘methodological triangulation’ (Bush, 2007, p.100). Content analysis technique was used classifying words of text into content categories (Cohen, et al., 2007) representing determinants of faculty retention as perceived by respondents. Then the overlapping factors were merged into seven relevant themes e.g. compensation, management and institutional culture, research environment, institutional attributes, working environment, career growth, and individual factors.
Findings and Discussion

The demographics of the respondents are summarized below in table 1 that indicates a male faculty dominance in Pakistani business schools.

Table 1. Sample Description

<table>
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<th>Background Information</th>
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<td></td>
<td>more than 10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Professor</td>
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<td>20</td>
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Analysis of quantitative and qualitative data generated seven themes which are summarized and discussed below. First four themes of the study represented institutional factors; next two showed work-related factors; and the final one dealt with personal factors that affect faculty retention at Pakistani business schools.

Theme One: Compensation

Majority of respondents complained about low salary package. This tendency is similar to previous studies (Sabol, 2004; Conklin & Desselle, 2007) claiming compensation as an important factor for faculty retention. This impact is not similar to everyone as despite of low salary package and a desire for market driven appraisal system, the public school faculty is found willing to retain job because of available fringe benefits. Therefore, public business schools need to introduce market driven appraisal system (Norman et al., 2006) and private business school need to offer fringe benefits (Taylor, 2000) for faculty retention.

Theme Two: Management and Institutional Culture

Ten out of fifteen faculty members pointed out bureaucratic administrative structure, complicated procedures, and non-participation in decision making as barriers against faculty retention. These findings are consistent with (Byrd, 2002; Bensimon et
Analysis of interviews also confirmed management practices as a contributor towards faculty retention. Similar to Moratis et al. (2005), all public and two private faculty members also highlighted management inability to promote a culture of accountability and justice at Pakistani business schools. Therefore, the business schools’ administration needs to improve upon management practices and enrich their culture as initiatives for faculty retention.

**Theme Three: Research Environment**

Almost the entire faculty of public schools reported lack of research facilities countering their decision to retain the present job similar to the findings of Norman et al.’s (2006). That is why five faculty members of private business schools were determined to continue their existing job as merely for culture to do funded research in line with Trotman and Brown (2005) who reported research activities as a strong retention motivator. Reinforcing Conklin and Desselle (2007), four members of public sector faculty were found happy with the availability of travel grants to attend conferences. Contrary to Verhaegen (2005), the current study reports the junior as well as senior faculty equally interested in the availability of time and facilities for research. It may be a consequence of HEC policy towards the faculty promotions. This situation provides an indication to the business schools to take measures for providing a research friendly environment to retain their faculty.

**Theme Four: Institutional Attributes**

The current study highlighted two important institutional attributes, reputation of business schools and support of their non-teaching staff available to faculty, contributing towards the retention decision of the faculty. Similar to the situation explained in theme three above, and contrary to the findings of Verhaegen (2005), both junior as well as senior faculty were expressing same views on institutional attributes. Ten respondents believed that working in a well-reputed business school is recognition of their potential therefore, twelve teachers considered it as a reflection of academic excellence of a business school and were interested to become a part of such a leading school. This whole situation supports the findings of D’Aveni (1996). Despite the satisfaction of private faculty and dissatisfaction of public faculty on the support of non-teaching staff, fourteen faculty members from both the segments acknowledged its role in the retention decisions of faculty.

**Theme Five: Working Environment**

Majority of the respondents, especially the young teachers, pointed out good working conditions complemented with teaching facilities and flexible teaching schedule with balanced workload as faculty retention tools. These tendencies support the work of Shinn (2005) and Conklin and Desselle (2007) and Barmby (2006) respectively. Similar to the results of Swars and his colleagues (2009) environment of
mutual respectful, as indicated by five female teachers, and nice and cooperative colleagues play major role in faculty retention. Finally, academic freedom could be beneficial to retain faculty in Pakistani business schools as recommended by Juhl and Christensen (2008) in the case of Danish and Verhaegen (2005) in European business schools.

**Theme Six: Career Growth**

Career growth covers job security, availability of mentoring by the seniors, and a liaison with the industry as contributors for faculty retention. Four female respondents described job security as an important consideration supporting the findings of Moratis *et al.* (2005). It may be a consequence of their social and professional insecurity in male dominant societies (Luthans, 2006) like Pakistan. But, in the views of eight female teachers, job security was not found as a retention source in Pakistani business schools and this tendency marked a contradiction with Lewis (2006). Majority of the private faculty was found happy on the opportunities of their relationship with industry marking it as a retention source but this facility is lacking in public sector business schools where senior teachers took it as a reason to plan for leaving the job. It means that working relationship with industry is a big source of professional development and it contributes towards faculty retention supporting the findings of Moratis *et al.* (2005). Similarly, as supported by Ballou and Podgursky (1998), the young business faculty pointed out the mentoring role of seniors as a source of faculty retention at a particular business school.

**Theme Seven: Individual Factors**

Analysis of individual factors of faculty highlighted few variations based on gender, experience, academic rank, and qualification. The role of gender was observed similar as in case of compensation and career growth discussed above. For instance, all female respondents, contrary to the majority of male counterparts, were found preferring to join public business schools owing to the on campus housing facility. Similarly, job security as a retention factor was reported solely by female teachers. Description of rest of the factors was found gender free supporting the views of Dlamini and Vilane (1998) about the insignificant role of gender in faculty retention. Experience of the faculty was found to be a basis for variation regarding the perception about management practices and career growth opportunities. In this regard, junior members were found complaining against the prejudiced attitude of the management whereas the senior faculty was more interested in extended management roles instead. This tendency supports the findings of Callister (2006) who reported high turnover rate for junior faculty. In designation category, only lecturers were unhappy with heavy work load whereas both lecturers and assistant professors were found dissatisfied with the availability of professional growth opportunities. It was also observed that the higher
the faculty qualification, the higher was the desire for switching the job in other schools for better prospects.

**Conclusions**

The study was limited to investigate the perceptions of faculty, having at least one year teaching experience, about factors affecting faculty retention at Pakistani business schools and suggested strategies that may be helpful to improve upon the situation. These perceptions are summarized in terms of seven themes namely compensation, management and institutional culture, research environment, institutional attributes, working environment, career growth, and individual factors. The first four themes of the study represented institutional factors; next two showed work-related factors; and the final one dealt with personal factors.

The faculty of public business schools have complaints about inadequate compensation of their work that serves as a drive to join another institution offering better package. However, fringe benefits may be helpful to enhance faculty retention rate. The unsupportive management practices resulting from bureaucratic administrative structure spoiling trust and cooperation between management and faculty and the absence of a supportive research environment may compel them leave the business school. Institutional ranking and prestige of a business school encourage faculty to join a business school. Teachers are found keen to work in well-reputed and leading business schools. The lack of support from the non-teaching staff may compel faculty to quit their present jobs.

The congenial working conditions, a high level of work autonomy, balanced workload, job security and amicable relationships among teachers are attributes of healthy work environment and seem to motivate faculty members to retain their jobs and enhance productivity. The business teachers, especially the young ones, are found to be keen in their professional growth. Equal growth opportunities, study scholarships and mentor services may also improve the faculty retention rate.

Individual attributes of the faculty are also found to be contributing towards faculty retention. Female business teachers are more concerned about job security. The biased behaviour of management and inadequate career growth opportunities is a serious concern of young and less experienced teachers as compared to senior and experienced faculty. Similarly, excessive workload is a big problem for lecturers in contrast to associate professors and professors.

**Implications for Policy and Practice**

Based on findings of the study, some strategies are suggested to retain the faculty at the Pakistani business schools. The business schools should strive to provide
competitive salary packages, fringe benefits, healthy research environment and equal growth opportunities to their teachers. They could dig out opportunities for faculty to be engaged in industry-funded research as an academia-industry nexus and a determinant of faculty retention to generate revenue and overcome financial problems. These research projects may promote understanding and good working relationship among junior and senior faculty. It would help junior faculty plan their professional development activities and create a healthy work environment that further enhances the faculty retention rate. For all these things to happen, business schools need supportive management practices based on flexible administrative structure.

Proper marketing of the positive aspects of business schools may enhance their institutional posture which is a source of motivation for faculty to get and retain job at such prestigious schools. Housing facilities in the case of the public business schools and a fair appraisal system in the case of the private business schools could be of great help for persuading faculty to purse their development avenues and retain job in their present institutions. Organizing professional development activities for support staff may also enhance faculty retention rate as it would help facilitate faculty in meeting their professional obligations and create sense of job satisfaction. Finally, after discovering the context-specific factors that contribute toward faculty retention in Pakistani business schools, further studies may be conducted with extended samples to provide comprehensive data for policy formulation in Pakistan.

References


Women in Shakespearean Comedies: A Feminist Perspective

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Abstract

Shakespearean comedies have been examined from different angles and perspectives by a host of critics, but very few critics have studied these comedies from a feminist perspective. In the few such studies undertaken, there are many controversial assertions and claims. The portrayal of women in Shakespearean comedies has been a subject of some studies, from different angles, but still there is a space and scope for initiating a study to examine the portrayal of women by Shakespeare in his comedies. The present study intends to take care of such issues and fill the possible gaps. The study intends to explore the place and rights of women as they are portrayed in Shakespearean comedies. The study intends to show that Shakespeare apparently seems to project feminism and a liberal attitude towards his women, but actually he ends up on the side of patriarchy, though on occasions, he does portray women from the nascent feministic perspective. As a result, the reader or spectator comes across in these comedies, very submissive and conventional women, who subscribe to patriarchal values in toto. The diversity in the nature of women in Shakespearean comedies reflects the divergent socio-cultural trends of the late sixteenth and seventeenth century. The study is based upon the exhaustive text analysis and interpretation of six comedies in the light of Feminism. These comedies are Twelfth Night, Much Ado about Nothing, The Merchant of Venice, The Taming of the Shrew, The Comedy of Errors and A Mid Summer Night’s Dream. The main hypothesis of the study is that though Shakespeare does not project or promote any particular ideology or agenda, so far as the portrayal of women is concerned, he still is on the side of patriarchy and his comedies strengthen and support the patriarchy and patriarchal values.

Key Words: Feminism, patriarchy, subjects, lord, possessor, silence, virtue, forward, dowry, modesty, purity

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Introduction

Countless number of critics has examined Shakespearean comedies from different perspectives; many of them have also examined the portrayal of women by Shakespeare in his plays, from different angles, with different findings. For example, A. R. Humphreys in his introduction to Much Ado about Nothing, (2000) has paid attention to almost every aspect of his comedies, like language, poetry, plot construction, characterization and social realism, but he has not focused upon the portrayal of women in Shakespeare’s comedies. Juliet Dusinberre has examined the nature of Shakespearean women in her book (2003), to suggest that Feminism started with Shakespeare. Hers is a broader and general comparative study, but she does not pay attention to the individual women portrayed by Shakespeare. Sarbani Putatunda (2006) has also touched upon the issue of the portrayal of women by Shakespeare, along with other aspects of the comedies, but one is tempted all the more to dig deep into the portrayal of women by Shakespeare in his comedies. Cedric Watts, in his introduction to The Taming of the Shrew, has also briefly paid attention to the portrayal of women (2004). Elliot Krieger (2006), has examined almost all the major comedies from a Marxist perspective, but the critic does not focus upon the place of women in these comedies, though women in a patriarchal set up are not more than a commodity. The present study means to bring fresh insights on to the portrayal of women by Shakespeare in his comedies.

Patriarchy is the ideology of the superiority of men. It presents men as strong, decisive, rational, capable and competent beings (Tyson, 2007). It works for the subordination of women as the lesser Other. It presents women as emotional, weak and irrational. Ultimately it relegates women to a cultural wasteland, where they can't make any meaningful contribution to society (Ray, 1997). Feminist Criticism, among other things, examines the ways in which literature undermines or reinforces the social, political and economic status of women. The present study intends to analyse the major comedies of Shakespeare, with the objective to have an assessment of the portrayal of women in them.

Research Methodology

The present study is to be based upon the exhaustive analysis of the texts of selected comedies in the light of Feminism. The objective is to find the answers to the research questions given below:
(i) What does the portrayal of women in the play under study show about the working of patriarchy (economically, politically, socially, culturally or psychologically)?

(ii) Does the portrayal of women in the play reinforce or undermine patriarchal ideology?

(iii) Does the women’s behavior and role conform to their assigned gender?

(iv) Does the play accept, question, or reject the traditional view of gender?

(v) Is the play ideologically conflicted?

The Portrayal of Women in The Merchant of Venice

The study starts with the analysis of The Merchant of Venice in the light of Feminism and the above given research questions. There are three female characters in this play, Portia, Nerissa and Jessica. Portia is an heiress to the state of Belmont. She is rich, extremely beautiful, resourceful and extraordinarily intelligent. In this she does not seem to conform to the traditional role assigned to the female gender. The analysis of the comedy will show that in spite of her very impressive credentials, she ultimately conforms to patriarchal values and standards. She cannot choose or refuse a man to be her husband. She does not have the freedom of conscience advocated by liberal humanists or even by puritans in the seventeenth century. She is required to marry a man, whether slave or master, who wins a lottery devised by her dead father. Her worth is not more than a prize or a trophy presented to a winner. Like a patriarchal woman who has internalized the ideology of patriarchy, she is determined to be obtained by the manner of her father’s will. She calls her future husband, Bassanio, as her owner and compares him to a newly-crowned monarch. She does not have any idea of her own individual identity, different and disparate from Bassanio. Her life and existence depends upon the chance outcome of lottery, a mere stroke of luck and not a deliberate and free choice. After he wins the lottery, Portia calls Bassanio as her lord, governor and king. All her property, wealth, lands and her own fortune and identity are taken over by Bassanio. Here she conforms to the traditional and conventional role assigned to her gender.

Subsequently, when she appears before the court of the Duke, she is disguised in the dress of a man. She practically becomes a man, because women were not supposed to appear in the courts. Therefore, it is established that
Shakespeare reinforces the patriarchal values, while portraying the character of Portia. Similarly, Nerissa’s choice of Gratiano as a husband is not her own, individual, free choice, but chance outcome of Bassanio’s luck. Jessica is the only woman who marries Lorenzo for love. Incidentally, Sigurd Burckhardt finds this love as an inversion of true and bonded love (1994). But then she is not the part of Christian common wealth, she might be obsessed with a person of superior social status.

The Place of Women in The Taming of the Shrew

Shakespeare upholds and reinforces patriarchy in The Taming of the Shrew. It is shown that marriage is the ultimate destiny and the final standard of the success and triumph of a woman’s life. A woman has no life outside the institution of marriage, a major postulate of patriarchy. For this to happen, a woman needs to accept her lesser and lower position with reference to her future husband. She needs to cultivate her image of a good girl. A good girl is absolutely obedient to her father, and she will be a subject and slave to her future husband. Bianca is such a good girl. She occupies herself with needlework and maintains silence, which is her major virtue, reflecting her mild behavior, bashful modesty and sobriety. Patriarchy wants women to excel only in these designated feminine areas. Patriarchy encourages women to remain silent. She has no dearth of suitors. But her sister Catherine is self-willed and talks too much, for which she is said to have a scolding tongue. This makes her curt and shrewd. She is labeled as forward. In a patriarchal world this is the worst title a woman can ever have. No gentleman is willing to marry her, even with a mine of gold as dowry. She is likely to end up as stale, unless she reforms herself into a gentler mould. She is not expected to be an obedient wife, therefore the title of the play.

The play opens with a jest, but it prescribes the place of women in the Elizabethan society. Tears are supposed to be the special gift of women. A husband is a lord to a humble wife. A good woman is expected to be soft, mild, affable, modest as a dove, absolutely chaste and slow in speech. One hears no such qualities and qualifications for a husband. It is in these circumstances that Katherine is married off to Patruchio, as a result of a deal between Baptista and Patruchio, to the almost exclusion of Katherine from this affair. For a daughter is not more than a commodity belonging to the father. She is forced to give her hand, against her heart unto a mad-brain rudesby, full of spleen. In Elizabethan society, a gentleman is
absolutely free to woo any number of women without bothering to marry any one of them. This brings us to the existence of double standards for men and women, dwelt upon by Juliet Dusinberre (2003). After marriage, the proprietary rights of a woman are transferred onto the husband. Patruchio is now more than a master of his wife Katherine. She is his goods, his chattels, his field, his barn, his horse, his ox, his ass, his anything (iii—ii—220). The use of animal imagery by Patruchio to assert his rights over his wife reflects the place of a woman in the Elizabethan patriarchal world. Patruchio embarks upon a task of taming his wife in line with the patriarchal values of the time. He applies torture, keeps her hungry, and denies sleep to her, to break her into obedience to her keeper. This is nothing but inhuman and the violation of human rights, but patriarchy is hardly bothered about it. Finally she is tamed and her chattering tongue is charmed. She gives up her sense of identity, the independence of her mind, is reduced to a puppet and Patruchio wins his field, and right supremacy, to the applause of all.

Katherine is now a patriarchal woman, who conforms to the assigned role and behavior to her gender. She accepts her husband as her lord, her king and governor and maintains that crossing his will, can blot her beauty and ruin her fame and reputation. An independent minded woman is like a muddy fountain, not to be touched by any dry and thirsty man. A husband is the life and keeper of his wife. He is her head and sovereign. The husband is presented and accepted as the provider and bread winner, who risks his life to bring peace and security to the wife and household. This act of the husband needs to be reciprocated by the subjection of the wife to her prince husband. Otherwise she is froward, peevish, sullen and sour. Rather she is much more than this. She is a foul contending rebel, a graceless traitor. Katherine wants women to accept their weaker and lower position in every sense, with reference to their husbands. Their true position as loyal subjects demands of them to place their hands under the feet of their husbands (IV—ii—140—180). Shakespeare has portrayed Katherine from an absolute patriarchal perspective.

The above analysis has proved that Shakespeare has strengthened and reinforced patriarchy and its values in this play in every sense of the word.
Women in A Mid Summer Night’s Dream

Shakespeare has given voice to the female perspective along with the dominant male perspective in this play. At first glance, the play might look to be ideologically conflicted, but it still, on the whole reinforces the patriarchal values. Hermia refuses to marry Demetrius, as wished by her father Egeius. Though she also describes the marriage as a yoke, she wishes to marry her lover Lysander. The conventional law in place gives full authority to a father to decide the marriage of his daughter. She is not more than a commodity or property to her father. A father is entitled to dispose her off the way he deems fit. So much so that he can impose death upon her in case of disobedience. Thesesus reminds Hermia that her father is like a god to her. He has brought her into the world. He is the creator of her beauty and youth. She is like a form in wax to her father. It is the prerogative of her father to let her live in this world or to take her life (i—i—50). Or to banish her like King Lear did to Cordelia (Shakespeare, 1982) Demetrius and Lysander are equally eligible bachelors. Demetrius has precedence over Lysander because he enjoys the support of Hermia's father. She is prepared to embrace death or a solitary life as a nun, as a price for her right to freedom of conscience. This definitely is a very radical stance as compared to what one observes in The Taming of the Shrew. She rejects patriarchy, its values and its insistence upon conformity to the prescribed gender roles. But the overall atmosphere is inclined towards patriarchy. Lysander discloses in the open court of the duke that Demetrius made love to Helena, who still dotes upon him, proving him an inconstant and treacherous man. But nobody takes any notice of this intelligence. Duke Theseus in a very casual way confesses that he has heard of this affair, but due to his preoccupation with other important issues, he could not discuss it with Demetrius. The issue is supposed to be addressed and resolved. In Much Ado about Nothing a false suggestion of inconstancy on the part of Hero ruins her life, her prospects of marriage, and brings shame and humiliation to the family. Similarly, Hamlet's sensibility is violated at the re-marriage of his mother (Shakespeare, 1982). This is the presentation of the double moral standards, favouring the men. The position of men is superior and the sole objective of a lady is to find a husband and then to spend her life in the shadow of her husband.

Almost every single male character in the play is inconstant, wavering, vasscellant and breaker of vows. Hermia leaves the house of her father for the sake of Lysander, but once in the woods, he falls in love with Helena. Ominously, before she leaves the house, she refers to the false and treacherous Trojan, who betrayed the
Carthage queen. She also reminds Lysander that throughout history, men have broken their vows. From Helena, he goes back to Hermia. Though, this is attributed to the working of supernatural creatures. Demetrius, who first made love to Helena, turns his affection towards Hermia. Helena rightly says that boy (male) love is purged everywhere. Before he meets and sees Hermia, he was head over heels in love with Helena. He again turns to Helena in the end. The ultimate marriage between Lysander and Hermia takes place; not that Hermia has got her right to marry the man of her choice, but because Demetrius has changed his mind and Egeus is left with no choice but to consent to this marriage.

Through Oberon, the reader comes to a long list of the beloveds of Theseus, the duke. Perigouna, Aegles, Ariadne, Antiopa and finally Hippolyta. Puck defines the true status and place of a woman in the bond of marriage. He maintains that a wife is like a mare to her husband. (iii—ii---460). The analysis has shown that patriarchy reigns supreme in this play.

Women and Twelfth Night

Twelfth Night is not an exception, regarding the portrayal of women as stereotypes. Shakespeare does question many aspects of the established order. But women are presented as lesser kind. Viola brings the message from Olivia that, among other things, she will not marry for seven long years. She vows not to show her face even to the sky, is determined to walk like a cloistress, veiled all the time (i—i—25-35). She means to mourn the death of her dear brother. She intends to do nothing but to wash her chamber with her ample tears in memory of her departed brother. This solemn pledge of not revealing her face to a man for seven years is broken in seven days, when she falls for the page of the duke, who actually is Viola in disguise. This is to show that women are not rational creatures. They tend to be governed by passion and emotions. They don’t take their promises and oaths seriously. This is a male construct about women, "frailty thy name is woman".

In spite of the fact that men tend to be inconstant and infirm, it is women who are presented as frail and less stable. They are supposed to be like roses, whose fair flower falls immediately after they are displayed. Their passion and love are of inferior quality (ii—IV—95). They lack retention and depth. Women are supposed to be credulous and gullible. A ‘beauteous evil’ i.e. a handsome but false man can posses the receptive heart of woman very easily. Viola, like a patriarchal woman, ascribes this to
the frailty of women—a universal stereotype about women (ii—iii—30). They cannot go against this constructed image. Women are not supposed to step into the male territory or masculine area of activities. It goes against the mettle of their sex. They are expected to be soft and tender (v—i—149). In their relationship to men they occupy the lesser position of a mistress to a master. Therefore Viola ends up as mistress and the queen of Orsino’s fancy. Women in this play conform to their assigned image and construct.

**Women in Much Ado about Nothing**

This play also reinforces patriarchy and undermines feminism, in spite of the war of wits between Beatrice and Benidick, for which she is labeled as a shrew, lady tongue and a curst. With such titles, a woman is likely to remain without a husband. Apparently she stands for freedom of conscience, liberty and equality between men and women. She advocates freedom of choice to women; she does not want to be overmastered and to be accountable to her husband. But the weight of patriarchy defeats her down and she ultimately succumbs to the patriarchal values. The play also brings to light the double moral standards prevailing in the Elizabethan society. The men could get away with anything, but women were expected to be the embodiments of virtue, purity and fidelity. The song sung by Balthasar, a singer, attendant upon Don Pedro (iii--ii---60), and not taken note of by any critic, captures the patriarchal spirit of the age. The song celebrates the treachery, deceit, infidelity and fraud of men. Even otherwise, men are presented as inconstant. In the beginning of the play, Beatrice refers to the possible faithlessness of Benidick. Leonato, also suggests his possible involvement with women (i—i—99). He himself boasts that he is loved of all ladies. Don Pedro and Benidick, both, describe marriage as a yoke. Almost all of them don't have trust and faith in women. Women are urged to ignore all this and accept it in good spirit. The ultimate destiny of any woman is marriage. She does not have any place, identity and status without a husband. This is why Don Pedro, Hero and Claudio play Cupid and bring Benidick and Beatrice into the fold of love.

The church scene is the climax of this play. Patriarchy, with its double moral standards and all kinds of biases, constructs and suspicions against women, asserts itself with a vengeance. Claudio refuses to marry Hero, not that she has done something immoral. Villain Don Jhon stages a trick, and all vows of eternal love and loyalty melt into thin air. Her alleged crime is that Don Pedro and Claudio see a man talking to
'Hero', through a window, while standing below in the street. All men forget their own proven affairs and inconstancy. Once worshipped, Hero becomes a rotten orange. She is nothing but the sign and semblance of her earlier honour. She is supposed to have tasted the heat of a luxurious bed. She is a contaminated stale, an approved wanton. Claudio storms out of the church, burying Hero, her father Leonato and the entire family and well-wishers in shame and humiliation. Hero's own father wish her dead. The accusers don't wait for the verification of the evidence. Once the innocence of Hero is established, Hero is again married off to Claudio, as if nothing has happened. The honour of the family is restored, because Hero can grab the honourable Claudio. Beatrice is married to Benidick. This again is a portrayal of patriarchy at its splendour.

**Women and The Comedy of Errors**

In this comedy, Adriana, wife to Antipholus of Ephesus, seems to question the authority of men over women. She also appears to raise the issue of equal rights for women. But in reality, Adriana herself and the rest of the characters, especially Luciana, the younger sister to Adriana, support and strengthen patriarchy. After her initial outburst, Adriana declares her husband as the master of her state. She calls her husband an elm, while she herself is a vine, she is weak and her husband is strong (ii—ii—175). This is the reinforcement of stereotypes and constructs about women. Luciana acknowledges that man is master of his liberty (ii—i—10). He is the bridle of the will of his wife. Luciana, like a patriarchal woman, defends and supports the male dominance over women, by giving examples from nature (ii—i—20). She declares men more divine than women, and therefore, masters and lords of women. Luciana goes to the extent of accepting the right of a husband to have extramarital affairs, not very different from what Dolly accepts as the ways of men in *Anna Karenina* by Tolstoy (1918), provided he behaves discretely.

**Conclusion**

The study, based upon the exhaustive analyses of the texts of the six comedies, in the light of Feminism, has shown that Shakespeare in his comedies reinforces the patriarchy and all the major patriarchal ideas and ideals. His comedies project the stereotype constructs about women. Women are presented as weak, inferior, frail, lesser, the creatures whose only destiny and destination is to become wife to a husband. They cannot think of their own independent personalities and identities. Before marriage, they are virtually owned by their fathers. The fathers decide and choose husbands for their daughters. Disobedience in this regard can transport them into exile.
or to the secluded world of the sisterhood in a church or even death. In the world of Shakespearean comedies, the will of a dead father can subdue the will of a living daughter.

In the comedies by Shakespeare, after marriage, a husband is the owner, provider, lord, governor and a king to a wife. She is not more than a commodity to be disposed off by the husband, the way he deems fit. He is the absolute master and the wife his most humble subject. In Shakespearean comedies, disobedience to a husband is not less than a high treason.

In the world of Shakespearean comedies, there are double moral standards for men and women. A man can have relationships before and after marriage, with impunity. Inconstancy on his part is the norm in these comedies. But a woman must be a virgin before marriage and must remain loyal and virtuous after marriage. The slightest possible suspicion or doubt about her character can ruin her life. Here, the burden of personal and family honour rests squarely upon the otherwise weak shoulders of a woman. The study does not agree with the assertion of Juliet Dusinberre (2003) that Shakespeare saw his men and women as equal. He presents his women as he finds them in the society of the seventeenth century. However, it would be unfair not admit the contribution of Shakespeare for the rights of women in the same comedies. Often he has challenged the patriarchy and patriarchal values in these comedies. He does provide the occasional glimpses of the women in control of their environments, with all possible qualities attributed to women. Modern feminism does owe a lot to Shakespeare.

The study has provided answers to the questions raised in beginning. The study has shown that though Shakespeare presents the female perspective, it would be too much to say that the plays are ideologically conflicted. The overall impact of every comedy under study is definitely in favour of patriarchy. However, the study has shown that in Shakespearean comedies women sometimes violate the traditional patriarchal codes defining and prescribing roles, duties, assignments, dress codes to their gender, thereby challenging and questioning the patriarchal values and codes.
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Quality Assurance Reflections on Higher Education in Pakistan

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Abstract

Higher Education Commission (HEC) Pakistan emphasizes quality as one of the key pillars of higher education development. It has developed and implemented the systematic QA standards, policies and processes in order to assure and enhance the quality of Higher Education in the country since 2002. This article describes impact of an approach which is developed and tested by the HEC for the purpose of quality assurance and consistent enhancement in the Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) of a developing country aiming at increased value of the qualifications awarded. It further illustrates the QA strategy, initiatives and respective outcomes harmonized with the international QA priorities. The QA experience of HEC for higher education development reflects a paradigm shift as an impact of Quality Assurance on Higher Education thus being recognized as one of the impact driven initiatives amongst developing countries.

Key Words: Quality assurance, Higher education, Standards

Introduction

It is recognized globally that quality adds value to higher education and needs to be considered as one of the top priorities of the sector. Therefore, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) Pakistan emphasizes quality as one of the key pillars of higher education development and demonstrates an indigenous but internationally compatible Quality Assurance Programme (QAP). It was considered necessary since the establishment of Higher Education Commission (HEC) in the year 2002 to develop

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and implement the systematic QA standards, policies and processes in order to assure and enhance the quality of Higher Education in the country. This paper is developed with the aimed to discuss concept of quality in higher education and discuss the role of Higher Education Commission (HEC) for developing a Quality based Higher Education System in Pakistan, and to explore the effect of implementation of HEC quality assurance policies on the output of higher education in Pakistan.

The study is important to evaluate the concept of quality in higher education in Pakistan. It has documented efforts of HEC for ensuring quality in higher education. It is valuable to evaluate the impact of policies of HEC to improve the quality and output of efforts of HEC quality assurance policies in the country. The present study was an attempt to review and analyze literature about the topic. For this study, relevant literature and documents regarding the role of HEC to ensure quality in higher education were reviewed and critically analyzed.

Quality in Higher Education

The concept of quality is not new, nor is the idea of quality assurance. Quality assurance (QA) agencies differ greatly in the way in which they define quality and the methodologies they put in place to assess it. The difference starts from the meaning they give to quality and the assumptions that underlie their quality assurance policies. Beevan (1999, p.90) defines quality as “the totality of characteristics of an entity that bears on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs”. Understandings of quality depend on the context. Indeed, there is no one way of defining quality. However, depending on the purpose of quality assurance, the agency must establish a suitable definition for the term “quality” (Kozma, 2003).

Many sectors have debated how to define quality. A commonly quoted remark in discussions about quality is "you know what it is, yet you don't know what it is” (Pirsig, 1974, p. 178). Allen and Schwarz (2006) define quality both as grade of goodness and as excellence. This indicates the ambiguity in its meaning: namely, that it can mean both good and how well. Similarly, among other things, Webster’s dictionary describes quality, as a degree of excellence and superiority in kind. Simpson (1997) gives similar definitions such as degree of excellence of a thing, general excellence and of high quality. Degree of excellence ‘implies that one can talk about something of good quality or poor in quality. The other definitions imply that quality itself means excellence (as in quality product or their work has quality). Such ambiguity leads to many interpretations. It is therefore necessary to describe what is meant by the term in any particular context.
In a diverse and rapidly changing world, higher education sector is seen differently across the globe. However, there is consensus among schools of thought that higher education includes college and university teaching and learning towards student’s progress to attain higher qualification. Higher education imparts in-depth knowledge and understanding to advance students to new frontiers of knowledge in different walks of life. Sabri (2000, p. 1) citing J. H. Newman describes higher education as “it educates the intellect to reason well in all matters to reach out towards truth and to grasp it”.

In spite of constantly shifting accounts of the purpose of higher education, however, among academics there exists a core of consensus about what comprises higher learning. While explaining functions of universities, Whitehead (1967) explains that the university imparts information, but it imparts it imaginatively. This atmosphere of excitement, arising from imaginative consideration, transforms knowledge. A fact is no longer a bare fact. It is invested with all its possibilities. It is no longer a burden on the memory. It is energising as the poet of our dreams and as the architect of our purposes. Imagination is not to be divorced from the facts. It is a way of illuminating the facts. It works by eliciting the general principles which apply to the facts, as they exist, and then by an intellectual survey of alternative possibilities which are consistent with those principles. While the role and importance of higher education has been evolving, it is agreed that it is source or feeder system in all occupations and therefore supplies the much-needed human resource for the world. Development of indigenous technology, agriculture, health, engineering, economy, intellectual capital and growth of a knowledge economy is thus dependant on a quality higher education sector. Socioeconomic development of emerging economies depends on an efficient and fit for purpose higher education system too.

The quality oriented higher education system is vital not only for economic growth, but also for setting up social norms and developing an enlightened society. A quality based higher education system educates future workforce, increases employment opportunities, grooms future leaders, drives economic and regional success, establishes important cultural and trade links with other economies and ultimately enriches the social and environmental landscape.

Ensuring a robust quality system exists within the higher education sector is a key aspect for countries and nations. The methodologies agencies adopt for assessing quality vary. Some agencies follow the “fitness-for-purpose” definition of quality and look into the ways in which higher education institutions (HEIs) or programmes fulfill the objectives they aim to achieve. Attention is paid in this approach to the goals and objectives of HEIs or programmes, as well as institutional diversity. There are QA
agencies that emphasize pre-determined sets of standards for the HEIs or the programme for quality assurance (Kozma, 2003).

The quality of higher education being offered by HEIs of a country is also responsible for performing the additional role of developing and promoting an enlightened and democratic civil society that is neither a state nor a market, but it is a realm that harmonizes public and private interests. The higher education endorses public values than any other civic venue within this realm of a civil society. The efforts of a quality higher education system build the capacity of its graduates to contribute towards realizing liberty for the communities free of all kind of biases. An institution of higher education ensuring quality of education being provided under its arrangements is certainly a model for creating a modern civil society. This ideal state of academic quality is not often achieved but it sets standards to measure the effectiveness of higher education systems.

**Quality Assurance in Pakistan: Putting Theory into Practice**

The emerging importance of quality assurance for higher education in relation to building knowledge economies has also been realized in Pakistan. Establishment of Higher Education Commission (HEC) with portfolio of developing a Quality based Higher Education System is an evidence of serious commitment at the national level. HEC accords quality assurance as the highest priory in its reform strategy through implementation of Medium Term Development Framework, 2010-15. Quality Assurance is a crosscutting theme of all recent advancements carried out by the HEC. Quality is central to all policies programmes and activities reflected in the Medium Term Development Framework, 2010-15 and these are responsive to modern notion that quality adds value to higher education (HEC, 2005).

Quality Assurance is recognized as a focal point and parcel of all decisions of the HEC be it faculty development, research, publication, human resource development, infrastructure or curriculum development. Quality is not considered as a peripheral element for academia to realize the desired standards of higher education rather it is taken as an integrated concept in the whole course of planning, implementation, research and development at the HEC. The Quality Assurance Programme of the HEC is emphasizing to raise the standards of higher education compatible with international standards and fill the gaps in quality of higher education between national and international systems of higher learning through a holistic approach. Key components of Quality Assurance Programme of the HEC are development of an efficient Quality Assurance & Enhancement system in the HEIs, development of Minimum Quality standards well-matched with international standards, development of the Guidelines & the Processes of Quality Assurance, Building Capacity of the practitioners; and assessment against pre-defined standards. The assessment includes Programme &
Institutional reviews and assessment in line with good practices of Self-Assessment and external performance reviews of the HEIs. Hence, these components of the QA Programme of the HEC pursue the participation of stakeholders from beginning to end with systematic consultation at both national and international level.

Recently established Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) of the HEC intends to define, develop and practice a pragmatic system of Quality Assurance and Enhancement in the Universities. The QAA of the HEC has established Quality Enhancement Cells (QECs) as its operational units in 84 HEIs of the country including public and private sector. The QAA is significantly active in creating mass awareness on recent developments in Quality Assurance, developing procedures to inspire quality in academics, introducing the quality instruments for continued improvement, building capacity of HEIs, heads of QECs, and faculty to practice these quality oriented policies and practices. All these efforts aim at developing a quality culture in HEIs of the country.

A set of minimum criteria of quality assurance for PhD level studies is developed in order to address the causes of poor quality of advance degrees and standards are set up such as fulfillment of minimum PhD faculty, credit hour, assessment and research work requirement to conduct a PhD programme. It is now mandatory at least two foreign reviewers from academically advanced countries will review that PhD thesis. Further, to eradicate the menace of plagiarism in research publications and PhD dissertations, the plagiarism policy is developed and executed in the HEIs of the country. Simultaneously, to build the capacity of university on assessing plagiarism, the anti-plagiarism service “Turnitin” is provided to HEIs.

Various steps have been taken to attract and retain high quality faculty that is nucleus of higher education development process. The criteria developed and implemented for appointment of faculty, and the standards have been set for Tenure Track Faculty appointments that is impended only in few of the countries so far to encourage competent researchers and scholars to adopt teaching as a profession by choice. Further, the improvement in quality of governance is addressed through developing the standards for selection of the Vice chancellors in the universities. Other quality endeavors include Standards for Institutional Performance Reviews those are being implemented at the HEIs of the country. The criteria for establishment of new HEIs are also developed and are under strict compliance to enforce quality check on mushroom growth of substandard higher education institutions especially in the private sector.

Moreover, a two-tier process of Accreditation introduced by the HEC is an imperative step towards securitization of degrees awarded by the universities and higher
education institutions with an objective of increased international recognition of qualifications. Wider recognition of qualifications of the country presumably will result into improved academic mobility, increased opportunities of cross border education and equal job placement of Pakistani graduates in the international employment market. Institutional Accreditation process is conducted by the HEC while Programme Accreditation is carried out by the respective Accreditation Councils. The Accreditation Councils are being developed in those disciplines where these do not exist primarily like Agriculture, Business Education, Teachers Education and Computing Education. The other existing professional councils like PEC, and PMDC councils are also in an agreement to follow the Good Practices for Quality Assurance for Accreditation Councils in Pakistan (Batool & Qureshi, 2006).

The Examination and Student Assessment Systems in higher education institutions are being reformed and revamped and it is linked with assessment of achieving the learning outcomes since improved quality of graduates is the best evidence of an efficient higher education system. Lately, higher education institutions are subject to greater accountability and need for transparency to justify the increased public funding. Thus, HEC is also accountable for public funds provided therefore it is responsibility of the HEC to inform students, parents and other stakeholders about the results of Quality Assessment and Evaluation without challenging the autonomy of universities. Therefore, impact of the Quality measures on higher education is also widely shared with the stakeholders including policy makers, HEIs, faculty and students.

Although the impact of quality assurance policies and practices is more qualitative in terms of improvement of standards however, if it is discussed as a case study of Higher Education Commission of Pakistan it shows significant growth of the higher education in the country labeled with quantitative indicators of quality as well. For example, currently, five Pakistani Universities reached up to ladder of top 600 Universities of the world while this number was zero before introducing the QA practices during current decade, 66 new institutions have been established since 2002 after establishment of HEC, the enrollment is increased more than three folds. (as shown in figure I).
The PhD scholarships have been increased by 5 times as PhDs produced in previous 55 years were 3,321 whereas the HEC has produced 3, 658 PhDs in 10 years. As an impact of support to research and efforts to improve the quality of research publications through improved standards for Research Journals, the number of Pakistani Journals enlisted in the ISI Master List is increased from zero to 45. Number of Impact Factor Journals increased from 02 to 07 and now total 164 Pakistani journals are recognized by HEC as per international standards of publications. The Tenure Track System has attracted more than 1700 faculty members excelling in research and innovation, with provision of benefits and privileges to work at the universities. The Pakistan Education and Research Network have witnessed a rapid progress as only 16 Universities were connected before establishment of HEC but now this number has reached up to 106. The total HEI bandwidth is also increased to 6, 240 Mbps from 8 Mbps in just ten years age of HEC and now 75 Universities are connected through video conference. One of the major achievements is the Campus Management Solution where 50,000 students are benefiting and further expansion of the facility is underway.
Moreover, the role of the HEC does not end with assessment of quality provided in the universities of the country rather equal importance is given to build the capacity of the universities for improving the quality of teaching, learning and research environment. Sufficient funds for development are promised as pre-requisite for quality provision. Technical assistance is being offered through enhanced capacity of faculty to conduct the processes and procedures of quality assurance and enhancement, international linkages are pursuing recent advancements through agencies such as Asia Pacific Quality Network (Australia), International Network of Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (Berlin), Quality Assurance Agency of UK (QAA-UK), Arab Network for Quality Assurance (ANQAHE), National Accreditation and Assessment Council (India) etc.

**Conclusions**

Along with a significant intangible impact of the quality assurance policies and practices the above mentioned noticeable impact in quantitative terms reflects that:

1. Quality is a strong driver to achieve excellence in higher education and the model developed and tested by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan is considered as one of the good practices in quality assurance for improved and globally acceptable standards of higher education across boundaries.

2. The QA experience of Pakistan being a developing country endorses that Quality Assurance system escorts the development of higher education from
closeness to openness, from ambiguity to precision, from dependency to academic autonomy earned through building self-assessment based confidence with global recognition through external assessment.

3. Quality Assurance in higher education is being observed as a paradigm shift in the realm of a recent civil society to lead with desired quality of the graduates, expertise of the professionals, improved skills of the workforce and progressive leadership.

References


Exploring Impact of Teacher’s Feedback on Learner’s Learning Behavior at University Level

Muhammad Asif Nadeem*
Tahir Nadeem**

Abstract

Present study explores impact of teacher’s feedback on learner’s behavior at university level. Major objective of this research was to investigate how much learner’s behavior at university level was affected by teacher’s feedback. A questionnaire was designed and given to the students to observe impact of teacher’s feedback on them and how it brings behavioral change among them. The respondents comprised of learners from social science, language and literature, science graduates and prospective teachers. Data received from the respondents showed that positive feedback from teachers at all levels acts as motivational force. Negative feedback or silence disturbs students. They are not able to work properly as they are not given proper guidance from the teacher. Since feedback makes classroom culture and environment more knowledgeable, it is recommended that teachers may provide timely feedback to the learners so that they may be able to work properly.

Key Words: Feedback, tutor, study culture, learner, learning behavior, impact.

Introduction

Worldwide education is based on students learning outcomes (SLO) and teacher is focusing on interactive and activity based classrooms where learners are molded towards learning behavior. Role of teacher in modern world is that of a facilitator and guide who sets the stage, produces the action and remains as a silent observer; who observes, and provides feedback for learner’s skill achievement. Merry (2008) comments on feedback that it is one of the most influential tools in learning and achievement, but its impact can be either positive or negative. Providing right kind of feedback to learners can produce difference in their achievement. According to Merry

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feedback is one of the best research based strategy that a teacher and a student can practice to improve the learning behavior. Importance of feedback as an element of teaching strategy is quite evident. In semester system where interaction of teacher and taught is continuous in its approach, feedback is quite necessary. Researchers have sorted out such relation while teaching and a lot of observation and experiments have been taken by the researchers to find out the impact of feedback on learner’s behavior. Research has proved that feedback is part of the learning process. Formative assessment system only provides feedback on performance to improve and accelerate learning as it intends to provide grade or mark to judge cramming faculty of a learner while feedback carefully defines a useful contribution to learning. Effective and quality feedback is a key element of quality education. It seems quite clear that effective feedback may act as change element in learning behavior.

This study was carried out among last semester learners. Questionnaires and observations were made with the help of quality enhancement cell (QEC) constituted in the universities of Punjab (Pakistan). Results of this study were also given to the respective departments and quality enhancement cells in the universities where this study was done.

**Literature Review**

Importance of feedback cannot be denied and its impact on learner is quite clear on the achievement of learners and their development of skills. Feedback may be divided into two types that are external and internal. Role of external feedback is to give information about deliverer’s expectations and a justification of why student scored a particular mark. Internal feedback on the other hand provides help in developing learning behavior, guidance and mastery over the topic. Bound (2010) was of the view that feedback tells a student what he or she did wrong or right and what should be done in the future. So it seems quite obvious from the discussion that learner’s behavior is impacted due to the quality of feedback given to them. It seems that good feedback involved discussion from the tutor. Kerr believes that effective feedback helps students to develop their understanding and improve their performance. (Kerr, 2008). It seems quite clear that feedback bridges the gap, gap that exists between desired standards set by the teacher and the achievement of learner. Learners at university level come with a different approach just saying in a subject pass would do wrong for a graduate he or she demands marks, grading or explanation of why, what and how to improve themselves and this can only be done through feedback. A collective cry heard from the learners at university level was that teachers have large classes and they have to check a lot of papers and assignments and it is not feasible for them to give feedback to each and every person. They demanded reduction of workload and request to focus at least to academically poor students and give feedback to them. Teachers in Pakistani
Universities are overburdened and even in semester system they give marks and no feedback is provided to improve their educational status. McInnis (1995) suggests some ways of writing feedback. A) Description of the features of the student’s work b) evaluative judgments linked to the criteria and standards c) suggestions of alternative approaches that would lead to improvement d) explanations, or directions to resources, that demonstrate an improved possible approach that the student could use e) motivating comments (praise, encouragement etc.). Feedback may be given to the students at the start of their assignments and it is not necessary that all the time teacher may give it. It may be given through peer-assessment, self-assessment against model answers or online quizzes with automated feedback might be useful. Teaching and learning conference held in 2009 identifies that there must be innovative approaches used for the feedback. (Teaching & Learning Conference, 2009).

Hartely (2000) believes that the language and tone of the feedback may not be taunting or insulting rather it may talk about the positive aspects and then talk about the improvement, while in Pakistan it is observed that the language of the feedback either written or oral seems to bring down morale of the learners. Most of the graduates in Pakistan were found crying that most of the times they were unable to read out the phrase of wordings stated by the teacher. We need to keep in mind students' knowledge of the subject being learned is by definition partial. Hence any feedback must be expressed in language that is already known and understood by the learner. It is unreasonable to expect students to understand and use comments which are framed in language that is unfamiliar. Ramsden (2012) states that ultimate test of the feedback is to enhance learning and performance of the learner. McLaughlin (2009) is quite clear in its approach while describing guidelines on feedback deliverance: a) offer with care, b) make it specific, c) deliver it at proper time, d) must be readily actionable e) must be well balanced f) must be well phrased, and g) must be concrete and focused. It seems quite obvious that feedback is important for the development of learner’s behaviour and it may be given in positive way and keeping in mind positive approach. That approach is constructive and progressive with all aspects.

**Objectives of the Study**

Objectives of this research were:
1. To explore impact of Teacher’s feedback on learner’s learning behavior.
2. To review motivational reinforcement of feedback on learner
3. To suggest recommendations for the improvement of feedback in teaching process.
Research Procedure

The present study was based on personal observation and questionnaire items. This study was conducted in the Universities of Punjab, due to time limitation the questionnaire was delivered to the selected students of language, social science, science and prospective teachers. These students were selected on the basis of their achievement in assignments, projects, mid and final papers. A sample of 457 students was taken and questionnaire was personally delivered to them. Researchers observed them personally and on the basis of observation and data received from the respondents findings were prepared. This research study was delimited to one aspect of the teaching process that is student while another aspect remains open that is teacher’s side. The data was then exposed to MS Excel and results were interpreted in tabulated format.

Findings and Discussion

Table 1 presents views of students about feedback they received from their teachers. Item one of the data deals with the attention of the learner as it makes them more attentive towards learning because they are developing comprehension of the matter stated to them. Response shows that majority of the learners 52% agreed and 36% strongly agreed that feedback keeps them attentive to their studies. Second item deals with the change in behavior. Majority of respondents 60% were sure that they bring change in their learning behavior they agreed and strongly agreed on this theme. Third item deals with the corrective feedback given to the learner in developing learning environment. Majority of the learners 63% acclaimed that effective feedback is necessary for learning. On timely feedback majority of the respondents 58% agreed and 33% strongly agreed that timely feedback had an everlasting impact on learning behavior. Item No. 6 deals with the guidelines provided with the tutor and majority of the learners 55% were of the view that these guidelines are quite necessary for them in excelling in their learning. Performance of a learner develops due to feedback. The respondents’ majority 57% agreed and 35% strongly agreed that it really helps in the development of their performance. Majority of the students 53% strongly agreed upon the view that feedback helps in correction of their mistakes. 55% of the respondents were of the view that they do not take negative impact if feedback is given to them rather they are coercive in their behavior. Teacher and taught both are influenced by the feedback as majority of the respondents 58% agreed and 31% strongly agreed that they are influenced by the feedback given by the tutor. Question number 11 deals with the
Table 1: Students’ opinions about feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>A (%)</th>
<th>SA (%)</th>
<th>UD (%)</th>
<th>DA (%)</th>
<th>SD (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Feedback helps learning attentively</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Feedback brings change in learning behavior.</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Corrective Feedback is effective in developing learning environment.</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Timely feedback holds impact.</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Feedback may be taken from peers.</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Guidelines from tutor can provide feedback.</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Performance develops due to feedback.</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Feedback helps the students to correct mistakes.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Students take negative impact of tutor’s feedback.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Feedback aims to influence teacher and the taught.</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. General opinion feedback works positively.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Teachers ignore feedback process.</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Feedback provides mechanism for assessing student’s performance.</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Feedback may play development role among students.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Teacher’s feedback acts as motivational technique.</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. In university mostly teachers give oral feedback.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. University students like negative feedback method.</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Feedback play vital role in students learning.</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Feedback occurs between teachers</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mostly students are eager to have all their errors pointed out by their teachers. 37 21.3 18.6 13 10

Feedback increases the thinking power of the student. 34 35.3 18.6 10 2

Feedback gives opportunity to students to analyse their own performance. 33.3 33 19.6 8.3 5.6

Feedback creates patience in students to accept their mistakes. 33.3 30.7 21 11.3 3.6

Feedback helps to maintain student’s performance. 35.3 33.3 16.6 8 6.6

Students are particularly positive about receiving feedback on language issues. 25.3 28.6 20.3 18.6 7

Mostly students like direct to indirect error feedback method. 23.6 25 22.3 20.3 8.6

Students are more likely to find teacher feedback when it is contextualized. 23.6 32.3 20.6 16 7.3

Feedback is used to build relationship with students 26.3 30.6 19.3 12.6 11

Feedback is a social act. 33 29.3 18.3 9.6 9.6

and students in particular culture.

positive impact of the feedback. 50% of the respondents were of the opinion that it does while 30% agreed that it holds positive impact upon them. Item 12 shows slackness of teachers in Pakistan as they do not give corrective feedback to the learners and they just mark them and give numbers. It is evident from the data that majority of the respondents 52% said that their teachers in universities ignore feedback. Majority of the respondents 52% agreed while 32% of the learners strongly agreed that it measures performance of the students at higher education level. Students develop learning behavior among them through feedback and response of the learner was quite evident on this issue as majority 54% strongly agreed and 34% agreed with this issue. 59% of the respondents strongly agreed and 28% agreed with the statement that they get motivation from the positive feedback given to them. Oral feedback is given to the learners in higher education institutes as 28% strongly agreed, 22% agreed and 16.3% disagreed that they are not given oral feedback. In university, students are grownups and they do not seem to like negative feedback so majority of them said that they do not
like negative feedback of the tutor. Feedback also develops academic culture among learners. 58% of the learners wish to have their errors and mistakes told by the teacher. Through feedback, 70% think that they may increase their level of critical thinking. Majority of the students 65% said that it develops a relationship with their teacher and studies. Mostly in issues of communication they can easily solve their problem through written feedback and they can improve themselves through bridging gap in understanding.

Researchers have spent a lot of time to understand current practices about feedback that are being executed at higher education level, and have observed following feedback patterns:

a) Feedback is provided to all the assignments.

b) Feedback is provided late.

c) Negative comments hamper learner’s creativity.

d) Feedback is given in the form of orders in imperative way.

e) Teacher while delivering feedback try to criticize person hurting the ego instead of mistake or single behavior.

f) Abstract words, catchy phrases, ideal approach of feedback is delivered to the learner who is just beginner to this job.

g) feedback is given carelessly without keeping in mind what to be done.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Good feedback practice helps clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, expected standards) students can only achieve goals or outcomes, if they understand them, assume some ownership of them and can assess progress. If students perceive the aims of an assessment task differently to lecturers/tutors it can affect performance and their ability to use feedback. It facilitates the development of self-assessment (reflection) in learning when well organized; self-assessment can lead to significant improvement in learning especially if integrated with staff feedback. Self and peer assessment processes help develop the skills to make judgments against standards such as:

i) deliverance of high quality information to students about their learning

b) teacher may encourage peer dialogue while learning

c) discussion with the teacher helps students to develop understanding and correct misunderstandings and to get an immediate response to difficulties
d) give positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem.

The evaluation report of this study showed most of the teachers ignore the feedback process while it is very important for assessing student’s performance and play developmental role among students. Mostly teachers use feedback as a motivational technique. In universities mostly teachers use oral feedback. Every student like different method of feedback but research shows that mostly students like error feedback method. They are eager to have their errors pointed out by their teachers. After this research we can say that feedback is a social act.

In the light of facts and figures received through this research following recommendations are suggested for the improvement of feedback at university level.
The subject teachers must recognize their duty to provide week points of the learners through providing positive feedback to the learners. This feedback may be provided after short intervals and the teacher may judge what changes are being produced among the learner. Learner is achieving skills and s/he is able to reproduce what has been intended.

The teacher may give constructive criticism, positive suggestions and balanced instructions to the learners. The feedback given to the learners may be clear and there should be explanatory detailed message conveyed to the learner about his/her improvement in the subject.

The learners may be given an open opportunity to discuss their grades/marks/assignment/presentation. Teachers and learners may sit together to resolve the problem that is occurring time and again.

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http://teacherbootcamp.edublogs.org/2010/01/23/goal-12-resources-for-giving-constructive-feedback/


An Analysis of the Perceptions of Faculty and Management about the Impact of Globalization on Business Schools

Ashi Zeshan*

Abstract

Increasing globalization is one of the greatest challenges faced by business schools. Business schools worldwide are in a pressure to revisit their strategies and structure to offer competitive programs to survive at global marketplace. To remain a vital force, the academic community should be more active in recognizing and responding to the global forces driving change in business institutions. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of faculty and management of Pakistani business schools about the impact of globalization on its five dimensions; program offerings, contents of the programs, teaching methodology, geographical expansion and partnership. The study was conducted in business schools of Islamabad and Lahore (Pakistan). The data were collected from 155 faculty members (115 male and 40 female) of business schools. A structured questionnaire consisting of 24 statements was developed to collect the data. All the items were closed ended based on five point Likert Scale (strongly agreed to strongly disagreed). The data were analysed with the help of mean, SD, t-test and one way ANOVA. The findings show that there is significant impact of globalization on business schools' program offerings, contents of the programs, teaching methodology, geographical expansion and partnership.

Introduction

Globalization seems influencing the business schools with rapid rate over the last few decades. Although globalization is described in various meanings, but influence is reported in its all shapes and kinds. It has been conceptualized as "a situation where political borders become increasingly more irrelevant, economic interdependencies are heightened, and national differences due to dissimilarities in societal cultures are central issues of business” (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999, p 232).

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Kedia and Mukherji like many other authors pointed out the influence of changes in the world of business and stressed it as central issues in management education. The trends of globalization in business market and its relation with business schools are not new and the importance and magnitude of this relationship is unlikely to diminish (Cort, Das, & Synn, 2003). According to a Delphi study, reported by Czinota, Ronkainen’s (1998) and Lorenzi, (2002), the experts ranked globalization high on their strategic agenda and agreed that universities should adjust their curricula and research to address global business issues. This adjustment is seconded by Paul Danos, dean (Tuck Business School) “Globalization is changing business education just as surely as it has changed international business” (Hanover, 2008). In 2002, American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) presented the employers’ point of view that business school faculty should keep pace with the changing scenario of Globalization of their strategy, Alliances, workforce, operations, financial and consumer markets. This empirical study, therefore, focuses on exploring the impact of globalization on various dimensions of business schools as perceived by business faculty in Pakistan.

**Literature Review**

The business is facing radical changes in its strategies due to globalization. Therefore, business schools are urged to be flexible to respond to the changing business demands through the supply of competent graduates. The business schools have to consider number of drivers behind the movement. Van der Colff, (2004) investigated four major forces of change in the environment such as global, technological, market changes, increased competition, and market pressures.

The reported factors might vary according to circumstances and countries of different continents. The findings of these researches conducted in various points of regions leads the authored thesis that globalization has significant influence on the business schools in terms of their programs, contents, pedagogy, collaboration and geographical expansions. Lorenzi (2002) reported the impact of globalization on American business schools in their strategy of global expansion. The business institutes started offering overseas programs directly in former communist regions and Asian markets, where they found extensive market demand and inability of the local universities to cater the needs. They also used another strategy to response the global needs by creating culture of diversity. They market their programs to the large numbers of Asians and designed courses combined of regional and global requirements. Such attempts to serve the demands of globalization brought forward number of new features in the systems of business schools. The graduates of business schools now find customized educational programs exhibiting multiple cultures and languages common built upon interests in virtualized and globalized environment (Lorenzi, 2002).
Based on this conversation on globalisation and business schools, Lorenzi came up with number of predictions due to globalisation in the context of developed countries. These include continuing profits in business education, attracting more students from foreign markets, high level of virtualisation and demand of highly competent global managers. The predictions are based on influence of these studies, which report current demand for USA market. The number of other factors like demands towards Asian market, European business schools, and emerging new universities of global repute may impact the predictions. The geopolitical situation is also a concern for the validity of these predictions. In support of the Lorenzi findings about business schools’ upcoming strategies, Mangan, (1997) has also agreed upon the effect of globalization on strategies of business schools. Mangan has found the globalisation, urging business schools on expanding the marketing efforts in the areas of collaboration with schools around the globe, usage of advanced technology, considerations towards foreign languages sending representatives overseas, entering into exchange programs and revision of contents as per multi-nations requirements. The highlights of Mangan lead to the trends of the globalisation of business schools in advanced countries, which is essentially to be followed by business schools of developing countries like Pakistan.

The reported impact of globalization forces has various dimensions and also variety of influence through number of ways. The changing scenario at the other hand creates some expectations in the minds of stakeholders according to their needs. Therefore the management institutions are not only supposed to devise their marketing strategies, but also to develop expected responses for their students and general market. Aggarwal, (2009) has seen this trend emerging for the last few decades and expected to behave consistently over the next few decades. He reported the expected actions to respond to the challenge of globalization such as nurturing attitudes of graduates, improving globally required skills, and balance of theory and practice, which enhance the understanding about customs, culture and traditions of various nations, where businesses are operated. He discouraged the only emphasis on measurable knowledge and urged to incorporate flexibility, change management, positivity and art to live in multicultural society. In his view, increased ethical considerations and leadership issues in business education are outcome of globalization.

The influence of globalization with reference to developing countries is discussed by Ganeshbala, (2009) in the case of India. The evidence provided in the research of Ganeshbala shows the growing competition due to globalization in developing countries like India and across the globe. Among the general suggestions of his study are: revisiting strategic orientation, introducing competitive programs through innovative methodology and adding global contents. Among the specific recommendations for developing countries, particularly of India are: up gradation of
financial and academic capabilities, strengthening the curriculum, improving standards of research and faculty, enhancing partnership with industry, and usage of latest technology in the pedagogy. Ganeshbala has hypothesized the number of skills essential for the graduates to compete the global competitive market. Among the recommended skills for global competition are; information management, technology management, decision making in multicultural context, innovation, time management, entrepreneurship and human resource development skills.

In line with the discussion to improve business schools, Thomas, (2007) recommended some implication of globalization on business education. Firstly, emphasis on the growth of multinational student diversity; second, understanding global competitive rules and regulations; third, cross cultural content in teaching; fourth, growth in customized executive education programs for MNC client, fifth, the requirement to form cross-cultural teams to manage global accounts, and finally, business education offered on a “think global – act local model. He proposed that business education should be offered on a global basis and the development of strategic alliances become important and critical.

Cornuel, (2007) highlighted the current challenges faced by business schools on highly competitive education market. He observed that forward looking business schools are changing their strategies in designing curricula, developing alliances and partnerships. Cornuel, further added that in the future business schools would offer innovative programs, ensure continuous provision of resources, qualified faculty having foreign exposure and they will seek accreditation and quality improvement. He proposed that business institutes should train students to become globally responsible leaders. A number of researchers have proposed different model for business schools to be global. Ghemawat (2008) proposed that a business school could be global by developing conscious efforts to increase the international students’ diversity (and faculty), the offering of international programs, and the development of international joint ventures.

Hawawini (2005) presented three models for business schools to be globalized or international. These include export model, import model and network model. First, the import model of business school refers to “bring the world to the school”. This is attracting students, faculty and staff from around the world to the school’s campus with a maximum number of nationalities represented in the school’s programs, its faculty, its administration and governing body. Second, the export model of business school consists in sending the students and faculty abroad. While the network model of internationalization seeks to create a multiple-site institution with full-fledged campuses located in different regions around the world, ideally in the main economic regions of the world i.e. America, Asia and Europe. Hawawini recommended that the
best model is a school with complementary and interconnected campuses in the main economic regions of the world.

Globalization is just not impacting the model of business education but a significant impact on program offerings is being reported by researchers. According to management education database cited by Wilson, (2007) there are 2700 programs delivered at 350 institutions in 35 countries. He proposes to encourage educators to focus on the markets in which they are functioning and to be vigilant in giving quality. Wilson argued that challenge posed on higher education is to provide quality offerings in the market. There is already diversity in offerings of business schools presenting a threat to traditional MBA (Wilson, 2007). Friga et. al. (2003) anticipated a shift in business schools offerings from traditional MBA programs to advanced programs such as International MBA, Custom MBA and Online MBA in response to change drivers. He further added that those business schools would be out of the scene that will not experience this shift and change accordingly. Van der Colff, 2004 is opined that to be competitive in local as well as global market, business institutes should offer innovative products through continuous improvement. Products should impart entrepreneurial and innovative skills with a global perspective. In line with these findings Pfeffer and Fong (2004) argued that globalization created competition among business schools and the business schools are facing challenges to cope with the range of variety offerings in the market.

Lorange (2005) suggested that in future the business education providers have to offer innovative products such as integrated offerings for various disciplines through integrative program design rather than offering semester length courses in specialized fields. Moreover, he argued that to be more competitive in global and local market business schools have to offer innovative products. He emphasized the need to focus on growth niches, such as executive education rather than MBA, undergraduate or PhD education. The author further proposed that leading business schools must be demand-oriented, must listen to customers, should undertake research that points to thought leadership, and should work with the business sector through lifelong learning networks (Lorange, 2005).

Researches have shown that business leaders believe that it is the responsibility of business school to educate students for careers as competent global managers in a global economy (Cort, et. al. 2003; Piochi & Allen, 1994; Thomas, 2007; Webb, Mayer, 1994). But business schools are failed to nurture global competency in its graduates (Cort, et. al. 2003; Ghemawat, 2008). Now the question is what these global competencies or capabilities are. These capabilities include flexibility, cultural sensitivity, integrity, and a global mindset (Thomas, 2007). This global mindset requires blend of global business, international studies and cross-cultural skills enhanced by a set of core ethical values and professional conduct.
To achieve this global competence the business school requires a curriculum with a global focus. Researchers recommended a number of strategies to design a curriculum to achieve the desired level of internationalization/globalization in a business school. First strategy is infusion or integrative approach requiring the coverage of the global dimensions in the core business courses. Second strategy requires the student to take a survey or introductory course in international business. Third requires a specific international course in each of the functional areas (i.e. marketing, finance, accounting or etc) and fourth strategy requires an international course outside the business school (Cort, et. al.2003). Ganeshbala, (2009) suggested that the business schools should introduce new service sector management courses, like travel and tourism management, hospital management, construction management, hotel management consultancy management, NGO management, advertising management, banking and insurance service management, and farm management. These courses should be periodically changed and efforts should be made to imbibe work related values. Ghemawat (2008) suggested a number of courses for global competence of the students. These include International Finance and control, International Marketing/public relations, International Technology and operations management, Organization and human resources in international context. For this purpose, Ghemawat, suggested two Curriculum models. First is inserting a front-end focused on semi globalization and the second is infusing globalization-related content into the functional courses. Author proposed that each functional course should have 10-20 percent cross-border component.

The global curriculum and content focus is incomplete without an appropriate delivery strategy. Van der Colff (2004) suggested that business courses should be taught through experiential and action learning for imparting skills such as entrepreneurial, innovative and vision. Lorange, 2005 explained that to compete in the networked knowledge society business educators have to shift to more workable teaching methodologies like action learning, web based learning, role playing and simulations. Ganeshbala, (2009) is of the opinion that business schools should follow case method to upgrade the standards of their graduates. Cornuel (2007) proposed that Business schools should focus on practice rather than theory by introducing case study method. With respect to globalization influence on business school to increase their business across the boundaries, Gilkes (2008) come up with interesting findings of EFMD survey. The findings show that 85% of business institutes who took part in the EFMD survey (2007) expected the percentage of activity from outside their home country be increased over the next three years in response to the changing needs of increasing number of global customers. This is a logical step by the institutes due to the undersupply of executive education in the emerging economies and schools have also hastened to build partnerships and to expand overseas, possibly a sign that the domestic market is getting saturated (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). This is why many American and
European business schools are opening their overseas campuses in emerging economies like Pakistan. De Onzono and Carmona (2007) recommended that business schools should concentrate on the expansion of geographical markets and strategic alliances to generate foreign revenues.

Business schools have made significant commitments to globalizing what they teach in recent years (Ghemawat, 2008). He reported a number of researches conducted by Globe and concluded that deans and directors consider that globalization is important issue but business schools are not doing adequate job to respond to the challenges posed by it. For instance, a survey of more than 150 deans and directors-general of business schools assembled by the European Foundation for Management Development, found less than 5 percent of deans thought that business schools were doing an adequate job in response to globalization. Moreover, he explained, at a colloquium on the Globalization of Business Education (GLOBE), the participants – deans and other faculty, for the most part ranked “utilizing courses and methods to successfully deliver key material on international business/management” as last among 13 globalization-related dimensions of business school performance. A small survey of human resource (HR) executives also prepared for GLOBE suggested even greater glumness among practitioners (Ghemawat, 2008). The discussion concluded that business institutes are aware of the needs of the globalization, but their pace is not sufficient to serve a very rapidly changing business sector.

This response, experienced by advanced countries is yet to be tested in the developing countries like Pakistan. As the slow pace of change accompanied by number of strict social and cultural customs lead business schools into slow move towards mentioned adjustment. Although global integration has pushed the business schools of countries like Pakistan to accommodate the global changes, but period of that movement is very new and results are to be seen. This study will add that needed value in literature to report the response of business schools towards globalization.

**Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Explore the perception of faculty and management about the impact of Globalization on the five dimensions of business schools; program offerings, contents of the programs, teaching methodology, geographical Expansion and Partnership.

2. Find difference about the perceived influence of globalization on the five dimensions of Pakistani business schools in the light of demographic variables

The research study was delimited to the following:
• Business schools (public & private) situated in Punjab and capital Islamabad (ICT).
• Only management and faculty members of business schools in Punjab and capital Islamabad (ICT) were included in the study.
• Exploring globalization and its effect on products, contents, methodology, markets and partnerships.

Design of the Study
This research study involves the collection of opinions from faculty and management through a structured questionnaire survey about the influence of globalization on program offerings, contents of the programs, methodology, geographical expansion and partnership of business schools.

Sampling
Multiphase sampling technique was used to achieve the objectives of this research study as at different levels of sampling the selection criteria of sample was different (Cohen, et. al., 2007). The focus of this study was on only two geographical clusters in Pakistan i.e. Punjab and Islamabad (ICT). At the initial phase the total population was geographically divided into two clusters i.e. Punjab and Islamabad (ICT). There are twenty-seven business schools in Punjab Cluster and 13 in Islamabad (ICT) making a total of 40. At the second phase the two clusters are further divided into four clusters based on their type i.e. Public business schools and Private business schools. In Punjab there are ten public business institutes and seventeen private business schools and in Islamabad (ICT) there are ten public institutes and three are private. The researcher selected 50% business schools from each sub clusters. At the third phase the faculty and management of business schools were selected by using the criteria by Cohen et. al. (2007, p.104) who describe that if the size of the population is 500 then the minimum sample would be 217 at 95% confidence level. The total faculty members in sample were 500. Therefore, 50% of the faculty members were selected as sample for the administration of questionnaire.

Sample Constitution
The target population of this study was faculty and management of business schools from Punjab and Islamabad, Pakistan. Out of 155 teachers who returned questionnaires, majority were male (74%), from private universities (93%) and having responsibility of faculty members (97%). Further, Distribution of sample with respect to designation shows that (45.2 %) respondents were Lecturers, (29 %) were Assistant Professors, (12.9%) were Associate Professors, and (12.9 %) were Professors. Majority of the respondents were lecturers and assistant professors respectively. Respondents’ distribution with respect to experience depicted that (41%) were having experience of
1-5 years, (34%) were having 6-10 years of experience, (10%) respondents have experience of 11-15 years, and (14%) were having experience of above 15 years. It means that majority of the faculty members were having 1-10 years of experience.

Tool of the Study

A self-developed structured questionnaire was used as tool of the study consisting of two parts. First part was consisted of demographic variables such as gender, university type, experience, designation and responsibility. The second part contained twenty four statements consisted of five factors generated on the basis of literature review and focus group findings conducted to have an insight from the industry experts both from academia and business about the variables. The five factors were Program offerings, contents, methodology, geographical expansion and partnership of business schools. The responses were taken on five point likert rating scale. The questionnaire was pretested in Lahore by administering the questionnaire to 30 faculty members with the same characteristics of the target sample but not included in real sample. The collected data was analysed with the help of SPSS Ver. 16 for Windows and it was tested for reliability. The coefficient of internal consistency was 0.81 in pre-test.

Results and Discussion

The instrument was administered to the total sample of 250 faculty members and after repeated visits a total response of 155 samples was achieved. One sample t-test was used to measure the impact of globalization on business schools. Table 1 indicated that t-test was applied to measure the influence of globalization on business schools. The t-test analysis for program offerings showed that faculty and management perceived significant positive impact of globalization on business schools to offer executive and international MBA programs while no influence was reported for online, split-degree and customised MBA programs. But the literature findings show that globalization is driving competition in local as well as foreign markets and in reaction the business schools have to offer innovative programs for their survival (Friga et.al. 2003; Lorange, 2005; Thomas, 2007; Webb, Mayer, Piochi & Allen, 1994; Cort, et. al. 2003). The lower means for program offerings indicate that faculty and management both do not perceive the need of global economy but to remain vital in stiff global competition they have to revisit their policy regarding program offerings and offer the need-based programs.
Table 1
Impact of Globalization on B-Schools one sample t-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of Globalization on B-Schools for:</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Globalization impact on B-Schools for Offering Executive MBA Program</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.219</td>
<td>3.492</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Globalization on B-Schools for Offering International (Multicultural) MBA Program</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.095</td>
<td>5.867</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Globalization on B-Schools for Offering Split-Degree Program</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.085</td>
<td>-.740</td>
<td>.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Globalization on B-Schools for Offering Customized MBA Program (Specific To The Need Of Client)</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.139</td>
<td>1.269</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Globalization on B-Schools for Offering Online-Degree Program</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.247</td>
<td>-1.288</td>
<td>.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence Of Globalization on Business Institutes for Introducing International Material In Course Outline</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.934</td>
<td>14.282</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence Of Globalization on Business Institutes for Adding Computer Related Contents In Programs</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1.041</td>
<td>12.189</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence Of Globalization on Business Institutes for Incorporating E-Subjects In Programs</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.099</td>
<td>8.620</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence Of Globalization on Business Institutes for Including Inter-Cultural Communication Contents In The Program</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.095</td>
<td>7.920</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence Of Globalization on Business Institutes for Emphasizing Ethical Issues In Contents Of The Programs</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.039</td>
<td>8.424</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence Of Globalization on Business Institutes for Offering Contents To Improve Interpersonal Skills</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.941</td>
<td>13.993</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Globalization on Lecture Method of Teaching</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.034</td>
<td>9.088</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalization Impact on Case-Study Method of Teaching</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.033</td>
<td>9.954</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In case of contents of the programs, faculty and management perceived a high significant impact with a mean score ranging from 3.7 to 4.07 for all the statements i.e. (adding international material in course outlines, adding computer contents, including E-subjects, adding intercultural communication contents, emphasizing ethical issues and adding contents to improve interpersonal skills). Moreover the mean scores for adding international materials in contents of the programs, computer related contents and contents to improve interpersonal skills were highest on scale depicting that respondents are in high agreement to these statements. Overall, the mean analysis show that respondents perceived these skills very important for graduates in reaction to globalization but the literature analysis show that business faculty is not exercising that needed level of effort (Ghemawat, 2008; AACSB, 2002) to change the contents of the programs. In Pakistan business education is facing continuous criticism for not

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Globalization Impact</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>t-score</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Online Method of Teaching</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.090</td>
<td>3.907</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion Method of Teaching</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.027</td>
<td>6.569</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project-based Method of Teaching</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.086</td>
<td>8.504</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage of Electronic Communication by the Faculty</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>8.263</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using the Technology by the Faculty</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.140</td>
<td>6.907</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Institutes for Opening Overseas Campuses</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.131</td>
<td>1.207</td>
<td>.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Institutes for Opening Local Campuses</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.020</td>
<td>1.654</td>
<td>.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Schools to Develop Joint Ventures</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.109</td>
<td>3.983</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Institutes to Develop Partnership with Corporate Sector</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.198</td>
<td>3.555</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Institutes to Develop Partnership with Local Institutes</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.050</td>
<td>-994</td>
<td>.322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Institutes to Develop Partnership with Foreign Institutes</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>7.714</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
delivering the skills and knowledge to serve the global economy. Therefore, policy makers should perceive and identify the areas of improvements within programs’ contents and restructure the contents to impart the desired skills and knowledge.

For the impact of globalization on teaching methodology again management and faculty perceived positive high impact with a mean score ranging from 3.34 to 3.8 for the asked statements i.e. (lecture method, case study method, online method discussion method, project method, usage of electronic communication by the faculty and usage of multimedia by the faculty). Among all the statements case study method, lecture method and project based method of teaching gained the highest mean score showing that management and faculty both perceive these methodologies important with respect to business schools in reaction to globalization. The lowest rating (3.34) was given to online method of teaching. In Pakistani business schools most dominantly used teaching methods are lecture method in combination with case study and project based method. The situation is serious in this regard because neither teaching faculty is trained to use modern methods to enhance the learning process nor the management is keen to upgrade the skills of faculty and staff through workshops and seminars. In addition the faculty should be motivated through intrinsic and extrinsic motives to use modern technology aided methods as recommended in literature (Ganeshbala, 2009; Cornuel 2007; Lorange, 2005; Van der Colff, 2004)

In case of geographical expansion, the analysis shows that faculty and management significantly perceive positive impact (M=3.35) of globalization on business schools to develop joint ventures while in case of opening overseas and local campuses by business schools mean score was higher than the criterion value but it is insignificant. It means management and faculty both do not perceive that globalization is impacting business school in this regard which is not in line with the literature findings (Gilkes 2008; De Onzono & Carmona 2007; Friga et.al. 2003; AACSB, 2002; Lorenzi 2002). As business degrees are selling like hot cakes in Pakistan, many foreign universities are opening and have opened their campuses here for earning revenues while many Pakistani institutions are planning to open their local campuses nationwide.

To measure the perceptions of faculty and management about globalization on partnership of business schools three statements (partnership with corporate sector, partnership with local and foreign business institutes) are given to respondents. The finding show a high impact of globalization on developing partnership with corporate sector and foreign business institutes but no significant impact is reported about developing partnership with local business institutes. It is evident from the table that the highest impact (M=3.70) of globalization is seen on business school to develop partnership with foreign business institute followed by partnership with corporate sector. This is true in Pakistani scenario many universities are taking affiliations from
foreign institutions to attract students. Moreover, some institutions are offering split
degree programs in which students are attracted to earn a foreign degree while
completing some of the courses in Pakistan.

Analysis for Variance in Demographics

To find out the difference of opinion with respect to sample demographics,
independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA was applied. The independent sample
statistics results for gender, responsibility and university type showed that there was
insignificant difference of opinion by the respondents. For the variables of experience
and designation, one way ANOVA was used and results are as follows:

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Impact of Globalization in Sub-scale by Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Average Influence of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalization on Business Schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 – 5</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 15 Years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>155</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.606</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicates that the mean scores of faculty and management having
experience of 6–15 years are higher than the other categories. Table 3 indicates
significant difference of opinion among faculty members with 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-
15 years and above 15 years categories of university teaching experience regarding
globalization.

Table 3
One-way ANOVA Analysis of Variance for Impact of Globalization in Sub-scales by Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External Factors</th>
<th>Variances</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Globalization</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3.929</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.310</td>
<td>3.763</td>
<td>.012*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>52.548</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>.348</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P<0.05
Table 4
**Tukey HSD for Multiple Comparisons of Impact of Globalization in Sub-Scales by Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Scales</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>(J)Designation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(I)</td>
<td>6-10 Years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalization</td>
<td>-0.091</td>
<td>-0.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 indicates that the respondents having experience 6-10 years and 11-15 years pointed out significant impact of globalization on business schools while the respondents from the other categories did not show concern about impact of selected variables. Table 5 indicates that in all the four categories the mean scores of assistant professors followed by lecturers are high.

Table 5
**Descriptive Statistics for Impact of Globalization in Sub-scale by Designation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Designation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Average Influence of</td>
<td>Lecture</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalization on Business Schools</td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.606</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6
One-way ANOVA Analysis of Variance for Impact of Globalization in Sub-scales by Designation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External Factors</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Globalization</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>7.895</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.632</td>
<td>8.179</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>48.583</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05

Table 6 indicates that there is significant difference of opinion among Lecturers, Assistant Professors, Associate Professors and Professors regarding Globalization. Table 7 indicates that Assistant Professors pointed out significant impact of Globalization on business schools.

Table 7
Tukey HSD for Multiple Comparisons of Impact of Globalization in Sub-Scales by Designation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Scales</th>
<th>(I)</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>(J)Designation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalization</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>-0.556*</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
<td>-0.313*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05

The demographic analysis shows that faculty having experience 6-15 years and designation of assistant professors perceived significant influence of globalization on business schools.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The objectives of the research study was to measure the perception of faculty and management about the impact of globalization on business schools’ program offerings, contents of the programs, methodology, geographical expansion and partnership. The results show that with respect to program offerings management and
faculty perceived globalization influence only on executive and international MBA programs. Therefore, Pakistani business institutes have to offer innovative program offerings keeping in view the needs of local and global markets. For contents of the programs the highest influence was seen for adding international materials in contents of the programs, computer related contents and contents to improve interpersonal skill. But in practice the business schools courses are not imparting the required skills to the graduates, therefore, business institutes have to take practical steps in this regard. In case of teaching methodology with respect to Pakistani institutions management should train the faculty members to use those methods which are crucial for business teaching such as project based method, experiential learning method and case study method. To cater the ever increasing demand of business education, business schools may expand by opening local as well as international campuses. Very important aspect which could be beneficial for Pakistan as a whole is the partnership of business schools with various sectors such as industry academia partnership, partnership with foreign business institutes and partnership with local business institutes. Amongst the three, the most important and beneficial is the industry academia partnership for the betterment of business schools, industry and economy by exchanging and providing useful human and research resources.

References


Translation and Validation of Metacognitions Questionnaire-30: A Pilot Study on Pakistani Adults

Masood Nadeem*
Samar Fahd*
Muhammd Dilshad**
Abida Parveen*
Sadia Iqbal*

Abstract

The present study aimed first, to translate the MCQ-30 in National language (i.e., Urdu) of Pakistan and second, to analyze the psychometric properties (reliability and validity) of the Urdu translated version of MCQ-30 on Pakistani adults. The process of translation included forward translation, backward translation and discussion with bilingual experts and professionals of psychology. The final Urdu version of MCQ-30 was tested on 50 adults including males (N=25) and females (N=25), all married. The randomly selected samples were taken from different areas of Bahawalpur City. The reliability of scale was assessed through analysis of Cronbach's Alpha and test re-tests reliability. Cross language validity of the MCQ-30 English and Urdu Versions are 0.69 (English-Urdu) and 0.62 (Urdu-English). Reliability of the Urdu translated version of SPS inferred by Cronbach’s Alpha ranges from 0.57-0.67 for the five subscales of the MCQ-30; and test re-test reliability coefficient is 0.72.

Introduction

The most straightforward definition of Metacognition is that it is thinking about thinking (Bogdan, 2000; Flavell, 1999; Metcalfe, 2000). Meta cognition involves knowing how to reflect and analyze thought, how to draw conclusions from that analysis, and how to put what has been learned into practice. In order to solve problems, students and others often need to understand how their mind functions. In other words, they need to perceive how they perform important cognitive tasks such as remembering, learning, and problem solving.

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Flavell (1976) first introduced the term metacognition, in which he referred as “one’s knowledge concerning one’s own cognitive processes or anything related to them”. Cognitive psychologists (e.g., Miller, 2000; Newell & Simon, 1972) have referred Meta cognition as the “executive control” system of the human mind as higher order cognitions that supervise a person’s thoughts, knowledge and actions (Weinert, 1987). Meta cognition describes the awareness and control of one’s own thoughts. The basic Meta cognitive strategies are: 1) Connecting new information to former knowledge, 2) Selecting thinking strategies deliberately, and 3) Planning, monitoring, and evaluating thinking processes (Akama, 2006).

Meta cognition has often been conceptualized as comprising two components: knowledge component and regulation component (Brown, 1987; Flavell, 1979). The knowledge component refers to knowing one’s cognitive processes, such as knowledge about oneself as a thinker, characteristics of existing task, and about which strategies are required to carry out for effective performance; the regulation component refers to the actual strategies one applies to control cognitive processes such as planning how to approach a task, monitoring, understanding, comprehension, evaluating progress and performance. According to Flavell (1979), Meta cognitive knowledge refers to acquired knowledge that can be used to control cognitive processes, which are to be further divided into three categories. In addition, Brown (1987) added Meta comprehension, i.e. to know that you understood a question as an important category of Meta cognitive knowledge. Through regulation, the individual makes use of such knowledge to modify and improve intellectual performance. That is, Meta cognitive knowledge provides the basis for effective regulation. Thus, the knowledge and the regulation components supplement each other and are both essential for optimal performance (Livingston, 1997; Schraw & Dennison, 1994).

Another distinction that must be made is one that distinguishes Meta cognitive activities from cognitive activities. The border between what is Meta cognitive and what is cognitive has been unclear, and many have acknowledged the two may be mutually dependent on each other and thus cannot be entirely separated (Flavell, 1979; Livingston, 1997; Veenman et al., 2006). Kluwe (1987) refined the concept of Meta cognition by noting two characteristics: the thinker knows something about his/her own and others’ thought processes, and the thinker can pay attention to and change his/her thinking. This type of Meta cognition calls ‘executive processes’ Kluwe (1987). Hacker (1998) points out the difference between cognitive tasks (remembering things learned earlier that might help with the current task or problem) and Meta cognitive tasks (monitoring and directing the process of problem solving), stressing the importance of learning more about thinking.
Hacker (1998) divides Meta cognition into three types of thinking: Meta cognitive knowledge; what one knows about knowledge Meta cognitive skill, what one is currently doing, Meta cognitive experience; one’s current cognitive or affective state. Therefore, whilst cognition focuses on solving the problem, Meta cognition focuses on the process of problem solving (Afflerbach et al., 2008). Meta cognitive development progresses as a result of challenges from the environment and if these challenges are the result of a significant life event like leaving home, it seems likely that this will involve the internalization of new experiences and subsequent increases in Meta cognitive activity. Everyday challenges emerging from the new social context provide fertile environments for the development of Meta cognition. In terms of social constructivist theory, Meta cognitive processes begin as social processes and gradually become internalized (Downing, 2001).

The literature in the area of Meta cognition identifies two distinct aspects of Meta cognition: Knowledge about cognition and the regulation of cognition (Brown, 1987; Flavell, 1979; & Veenman et al., 2006). Knowledge about cognition refers to the knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables interact in what ways to affect the course and outcomes of cognitive enterprises (Flavell, 1979). Flavell and Wellman (1977) distinguished meta cognitive knowledge concerning the person (e.g. ‘I am good at memorizing’), the task (e.g. ‘the study book for Introduction to Psychology is easier than that for statistics’) and the strategy (e.g. ‘Elaboration helps to understand’) and knowledge about the interaction between these three variables (e.g. ‘Rehearsal helps me when I have to memorize something, but when I have to understand other strategies like organizing the study material are more helpful’).

Cross and Paris (1988) discerned three kinds of Meta cognitive knowledge: (a) Declarative knowledge (knowing what factors influence human cognition), (b) Procedural knowledge (knowing how certain skills work and how they should be applied), and (c) Conditional knowledge (knowing when strategies are needed). A component of Meta cognition that has received relatively little attention concerns meta cognitive experiences. Flavell (1979) describes metacognitive experiences as any conscious cognitive or affective experience that accompanies and pertains to any intellectual enterprise. Efklides and Petkaki (2005) noted that persons who engage in cognitive tasks experience various mental states, such as interest, and form judgments regarding their task processing and how well they are doing.

One key assumption of all theories of Meta cognition is that knowledge and regulation of cognition are mutually correlated (e.g. Jacobs & Paris 1987; Flavell, 1979). However, this positive relationship does not occur when Meta cognitive knowledge is incorrect, since incorrect meta cognitive knowledge about their learning processes prevents students from amending this knowledge (Veenman et al., 2006).
Meta cognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI) of Schraw and Dennison (1994) showed that knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition were strongly intercorrelated. This was confirmed by the results of Sperling et al. (2004). Sperling et al. (2004) and Luwel et al. (2003) pointed out that Meta cognitive knowledge and regulation influence decisions about which strategy to use. Luwel et al. (2003) administered interviews to gather data about six grader’s Meta cognitive knowledge and regulation. In the study of Sperling et al. (2004), first-year students completed the Meta cognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI). Both studies found that the engagement in Meta cognitive activities was positively related to the use of all relevant strategies.

Extensive research work on Metacognition helps to understand the importance of this construct. There are several instruments available in the Western countries to measure the said construct. One such instrument is Metacognitions Questionnaire-30 (Wells & Cart-Wright Hatton, 2004). This scale consists of 30 items and assesses five aspects of metacognition. These provisions include: positive beliefs about worry, negative beliefs about worry concerning uncontrollability of thoughts and danger, cognitive confidence, beliefs about the need to control thoughts and cognitive self-consciousness. Each item is rated on a four point likert scale ranging from 1 (disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicate higher levels of unhelpful metacognitions. Using the MCQ-30, scores can be derived for each of the five provisions as well as for a global metacognitions score. Research has supported the reliability and validity of the said Scale, as well as the factor structure of the measure (Wells & Cart-Wright Hatton, 2004).

Now-a-days in Pakistan the trend of researches in social sciences seems optimistically high. To support this trend we need instruments especially in our national language (Urdu) to measure the desired constructs. This research is an effort to make available a scale (i.e., MCQ-30) in “Urdu” language that can measure an important construct of metacognition for research scholars/students of social, mental and health sciences. The primary intent of this research was the translation of the Metacognitions Questionnaire-30 in the national language of Pakistan, and then analysis of Psychometrics properties of the Urdu version of MCQ-30. This study would provide a reliable and valid measure in national language (Urdu) to assess the construct of metacognition for Pakistani population.

**Objectives of the study**

Following objectives were formulated for the study:
1. To assess the metacognitions of married adults in Bahawalpur District.
2. To translate the English questionnaire in Urdu language to maximize its usability on population that speaks and understands Urdu language.
3. To establish psychometric properties of Urdu translated Meta cognition questionnaire.
Research Method

Instrument

The translated version of Metacognitions Questionnaire-30 (Wells & Cart-Wright Hatton, 2004) was used as an instrument for data collection. The translation process carried out with the help of professionals who were expert in both languages (English and Urdu). Initially two bilingual experts translated the scale from English to Urdu language. Then these translations were critically reviewed and transformed by the help of another expert translator into the one compiled version (without telling the purpose of the study). The most consistent items were added into the compiled version.

Next, two different professionals reviewed the translation of the scale and then they translated the scale back into English (without seeing the original English version). Then, these six translations were compiled with the help of a bilingual expert (who was relevant to Psychology but did not know the study’s purpose). In next step this translated version was compared with the original English version. After that a meeting was conducted with two bilingual Clinical Psychologists (including one PhD) in which both Clinical Psychologists discussed item difficulty, clarity, precision and content of the items. Every suggestion with respect to wording and concept of the scale has been taken into account. After that one Urdu translated version of MCQ-30 was finalized and was assessed for its psychometric properties.

Sample

A randomly selected sample of 50 young adults was taken from Bahawalpur area. They were all married and had children. Personal information was obtained through items focusing on the participant’s age, gender, marital status, socioeconomic status, number of family members, monthly income of family, and of history of psychological illness in their first degree relatives.

Data Collection and Analysis

The Urdu version of the MCQ-30 was administered on the sample after taking informed consent. First, the participants were asked to fill in the Demographic Form which focused on information like subjects” age, gender, socioeconomic status, etc. Then, they were asked to fill in the MCQ-30 Urdu version. The standard method of scoring was used for all the scales. Descriptive statistics, Reliability Coefficient and Validity coefficient were computed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, V-18).
Results

Summary of results has been presented in the following pages:

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Scales of MCQ 30</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Reliability Coefficient for Males’ MCQ 30</th>
<th>Reliability Coefficient for Females’ MCQ 30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Beliefs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Beliefs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Confidence</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Control</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Self</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The internal consistency of the items of MCQ 30 Urdu version ranges from 0.57 to 0.67 which is acceptable and satisfactory.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Scales of MCQ 30</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Male Test Retest Reliability Coefficient</th>
<th>Female Test Retest Reliability Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Beliefs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Beliefs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Confidence</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Control</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Self</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test retest reliability coefficient for MCQ 30 Urdu version demonstrates a good score of 0.72 which is indicative of satisfactory test retest reliability of Urdu version of MCQ 30.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups (Parents)</th>
<th>MCQ Version</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>English – Urdu</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Urdu – English</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The positive correlations are indicative of good association between Urdu and English versions of MCQ 30. The correlations are calculated by administering the Urdu version to two groups each comprising 25 participants of both sexes.

**Discussion**

This study was designed to translate MCQ-30 in Urdu language and to assess psychometric properties of translated version. Research studies in social sciences have certain limitations even if they are carefully designed. There are also several limitations associated with this study. First of all, data of this research is taken from only Bahawalpur city. Therefore generalization of these results to all Pakistani population is not appreciated. Second, the data was collected from a selected group; this limits the power of generalization of this study’s findings to married adults of middle socioeconomic status only.

Use of Urdu version of MCQ-30 may be appreciated by the researchers in order to measure Metacognition among different segments of population in Pakistan. This study is significant in the sense that it has developed and validated much needed instrument i.e. Urdu version of MCQ-30. It will be more suitable to conduct the psychometric properties of Urdu Version of MCQ-30 for diverse samples, for example, adolescents, aged people, people with mental health problems, with chronic diseases, and also with physical handicapped etc. More specifically, a study based on large data with representation of all provinces of Pakistan is also needed to improve generalization of results.

**References**


What should a Leader do? An Investigation of the Leader’s Role to Enhance the Faculty Job Satisfaction

Muhammad Amin*
Ayaz Muhammad Khan*
Ijaz Ahmad Tatlah*

Abstract

The purpose of the paper is to explore the role of a leader in enhancing the faculty members’ job satisfaction, as perceived by the faculty, in a public university context of Pakistan. The qualitative approach has been employed through using semi-structured interview protocol to generate rich qualitative data. Five campuses out of a total of 13 campuses/divisions were selected of a case university from where 15 faculty members were interviewed. The findings highlight that the leader’s role has been found to be critical for the faculty members’ job satisfaction. The findings further show that the exercise of behaviors related to all the transformational aspects and the first dimension (contingent reward) of the transactional leadership, that design the leader’s role, by leaders have been highlighted as necessary for enhancing the faculty members’ job satisfaction. The defined leader’s role in the present study context to enhance the faculty job satisfaction is based upon and informed by the societal and organizational context of the current research. The readers of this research are, therefore, suggested the careful use of these findings.

Key Words: Leader’s Role, Job Satisfaction, Societal and Organizational Context

Introduction

There is a great deal of research that has been conducted across the world in different cultural contexts, including both collective and individualistic societies and in different educational settings such as school, college and university to explore the interplay between leadership style and teachers/faculty job satisfaction. The findings highlight that a relationship exists between

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leadership behaviour and teachers/faculty job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Grosso, 2008; Nguni et al., 2006; Stumpf, 2003). However, the degree of the relationships between different leadership styles and job satisfaction vary in different societies because of organizational and societal cultures (Bass, 1997).

Various studies highlight that in different cultural contexts certain leadership styles and even some aspects of these styles are more preferred as compared to others, while some leadership styles and in some cases their specific dimensions are even not practiced in certain contexts and are perceived as having a negative influence on job satisfaction (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1993 & 2000; Levine, 2000). This supports the researchers who advocate the contextually informed leadership role (Shah, 2006b; Shahin & Wright, 2004; Shaw, 2005) to enhance the faculty job satisfaction. This highlights the importance of culturally informed leadership role in enhancing the faculty job satisfaction, which in turn might be helpful to improve institutional performance and quality. The international literature is focused to examine the relationship between leadership style and faculty job satisfaction, predominantly, through utilizing the survey approach instead exploring the leader’s role in this regard by qualitative investigation in a specific context. Moreover, there is not a single study that has qualitatively investigated the leader’s role to enhance the faculty job satisfaction at university level in Pakistan. The present study aims to bridge this research gap.

**The Study Context**

In Pakistan, there are 148 (83 public and 65 private) universities or degree-awarding institutes (Higher Education Commission (HEC), 2013). These universities are semi-autonomous in their functions and are accountable to the provincial governments and HEC for their administrative issues. The HEC is the main governing body for higher education in Pakistan, which provides assistance to these institutions in terms of academics, human resource development, pedagogy, quality assurance, research, planning and development, reforms, monitoring and evaluation, and financial support (HEC, 2013). Most of the contextual information provided below is taken from the website of the university under study, and some are based upon the researchers’ personal experience as faculty members in the said university.

The public university in Pakistan, which is the focus of the present study and will remain unnamed, was established in 2002 and is the first specialized university in the field of Education in Pakistan. This university has 10 campuses in eight different cities of the Punjab province. These campuses were colleges, predominantly offering education programmes and training for fresh students and in-service school teachers before the establishment of the university. There were also three divisions (division of education, division of science and technology, and division of arts and social sciences)
in two of these campuses at the time of data collection, however recently two of these are merged in their respective campuses. The constituent campuses of the university include two century-old institutions for teacher education and training with a good standing and a tradition of excellence in the sub-continent. One of the constituent campuses was offering teacher education and training to only females before the establishment of university in 2002, and this tradition is still continued.

Each campus is headed by campus principal and division is headed by a separate divisional director. In the context of the present study the campus principal and divisional director work under the vice-chancellor and are responsible for the entire administrative, academic and research affairs of the subordinate faculty and campus or division (Provincial Assembly Punjab (PAP), 2004). In the hierarchical structure of Pakistani universities faculty members are seen as subordinates. In almost all Pakistani universities these roles and positions are similar and equally crucial, although they might be labelled differently, such as head of department or chairperson, in different Pakistani universities. The university is offering degree programmes ranging from bachelor to PhD in Education and other disciplines. Presently the university has nearly 13000 students on the roll including about 150 in MPhil and PhD programmes. Moreover, there are 45 colleges situated across the Punjab province that are affiliated with the university and mainly offer education programmes and trainings. The university oversees the admission, curriculum, examination and degree awarding issues of these institutions.

The university aims to prepare dynamic leaders and practitioners in teaching, research and management having content excellence, pedagogical competence, commitment and integrity, who may ensure quality and sustainable development at all tiers and sectors of education. In order to achieve this aim, the university’s focus is to offer nationally and internationally accepted academic programmes to produce classroom teachers to meet the need of public and private schools of various levels such as primary, secondary and higher secondary, educational leaders and managers, educationists, researchers and curriculum developers. Moreover, the university focuses on making the teaching profession attractive to the youth by providing quality programmes with equal emphasis on quantity of the product. Furthermore, the university is focused to emerge as leader institution in various branches of Education by learning and contributing through linkages with national and international academic community and society along with taking equity measures to provide quality education.

Similar to the Pakistani context, there is considerable agreement in the literature, irrespective of the country or the type of institution to which it relates, regarding the importance of the head and his/her role (Smith, 1997). For example, Weinberg (1984) claims that “the academic department chairperson is the most pivotal
of all positions concerned with instructional development” (p.301). Bennett and Figuli argue that “any organizational chart will testify to the critical role the chair plays, however unsung that role may be... [and] chairs set the academic tone of the institution” (1990, p.28). Further, Mathias points out that “the head of department occupies [a] key institutional position” (1991, p.65), and Brook and Davies (1994) also agree with this statement. In essence, “…departmental chairs play a pivotal role... [and] they are higher education’s first line academic leaders” (Green & McDade, 1991, p.137). However, while comparing the head’s role with that of leaders generally holding comparable positions in different fields, heads are characterized by Tann as “people managing at the middle level” (1995, p.85). Yet, Middlehurst argues that because of its importance “the departmental headship role [is] not directly comparable to middle management positions in private [non-academic] sector organizations” (1993, p.130), but is “more akin to the managing director of a not insignificant business concern” (Mathias, 1991, p.68). The current research context and the international literature highlight the general importance of the leaders’ role; however no study investigated this role with reference to enhancing the faculty job satisfaction. The purpose of this paper is to explore the role of a leader in enhancing the faculty members’ job satisfaction, as perceived by the faculty, in a public university context of Pakistan.

Leadership and Culture

The “concepts, theories and practices in education [are] predominantly embedded in Western philosophy and values” (Shah, 2006b, p.363) and this applies equally to the notions and theories/models associated to educational leadership (House, 1995; Simkins et al., 2003; Shah, 2010). It is observed that “theory and practice are shaped by the values, beliefs, ideologies, behaviour and conventions in [a specific] ...social system” (Shah, 2006b:365). With the increasing recognition of significant interplay between culture and leadership practices (Dimmock, 2002; Dimmock & Walker, 2002a; Hofstede, 2001), “there is a growing awareness of need for a better understanding of the way in which leadership is enacted in various cultures and a need for an empirically grounded theory to explain differential leader behaviour and effectiveness across cultures” (House, 1995, p.443-444). Consequently, the notion of exercising culture and context informed/specific leadership behaviour is gaining attention by leadership researchers (Dimmock, 2000a; Dimmock & Walker, 2000 & 2005; House & Javidan, 2004; House et al., 2004; Shah, 2010).

There is also increasing concern regarding the extent to which leadership conceptions, theories and models can be used in a certain societal context that were developed in an entirely different cultural context (Simkins et al., 2003), because “the context of leadership is [perceived] crucial” in the emerging view of leadership (Simkins, 2005, p.12). Shah (2006b, p.364) argues that “the concept of educational leadership varies across societies and cultures [and] different interpretations of
leadership reflect the ways of looking at it and the philosophical and theoretical assumption behind them”. For example, “the notion of educational leadership in Islam derives from Islamic philosophy of education, and contextual variations of conceptualisation and practice across Muslim societies involve interpretations informed by an understanding of religious texts, which reinforces the interplay between faith and concepts” (Shah, 2006b, p.367); whereas, in the Chinese context the concept of leadership is underpinned by the Confucius philosophy or system of social beliefs (Tung, 2003).

In this particular field of leadership and culture House et al. (2004) carried out important research. House and associates conducted studies in 62 different societies or cultures across the world to find out how people from various cultures perceive leadership and how the characteristics of a specific culture are linked with culturally endorsed leadership role. In summary, they aimed to determine how cultural differences among different societies influence desirable leadership practices in those societies. Some of their findings are presented here. These researchers found that in Germany, The Netherlands, Switzerland and Austria, an effective leader is perceived as more autonomous, participative, charismatic, and also perceived as moderately humane and team oriented, but also one who is not concerned with status and face-saving because these societies are more performance and future oriented, have more assertiveness, and have less orientation towards humane, institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism (House et al., 2004). These societies think that an ideal leader should be independent, should involve colleagues in the decision-making process, should inspire and support others through self-sacrifice and keep moral values in view, and should also develop a sense of collective aim among group members, but should not be self-centred (House & Javidan, 2004).

This is in contrast to Middle Eastern countries, which include Egypt, Morocco, Turkey, Kuwait and Qatar, where face-saving, status consciousness, being self-centred and more procedural are significant attributes of an ideal leader (House et al., 2004). These societies also give importance to autonomy and familiality for a leader, but in these cultures being participative, charismatic and team-oriented are less important aspects for an effective leader, because these societies are more oriented towards in-group collectivism, and individuals express faithfulness to and pride in their institutions and families. Further, these societies are less future-oriented and generally importance is given to prevailing issues. Gender discrimination is common and fewer women are in higher positions as compared to men because women are accorded lower status compared to men. In these cultures people place less emphasis on orderliness and policies (House & Javidan, 2004; House et al., 2004). These debates endorse the argument presented in the introductory section regarding the important nexus between
culture and leadership practices and consequently the need to explore the contextually informed leader’s role to enhance the faculty job satisfaction.

Methodology

The qualitative approach has been employed through using semi-structured interview protocol to generate rich qualitative data. The case university has 13 units including ten campuses and three divisions from where five campuses were selected. Based upon the availability-convenience sampling (Cohen et al., 2007), three faculty members were interviewed from each selected campus that makes a total of 15 participants. The data was analyzed through content analysis because it is appropriate to report the main message of the data (Cohen et al., 2007).

Data Presentation, Findings and Discussion

The data highlight that all the participants emphasized the importance of the leader’s role in enhancing the faculty members’ job satisfaction. They mentioned leadership characteristics and behaviour which they believed as being necessary for enhancing their job satisfaction. The respondents maintained that these characteristics and behaviours, which in fact are very similar to the characteristics of the transformational leadership style, define the leader’s role:

A leader should be with humanistic approach, ...leader should...place trust and understand that his/her subordinates are capable and could do good job, and he must provide opportunity to faculty to do work at their own which help people to build their confidence, leader should delegate authority to faculty, leader should treat faculty with respect, ...good relationships between leader and faculty, there should be justice ...and leader should not impose his/her decisions, there should be conducive environment where all should work as a team, ...leader should help the faculty in their progress ...and to achieve the institutional goals, ...leader [should] communicate with the faculty while implementing the policies and exercising rules and regulations, ...[and] leader should maintain high moral and ethical values. (R15)

Another respondent mentioned several more leadership characteristics which influenced the leader’s role towards enhancing the faculty members’ job satisfaction:

Leader is a role model. He/she is just like a perfect man. So, his/her actions ...affect the faculty members..., [for example] if he does anything which is useful for the institution ...it will give ...motivation to the faculty to do the similar things. So, the role of the leader is very important. He/she should involve the faculty in the decision making process, in this way faculty will feel very good because they are being involved [in decision making process].
...He/she should be cooperative and facilitative to the faculty. ...Leader should develop the faculty personally and professionally, [and] he/she should have good vision, because these all things affect very much on the job satisfaction of faculty. (RI3)

There are many studies which support these findings and acknowledge the leader’s key role in enhancing teacher/faculty member satisfaction with their jobs (Al-Omari, 2008; Bogler, 2001; Dinham and Scott, 2000; Evans, 2001; Madlock, 2008; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). The findings of the present study, with regards to the leadership behaviour necessary for enhancing faculty job satisfaction, are consistent with the findings of the prior research conducted elsewhere in the educational setting (Cheah et al., 2011; Awan et al., 2008; Basham, 2010; Dastoor et al., 2003; Grosso, 2008; Levine, 2000; Nguni et al., 2006; Stumpf, 2003; Tucker et al., 1992; Webb, 2003) and more specifically at the head of department level - similar to the divisional director/campus principal position in the case of the present study (Ambrose et al., 2005; Benoit & Graham, 2005; Bland et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2004; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Lindholm, 2003; Murry & Stauffacher, 2001; Trocchia & Andrus, 2003).

Analysis

Shah (2006b, p.365-366) argues that “different cultures, societies and communities construe leadership in different ways, [therefore] how a particular society perceives and constructs educational leadership, ...needs to be understood and debated in context [because] when leadership is wrenched from the context and theorised, the complexity and ambiguity of the concept and subsequent difficulties in interpretation/s increase”. Simkins et al. (1998) in their study regarding the role perception of school leadership in Pakistan argue that “the role of the headteacher can only be fully understood within its own particular context... [and] that contextual factors will influence the nature of headship in Pakistan as they will elsewhere” (p.132). The researchers further argue that in developing countries most of the debate regarding the headteacher’s role is focused on leadership models/theories developed in the Western world rather than investigation of educational leaders’ roles in the particular local context. These arguments are equally true for university leadership. The present study extended Simkins et al’s. (1998) argument from school leadership to university leadership and explored the leader’s role in enhancing faculty job satisfaction. Pakistani societal culture possibly has considerable influence on educational leaders and their colleagues’ behaviour (Ali et al., 1993), as is the case in the context of present study. The findings highlight that the leader’s role is very critical, and there are a number of leadership behaviours considered to be significant, which design this role, to enhance the faculty members’ job satisfaction, as indicated some more in the following responses:
I think leader at the university level should be optimistic, ...and he should be energetic and positive minded, and leader should always try to enhance the standard of the university in academics and office facilities and other facilities(R10). Leader should be caring and be aware [of] and [should] solve the problems of the faculty, he should not spare [sic] [use] someone for his personal interest, ...he is a key factor of my job satisfaction because he is my guide and he is my coach, he can guide me in positive and negative way, if the leader is good then the culture of the institution is good (R7). Leader should [provide] ...fair rewards (R2), she/he should encourage if someone is doing/performing good [job] (14).

These leadership behaviours are very similar to the characteristics of the five dimensions of transformational and the first dimension, contingent reward, of transactional leadership. The above defined role of an educational leader in the present study context is based upon the societal culture, beliefs and values of the people of that specific context (Shah, 2006b), because individuals with different faith backgrounds, systems of social beliefs and doctrines conceive and conceptualize educational leadership in different ways (Shah, 2006a). These findings are consistent with the previous studies, from various countries in educational settings, regarding the leader’s key role designed by the above highlighted leadership behaviours to enhance the teachers/faculty members’ job satisfaction (Al-Omari, 2008; Awan et al., 2008; Bogler, 2001; Dastoor et al., 2003; Grosso, 2008; Nguni et al., 2006; Stumpf, 2003). This discussion supports Simkins et al.’s (2003) argument regarding transformational leadership, that “unlike some other styles of leadership, [it] ...is not culture specific. However, such views are not uncontested” (p.278), and different dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership are interpreted differently in diverse contexts.

The findings also resonate with the results of Hwa (2008) and Cheah et al. (2011), who point out that in the Malaysian context principals’ transformational democratic leadership behaviours are more conducive to enhancing teacher job satisfaction. The findings furthermore support the Huczynski and Buchanan’s (2007) argument that a fast changing competitive environment calls for the exercise of participative, inspirational and visionary leadership behaviours. However, these findings are contrary to Hofstede’s (1991) and Simkins et al.’s (2003) argument that Pakistani society expects their leaders to take decisions in an autocratic way and are ready to accept such decisions. This inconsistency among findings might be due to differences in research context, as Hofstede’s study was broader and generally represented the country’s culture, while Simkins et al.’s study focused on the school context in different province of Pakistan which has a different societal culture in comparison to the current research culture and context. These findings are also
inconsistent with House et al.’s (2004) studies carried out in 62 different societies aimed at defining culturally endorsed leadership role. House et al. establish that in Southern Asia, where Pakistan is located, autocratic leaders are more effective as compared to participative leaders who involve their subordinates in the decision-making process, whereas in the current study the leader’s role designed by the participative behaviour is highlighted as conducive to enhance the faculty job satisfaction, and the autocratic style is shown to be a barrier to faculty members’ job satisfaction. Nevertheless, more research is called for to validate these findings.

As mentioned in the study context, ten campuses of the university under study were colleges, predominantly offering education programmes and training for new students and in-service teachers, before the establishment of the university in 2002. The colleges’ principals and teachers continued their services within the same institutions after the change in status from college to university campus. After 2002, these institutions saw a radical change in terms of organizational/governance structure - as discussed in the study context section, with the commencement of new programmes and new faculty members. Under their previous status these institutions were not different from the government-owned schools. Regarding the structure of public schools in the Pakistani context Simkins et al. (2003) highlight that “it is based on a “top-down” bureaucratic model ...controlled through centralized policy decisions. The federal Ministry of Education was responsible for formulating education policies and plans with provincial Governments acting as implementing agencies rather than taking independent initiatives for education development in their respective provinces” (p.279). However, as mentioned earlier, currently campus principals are responsible for all types of academic, research and administrative matters of the campus and the faculty, and are answerable to the vice-chancellor, which demands a new role from the campus principals. Regarding the head’s role Simkins et al. (2003) argue that “the nature of the ...system in which a head worked had significant implications for how they saw their role and how they played it” (p.280). Therefore, because of the new university system which gives principals authority and makes them responsible, the campus principals’ role should be influenced and changed; however, perhaps, they still seem to perceive their role as it was before the 2002 change in system.

The reason behind this argument is that the present study findings highlight that the campus principals and divisional directors are exercising autocratic leadership style; whereas faculty members want them to exercise transformational style and first dimension (contingent reward) of transactional leadership, to enhance faculty job satisfaction. The leaders now have to change their previous role of being “effectively receivers of policy decisions rather than playing an active role in [institutional] ...development for quality improvement” (Simkins et al., 2003, p.279) towards becoming more independent, participative and transformational, as highlighted above.
There are challenges in the Pakistani context in exercising such practices, for example “the limited professional training and socialization experienced by most teachers and, indeed, by many principals” (Simkins et al., 2003, p.278-279), “the degree to which “transformational” leadership is attainable” (Simkins et al., 2003, p.281) and societal and organizational context compatibility, as societal culture promotes dependency and the practice of the autocratic style (Hofstede 1991; Simkins et al., 2003). However, there is no highly bureaucratic structure in the present study context as mentioned in the rules of the university (PAP, 2004) that might support the practice of such leadership choices. Further, the findings of the current study regarding the leader’s role in enhancing faculty job satisfaction are consistent with Simkins et al.’s (2003) study findings carried out in the Pakistani school context, where principals highlighted their leadership role as treating teachers with politeness and respect, being positive, friendly and democratic instead of dictatorial in order to gain cooperation from colleagues and to improve the institution in spite of “the incessant social pressure to adopt a predominantly assertive, authoritarian or even disciplinary approach to leadership” (Simkins et al., 2003, p.284). Furthermore, Simkins et al. (2003:285), regarding a principal’s role, established that:

Farhat clearly exemplifies many of the characteristics of the transformational leader... She came to the school with a clear mission; she articulates a clear set of values which she attempts to instil in her staff both through discussion and direct modelling; and she positively revels in change ...while recognizing that her staff do not always find this commitment easy to cope with. However, she brings to her role a level of ascribed social status that appears to leave her unchallengeable in both the school and the community.

This discussion supports the argument that adopting a transformational leader’s role in the present study context is, although challenging, not impossible. In conclusion, the leadership role that is defined by the participants in the present study context to enhance the faculty job satisfaction is based upon and informed by the societal context of the current research. In order to substantiate the findings from present study more research from this context is needed. Therefore, the readers of this research should bear in mind these considerations. Regarding educational leadership Bush and Middlewood (2005, p.7) argue that “it is vital to be aware of the powerful differences between countries and not to overestimate their similarities. Some of the problems may be the same but their solutions often depend more on local circumstances than on importing ready-made answers from very different contexts”, because “practices vary across societies and nations, and to label any ‘one way’ as the route to effective practice would not only be simplistic but could be disastrous” (Shah, 2009, p.3). Simkins et al. (2003:289) further warn by arguing that:
While we may indeed have much to offer each other from our different cultural settings and perspectives, we should move forward with great caution. Assumptions about the applicability of theories and models of effective leadership style and effective leaders from the West should be treated with a health warning attached. Context would seem to be a major determinant; and because contexts can be so culturally different, any attempt to translate notions and models of leadership, and in particular, successful leadership, from one context to another, is fraught with difficulties.

Furthermore, Shah (2010:29) asserts that “how a particular society perceives and constructs educational leadership is influenced by the dominant cultural and belief systems prevailing in that society or community”. Moreover, as the common and rightly argument is made that the majority of the leadership theories and concepts have been developed in and, therefore, are underpinned by Western cultures and “they often fail to acknowledge and incorporate international perspectives and practices, particularly those from the developing world and non-Western societies” (Shah, 2009:14) such as Pakistan. This argument is equally true for the claims made regarding educational leadership based upon the findings from non-western and developing countries – as is the current case. The role of the leader highlighted by the participants of this study as contributive to their job satisfaction is linked to societal culture, the higher educational system in Pakistan, organizational settings and institution-specific factors such as institutional culture, hierarchy, policies, operating procedures and demographics, because these settings influence the practices (Shah, 2009). Regarding the influence of societal and organizational culture upon the leadership perception and conceptualizations, Bush and Middlewood (2005) maintain that perhaps societal culture causes major differences among different countries. This is because:

Societal cultures differ mostly at the level of basic values, while organizational cultures differ mostly at the level of more superficial practices, as reflected in the recognition of particular symbols, heroes, and rituals. This allows organizational cultures to be deliberately managed and changed, whereas societal or national cultures are more enduring and change only gradually over longer time periods.

(Dimmock & Walker, 2002b, p.71)

The researchers agree with this argument and contend that in the present research context societal culture has a more significant influence upon the perception of leadership role to enhance faculty job satisfaction as compared to organizational culture influence. This concurs with Simkins et al.’s (2003) and Ali et al.’s (1993) assertion regarding the impact of the Pakistani cultural context on the leader’s role. Simkins et al. (2003, p.288) established that “national culture is an important variable in influencing
leadership role, but that this influence is mediated by system and personal factors”. However, organizational culture or the other factors highlighted above are not less critical in this regard. Since “people from diverse ideological and ethnic backgrounds conceive, perceive and practise educational leadership role differently, drawing upon their beliefs, values and knowledge sources” (Shah, 2010, p.27). Therefore, the findings revealed by this study are specifically limited to the present research context.

References


Education Program, North Carolina State University, Adult and Community College.


Attitudes of Postgraduate Students towards Cooperative Learning

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Sidra Munir*
Rushda Anwar *

Abstract

This study was designed to explore students’ attitudes towards cooperative learning. By employing a survey research design gender differences and differences in the attitudes of the students enrolled in morning and evening shifts were also explored. A questionnaire about ‘Students’ Attitudes towards Group Environment (SAGE) having four scales ‘quality of product and service’, ‘peer support’, student interdependence’ and frustration with group members, was used as an instrument for data collection from a sample of 250 students. Descriptive statistics (mean, median, mode, standard deviation.) and independent sample t-test were used for data analysis. The results of the study revealed that students have positive attitudes towards cooperative learning and there were no significant gender and shift wise differences in their attitudes.

Key words: Cooperative learning, Attitudes

Introduction

A significant body of research on teaching and learning at various levels (Primary, secondary and higher education) has documented and emphasized the role and effectiveness of cooperative learning in small groups (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). In cooperative learning students usually work in small groups and their input and efforts are targeted towards the academic achievement and social goals (Cohen, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 1999, Slavin, 1990). Cooperative leaning allows every member of the group to help out other members and find answers to questions. In cooperative learning, students work in a team on a common task or assignment in order to achieve a common goal. According to Johnson et al, (1991), the cooperative learning is characterised by a interdependence,

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accountability and socials skills of the group members processing which results in the mastery of a concept, solution of a problem, completion of an academic task and improvement of learning. It is believed to have powerful effects on student’s academic achievement. Cooperative learning has been used in variety of subject areas such as science, education, business and medicine and it has been found to be motivating, interesting and enjoyable (Herberyan, 2007). Research has documented a long list of the advantages and positive effects of cooperative learning such as promotion of critical thinking and deep understanding, and self evaluation and mutual respect (Lyer, 2013). Most of the research on cooperative learning has been conducted in the developed countries like USA and UK but few studies have evaluated its effectiveness in Pakistan; for example an experimental study by Kosar (2003) with the students of 7th class revealed that the achievement score of the students in experimental group (taught with cooperative learning technique) was significantly higher than the students in control group (taught with traditional method of teaching). Research has also reported gender differences in the use and preference of cooperative learning and mostly girls preferred to engage in cooperative learning as compared to the boys (Rodger, Murray & Cummings, 2007).

Problem Formulation and Research Questions

This study was designed to explore attitudes of the postgraduate students towards cooperative learning at the University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan. Following were the research questions of the study:

1. What are the attitudes of students towards cooperative learning?
2. Are there any differences in the attitudes of males and females towards cooperative learning?
3. Are there any differences in the attitudes of students enrolled in morning and evening shifts?

Methodology

This study employed a descriptive survey design and questionnaire was used to explore student’s attitudes towards cooperative learning.

Sample

There are fifteen faculties in the University of the Punjab from which three faculties were randomly selected for the study. These faculties were: Behavioural and Social Sciences; Economics and Management Sciences; and Education. From each faculty, one institute which gave permission for data collection was included in the sample. The sampled institutes were Institute of Business Administration (IBA); Institute of Communication studies (ICS); and Institute of Education & Research (IER). Two hundred and fifty postgraduate students (89 males and 141 females) with a mean age of 20.50 years were the participants of the study. One hundred and fifty two (152)
students were enrolled in the morning and 98 were enrolled in the evening shift of study.

**Instrument**

A questionnaire called SAGE (Students’ Attitudes towards Group Environment) developed by Kouros and Abrami (2006) was used as instrument for exploring students’ attitudes towards cooperative learning. The questionnaire comprised of two parts. Part one had five questions about the personal (name, age ) and contextual ( faculty, Institute and shift of study) information whereas part two comprised of 54 items about four aspects of the cooperative learning (quality of product and service’, ‘peer support’, student interdependence’ and frustration with group members). All questions were arranged in a random order and required students to indicate their responses on a five point likert scale that were: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Undecided, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. The operational definitions of the four factors of the SAGE questionnaire, by Kouros and Abrami (2006) are given below:

**Quality of product and process** pertains to the perceived academic benefits of working with other students, as expressed by the quality of work produced, ease and enjoyment of material, liking to help others, and more improved learning;

**Peer support pertains** to the personal support students give and receive when working in groups. The degree of student support as expressed by respecting each other’s opinions, feelings liked and involved with the group activities, and feeling valued as group members;

**Student interdependence** is a degree to which students contribute to the group process and product, there is equal participation, and evaluation depends on grades of other members;

**Frustration with group members** deals with the frustrations experienced when working with academically competent members, disliking for the assigned group members, and wanting to work with friends.

**Piloting of Instrument and Data Collection**

In order to improve the design and structure of the questionnaire, it was administered to 30 students enrolled in MERA (Masters in Educational Research and Assessment) at Institute of Education and Research (IER). The piloting confirmed a good reliability value (α=.75) of the instrument. No items was deleted or changed. After piloting the questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher to the sampled postgraduate students at the University of the Punjab.

**Analysis of Data**

The study was descriptive in nature and the data was analyzed using quantitative analysis techniques through SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences,
Table 1 gives a detail of the statistical techniques used for data analysis in order to answer the research questions of the study.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr.</th>
<th>Research questions</th>
<th>Statistical techniques</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What are the attitudes of students towards cooperative learning?</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics (Mean, SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Are there differences in the attitudes of male and female towards cooperative learning?</td>
<td>t-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Are there any differences in the attitudes of students enrolled in morning and evening shifts?</td>
<td>t-test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

Research Question 1: What are the attitudes of students towards cooperative learning?

The following sections present analysis of the students’ responses to items on the subscales of the SAGE questionnaire.

Table: 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of product and process</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student interdependence</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration with the group members</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were 15 items in ‘quality of product and process’ scale. The scale’ mean ($M=3.25$) and the mean for almost all items was well above average. The means for all items ranged from 2.82 to 3.49, indicating that students had positive attitudes towards the quality of product and process. There were eight items about ‘peer support’. The
scale mean ($M=3.34$) and mean of almost all items was above average. The means ranged from 3.00 to 3.59, which shows that students had positive attitudes about peer support. ‘Student Interdependence’ scale had 13 items. As shown in table 2 the scales mean ($M=3.04$) and mean for almost all items is above average (ranging from $M=2.49$ to $M=3.59$) which shows that students had positive attitudes about student interdependence. The number of items in ‘frustration with group members’ scale was seven. The scale mean ($M = 2.84$) and mean for almost all items were comparatively low. The means of scale ranged from 2.31 to 3.50, which shows that students disagreed with most of the items except the item number 27 and 43, thereby indicating that the students were not frustrated with the group members.

**Research Question 2: Are there any gender differences in the attitudes of male and female towards cooperative learning?**

In order to compare the attitudes of males and females independent sample t test was conducted for overall scores of the students on all scales of SAGE as well as for independent sub-scales as presented below.

**Table 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>-1.91</td>
<td>208.48</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 3, there was no significant difference in overall scores of males ($M = 3.13$, $SD = .29$) and females ($M = 3.17$, $SD = .34$); $t (208) = -1.91$, and $p = .056$ ($p > .05$) which showed that there is no significant difference in the attitudes of males and females towards cooperative learning. However t tests for students’ scores on individual scales for SAGE (see table 4) indicated that that there is a significant difference in scores for males ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .57$) and females ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .69$), $t (238) = -2.84$, $p = .003$ for peer support ($p < .05$). These results indicate that females have more positive attitudes towards peer support.
Table 4

Gender differences on subscales of SAGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of product and process</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>-3.08</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student interdependence</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>-2.84</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration with the group members</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.451</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question 3: Are there any differences in the attitudes of students enrolled in morning and evening shifts of study?

Table 5

Attitudes towards cooperative learning across shift of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shift</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the attitudes of the students enrolled in morning and evening shifts of study. An independent sample t test for overall score of the students, (t (248) = 1.46, p = .144) showed that there was no significant difference in scores of students enrolled in morning and evening shifts of study..

Table 6.

Differences in Attitudes on individual scales of SAGE across shift of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Shift</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of product and process</td>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student interdependence</td>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration with the group members</td>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>-1.63</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However as shown in table 6, there is a significant difference in scores for morning ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .42$) and evening ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .48$), $t (228) = 2.29$, $p = .022$) on student interdependence scale. The value of $p < .05$ showed that there is a significant difference in the attitudes of students enrolled in morning and evening shifts of study for student interdependence scale.

**Discussion**

This study aimed to explore the attitudes of university students towards cooperative learning. The results of the study as presented in the previous sections of this paper showed that the postgraduate students at the University of the Punjab have positive attitudes towards cooperative learning. They agreed with all the benefits of cooperative learning, such as the satisfaction with the quality of the work, help from group members, ease, enjoyment and better understanding of the concepts. Postgraduate students strongly agreed that in group learning situations they get support and respect from other students and they feel a great value for their opinions. Postgraduate students also expressed their satisfaction with the extent to which individual members contribute to the assigned work and they were happy to get equal opportunities for participation which allowed for an evaluation based on the grades of other members. These students were not frustrated when they had to work with academically competent members and if they did not like the assigned group members (Kuoros & Abrami, 2006). These results support the results of the previous research by Akhtar, Parveen, Kiran, Rashid, and Satti (2012), where students reflected positive attitudes towards cooperative learning. The current study highlights the preference of cooperative learning by university students and suggests that teachers and practitioners should try to incorporate cooperative learning strategies in their teaching and should provide more opportunities for group learning.

This study showed that there is no significant difference in the attitudes of the males and females except for peer support scale where females were more satisfied with personal support they give and receive when working in groups. They felt a greater degree of student support due to respecting each other’s opinions, feelings of being liked and participating in other group activities. These results support the results of the study by Rodger, Murray and Cummings (2007) at the University of Western Ontario, where significant gender differences in attitudes and use of cooperative learning were reported.

The current study also showed that there is no significant difference in the attitudes of the students enrolled in morning and evening shifts of study except for ‘student interdependence’ scale where students enrolled in the morning shift had more positive attitudes and felt that they contributed to the group process and outcome, they got opportunities for equal participation, and their results/ grades depended on grades of
other member. These results suggest steps should be taken to better organize the group activities in the evening shift as well so that positive feelings and attitudes about the benefits of the cooperative learning can be developed among students of evening shift of study.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

Following recommendations are made to conduct future research in this area:
1. Departmental difference in students’ attitudes towards cooperative learning must be explored
2. Teachers’ views about the use and effectiveness of cooperative learning should also be explored.

**References**


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