

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

ISSN 1027-9776 (Print)

ISSN 2309-8554 (Online)

Vol. 20 No. 2

2017



(HEC RECOGNIZED Y CATEGORY JOURNAL)

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN**

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

ISSN 1027-9776 (Print)

ISSN 2309-8554 (Online)

Vol. 20 No. 2

2017

INDEXED IN



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

ISSN 1027-9776 (Print)

ISSN 2309-8554 (Online)

Vol. 20 No. 2

2017

EDITORIAL BOARD

PATRON	Professor Dr. Qaiser Mushtaq Vice Chancellor
Editor	Professor Dr. Akhtar Ali Dean, Faculty of Education
Members	Dr. Nasreen Akhtar Department of Education Dr. Sabiha Hameed Rehmani Department of Education Dr. Irshad Hussain Department of Educational Training Dr. Muhammad Ramzan Department of Educational Training

Note

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

SUBSCRIPTION

Annual Rs.200/-
Single Copy Rs.100/-
Special Issue Rs.150/-

FOREIGN

Individuals US\$15.00 Annual
Libraries US\$10.00 Single copy
Institutions US\$12.00
Special Issue US\$10.00

EDITORIAL BOARD

1. **Professor Dr. Divya Jindal Snape**
Professor of Education, Inclusion and Life Transition,
Associate Dean Research, University of Dundee, UK
2. **Professor Dr. William Bill Gulam**
Salford University, Manchester, UK
3. **Professor Dr. Riaz Ul Haq Tariq**
Chairman National Islamabad Accreditation Council for Teacher Education,
Islamabad
4. **Professor Dr. Neil Taylor**
School of Education, University of New England, Armidale, Australia
5. **Professor Dr. Nasir Mehmood**
Dean, Faculty of Education, AIOU, Islamabad
6. **Professor Dr. Aytekin Isman**
Dean, Faculty Education, Sakarya University, Turkey
7. **Dr. Ugur Demiray**
Dean, Faculty of communication Sciences, Anadolu University,
Eskisehir, Turkey
8. **Professor Dr. Paul Kawachi**
Kurume City Fukuoka-830-00003 Japan
9. **Professor Dr. Umar Ali Khan**
Department of Education, Preston University Kohat
10. **Professor Dr. Nabi Bux Jamani**
Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences, International Islamic University, Islamabad
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

ISSN 1027-9776 (Print)

ISSN 2309-8554 (Online)

Vol. 20 No. 2

2017

Examining Pakistani English Teachers' Professional Learning in an Online Community of Practice Asma Khan and Jayne C. Lammers	1
Comparison of Teaching Practices in English Writing Classrooms of Secondary School Certificate and General Certificate of Education-Ordinary Level Qudsia Fatima and Rafaqat Ali Akbar	15
Effects of Problem Based Learning on Students' Critical Thinking Skills, Attitudes towards Learning and Achievement Riffat un Nisa Awan, Hamid Hussain and Nadeem Anwar	28
Assessing ESL Students' Literal, Reorganization and Inferential Reading Comprehension Abilities Akhtar Ali, Muhammad Javed and Ghulam Shabbir	42
Relationship of Fathers' Parenting Style with Secondary School Students' Anti Social Behaviour Uzma Kirn, Muhammad Tahir Khan Farooqi and Shazina Zia	54
Reasons Behind the Selection of Open and Distance Learning by Women in Punjab Province of Pakistan Uzma Munawar and Nasreen Akhter	70
Testing Maxwell's Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire: Appraising Executives Leadership Level in Educational Context Ayaz Muhmmad Khan, Amna Ramzan and Rabia Ghaffar	82
Mathematics Teachers' Beliefs and their Practices towards Collaborative Learning in Public and Private Schools: A Comparative Case Study Maria Shiraz and Shahzada Qaisar	95
Global Changes and Improving Teacher Education Institutions in Pakistan Muhammad Abiodullah, Uzma Shakoor and Irshad Ahmad Farrukh	113

Accreditation and Quality Enhancement Dynamics in Higher Education	127
Hina Jalal, Muhammad Ayub Buzdar and Muhammad Naeem Mohsin	
Comparison of Study Material and its Approaches Used in Formal and Distance Education	146
Amir Mahmood, Muhammad Imran Rashid and Muhammad Rashid	
Role of Female Teachers in Personality Development of Secondary School Students in Lahore: A Quantitative Exploration	161
Misbah Malik, Ghulam Fatima and Abid Hussain Chaudhry	
Perceptual Posture of Stakeholders: Efficacy of Sports in Curbing Violent Behaviors among Youth	170
Mohammad Yunis Khan and Asif Jamil	
School Choice Autonomy- A Source of Generating Inequities in Pakistan	184
Muhammad Ramzan, Muhammad Uzair-ul-Hassan, Iram Parveen and Tariq Aziz	
Problematic Mobile Phone Use, Academic Procrastination and Academic Performance of College Students	201
Shahzada Qaisar, Nasreen Akhter, Afsheen Masood and Sumaira Rashid	
Concept Maps as a Tool for Classroom Teaching and Assessment: Perceptions of University Teachers	215
Shamsa Aziz, Munaza Mahmood and Syeda Madiha Wajid	
Weaknesses in Evaluation of Teaching Practice in the Formal and Non-Formal Teacher Education Institutions	229
Fouzia Younus, R.A. Farooq and Rabia Tabassum	
Impact of Distributed Leadership and Psychological Empowerment on Organizational Learning Culture	239
Iqra Bashir, Muhammad Akram and Huma Lodhi	
Relationship between Attitudes of Prospective Teachers and their Academic Achievements in Teacher Educational Programs in Baluchistan, Pakistan	257
Khadija Karim, Alia Ayub, Khalid Khurshid and Mohammad Akram	

Examining Pakistani English Teachers' Professional Learning in an Online Community of Practice

Asma Khan*

Jayne C. Lammers**

Abstract

This qualitative study explored how English Companion Ning (ECN), an online community for English teachers, enhanced the professional learning of university English teachers in Pakistan. Six teachers, selected through purposeful sampling, participated in this study. Drawing on a community of practice framework, the following data were analyzed: in-depth interviews, guided tours of teachers' interactions on the ECN, and ECN observations. The researchers employed grounded theory to analyze the data through initial, focused, and axial coding. Findings indicated that the Pakistani teachers learned with others in the supportive and collaborative environment of the ECN community. The aspect of legitimate peripheral participation in the ECN offered teachers an opportunity to observe, interact, and learn from more knowledgeable community members, which helped these teachers advance from peripheral towards full members of the ECN community. Implications for developing higher education systems are shared.

Keywords: Community of practice; English as a second language; Online community; Online teacher professional learning; University teachers

Introduction

As the Internet and digital technology become increasingly significant tools for creating social connections and fulfilling personal and professional needs across a variety of contexts (Collins & Halverson, 2009), educators in many countries are using the Internet for multiple teaching and learning purposes (Leu & Forzani, 2012), including enhancing their professional learning (Beauchamp, Burden, & Abbinett, 2015). Teachers are using online communities and social networking tools to gain new skills and ideas, share knowledge with others, and engage in collaborative and reflective activities (Sari, 2012). While there has been a significant increase in teachers' online professional learning (Murray, 2014), this is not the case for teachers in all countries. For example, in Pakistan, where this study took place, teachers' professional learning typically involves conventional one-day, instructor-led workshops (Chaudary, 2011) and use of the Internet remains largely for social communication and entertainment purposes (Batool &

* University of Education, Lahore, E mail: asma.yousafzai@gmail.com (Corresponding Author)

** University of Rochester, NY, United States, E mail: jlammers@warner.rochester.edu

Mahmood, 2010). How the Internet might support teachers' professional learning remains relatively unexplored in Pakistan (Qureshi, Ilyas, Yasmin, & Whitty, 2012).

In this article, we examine how ECN contributed to the professional learning of six Pakistani university English teachers by functioning as an online "community of practice" (CoP) (Wenger, 1998). This study details how, contrary to most of the individual, isolated, and non-supportive face-to-face professional learning programs in Pakistan (Ali, 2011; Hussain, 2009), the participant teachers learned together in a community and enhanced their professional learning through the different activities in the ECN. This study seeks answers to this research question: How did the Pakistani teachers learn in this CoP? We begin with a discussion on communities of practice followed by what literature says about teachers' professional learning, particularly in Pakistan. Then, after detailing this study's methodology, findings are presented about the teachers' experiences in the ECN and how participants became full members of the community through the process of *legitimate peripheral participation* (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Finally, this article concludes with implications for researchers and higher education institutions.

Situating our Research

The theoretical framework guiding this study was the notion of communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002; Wenger, White, & Smith, 2009). We also situate our work within ongoing conversations about teacher professional learning in Pakistan and elsewhere.

Communities of Practice (CoP)

Born out of earlier work to understand situated learning and apprenticeship (Lave & Wenger, 1991), CoPs describe groups of practitioners who share "a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 4). Writing about the structure of CoPs, Wenger et al. (2002) and Wenger et al. (2009) asserted that the framework of a CoP consisted of three interconnected elements: domain, community, and practice. Additionally, legitimate peripheral participation (LPP) is another important aspect of a CoP, which emphasizes that participation of newcomers in a CoP is essentially passive and peripheral in the beginning, but becomes active and central gradually as learners continuously engage in the activities of the community.

Because we wanted to explore how the Pakistani teachers learned, co-constructed, and shared knowledge with others through interaction and participation in the ECN, using the lens of CoP helped us see how the Pakistani teachers enhanced their professional learning as a result of interaction and collaboration with teachers from other countries, who had a common purpose of helping and supporting English teachers in their professional career. Additionally, we observed how the participation of the Pakistani

teachers moved from peripheral toward central (legitimate) participation in the ECN as they interacted with other ECN members.

Teacher Professional Learning

The literature on traditional face-to-face teacher professional learning has characterized many professional learning programs as brief, periodic, and based on the transmission model of instruction, which hardly contribute to teachers' professional learning (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Murray, 2014). Teacher professional learning in Pakistan similarly provides very few opportunities to interact, collaborate, and develop professionally (Memon, 2007). Traditional professional learning programs in Pakistan are "limited, fragmented, one-shot or short term, pre-packaged" and are isolated from teachers' classroom experiences (Hussain, 2009, p. 109). Also, financial or geographical constraints associated with face-to-face professional learning sessions limit many Pakistani teachers from receiving professional training at all (Ali, 2011).

The limitations of traditional professional learning programs necessitate a continuous, accessible, collaborative, reflective approach to professional learning that relates more to teachers' classroom practices (Murray, 2014). Fortunately, the Internet now provides teachers a chance to connect, interact, and participate in formal and informal online learning contexts (Kerrey & Iskason, 2000). Research has demonstrated that online spaces can provide teachers with ongoing support, peer coaching, and mentoring (Hur & Hara, 2007) and can offer them an equal and respectful platform for sharing opinions and resources in a collaborative setting (Sari, 2012). Due to such advantages of online spaces, many teachers in countries such as U.S.A., Indonesia, and Australia are turning to online spaces for their professional learning (Hur & Hara, 2007; Sari, 2012; Seo & Han, 2013). However, Pakistan still lags behind in reaping the benefits of Internet and digital media and traditional face-to-face professional learning programs still dominate in the country (Ali, 2011).

Study Design

This article draws from a larger qualitative in-depth interview study of the Pakistani teachers' use of the ECN. The specific type of qualitative research, in-depth interview strategy, helped us to focus on the "individual lived experiences" of the Pakistani teachers in the ECN and also allowed us to "capture the deep meaning of experience in the participants' own words" (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 93). Prior to starting this study, we underwent an ethics review at [our] University and received formal approval from the Pakistani institution to conduct this research. We worked to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of our participants.

Research Context

ECN (<http://englishcompanion.ning.com/>) was created in 2008 by Jim Burke, a high school English teacher in the United States and author of numerous English teacher

professional resources. On the ECN, teachers from different countries share knowledge and teaching resources, tips, and ideas with each other, making the ECN a global professional learning community (Author1, 2014; See Figure 1 for what ECN looks like).



Figure 1. *Image of ECN*

This study took place at Sana University (all names are pseudonyms) in Pakistan. As participating in the ECN requires the Internet connectivity, Sana University was chosen because teachers there have easy access to both the Internet and computers in their workplace.

Sampling and Participants

Six English teachers participated in this study. We started with convenience sampling by contacting the easily available teachers in the English department of Sana University. Approximately 16 teachers expressed willingness to participate in this study. Author1 introduced these teachers to the ECN and they began visiting the website, reading posts, commenting, and participating in discussions. Then purposeful sampling was used to select participants from this pool who had the most interest in participating in ECN. For the purpose of this study, the participants had to visit the ECN at least once per week prior to the start of data collection, to become familiar with the site and its practices. They had to participate in the ECN by reading posts, commenting on others' posts and participating in discussions. Six out of 16 participants fulfilled these criteria and became participants of this study. These teachers taught English at the Masters level, fell in the range of having 3 to 12 years of teaching experience at Sana University, and, as will be discussed later, displayed different categories of participation in ECN (See Table 1).

Table 1

Participants' Characteristics

Name	Age*	Years of Teaching Experience*	Area of Expertise	Participation in ECN
Afreen	25	3	Linguistics	active
Ruby	28	4	English Language Teaching	active
Maha	32	7	Linguistics	moved between active and periphery
Rani	32	7	English Literature	periphery
Aiza	36	8	English Literature	moved between active and periphery
Noor	40	12	English Language Teaching	periphery

* As of the start of the study, on April 6, 2015.

Data Collection

Over 10 weeks, Author1 generated data through in-depth interviews, guided tours, and online observations of the ECN. Two in-depth interviews were conducted per participant, one in the beginning of the study and the other at the end of the data collection period. In initial interviews, participants answered questions about their demographics, ideas about traditional face-to-face professional learning in Pakistan, and experiences (if any) with using any online space for professional learning. The initial interview protocol consisted of eight semi-structured questions. However, based on the participants' response to these initial questions, Author1 asked additional questions of each participant. During follow-up interviews towards the end of data collection, Author1 focused on the participants' use of and professional learning within the ECN website. The protocol for this interview contained 13 semi-structured questions; but as with the initial interviews, the participants were asked some additional questions based on their responses and use of ECN. Interviews lasted for 45-60 minutes each; they were audiotaped and later transcribed.

Also, each participant provided Author1 with a guided tour of the ECN website once a week at the university so that the participants' ECN experiences could be observed

from their perspectives. Each participant's guided tour took approximately 10-20 minutes during which they showed Author1 their different experiences in the ECN community during the previous week. Author1 audiotaped all the guided tours and also took field notes as the participants shared their experiences and perspectives regarding the ECN website. For both interviews and guided tours, the participants were asked questions in English but were given the choice to respond in Urdu or English.

Finally, to capture the participants' online practices, Author1 downloaded their discussion threads during systematic ECN observations. Whenever a study participant started a new discussion, uploaded a document on the website, shared some link, or participated in existing discussion posts, Author1 received an email notification and could follow a link to that participation on the ECN.

Analysis

Using a constructivist grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2014), data were coded with initial, focused, and axial coding. Initial coding involved line-by-line coding and use of gerunds to capture "a strong sense of action and sequence" in the data (p. 120). After initial coding, focused coding helped us in developing more salient codes, studying and comparing the most important or most frequently appearing initial codes across different sets of data. Axial coding followed to relate categories to subcategories, and to help in classifying, categorizing, reassembling, and organizing the "split" or "fractured" data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 124).

Study Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness criteria for qualitative research depend on the constructivist criteria of credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, we achieved the credibility and dependability criteria by triangulating the data sources through ECN observations, interviews, and ECN guided tours, and then analyzing the data through the grounded theory approach. For the transferability criterion, we provided a rich and detailed description of the participants and setting so that the findings could be transferred to other developing countries like Pakistan that share similar characteristics in terms of technology resources. To fulfill the confirmability criterion, we worked together and sought help from our research colleagues by sharing the analysis and findings of this study with them so that they could evaluate whether our inferences and interpretations made sense to them.

Findings

Following were the findings of this study.

Learning in the ECN

Findings indicated that the ECN members had a domain, “a common ground and a sense of common identity” (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 27), which bounded members together in this online community. The domain is articulated on ECN’s homepage as: “A place to ask questions and get help. A community dedicated to helping you enjoy your work. A cafe without walls or coffee: just friends.” In line with this domain, the ECN members helped, supported, and solved each other’s problems. For instance, Afreen, a new teacher in the university, raised her teaching-related concerns and got support from the ECN members. She had to teach a course about grammar to her students towards the end of the semester, and had been looking unsuccessfully for interesting grammar activities. Afreen had been using a prescribed book in her class for some time but she did not find it useful. She shared her issue with the ECN community and got six ideas for teaching grammar. Rob, another ECN member, shared a book of grammar activities with her, which she downloaded and shared some of its activities for prepositions and use of articles with her students. Afreen found the activities so beneficial that she thought of recommending the book to the university principal for future use. This example demonstrates that ECN served as a platform where teachers like Afreen could share their concern with others and get solutions.

The Pakistani teachers also learned in the ECN as the CoP’s second element, community, connected the group by creating “the social fabric of learning” and by nurturing relationships of “mutual respect” in this online community (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 28). For instance, Ruby received encouragement and acknowledgement from the ECN members mostly for sharing ideas. Ruby commented on another ECN member, Diya’s, blog about “Six ways to improve students’ preparation for college” (ECN post, May 3, 2015). Ruby shared her point of view, to which Diya responded, “You are right. I agree with you [Ruby]...” (ECN post, May 28, 2015). Ruby expressed the impact of this welcoming attitude from ECN members, saying, “Comments like ‘I agree with you [Ruby]’ really motivated me to share more of my ideas with the ECN members”^{*} (Interview 2, Ruby, June 16, 2015). In return, Ruby showed appreciation for ECN members by saying, “Thanks to all of you. You have increased my knowledge regarding...” (ECN Post, May 27, 2015), which helped maintain an atmosphere of mutual respect in the ECN and encouraged participants like Ruby to share and participate more in the ECN community, which leads to learning.

The third element of CoPs, practice, facilitated the Pakistani teachers’ learning through creating new discussion forums, sharing links with other ECN members,

^{*} Quotes from participants’ data are shared exactly as they stated/wrote them.

exploring, reading, and participating in discussion posts, asking questions, and giving ideas to others in this online community. In this study, the Pakistani teachers learned *from* the personal experiences and ideas shared by the ECN members on different teaching related issues. For instance, Maha shared how she learned about strategies for giving creative homework assignments to students after reading an ECN member's discussion post on how to give good homework assignments. One week later she reported implementing one of the strategies saying that she assigned her students the task of creating questions on some of Keats' poems in their homework and she was "happy to see that most of the students did that homework" (Guided tour, Maha, May 6, 2015).

Also, the Pakistani teachers learned *with* the ECN members when they tried to make meaning of some new information or problem. For instance, Ruby shared how she came to know about a new writing software after reading Angela's [another ECN member] blog on "Six Ways to Improve Students' Writing" (ECN post, April 18, 2015). Ruby read about writing software that could be utilized in the process of students' writing and peer editing. Ruby wanted to improve her students' writing skills, so she asked Angela, "I wonder is there any specific software for a computer-based writing program? If yes, can you please share one?" (ECN post, May 4, 2015). Angela referred Ruby to the writing software Myaccess.com that Ruby tried using with her students in Pakistan. This exchange between Ruby and Angela reveals that Ruby, through the practices associated with her membership in ECN, learned new information about using writing software that she was able to apply in her university classroom.

Most of the Pakistani teachers' learning occurred by participating in *informal* practices, such as spontaneous sharing of tips and strategies, and questions and answers on diverse teaching topics, as was illustrated above with Ruby. These teachers also took part in some *formal* practices, such as downloading videos and e-books from the ECN's free e-library called "Learning Library." Further, the Pakistani teachers' learning was informed by both *external* as well as *internal* community sources. Instances of the external sources on the ECN included exchanging links to other websites, whereas, the internal community sources involved sharing of lesson plans, activities, and e-books within the ECN community.

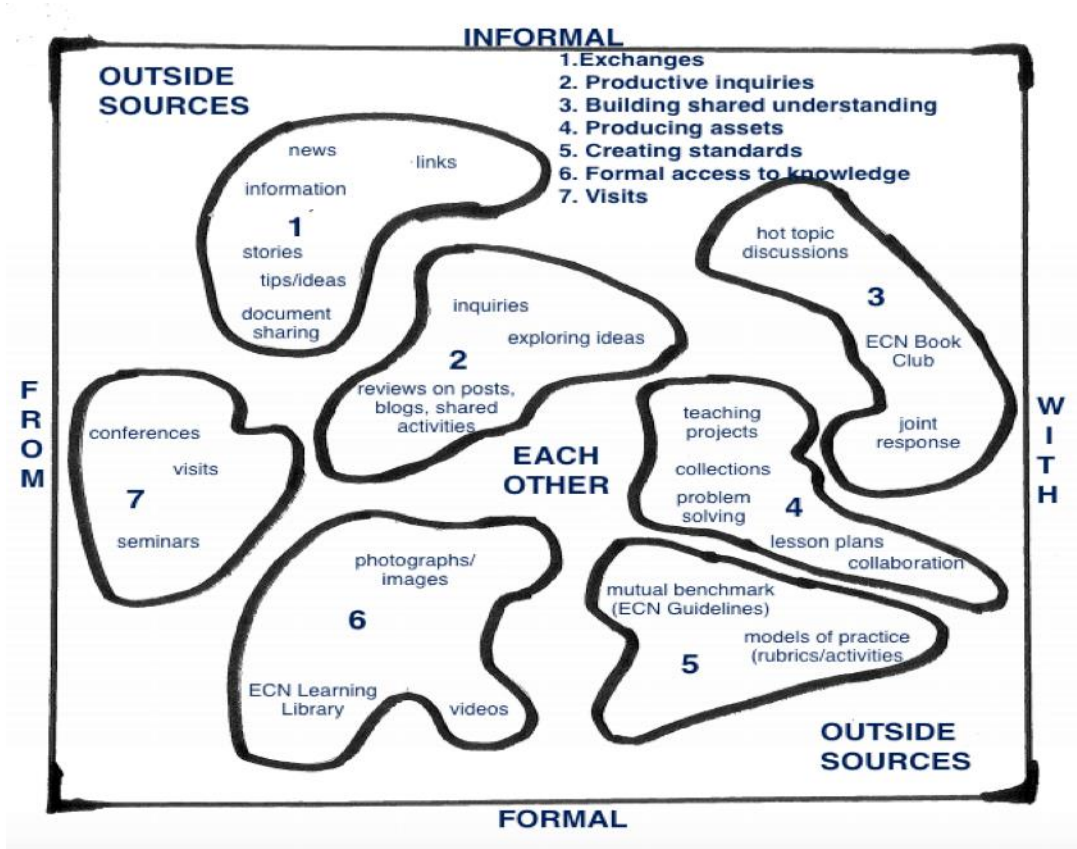


Figure 2. *ECN members' engagement in different ECN practices* (Adapted from Wenger et al., 2009).

Figure 2 illustrates the range of practices that ECN members engage in along all of these dimensions of from/with, informal/formal, and external/internal. By tapping into the different sources of learning through ECN's practices, members, including the Pakistani teachers in this study, expanded their knowledge beyond what they could learn as individuals.

Legitimate Peripheral Participation in the ECN

A CoP encourages different levels of participation during the process of moving from peripheral towards central participation in the community (Wenger et al., 2002). In this study, some participants (Ruby and Afreen) were active mostly because they posted frequently on the ECN and their activity indicated more full participation in the CoP. Other participants (Noor and Rani) posted rarely and remained on the periphery of ECN. The remaining moved between the active and peripheral levels of the ECN community

(Maha and Aiza). However, all of them spent some time just exploring and reading the ECN posts in the beginning. Such behavior could be considered passive “lurking” in the ECN site, though from the CoP standpoint, lurking in the ECN would be conceptualized as legitimate peripheral participation. The peripheral activities of these Pakistani teachers are an important dimension of a CoP as staying on the periphery gave them an opportunity to learn about the ECN and its practices as they began to enter into the community.

Wenger et al. (2002) viewed that people on the periphery of a CoP “gain their own insights from the discussions and put them to good use” in their own way during the learning process (p. 56). For instance, Rani and Noor, who joined ECN because they wanted to learn new teaching approaches and strategies, posted very little on the ECN and remained on the periphery for most of the study. These participants were learning in their own way while just observing other ECN members. For instance, Rani read innovative ideas on the ECN about using social media like Facebook to teach Shakespeare’s plays. When she tried one with her students, it went well (Guided tour, Rani, May 14, 2015). Likewise, though Noor posted not more than four times on the ECN, she also shared with us the different teaching tips and ideas she gained from posts on the ECN (Guided tour, Noor, May 30, 2015). These examples suggest that Rani and Noor were not passive in this study; rather, they learned different tips and ideas from the ECN and used them with their students in classes.

Ruby’s participation in particular serves as an illustrative example of LPP in this study. Her participation was gradual and peripheral in the first three weeks. She read various discussion posts and blogs in the first week and observed how the ECN members shared and responded to each other’s queries. In the second week, she posted a question on the ECN about Shakespeare’s play *Othello* that she had been anxious to know about for quite some time. She expressed in one of the guided tours,

I still have a question that my teacher asked many years ago. The question was “Why Iago hated Desdemona?” I never found the answer to this question... The first thing I’m going to ask [on ECN] is this question. Other than this I have some other questions that I’ll ask one by one. (Guided tour, Ruby, April 15, 2015)

Ruby spent time to observe the ECN community and familiarize herself with its functioning and beliefs before starting to participate. In order to look for the answer, she joined the “Teaching Shakespeare” group first and read through the different discussions there. When she could not find the answer in the existing discussion posts, she posted her question “Why Iago hated Desdemona?” on the ECN (ECN post, April 16, 2015). As soon as Ruby posted this query, she got 11 responses, six of which were on the very day she asked this question. In the second and third week of the study, Ruby asked a couple more questions related to her teaching. When the ECN members responded to her queries,

she again got encouraged. Gradually, Ruby started relying on the ECN to learn solutions to her teaching problems.

Support from the ECN community brought a sense of confidence in Ruby that ECN would be the place to seek help, if she was in need ever. ECN in her case served as an “important lifeline” to deal with the problems and frustrations present in the life of a new teacher (Murray, 2014, p. 136). Further, a transition in Ruby’s participation occurred when she went from just exploring and asking questions in the first three weeks, to giving opinions and sharing ideas with others for the remainder of the study. Ruby explained this transition by saying, “When I asked them [ECN members] something, they gave answers so now I give them replies when they ask something” (Guided tour, Ruby, May 14, 2015). Such reciprocity in sharing knowledge implies that after learning from the ECN members for some time, Ruby now wanted to pay back to the community by sharing her knowledge with them. Like the apprenticeship of the novice in the community of tailors studied by Lave and Wenger (1991), Ruby also went through the process of observing, interacting, and collaborating with the experts of the ECN community. This development from an observer to an active participant shifted Ruby from being a consumer to a creator of knowledge, and thus Ruby became a full participant and a significant contributor in the ECN community.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study explored how the ECN contributed to the professional learning of the Pakistani university teachers by functioning as an online CoP. The ECN members supported each other in their professional careers due to a well-defined and shared domain, which brought members closer to each other. The supportive environment of the ECN resulted in a feeling of community, commitment, and belonging in the Pakistani teachers. Just as Hur and Brush’s (2009) study established emotional support to be one of the factors for developing a sense of camaraderie among teachers, the support from the ECN community helped to develop a feeling of mutual support and trust among its members. Wenger et al. (2002) contended that the three elements of a CoP (domain, community, practice) depend on each other to keep the CoP sustained and thriving. These elements should develop in parallel as “it is their interplay that makes for a healthy community” (p. 46). This study exhibited that the ECN as a CoP maintained a balance among its three elements. Since the ECN had a clear and well-defined domain, it gave its members a purpose and an identity. The ECN members shared knowledge and learning collaboratively and helped in keeping this community moving by participating in the different practices of the ECN.

Additionally, this study explored how the learning of the Pakistani teachers (newcomers) developed overtime as they participated peripherally in the ongoing activities of the ECN. Lave and Wenger (1991) regarded LPP as a vital process in the newcomers’ learning of a new practice, as a result of which the novice becomes an expert

and starts performing an active role in the community. After illustrating the peripheral participation of Rani and Noor, this study discussed the development stages of one participant, Ruby, in detail and examined her transition from passive to active membership in the ECN due to the help and support of the expert community members. Ruby enhanced her professional learning by engaging in diverse activities in the ECN including creating new discussion forums, participating in discussions, commenting on posts, and giving ideas to other members.

As evidenced above, this CoP provided these teachers an opportunity to learn through dialogue and share knowledge in an international, collaborative environment. Thus, professional learning in the ECN was unlike the typical opportunities available to these teachers in Pakistan (Ali, 2011; Hussain, 2009). Not only did the ECN help these teachers overcome the temporal and spatial factors impacting face-to-face professional learning, but the examples shared illustrate how participants connected their learning directly with their classroom practices. This study suggests that higher education institutions, particularly those in developing educational systems, should encourage their teachers' connections to professional online spaces and facilitate the teachers' professional learning through different online networks, like ECN. Doing so can help higher education teachers learn from teaching strategies, ideas, and experiences of others in diverse contexts. However, in countries like Pakistan, where learning via online spaces may be less common, providing a local guide to facilitate teachers' learning in different online spaces may be helpful. These local guides can support teachers to reflect on their learning experiences, as Author1 did with the Pakistani teachers in this study through the interviews and guided tours, and thus can help leverage learning through different online spaces for teachers' professional purposes. As teachers in many countries have already discovered, online professional learning expands possibilities and connects teachers to a global network of resources and collaborators. We hope that sharing the experiences these Sana University teachers had on ECN will encourage educators in developing countries to similarly explore learning in online communities.

References

- Ali, T. (2011). Understanding how practices of teacher education in Pakistan compare with the popular theories and theories and narrative of reform of teacher education in international context. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 1, 208-222.
- Batool, S. H., & Mahmood, K. (2010). Entertainment, communication or academic use? survey of Internet cafe users in Lahore, Pakistan. *Information Development*, 26, 141-147.

- Beauchamp, G., Burden, K., & Abbinett, E. (2015). Teachers learning to use the iPad in Scotland and Wales: A new model of professional development. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 41(2), 161-179.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). London, England: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Chaudary, I.A. (2011). A new vision of professional development for tertiary teachers in Pakistan. *Professional Development in Education*, 37, 633-637.
- Collins, A. & Halverson, R. (2009). *Rethinking education in the age of technology: The digital revolution and schooling in America*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). *Powerful teacher education: Lessons from exemplary programs* (1st ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hew, K. F., & Hara, N. (2007). Empirical study of motivators and barriers of teacher online knowledge sharing. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 55, 573-595.
- Hur, J. W., & Hara, N. (2007). Factors cultivating sustainable online communities for K-12 teacher professional development. *Educational Computing Research*, 36, 245-268.
- Hussain, N. (2009). Transforming professional development with changing times. In S. Mansoor, A. Sikandar, N. Hussain, & N. M. Ahsan, (Eds.), *Emerging issues in TEFL: Challenges for Asia* (pp. 105-127). Karachi, Pakistan: Oxford University Press.
- Kerrey, B., & Iskason, J. (2000). *The power of the Internet for learning*. Report of the Web-based Education Commission to the President and the Congress of the US. Washington, DC. Retrieved from: <http://portal.bigchalk.com/i/corp/edpolicy/editedwebcommission.pdf>
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Leu, D. J., & Forzani, E. (2012). New literacies in a web 2.0, 3.0, 4.0...(infinity) world. *Research in the Schools*, 19, 75-81.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2011). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). London, England: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Memon, G. R. (2007). Education in Pakistan: The key issues, problems and the new challenges. *Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 3, 47-55.

- Murray, J. (2014). *Designing and implementing effective professional learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Qureshi, I. A., Ilyas, K., Yasmin, R., & Whitty, M. (2012). Challenges of implementing e-learning in a Pakistani university. *Knowledge Management & E-Learning: An International Journal (KM&EL)*, 4, 310-324.
- Sari, E. R. (2012). Online learning community: A case study of teacher professional development in Indonesia. *Intercultural Education*, 23, 63-72.
- Seo, K., & Han, Y. (2013). Online teacher collaboration: A case study of voluntary collaboration in a teacher-created online community. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, 10, 221-242.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Wenger, E., McDermott, R. A., & Snyder, W. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice: A guide to managing knowledge*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Wenger, E., White, N., & Smith, J. D. (2009). *Digital habitats: stewarding technology for communities*. Portland, OR: CP Square.

Comparison of Teaching Practices in English Writing Classrooms of Secondary School Certificate and General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level

Qudsia Fatima*
Rafaqat Ali Akbar**

Abstract

This paper explores the comparison of teaching practices in English language classrooms of Secondary School Certificate and Ordinary level for the development of writing skills. The school systems offering both streams concurrently were selected in the sample. The sample of the study included the teachers of private schools of Lahore teaching at SSC and O level. Data was collected through questionnaire to determine the teaching practices used by teachers in English language classrooms. The results showed that there is difference between the use of teaching practices at SSC and O level. Findings revealed that teachers of O level have the teaching practices which involve their students in the process of writing i.e. brainstorming, group work, presentation, question-answer and extensive reading. They also use reference books, magazines, and pictures to involve their students in the process of writing to enable them to become proficient writers. On the other hand, teachers of SSC use the teaching practices which emphasized rote memorization and this is very common in Pakistani system of education. Teachers used to give written feedback on students' work to attain the writing learning outcomes. Moreover, at SSC level, examination is based on textbook. Classroom practices used by teachers are based on examination pattern i.e. use of textbook and help books. Consequently, O level students have better skill of writing as compared to SSC Students.

Keywords: Teaching practices, English writing, English writing classrooms, Secondary education

Introduction

Writing is communication with others, write to others and read others text. It has great contribution in students' personal, educational and professional field because power of effective communication convinces a reader about something. The Nation's report card (2012) defined writing as purposeful act of communication undertaken in a variety of environments. Widdowson (1978) defined writing as the grammatical system of the language. By practicing writing the abilities of concentration and focus can be developed

* Assistant Professor, Division of Education, University of Education, Lahore (Corresponding Author)

** Professor of Education, Director IER, University of the Punjab, Lahore

in students that fosters their ways of thinking. Similarly, Successfulness of all the academic subjects depends on good writing skills.

English is a compulsory subject for all the students of SSC and O level in Pakistan. Some private schools in Pakistan offer both SSC and O level certificates according to the demands of their students. Secondary school students in Pakistan take SSC or O level for secondary level exit examination. The curriculum of English for O level develops learners' skills in creative thinking and ability to solve problems. Through this curriculum learners attain both practical skills and theoretical knowledge. The aims of the O-level curriculum of English are to enable candidates to communicate with clarity, relevance, and accuracy (University of Cambridge, 2017). Similarly, SSC curriculum aimed to develop writing with fluency and accuracy with generating and organizing ideas with appropriate grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure, style, tone, spelling and vocabulary for different purposes and audiences. National curriculum 2006 recommended teaching practices in curriculum of SSC i.e. discussion, role play, inquiry, cooperative learning, projects and presentations (Government of Pakistan, 2006).

This study focuses on teaching practices of English at SSC and O level for the development of writing skills. The literature revealed that teaching practices play a vital role in developing writing skill. Comparing and investigating relevant teaching practices in different settings help in attaining the students' learning outcomes. Teaching practices includes the knowledge and skills in order to make teaching effective. It represents the teachers' wisdom in accordance with their teaching practice (Carrington, Deppler, & Moss, 2010). It is considered the art and science of arranging knowledge so that it may easily be grasped into a continuous process (Berstein, 2000). Teaching practices are not only related to particular skills of the concerned teachers but also a continuous process of interpretation and presentation of students' work towards the attainment of learning outcomes. Although this practice includes teacher, curriculum, students and suitable learning environment but teachers have a key role in teaching and learning process.

There are various ways to teach writing but the best way is practicing writing by going through the writing process i.e. planning, revising and editing (Wattam, 2016; Hyland, 2004; Hayes & Flower, 1980; Sovik & Flem, 1999). Graham and Perin elaborated that prewriting practice helps in generating text which leads to drafting and revising as widely recognized through research evidence. Translating involves these ideas in the form of words and sentences. Last step i.e. revising is concerned with correcting errors from the written text for improving writing with appropriate voice.

First stage of writing i.e. generating ideas, teachers can develop this through brainstorming. White and Arndt (1991) recommended the use of WH questions for effective writing i.e. who? What? Where? When? Why? how? As a good practice to generate ideas. This is based on the concept of 'socratic dialogue' used for generation of ideas along with developing creativity in the learner. Editing is the last step in writing

process. Getting meanings clear with accuracy of spelling, punctuation and grammar. Process approach is non-traditional approach and not used at SSC level for developing writing skills in Pakistani classrooms.

Literature proves that some practices are more effective than others depending upon the level of students and the intended learning outcomes. Teachers have to select the relevant and appropriate teaching practices according to the interest and level of students. Alexander and Currie (1998) researched the effective practices in teaching writing to attain learning outcomes at secondary level. They identified the teaching practices i.e. jotting down ideas, work in pair or group, modelling (imitate the text written by expert writers) and editing are useful to develop writing learning outcomes. Jotting and planning results in good writing is useful weaker students. On the other hand, the extent of the use of redrafting and editing depends upon the need and level of students. Likewise, important teaching practices are i.e. encouraging collaborative writing in class, assigning short term goals to students in the form of assignments and projects, teaching variety of sentence combining ways i.e. simple sentence to complex sentence (Kinneavy & Warriner, 1999).

Kendall and Khuon (2006) recommended the best practices to enhance writing skills that includes writing workshop, small group instruction and thinking practices. Moreover, Students have different background, experiences and knowledge on which teacher can emphasize and design instruction. Writing instruction can be made understandable to students by providing pictures, gestures, objects, demonstration, and relevant texts to enhance writing skill; discuss about a piece of writing; and to work with a fellow, a small group and/ or the teacher. Including these practices, other practices include graphic organizers, Thinking Maps; and inquiry by providing learning opportunities. Another way to make writing lessons more interesting is to use real, concrete objects that provide students an opportunity to use their senses and facilitate writing.

Nirmala (2008) pointed out that students of Matriculation level have poor writing proficiency. Due to conventional teaching practices and limited writing practices students face problems in writing. Traditional teaching practices are being practiced due to examination oriented system. Teachers use dictated writing in classrooms and give emphasis on rote memorization. Students have little knowledge according to the principles and process of writing. They also have problems with tenses, prepositions, spelling and punctuation. They are also unaware of organization, cohesion and coherence while writing.

Shamim as described by Coleman (2010) examined that increasing demand of English in the global market has drawn attention of the curriculum developers to provide suitable resources for teaching English in Pakistan. He identified reasons for low proficiency in English as most of the classrooms are under resourced and teachers use

grammar translation method. Mostly in English classrooms teachers use Urdu to teach English in Pakistan.

Naeem (2011) researched that English writing abilities of O level students are higher than SSC. Various teaching practices were used by SSC and O level in English language classroom. At SSC level teachers focused on lecture method and grammar translation method, while at O level, activity and direct method were emphasized. However, lecture method was frequently used to teach English both at SSC and O level. Mirza, Nosheen and Nasir (1999) found that teachers of O level are better than SSC in communication skills and encourage student participation. It was also found that SSC teachers use lecture, recitation and translation methods. Teachers of O level claimed that they use recitation and discussion. Use of drill is also present at O level to some extent.

From the above discussion it can be concluded that effective writing skills can be acquired by going through the process of writing instead of memorizing content and translation that leads to the product approach. There is low proficiency of SSC students in English writing skills as compared to O level. Teachers should encourage planning, drafting, revising and collaborative writing. Teachers should provide timely feedback, allow the students to discuss ideas with their fellows and encourage enough reading to learn the techniques of writing. Role of teacher is to indulge students in learning situation for the attainment of desired learning outcomes. So, wrapping up the discussion, there is strong need to improve teaching practices pertaining to learning outcomes at SSC level for good teaching to have quality in education and to cope with the market needs of the modern world. Teaching practices being adopted in Pakistani schools at SSC and O level for English will help making key decisions for stakeholders about strengths and weaknesses of these practices adopted by teachers. By conducting this research, effectiveness of teaching practices and their effect on learning outcomes may be gauged.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the study was to compare the teaching practices in English writing classrooms of Secondary Schools Certificate and General Certificate of Education-Ordinary level. Teaching practices used by teachers of SSC and O level were compared on three domains of writing i.e. generation of ideas, organization of ideas, language facility and conventions.

Hypotheses of the Study

Following were the hypothesis of the study:

H_{o1}. There is no significant difference between the teaching practices of SSC and O level teachers on generation of ideas regarding developing writing skills.

H_{o2}. There is no significant difference between the teaching practices of SSC and O level teachers on organization of ideas regarding developing writing skills.

H_{o3}. There is no significant difference between the teaching practices of SSC and O level teachers on language facility and conventions regarding developing writing skills.

H_{o4}. There is no significant difference between the use of resources of SSC and O level teachers regarding developing writing skills.

H_{o5}. There is no significant difference between the use of activities at SSC and O level regarding developing writing skills.

Methodology

This research is quantitative in nature. It found the teaching practices used by teachers of SSC and O level. Questionnaire for teachers was developed on Likert type scale on the use of teaching practices at SSC and O level. Questionnaire consisted of five parts i.e. generation of ideas, organization of ideas and language facility and conventions, use of resources and activities in English writing classrooms and contained 41 items. The sample of the study comprised of 24 teachers of private schools of Lahore (12 teachers from SSC and 12 from O level). Pilot testing of the instrument was made to find out its reliability. Cronbach alpha was calculated to determine the reliability $\alpha = .84$.

Findings

Teachers' responses on the use of teaching practices for developing writing skills

Data was collected through the questionnaire made by researcher on Likert type scale. Data was collected from the teachers teaching English at SSC and O level. Mann Whitney test was used to see the significance of difference of the use of teaching practices at SSC and O level. The reason of running Mann Whitney test is that for the use of some practices sample size was too small to use chi square i.e. 12 teachers of SSC and 12 of O level. Mann Whitney test is used for ordinal data to determine the significance of difference for the use of teaching practices between the two independent groups on a continuous measure (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Data is presented in the table form followed by interpretation.

Teachers' responses for the use of teaching practices for generation of ideas

Table 1

Comparison of teaching practices for 'generation of ideas'

Teaching practices	Mean Rank (SSC)	Mean Rank (O level)	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Brainstorming	9.38	15.63	-2.427	.015
Group work	9	16.00	-2.584	.010
Written clues	10.58	14.42	-1.454	.146
Assignments	11.17	13.83	-.969	.333
Presentation	8.10	15.00	-2.584	.010

Lecture	14.63	10.38	-1.609	.108
Question answer	11.71	13.29	-.665	.506
Extensive reading	13.50	11.50	-1.445	.149
Use of model text	13.38	11.63	-.627	.531
Role play	11.54	13.46	-.705	.481
Written feedback	13.54	11.46	-.743	.458
Oral feedback	13.08	11.92	-.506	.613

Table 1 shows that teachers of O level highly use brainstorming, group work and presentation as compared to SSC. They give more emphasis to these practices for generation of ideas. However, no significant difference was found for the remaining practices i.e. written clues, assignments, lecture, question answer, extensive reading, use of model text, role play, written and oral feedback.

Teachers' responses for the use of teaching practices for organizing ideas

Table 2

Comparison of teaching practices for 'organization of ideas'

Teaching practices	Mean Rank SSC	Mean Rank O level	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Group work	11.71	13.29	-.604	.546
Jumbled words /sentences	16.29	8.71	-2.765	.006
assignments /projects	11.25	13.75	-.893	.372
Presentation	11.50	13.65	-2.483	.284
Lecture	13.04	11.96	-.391	.696
Question-answer	8.70	16.12	-2.545	.006
Extensive reading	10.96	14.04	-1.101	.271
Written feedback	15.75	9.25	-2.363	.018
Oral feedback	12.58	12.42	-.061	.951

Table 2 shows that jumbled words or sentences and written feedback are highly used at SSC as compared to O level. However, teachers of O level lay emphasis on question answer practice for teaching organization of ideas. No significant difference was found for the use of group work, assignments/projects, presentation, lecture, extensive reading and oral feedback.

Teachers' responses for the use of teaching practices for language facility and conventions

Table 3

Teaching practices for 'language facility and conventions'

Teaching practices	Mean Rank SSC	Mean Rank O level	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Editing	11.92	13.08	-.420	.675
Group work	12.29	12.71	-.156	.876
Written feedback	13.04	11.96	-.407	.684
Oral feedback	11.38	13.63	-.828	.408
Sentence completion	16.46	8.54	-2.897	.004
Drill	16.88	8.13	-3.123	.002
Matching exercises	15.46	9.54	-2.106	.035
Peer review	12.79	12.21	-.215	.829
Self-review	13.46	11.54	-.728	.467
Grammar	13.50	11.50	-1.445	.149
Assignments	13.50	11.50	-.749	.454
Presentation	8.79	16.21	-2.644	.008
Lecture	12.50	12.50	.000	1.000
Question answer	9.31	13.00	-1.263	.206
Extensive reading	10.58	14.83	-2.327	.016
List of words for vocabulary	13.54	11.46	-.743	.458
Punctuation	13.50	11.50	-1.048	.294
Dictation for spelling	16.29	8.71	-2.695	.007

Table 3 shows that highly used practices at SSC are sentence completion, drill, matching exercises, presentation, and dictation for spelling. On the other hand, presentation and extensive reading are the only practices that are largely used at O level classrooms compared to SSC. However, results showed that commonly used practices at SSC and O level are editing, group work, written feedback, oral feedback, peer review, self-review, grammar, assignments, lecture, question answer, list of words for vocabulary and punctuation.

Resources and material used in English writing classrooms

Table 4

Mann-whitney u-test for comparing teaching resources and material

Resources	Mean Rank SSC	Mean Rank O level	z	p
Text books	16.58	8.42	-2.895	.004
Help books	15.83	9.17	-2.376	.017
Reference books	7.25	17.75	-3.687	<.001
Hand outs	11.54	13.46	-.797	.425
Videos	9.33	15.67	-2.372	.018
Magazines/newspaper	8.83	16.17	-2.696	.007
Pictures	9.13	15.88	-2.397	.017
Worksheets	9.00	16.00	-2.483	.013

Table 4 shows that textbooks and help books as teaching resources are highly used at SSC classrooms compared to O level. On contrary, there is more use of reference books, videos, magazines/ newspaper, pictures and worksheets at O level as compared to SSC classrooms. However, there is no significant difference for the use of handouts at both streams.

Teachers' responses for the use of activities performed in English classrooms

Table 5

Activities in English writing classrooms at SSC and O level

Activities	Mean Rank SSC	Mean Rank O level	z	p
Circulates work among their fellows	15.50	9.50	-2.181	.029
Disseminate classical writing with whole class	9.58	15.42	-2.074	.038
Ask students to make presentations	12.08	12.92	-.304	.761
Places writing on bulletin board	13.58	11.42	-.895	.371
Posts writing on web	9.25	15.75	-2.305	.021

Table 5 shows that at SSC level students share each other's work among their fellows. This activity is highly used at SSC. However, highly used activities at O level are disseminating excellent work of students with the whole class and posting students' writing on the web. Results showed that the common activities at SSC and O level are students' presentation and posting their writing on the bulletin board.

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to compare the teaching practices of SSC and O level students for the development of writing skills in English language classrooms. Findings of the study showed better use of teaching practices used by teachers of O level in English writing classrooms. Teachers of O level largely use brainstorming, group work and presentation for generating ideas regarding developing writing skills as compared to SSC. Khan (1999) also found that brainstorming is useful practice for developing writing skill. Similarly, Lloyd, Blaus, and Sousa (2017) and Hyland (2004) discussed that group work is fruitful practice for generating ideas in the process of writing. Naeem (2011) elaborated that it is important for teachers to develop presentation skills in students for learning language. However, there is no significant difference for the use of teaching practices at SSC level regarding generation of ideas.

Teachers of SSC highly use jumbled words or sentences and give written feedback to students for organizing ideas as compared to O level. Widiningrum (2013) found that jumbled words can be used to teach writing to students of low proficiency. Likewise, teachers of SSC also give feedback on students' work, consistent with Bibi (2002). On the other hand, teachers of O level use question answer for organization of ideas. The finding of the study supports Chandio, Khan, and Samiullah (2013) and Naeem (2011) who considered that teachers should ask questions to make students active in classrooms. It also increases the understanding level of students in the subject of English.

For developing language facility and conventions, there is more use of sentence completion exercises, matching exercises, drill, and dictation for spelling at SSC classrooms compared to O level. Teachers of SSC consider these practices important for improving writing skills, consistent with Naeem (2011). Korhonen (2010) believed that drill is essential for learning of spelling. On the other hand, extensive reading is the only practice highly used at O level classrooms. Moore (2014) and Lloyd, Blaus & Sousa (2017) stated that indeed extensive reading is helpful for developing English writing skills.

Textbooks and help books as teaching resources are highly used at SSC classrooms. Teachers of SSC give importance to these two resources in English writing class rooms than teachers of O level. Ahmed (2010) and Khabbazzbashi, Khalifa, Robinson, Ellis and Mifsud (2017) found that text book is traditional method in teacher centered classrooms and used in teaching English for students of low proficiency. Literature does not give sufficient evidence for the use of help books in developing writing. However, it is possible that help book useful resource for learner of low proficiency in English language classrooms for developing writing skills. On contrary, there is more use of reference books, videos, magazines/ newspaper, pictures and worksheets at O level classrooms as compared to SSC classrooms. Nirmala (2006); Khan (1999); Ahmed (1979) examined that for active involvement of students in English

classrooms teachers should use reference books, pictures, maps, diagrams and the other visual material to make learning interesting. Highly used activity at SSC level is sharing of students' work among their class fellows. While teachers of O level disseminate excellent work of students with the whole class and post their writing on the web. Naeem (2011) found that there is sufficient use of activities at O level as compared to SSC. Khan (2011) also observed the use of activities in English writing classroom for effective teaching of writing.

There might be many other reasons for low proficiency of SSC students the one is the examination system. Although curriculum of SSC has been changed in 2006 but similar examination pattern as before does not allow teachers to attain the learning outcomes given in curriculum. Teachers prepare students to succeed in the examination. Another factor that might contribute towards the low performance of SSC students is large class size. It is difficult for teachers to handle the large classes with less duration of class timing. Some students might be unattended by the teacher. Another important factor towards low proficiency of SSC students is the reliance on only text book and help books. Therefore, they are unable to see the things in a broader context. The examination paper is based on these two sources therefore teacher do not bother to get their students involved in the extensive reading.

Conclusion

This study was sought to identify the teaching practices used by teachers in English writing classroom at SSC and O level. It has been our common observation that writing skills of SSC students are low than students of O level. Review of previous research shows that for teaching writing best practices are brainstorming, group work, presentation of students' work, questioning and extensive reading. It is evident from the data that teaching practices used at O level are better than SSC. Data shows that teachers of O level use these practices for developing writing skills. The findings of the study indicate that there is a great difference between use of material and activities at SSC and O level. Reference books, magazines, pictures, videos, worksheets are frequently used resources at O level. While teachers of SSC are confined only to textbooks and help books. The reason may be that teachers of SSC had to complete the prescribed syllabus therefore they do not use any material other than textbook. They prepare students for the examination and according to them these are the appropriate strategies for getting their students successful according to examination point of view. All the examination questions are taken from the textbooks. Creativity is totally ignored at SSC level which is necessary skill to cope with the 21st century. However, in O level examination creative essays are also given to students to assess their level of creativity

Recommendations

1. In this study data was obtained through questionnaire. Similar studies can be conducted with observation and interview data. Focus group interviews for students can be conducted for more reliable results.
2. Future studies can be conducted to know the preferences of teachers for the use of teaching practices to develop writing skills.
3. This study is carried out in the subject of English. Similar studies can be conducted for other subjects as well as on other grades.
4. At SSC level, teachers use text book as an important teaching tool. The reason is that examination is based on textbook. Almost all the questions are taken from textbook. This practice should be discouraged and unseen questions should be given in examination.
5. Teachers should give more focus on instructional practices given in curriculum for the attainment of learning outcomes.

References

- Ahmed, A.H. (2010). Students' problems with cohesion and coherence in EFL essay writing in Egypt: Different perspectives. *Literacy Information and Computer Journal (LICEJ)*, 1(4), 211-221.
- Berstein, B. (2000). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity*. (Revised ed.). Maryland: Rowman & Little field. Retrieved from http://books.google.com.pk/books?hl=en&lr=&id=_V0L-6eTYUAC&oi=fnd&pg=PR9&dq.
- Bibi, A. (2002). The comparative effectiveness of teaching English grammar with the help of text book and by using group work activities (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, 2002). Retrieved from <http://eprints.hec.gov.pk/183/1/76.htm>
- Carrington, S., Deppeler, J., & Moss, J. (2010). Cultivating teachers' beliefs, knowledge and skills for leading change in schools. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(1). Retrieved from <http://ajte.education.ecu.edu.au/issues/PDF/351/Carrington.pdf>
- Chandio, J. H., Khan, H. M. A., & Samiullah, M. (2013). Condition of creative writing in the north and south Punjab. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, 7(2), 321-330. Retrieved from <http://www.jespk.net/publications/126.pdf>
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. (6thed.). New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis group.

- Coleman, H. (2010). *Teaching and learning in Pakistan: The role of language in education*. UK: British Council. Retrieved from <https://xa.yimg.com/kq/groups/23184549/1102973986/name/PakistanMotherTongueReport.pdf>
- Fulcher, G. & Davidson, F. (2007). *Language testing and assessment*. New York: Routledge.
- Flower, L. & Hayes, J. R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College composition and communication*, 32 (4), 365- 387. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/356600>
- Government of Pakistan, Ministry of education. (2006). *National curriculum for English Language Grades I – XII*. Islamabad.
- Ghani, M., & Ahmad, S. (2016). Corrective feedback for young learners: A study of corrective feedback preferences and practices of Pakistani teachers at primary level. *Journal of Educational Research*, 19(2), 1-14.
- Hyland, K. (2004). *Second language writing*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Kendall, J., & Khuon, O. (2006). *Writing sense: Integrated reading and writing lessons for English language learners*. USA: Stenhouse Publishers.
- Khan, R. (1999). *An Evaluation of the Writing Component of the Higher Secondary English syllabus in Bangladesh*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Warwick, UK, 1999). Retrieved from <http://wrap.warwick.ac.uk/36399/>
- Khabbazbashi, N., Khalifa, H., Robinson, M., Ellis, S. & Mifsud, C. (2017). Understanding language in Malta. *Research Notes*, Issue 65, 3-23.
- Kinneavy, J. L. & Warriner, J. E. (1999). *Elements of writing*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Lloyd, J., Blaus, E., Sousa, H. (2017). An investigation of Portuguese students' attitudes to assessment and Cambridge English exams. *Research Notes*, issue 65, 24-38
- Mirza, M., Nosheen, M., & Mahmood, N. (1999). *Impact of examination system and teaching styles of teachers at secondary and higher secondary classes*. Retrieved from [http://nasirmehmood.com/researchs/46.1212494881.Impact %20of%20Examination%20System.pdf](http://nasirmehmood.com/researchs/46.1212494881.Impact%20of%20Examination%20System.pdf)
- Moore, N., Knight, G. & Kiburz (2014). *Developing an assessed reading portfolio to improve reading habits and raise test result*. Retrieved from <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/9780/1/Moore-Knight-Kiburz-inEmery-Moore-TLRReadinginELT-TESOLAr14.pdf>

- Naeem, M.I. (2011). *A comparative study of secondary school certificate(SSC) and General Certificate of Education- Ordinary level (GCE- O level) English language course* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan.
- Nirmala, Y. (2008). *Teaching writing using picture stories as tools at the high school level: The movement from other regulation to self-regulation*. (M. Phil Dissertation, The English and Foreign Language University, India, 2008). Retrieved from <http://www.languageinindia.com/feb2013/nirmalamphil dissertation. pdf>
- The Nation's Report Card. (2012). *Writing 2011: National assessment of educational progress at grades 8 and 12*. America: National Center for Educational Statistics.
- Ramzan, M., Khanan, L., Shah, A. A. (2016). Writing Quality: Assessing the existing Situation among Secondary Level Students. *Journal of Educational Research*, 19(1), 86-95
- University of Cambridge International Examinations. (2017). *Cambridge O level English Language Syllabus code 1123*. United Kingdom: University of Cambridge.
- Wattam, F. (2016). The effects of correction and redrafting on low level students' ability to self-edit. *Research Notes: Cambridge English*, Issue 66, 6-16
- Widiningrum, R. (2009). *Controlled writing as a class exercise for beginners*. Retrieved July 17, 2013, from <http://stibaeswe.wordpress.com/category/publik asi/page/2/>

Effects of Problem Based Learning on Students' Critical Thinking Skills, Attitudes towards Learning and Achievement

Riffat un Nisa Awan*

Hamid Hussain**

Nadeem Anwar***

Abstract

This study intends to analyze the effects of problem-based learning on students' attitude towards learning, critical thinking skills and achievement of 10th grade students in chemistry. In this experimental study the students of two intact groups of Govt. high school 79 SB Sargodha, were selected as experimental (N=35) and control group (N=28). The students of both the groups were arranged with respect to their pre-test scores into three subgroups; low, average and high achievers. This experiment was conducted for the period of two months using pre-test post-test control group design with non-equivalent groups. The tools developed for measuring the dependent variables were; "Problem Solving Ability Test in Chemistry" (PSATC) and "Achievement Test in Chemistry" (ATC), and "Attitude towards Learning Scale". On the basis of results, it was concluded that the students who received treatment, performed better than the students of control group in problem solving ability tests and in the achievement test and were better in their critical thinking skills (understanding, analyzing, evaluation and synthesis). Comparison within the experimental group reflected that the performance of high and average achiever students was same, but better than the low achievers in problem solving ability tests and achievement test.

Keywords: Problem-based learning, Attitudes towards learning, Critical thinking skills

Introduction

It is need of the day that the learners should be prepared in a way that they possess certain basic skills to work in diversified circumstances. A number of educational philosophies provide guidelines essential for the development of human being. Pragmatism and progressivism view human learning as a process of learning by experiencing the real world (Richardson, 2003). Here, 'experiencing' means to solve the

* Associate Professor, Department of Education, University of Sargodha, riffarukh@gmail.com (Corresponding author)

** M.Phil Scholar, Department of Education, University of Sargodha, hamid26hussain.hh@gmail.com

*** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, University of Sargodha, nadeem.anwar@us.edu.pk

problem which one faces in everyday life. In the real life, problems may be structured or ill structured, close or open ended. Following the principles propagated by these philosophies, various strategies and teaching methods have been developed. Problem Based Learning strategy is also propagated by constructivism school of thought which is learner centered and the teacher make the students work themselves and generate new knowledge.

Problem-based learning (PBL) has been defined as a method of inquiry where students solve difficulties, oddities, qualms, and problems in the context of real life (Barell, 2007). Barell further states that it permits students to develop their inquisitiveness and group work and teamwork skills. Norman & Schmidt (2000) defines PBL as “a learning approach that encourages the students to upgrade their motivation level, interest, and is also pleasurable, which resulted from the process of working towards accepting or solving a problem.” (722).

PBL was initially designed to address the problems of students’ inability to apply knowledge learned and to solve problems in real-world situations (Barrows & Tamblyn, 1980; Albanese & Mitchell, 1993; Barrows, 1996). It was theorized that problem-based learning (PBL) can have effect on higher order thinking ability of student which helps them in improving the attitude towards learning as well as increases their academic achievement (Barrows, 1996). However, PBL also helps the students construct their own knowledge about the given topic, while working collaboratively (Etherington, 2011). Hallinger and Bridges (2016, 2) proposed “PBL as an alternative teaching–learning approach that sought to create an active, problem-focused, practice-oriented environment for management education”.

In Problem Based pedagogical technique, the thinking and learning processes are driven by problems and relatively a specific thinking skill is ‘taught’ from the beginning. It is a method that prepares students to face the problems of real world that are unclear and often ill-structured. PBL enhances students’ achievement by promoting their skills and capabilities in applying knowledge, by challenging students to solve problems, by encouraging them in practicing higher order thinking skills, and by directing their own learning (Jonassen & Hung, 2012).

Problem-based learning makes a vital shift and emphasis on teaching to an attention on learning. The PBL is a process having the aim at using the strength of genuine problem solving to involve students and develop their learning and motivation. Saeed (2013, 3) mentions many exceptional features that define the PBL methodology:

- i. The firsthand knowledge of particular context can be acquired by the context of reliable tasks, issues, and difficulties which are associated with daily life.
- ii. The teacher and learner become fellows in teaching learning process, in a PBL course, as they plan, apply and continuously refine their courses.

- iii. This technique motivates students to take charge of personal understanding.
- iv. The PBL method deals with solid theoretical research on learning.
- v. PBL encourages effective reasoning and self-directed learning.

DeGraaff and Kolmos (2003) emphasize that “the didactical principles of PBL encompass all curriculum development elements: objectives, teacher and student learning strategies, choice of content, learning methods, ICT, teachers’ roles, organization, culture and assessment” (p.658).

In Pakistan, The National Policy on education (NEP, 2009) specifies that “the curriculum should reveal the major social problems; provide more space for the development of critical thinking, problem solving skills, inquiry habits, self-directed learning abilities, and collaborative work among learners”. In Pakistan education is assessment driven and it forces the teachers and the students to struggle with theoretical content and they feel less motivated due to the gap between theory and practice. Therefore, there is a need for the educational culture in which students are exposed to problems to learn new skills for successful professional life. Only a few studies have been conducted in Pakistan in which effect of problem based learning was found on writing skills (Dastgeer & Afzal, 2015) and learning as second language English (Hussain et al., 2012) while a few of them were carried out about science student’s achievement (Khan et al., 2012; Malik & Iqbal, 2011).

The present study intended to examine the improvement in critical thinking skills, attitude towards learning, problem solving skills, and achievement by manipulating the procedures of teaching which were based on the problem based learning techniques. The objectives of the study were:

- i. To compare and explore the improvement in academic achievement and attitude towards learning chemistry of experimental and control group students of 10th grade after treatment of problem based teaching strategies in learning chemistry.
- ii. To assess the improvement in critical thinking skills and problem-solving skills of experimental group after treatment of problem based teaching strategies.

Method

Research Design

This Non-equivalent Control Group Design was employed which can be represented as follows:

Experimental Group: $O_1 \quad X \quad O_2$
Control Group: $O_1 \quad O_2$

Where O_1 stands for the observations on pre-test
 O_2 stands for the observations on post-test
 X stands for the treatment.

Two intact groups were selected as experimental (N=35) and control group (N=28) from Government High School 79 NB. These groups were further subdivided on the base of pre-test marks as shown in the table below.

Table 1

Group distribution on the basis of pre-test marks

Groups	High	Moderate	Low	Total
Experimental (PBL Treatment)	10	15	10	35
Control (No Treatment)	10	8	10	28

The researchers selected five chapters from the textbook of Chemistry for class 10th approved by Punjab Text book Board Lahore, Pakistan. The five chapters were “Chemical equilibrium” (Chapter 9), “Acid base and salts” (Chapter 10), “Organic chemistry” (Chapter 11), “Atmosphere” (Chapter 14), and “Water” (Chapter 15).

The first step was to measure achievement of both the groups as pre-test in achievement test of chemistry (ATC) and problem-solving ability test of chemistry (PSATC) before the treatment. The treatment was then administered to one group (experimental group) by teaching them 5 major topics of 10th grade chemistry with problem based teaching strategy. The treatment was ended after six weeks following a post-test in ATC and PSATC in the subject of chemistry.

Research Instruments

Achievement Test of Chemistry (ATC)

This achievement test was focused on answering the 40 multiple-choice questions (MCQs) selected and designed according the table of specification given below:

Table 2

Table of specification for Achievement test in chemistry

Topics	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Total
Chemical equilibrium	3	3	3	9
Organic compound	5	2	3	10
Acid rain	4	6	1	11
Hardness of water	2	5	3	10
Total	14	16	10	40

Problem Solving Ability Test of Chemistry (PSATC)

This test (PSATC) comprised of 16 problems of daily life applicable to the chemistry course content of 10th grade. The problems were developed for observing

understanding, problem solving, and critical thinking skill of the students. Every problems/scenario possesses 4 marks and the total marks of PSATC were 64.

Attitude towards Learning Chemistry (ALC)

A Likert scale questionnaire was developed for measuring four indicators (Motivation level, self-learning, Collaboration, and satisfaction level) of attitude towards learning chemistry.

Validity and Reliability

For content validity the items were discussed with the Subject Specialists teaching the subject of “Chemistry” and other experts in the field. Finally, through item analysis, 40 items out of sixty (Items with difficulty level of .30 to .70) were finalized for administration. The problem-solving ability test in chemistry (PSATC) was validated through pilot testing and discussion with the experts. The questionnaire for measuring the attitude towards learning chemistry was also developed and validated by the experts.

The Kuder Richardson formula was applied to check the reliability of the ATC & PSATC. The reliability coefficient for the whole test ATC was 0.67 and reliability for the attitude questionnaire (ALC) was found to be 0.70. The reliability of problem solving ability test in Chemistry (PSATC) was found to be 0.75.

Problem Solving Teaching Strategy

The small groups, comprising five to six students, worked together on the problems presented to them to learn problem solving skills. The teacher acted as a guide who presented the problem, and the group was motivated for identifying different features of the problem by asking the questions from teacher to gather relevant information. A sample problem is given as under:

“Ali’s father brought a new tooth brush which has the quality to change the color during brushing. Ali was the student of 8th grade. Early in the morning, when Ali got new red color brush for cleaning teeth, he was astonished when he saw in the mirror that his brush became yellow from his hand grip and also from brush strings. When he washed it again become complete red. He could not understand what the chemical change occurred? Will you help him to understand the chemical change or not? Give reason”.

Each member of the group was assigned a task for searching and identifying different “learning problems”. After that all the members described their results to each other and combined it together to produce a proper solution to the problems. The main purpose was to develop thinking skills and problem-solving skills by inquiring and investigating the problem, evaluating results and producing solutions.

Results

Achievement test of chemistry

Table 3

Mean achievement score of the students of experimental and control group in Chemistry

Test	Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-Test	Experimental	35	16.72	3.44	1.529	61	.119
	Control	28	18.29	4.479			
Post Test	Experimental	35	25.29	5.061	1.78	61	.080
	Control	28	22.750	6.227			

This table showed that *t* value for the pre-test of both groups (*t*= 1.529, *p*= 0.119) was insignificant and reflects that null hypothesis of no significant difference between the students of both groups was accepted. The *t* value for the post-test (*t*= 1.78, *p*=0.80) was also insignificant and reflected that null hypothesis of no significant difference between the students of both groups was accepted but the experimental group (mean =25.29 and SD =5.06) treated by problem solving teaching method performed better than the control group (mean= 22.75 and SD=6.22).

Table 4

Comparison of mean gain score of achievement of students

Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Effect size
Experimental	35	8.9429	4.64	3.656	61	.000	0.88
Control	28	4.8400	3.73				

**p*<0.05

Table 4 revealed statistically significant *t* value for the gain score (*t*= 3.656, *p*. 0.000) which reflected that null hypothesis of no significant difference between the students of both groups was rejected. The experimental group (mean =8.94 and SD =4.64) treated by problem solving teaching method performed better than the control group (mean= 4.84 and SD=3.72). Cohen's *d* value 0.88 indicated that there was a big difference among the group treated with problem solving teaching method and the group treated through conventional teaching approach.

Table 5

Mean achievement gain score of high, moderate and low achievers of the student.

Sub Groups	Group	N	Mean	S. D	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
High Achievers	Experimental	10	8.5	1.95	3.651	18	0.003
	Control	10	4.8	2.78			
Moderate Achievers	Experimental	15	5.1	2.42	2.24	24	0.025
	Control	10	2.12	1.57			
Low Achievers	Experimental	10	5.6	3.43	0.850	18	0.407
	Control	8	4.5	2.22			

This table shows that *t* value for the experiment and control group of high achievers ($t=3.651$, $p=0.003$) and moderate achievers ($t=2.24$, $p=0.025$) was significant and for low achievers ($t= -0.850$, $p=0.407$) was insignificant. However, the mean score of all subgroups treated by problem solving teaching methods was better than control group.

Problem Solving Ability Test

Table 6

Comparison of mean gain score of the students of control and experimental group in problem solving ability test in chemistry

Group	N	Mean	S D	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Effect size
Experimental	35	25.342	2.700	36.24	61	0.000	0.81
Control	28	3.714	2.034				

Table 6 displayed that *t* value of both the groups ($t =36.24$, $p. 0.000$) was significant. The experimental group (mean =25.3429 and SD =2.700) treated by problem solving teaching method performed better than the control group (mean= 3.714 and SD=2.034). Cohen's *d* value 0.81 show there was much difference among the group treated with PBL strategy and the group treated through conventional teaching methods.

Table 7

Comparison of mean gain score of high, moderate and low achievers in the problem-solving ability test in Chemistry.

Sub Groups	Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Effect size
High Achievers	Experimental	10	33.6	3.31	25.374	18	.000	0.98
	Control	10	3.9	1.66				
Moderate achievers	Experimental	16	24.43	2.92	28.58	24	.000	0.98
	Control	8	0.50	1.51				
Low Achievers	Experimental	10	16.80	3.08	16.396	18	.000	0.96
	Control	10	8.700	3.83				

* $p < 0.05$

This table presented that *t* values for high, moderate and low achievers of the both the groups which was significant and it revealed that null hypothesis of no significant difference between the groups in problem solving ability test in chemistry, was rejected. All subgroups of the experimental group performed better. The effect size ranged from 0.96 to 0.98.

Table 8

Mean achievement score of High, Moderate and Low achievers of experimental group in the problem-solving ability test

	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Effect size
Between Groups	1416.368	2	708.184	74.919	.000	0.81
Within Groups	311.938	33	9.453			
Total	1728.306	35				

The achievement of high, moderate and low ability students of experiment group was not the same. The *F* value ($F=74.58$, $p = 0.000$) was significant with $\eta^2 = 0$.

Table 8a

Post hoc test (LCD) for one-way ANOVA about the performance of the students of the different academic achievement levels

Achievement level (I)	Achievement level (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
High achiever	Low achiever	16.800	1.37497	.000
Moderate achiever	Low achiever	7.637	1.23938	.000

This table reflected that high achievers were remarkably better than low and moderate achievers. While the difference between moderate and low achievers on problem solving ability, test was also in favor of moderate achievers.

Attitude of the Students towards Learning Chemistry

Table 9

Comparison of attitude towards learning chemistry before and after treatment

	Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	P-value
Pre-Test	Experimental	35	18.14	2.65	-1.417	61	.162
	Control	28	19.10	2.02			
Post-Test	Experimental	35	36.5429	6.72	15.11	61	0.000
	Control	28	18.0000	2.45			

The above table displayed that both the groups were not significantly different at start of the treatment. As *t*-value of experiment and control group ($t=-1.417$, *p*. 0.162) was not significant while the *t* –value of both groups after treatment ($t =15.11$, *p*. 0.000) was significant. The experimental group (mean=36.54 and SD= 6.722) exhibited better attitude towards learning than the control group (mean=18.00 and SD=2.45).

Table 10

Comparison between the motivation level, Self-learning, collaboration and satisfaction level of the students of control group and experimental group after the treatment

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	p-value
Motivation	Experimental	35	21.08	3.83767	7.871		.000
	Control	28	15.10	1.31485			
Self-learning	Experimental	35	11.08	2.42986	2.878	61	.006
	Control	28	9.64	1.52058			
Collaboration	Experimental	35	8.80	1.53009	.760		.450
	Control	28	7.78	7.72374			
Satisfaction	Experimental	35	12.91	1.93073	8.541		.000
	Control	28	9.75	.92796			

The table showed that after the treatment the *t*-value of motivation, self-learning and satisfaction level of experiment group was significant but insignificant in collaboration among the experimental and control group after the treatment.

Critical Thinking Skills

Table 11

Comparison of mean gain score about the critical thinking skills

Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p-value	Effect size
Experimental	35	18.40	7.096	12.003	61	.000	0.87
Control	28	1.143	2.885				

The above table illustrated that gain score of experiment and control group ($t=12.003$, $p. 0.000$) was significantly different. Cohen's d values 3.61 and effect size is 0.87 which shows the large difference in the critical thinking skills among the students of experimental group before and after treatment.

Findings

Academic Achievement

- iii. The performance of experimental group was superior than the control group on achievement test in chemistry after being treated by PBL strategy.
- iv. The comparison among the mean gain score of the high, moderate and low achievers on achievement test in chemistry revealed that all these experimental subgroups performed better than control group students but low achievers remained almost similar.

Problem Solving Ability

- i. In problem solving ability test it was found that experimental group perform better than the control group.
- ii. It was found that in PSATC high, moderate, and low achievers of experimental group performed significantly better when treated by PBL.
- iii. Among the experimental group it was found that high and moderate achievers significantly performed better than the low achievers.

Attitude towards Chemistry Learning

- i. It was found that before the treatment both the group were same in the attitude toward learning the chemistry. They were same in their motivation, self-learning, satisfaction level and collaboration.
- ii. After teaching them through problem solving teaching method, it was found that experimental group was better in their overall attitude toward learning the chemistry, their motivation level, self-learning and satisfaction towards learning chemistry than the control group students.

Critical Thinking Skills

- i. It was found that PBL strategy helped the students of experimental group, as they significantly performed better after the treatment. It was also found that critical thinking skills of different academic achievement levels improved after treaded by PBL as high achievers were better than the moderate and low achievers in critical thinking skills.

Discussion

Findings of the study reveal that the 10th grade students treated by problem solving strategy were significantly better in achievement test in chemistry than the students treated by traditional methods. The students of all ability levels showed better results in achievement test in chemistry than the students treated by traditional method. These findings get confirmation from Hallinger and Bridges (2016) who have mentioned eight different studies which largely concluded that the use of PBL had enabled students to achieve the stated learning outcomes. Schmidt, Rotgans, and Yew (2011, 792) determine a substantial support for the impression that “PBL works because it encourages the stimulation of prior knowledge in the small-group setting and provides opportunities for explanation of that knowledge”. They further states that “PBL facilitates the comprehension of new information related to the problem and enhance its long-term memorability” (792).

Students treated by PBL strategy showed better results in problem solving ability test, and their attitude towards learning chemistry than the students treated by traditional method (lecture method). This finding confirms the findings of Festus and Ekpete, (2012), Kadir and his associates (2016) and Malik and Iqbal (2011). The most appropriate reason is that problem based learning provides the prospects of the active participation of the students in classroom teaching and increases their problem-solving skills (Malik and Iqbal, 2011) probably due to class participation and class discussion (Peterson, 1997) and presentation of the problem, then actively finding out the solution (Purichia, 2015). Hallinger, and Bridges (2016, 3) affirmed that most “learning occurs in the context of student-directed small groups rather than teacher-directed lectures”. According to constructive theory, as mentioned by Khalid and Azeem (2012) students learn in their way and built their own knowledge by understanding the real life problematic situations.

Students treated by the PBL were better in there critical thinking skills (application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation) as they showed improved skills towards solving the daily life problem. Sarigoz, (2012) indicates that due to problem solving approach; a student is not only able to learn the basic concepts but also can apply in the real-life scenario. The problem-solving teaching affects differently on the students with different abilities (Harland, 2002). Students with high and moderate achievement level when treated with problem solving teaching strategies performed significantly better than

the low achievers in problem solving ability and critical thinking skills. Overall students of all ability levels showed better results on problem solving ability test in chemistry.

Conclusions

Conclusion drawn from the findings reflects that PBL teaching strategy is very advantageous in improving achievement and critical thinking skills (application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation) of the students. The overall attitude of the students towards learning chemistry was more positive and their motivation level was better after being treated by PBL as they eagerly attended the problem-solving classes and wanted to participate in discussion about the topic in productive manner. Problem solving teaching strategy also supplemented the motivation of self-learning. It was suggested that PBL may be followed in science subjects particularly, in mathematics, chemistry, physics and biology at secondary school level. However, it seems essential to admit that teachers, especially in our context, need to acquire multifaceted teaching competences.

References

- Ajmal, M. F., Jumani, N. B., & Malik, S. (2016). Utilizing problem based learning in pre-service teacher education: experiences of prospective teachers in Pakistan. *Journal of Education and Human Development*, 5(2), 215-222.
- Albanese, M. A., & Mitchell, S. (1993). Problem-based learning: A review of literature on its outcomes and implementation issues. *Academic Medicine*, 68, 52–81.
- Barell, J. (2007). Problem-based learning and inquiry approach. California: Corwin Press.
- Barrows, H. S., & Tamblyn, R. M. (1980). *Problem-based learning: An approach to medical education*. New York: Springer.
- Barrows, H. S. (1996). Problem-based learning in medicine and beyond: A brief overview. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning* (68): 3-12.
- Barrett, T. (2013). Learning about the problem in problem-based learning (PBL) by listening to students' talk in tutorials: a critical discourse analysis study. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 37(4), 519-535.
- Bull, S., & Kay, J. (2007). Student models that invite the learner in: The SMILI: Open learner modelling framework. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education*, 17(2), 89-120.
- Crawford, T. R. (2011). Using problem-based learning in web-based components of nurse education. *Nurse education in practice*, 11(2), 124-130.
- Dastgeer, G. & Afzal, M. T. (2015). Improving English writing skill: a case of problem based learning. *American Journal of Educational Research*. 3, (10), 1315-1319

- De Graaf, E., & Kolmos, A. (2003). Characteristics of problem-based learning. *International Journal of Engineering Education*, 19(5), 657-662.
- Dolmans, D. H., Grave, W., Wolhagen I., & Vleuten, C. (2005). Problem-based learning: future challenges for educational practice and research. *Medical Education*, 39, 732-741.
- Etherington, M. B. (2011). Investigative primary science: A problem-based learning approach. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(9).52-74
- Festus, C., & Ekpote, O. A. (2012). Improving students' performance and attitude towards Chemistry through problem-based-solving techniques (PBST). *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 1 (1). 167-174
- Hallinger, P. and Bridges E. M. (2016). A systematic review of research on the use of problem-based learning in the preparation and development of school leaders. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 53(2) 1-34
- Harland, T (1998). Moving towards problem-based learning, *Teaching in Higher Education*, 3(2), 219-230.
- Hussain, M. A., Nafees, M., & Jumani, N. B. (2012). Second language learners' achievement in literature through problem-based learning method. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 9(3), 87-94.
- Jonassen D.H., Hung, W. (2012). Problem-based learning. In N. M. Seel, (Ed.), *Encyclopaedia of the Sciences of Learning*, 2687-2690. Springer.
- Kadir, Z. A., Abdullah, N. H., Anthony, E. Salleh, B. M. & Kamarulzaman, R. 1 (2016). Does problem-based learning improve problem solving skills? —a study among business undergraduates at Malaysian premier technical university. *International Education Studies*. 9, (5). 166-172
- Kelly, O. C., & Finlayson, O. E. (2007). Providing solutions through problem-based learning for the undergraduate 1st year chemistry laboratory. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice*, 8(3), 347-361.
- Khan, M., Muhammad, N., Ahmed, M., Saeed, F., & Khan, S. A. (2012). Impact of activity-based teaching on students' academic achievements in physics at secondary level. *Academic Research International*, 3(1), 146-156
- Malik, M. A., & Iqbal, M. Z. (2011). Effects of problem solving teaching strategy on problem solving and reasoning ability of 8th graders. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 3(5), 80-84.

- NEP, (2009). *National Education Policy 2009*. Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan
- Purichia, H. (2015). *Problem-Based Learning: An Inquiry Approach*. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 9(1).
- Peterson, M. (1997). *Skills to enhance Problem-based Learning*. *Medical Education Online* 2(3), 1-8
- Richardson, V (2003). Constructivist pedagogy. *The teacher record volume 105*, 1623-1640. Colombia University.
- Sarigoz, O. (2012). Assessment of the High School Students' Critical Thinking Skills. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences* 46, 5315-5319
- Schmidt, H. G., Rotgans, J.I. & Yew, E. H. J. (2011). The process of problem-based learning: what works and why. 45 (8), 792–806
- Wood, E. J. (2004). *Problem-Based Learning: Exploiting Knowledge of how People Learn to Promote Effective Learning*, *Bioscience Education*, 3(1), 1-12.

Assessing ESL Students' Literal, Reorganization and Inferential Reading Comprehension Abilities

Akhtar Ali*

Muhammad Javed**

Ghulam Shabbir***

Abstract

Reading comprehension is one of the basic skills of the English language that enables ESL students to comprehend textual material appropriately. This study aims to assess reading comprehension abilities of primary school students studying at private schools. A reading comprehension test, based on Barrett's and Day and Park's taxonomies of reading comprehension, was developed by focusing on literal, reorganization and inferential reading comprehension skills. ESL students of grade 5 were targeted in the study. A sample comprising of 375 students was selected from 25 primary schools from District Vehari, Pakistan. Fifteen students were randomly selected from each school. Mean scores, standard deviation and percentage were calculated in order to analyze the data. T-value was calculated to make comparison between the performance of male and female students in reading comprehension skills. The results indicate that the respondents showed better performance in literal and reorganization comprehension as compared to inferential comprehension. The calculated t-value (0.04162) reflects that there was a significant difference between the performance of male and female students. Some implications were made to enhance ESL students' reading comprehension abilities.

Keywords: ESL students, comprehension, literal, reorganization, inferential, assessment

Introduction

Linguists divide language into four skills; namely, speaking, writing, listening and reading. Two skills such as speaking and writing are known as productive skills. Contrarily, reading and listening skills are considered as receptive skills. Each skill helps ESL students in promoting their language competencies; however, reading skill, not only assists them in developing language skills, but also provides foundations for them to enhance their language abilities. The previous studies (e.g., Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002; Welcome, Chiarello, Thompson, & Sowell, 2011) concluded in their studies that reading

* Professor of Education, Department of Education, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan, Email: akhtariub@hotmail.co.uk

** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan, (Corresponding author) email: muhammad.javed@iub.edu.pk

*** PhD Scholar, Department of Education, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan

was more important as compared to other language skills because it provides foundations for ESL students to improve their language proficiencies. Reading is known as an interaction between the text and reader in order to dig out meanings from the textual material. Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2012: 483), states that “reading is a process by which the meaning of the text is understood”. ESL students apply a variety of reading strategies in order to identify main idea and locate supporting details from the text. They also identify cause and effect relationship and get the meanings of unknown words with the help of contextual clues. In addition, they infer the text for drawing appropriate conclusions.

With regard to the process of reading comprehension, the reader needs to go back time and again in order to extract accurate meanings of the text (Diaz & Laguado, 2013; Mellard, Fall, & Woods, 2010). In this connection, the reader’s level of success or failure is judged by the competence of decoding the text (McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009).

The English language is taught as a second language in Pakistani institutions and it enjoys the status of Lingua Franca in the country. It is playing very important role in promoting education, developing economic status and upbringing social life in Pakistan. English is known as an official language in Pakistan as well (Mahboob, 2009). The importance of the English language is increasing gradually in Pakistan since it is deemed as a token to be successful in life (Mahboob, 2003; Mansoor, 2005; Mustafa, 2011). With regard to the Pakistani ESL students’ abilities in reading comprehension, they are lagging behind in coping with inferential and reorganization comprehension (Javed, Eng, & Mohamed, 2013).

The skill of reading comprehension is attached to recognizing letters, words, phraseology, vocabulary, connectors and phonology of the English language (Hale et al., 2011). Fundamentally, it is a vibrant interaction between the text and the reader. In other words, it is a dynamic process through which the reader extracts meanings from the text with the help of his previous knowledge and understanding (Cornoldi & Oakhill, 2013; Kendeou, Van den Broek, White, & Lynch, 2009). With regard to the conception of reading comprehension, the taxonomy of reading comprehension designed by Barrett’s (1968) assists ESL students to understand any type of textual material. According to Barrett (1968), there are five types of skill categories; namely, i) literal, ii) reorganization, iii) inferential, iv) evaluation, and v) appreciation. These skills are further categorized into different sub-skills (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984). Similarly, Day and Park (2005) presented another taxonomy of reading comprehension, which state five similar skill categories; namely i) literal, ii) reorganization, iii) inference, iv) prediction, and v) evaluation/personal response.

The taxonomies stated above assist ESL learners to a great extent in enhancing their capabilities in reading comprehension. They are very significant for students to comprehend each genre of text, however, as regards the objectives of the current study

are concerned, three skill categories; namely, literal, reorganization and inference/inferential were focused. Cleland (1965) also presented a model with six stages, i.e., i) perception, ii) appreciation, iii) abstraction, iv) appraisal, v) ideation and vi) application. These stages are also significantly important for ESL students to enhance their intellect for comprehending the text. Two stages stated in Cleland's (1965) model are akin to the first two skill categories of the reading comprehension taxonomies presented by Barrett (1968) and Day and Park (2005). The current study focused on identifying supporting details and locating main ideas which are the sub-skills of literal comprehension. The study also addressed to extracting supporting details, locating simple cause and effect relationship, and getting the meanings of unknown words with the help of contextual clues, which are the sub-skills of reorganization comprehension. In addition, drawing conclusion and making inferences were also considered to be identified that are the sub-skills of inferential comprehension.

Regarding the concept of literal comprehension, the answers of the questions pertaining to supporting details and main ideas are explicitly narrated in the text. On the other hand, the answers of reorganizational questions are also explicitly stated in the text, however, the reader needs to reorganize and analyze various pieces of information taken from different parts of the text. As regards the approaches to be employed for answering inferential comprehension questions, students need to make predictions, suppositions and assumptions based on their personal experiences, background knowledge, and common perception in view of the information explicitly stated in the text (Hessamy & Sadeghi, 2013; Javed, Eng, & Mohamed, 2013). Previous research findings report that students are generally able to answer the questions related to literal comprehension with slight efforts. On the other hand, they face immense trouble in answering inferential and reorganizational comprehension questions. According to Izumi (2012) and Jones and Idol (1990), ESL students need critical thinking skills and higher order capabilities for drawing conclusion and making inferences while answering inferential comprehension questions.

The studies carried out by Bibi (2009), Shafi and Loan (2010), Stutz, Schaffner, and Schiefele (2016) conclude that students' lack of capabilities in reading comprehension. Hardly a few studies have been conducted in Pakistani contexts for measuring students' erudition in inferential comprehension. Therefore, in view of the situation, the researchers aim to measure ESL students' proficiencies in literal, reorganization and inferential reading comprehension in line with the taxonomies of reading comprehension stated above.

Objectives of the Study

Following research objectives were formulated in the study.

1. To measure ESL students' performance in literal, reorganization and inferential comprehension skills.
2. To compare the performance of male and female students in the selected skills.

Hypotheses

Following hypotheses were framed in line with the second objective of the study to compare male and female students' performance in literal, reorganization and inferential comprehension.

1. H₀. There is no significant difference between male and female students' performance in reading comprehension skills.
2. H₁. There is a significant difference between male and female students' performance in reading comprehension skills.

Methodology

Sample

ESL students of class five were targeted in the current study. As regards the selection of sample, three hundred and seventy-five students were randomly chosen from 25 private schools from District Vehari, Pakistan. In this respect, 15 students were taken from each school. Out of the selected respondents, 180 (48%) were females while 195 (52%) males participated in the study. The respondents' average age ranged from 9 to 11 years with the mean of 10.4 years.

Research Tool

A self-designed achievement test was used to collect the quantitative data. The test comprised of 15 passages and 75 MCQs related to the selected skill categories; namely, literal, reorganization, and inferential comprehension in connection with the reading comprehension taxonomies of Barrett (1968) and Day and Park (2005) and the objectives of the English language of Grade 5 set by the Ministry of Education Pakistan (2006). English Textbook of grade 5 of the Punjab Textbook Board (PTB) Lahore, Pakistan was focused for the selection of 15 passages followed by five reading comprehension questions under each text in the achievement test. Four options/distracters were given under each question. The New Dale-Chall Readability Formula was used to determine the difficulty level of each passage. As stated earlier, two skill categories such as finding supporting details and locating main ideas under literal comprehension were focused. Three sub-skills; namely, digging out supporting details, identifying simple cause and effect relationships, and getting the meanings of unknown words with the help of contextual evidences were considered under reorganization comprehension while developing the achievement test. Furthermore, drawing conclusions and making inferences were addressed under inferential comprehension in the achievement test.

Twenty-five MCQs were constructed under each skill category. Sixteen items were included to measure students' proficiency in locating the main idea while 9 items were added for identifying supporting details. As regards measuring students' capabilities in reorganization comprehension, 8 items were designed for identifying simple cause and effect relationships, 7 items were developed for getting the meanings of words by using contextual evidences while 10 items were constructed for digging out supporting details. With respect to inferential comprehension, 15 items were included for measuring students' performance in making conclusions while 10 items were specified in order to gauge students' proficiency in drawing conclusions.

A pilot study was carried out in order to test the validity and reliability of the instrument. In this respect, the English language experts tested the validity of the tool. The experts suggested some changes in the instrument; therefore, the recommended changes were incorporated in the light of their opinions regarding the difficulty level of the passages, length of the texts, appropriateness of the MCQs and possible options/distracters for each question. One hundred and fifteen students were chosen for the pilot study. The selected sample for the pilot study was 30 % of the total sample of the study that is in line with the recommended sample size by Hertzog (2008). The reliability of the tool was established by using The Kuder-Richardson Formula (KR20). The reliability for literal comprehension, reorganization comprehension and inferential comprehension was 0.892, 0.912 and 0.933 respectively. These values indicate high reliability of the instrument (Airasian, Gay, & Mills, 2000; Bonito, Ruppel, & Keyton, 2012).

Data Collection and Analysis

As stated earlier, a self-designed achievement test was used to gather quantitative data from the students of grade 5 from District Vehari, Pakistan. The participants of the study were given proper instructions and allocated 90 minutes to complete the comprehension test. Each respective teacher cooperated with the researchers in administering the test. Hence, 100 % response rate was reported. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS. 22) was used for the analysis of the data. The marking of the students' transcripts was made on the principle of one-item one-mark, therefore score 1 was given to the correct response while zero score was awarded to an incorrect answer. Descriptive and inferential statistics were applied for the analysis of the data. Therefore, percentage, mean scores, and standard deviation were calculated for each reading skill category. T-value was also calculated to measure the difference between males and females at $p \leq 0.05$.

Results

Each reading skill was analyzed individually. Moreover, comparison between male and female students was also made in order to measure their proficiency in reading comprehension. The results are presented in tabular forms as follows.

Table 1 shows ESL students' mean scores in three reading comprehension skills such as literal reading comprehension, reorganization reading comprehension, and inferential reading comprehension. It also indicates that their score in literal, reorganization and inferential comprehension was 22.7 (90.8%), 9.8 (39.2%) and 10.1 (40.4%) respectively. The data in the table reveal that the participants show better performance in literal reading comprehension as compared to reorganization reading comprehension and inferential reading comprehension. It also shows that the respondents face difficulty to reorganize and analyze different pieces of information taken from the texts.

Table 1

The ESL students' overall performance in reading comprehension skill categories (N=375)

Reading Skills	Scores for each reading skill	Mean scores	%
Literal Reading Comprehension	25	22.7	90.8
Reorganization Reading Comprehension	25	9.8	39.2
Inferential Reading Comprehension	25	10.1	40.4

According to the data presented in Table 2, the students' performance was relatively better in locating main idea and identifying supporting detail instead of discovering cause and effect relationship, digging out supporting details and getting the meanings of unknown words. It reveals that students excelled in understanding literal and inferential texts as compared to answer reorganization comprehension questions. It can be concluded that the students could not answer the questions for which the information was implicitly stated in the text.

Table 2

The ESL students' overall performance in sub-skills of reading comprehension (N=375)

Reading Skills		Sub-skills	Score for each reading skill	Mean scores	%	SD
Literal Reading Comprehension	i	identify supporting detail	16	14.5	90.62	.3078
	ii	locate main idea	9	8.2	91.11	.3663
Reorganization Reading Comprehension	i	identify simple cause and effect	8	2.6	32.50	.4701
	ii	acquire the meaning of words by using contextual clues	7	2.0	28.57	.4893
	iii	extract supporting details	10	2.3	23.00	.3663
Inferential Reading Comprehension	i	make inference	10	2.3	23.00	.4103
	ii	draw conclusion	15	8.1	54.00	.5026

The data presented in Table 3 represent male students' gained scores in literal comprehension, reorganization comprehension, and inferential comprehension. It shows that ESL students obtained better scores in the inferential reading comprehension and literal comprehension as compared to reorganization reading comprehension.

Table 3

The ESL male students' overall performance in reading comprehension skills (N=195)

Reading skills	Score for each reading skill	Mean scores	%
Literal Reading Comprehension	25	21.4	85.6
Reorganization Reading comprehension	25	5.6	22.4
Inferential Reading comprehension	25	10.2	40.8

Table 4 indicates female students' expertise in three types of skill categories such as literal reading comprehension, reorganization reading comprehension, and inferential reading comprehension. It represents that the participants showed better performance in identifying main idea and supporting details; information explicitly stated in the text, e.g., literal comprehension. They face difficulty in inferring information not clearly stated in the texts.

Table 4

The ESL female students' overall performance in reading comprehension skills (N=180)

Reading skills	Scores per skill category	Mean scores	%
Literal Reading Comprehension	25	24	96
Reorganization Reading comprehension	25	8.2	32.8
Inferential Reading comprehension	25	10.6	42.4

The data presented in Table 5 gives a succinct projection of both genders' performance in literal comprehension, reorganization comprehension, and inferential comprehension. The results indicate that both genders acquired relatively better scores in locating supporting detail and identifying main idea that are the sub-skills of literal comprehension. Similarly, their performance was also well in drawing the conclusion, which is one of the sub-skills under inferential comprehension. On the other hand, the respondents were unable to identify cause and effect relationship, dig out the meaning of unknown words, and locate supporting details and make inferences satisfactorily. The t-value (0.0416) was found significant at $p < 0.05$ level of significance. Therefore, keeping in view the calculated t-value, it can be concluded that the null hypothesis ($1-H_0$) was rejected. Based on the finding, it is evident that there was a significant difference between the performance of male and female students.

Table 5

Comparison of males and females in reading comprehension skills (N=375)

Reading Skills	Sub-skills	Score Obtained	Male students (n=195)				Female students (n=180)				t-value
			Mean	score	%	SD	Mean	score	%	SD	
Literal Reading Comprehension	i identify supporting detail	16	13.6		85.00	.42	15.4		96.25	.000	
	ii locate main Idea	9	7.8		86.66	.42	8.6		95.55	.316	
Reorganization Reading Comprehension	i identify simple cause and effect	8	2.2		27.50	.48	3.0		37.5	.483	
	ii acquire the meanings of words by using contextual clues	7	2.0		28.57	.48	2.0		28.57	.516	.04162*
	ii extract supporting details	10	1.4		14.00	.00	3.2		32	.483	
Inferential Reading Comprehension	i make inference	10	2.8		28.00	.48	1.8		18	.3162	
	ii draw conclusion	15	7.4		49.33	.53	8.8		58.66	.4830	

Discussion and Conclusion

The literature indicates that reading skills provide foundations for ESL students to enhance their proficiencies to greatly understand any type of textual material (Cornoldi & Oakhill, 2013). Fundamentally, ESL students' expertise and skills to assist them to

comprehend text in order to extract important information implicitly or clearly stated in the text. According to the taxonomies of reading comprehension by Barrett's (1968) and Day and Park (2005), ESL students should have competencies to deal with a literal understanding of the text as well as abilities to reorganize and infer information based on information either explicitly or implicitly stated in the text. In this respect, Yeh, McTigue, and Joshi (2012) claim that such abilities boost up ESL students' critical thinking skills. As regards the results of the current study, the ESL students showed relatively better expertise in identifying main ideas and location supporting details, which are the sub-skills of literal reading comprehension. These results are consistent with the findings from Abdelhalim (2017), Alptekin (2006), Roe and Smith (2011), Ulu (2016) who gauged ESL students' capabilities in literal reading comprehension, reorganization reading comprehension, and inferential reading comprehension. Moreover, the current study's results indicate that the participants' performance was relatively poor in answering reorganization comprehension questions as compared to answer literal and inferential comprehension questions.

Additionally, a significant difference was found between male and female students' performance in all types of reading skill categories; namely, literal comprehension, reorganization comprehension, and inferential comprehension. Moreover, the calculated t-value is an indicator of the difference between their competencies in answering literal, reorganization and inferential comprehension questions.

Recommendations

Reading skills stated in the previously mentioned taxonomies of reading comprehension are significantly important for ESL students to enhance their English language competencies. In connection with the findings of the current study, the respondents' proficiency in answering inferential comprehension is comparatively deplorable. Therefore, they are suggested to enhance their inferential comprehension skills. Additionally, they should utilize both the taxonomies in order to improve their language skills since these skills provide strong foundations to command over the English language. Besides, students also lack the abilities for reorganizing information after taking from different parts of the text. Hence, they should pay focus on learning how to organize and analyze information. Similar studies can be carried out to investigate ESL students' proficiencies in other skills such as appreciation, evaluation, prediction and personal response stated in the aforementioned reading comprehension taxonomies.

References

- Abdelhalim, S. M. (2017). Developing EFL students' reading comprehension and reading engagement: effects of a proposed instructional strategy. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(1), 37-48.
- Airasian, P., Gay, L., & Mills, G. 2000. *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application*. New Jersey, Upper Saddle: Prentice Hall.
- Albarillo, L. B. (2012). Predictors of teachers' reading skills in a rural school district in Northeastern Mindanao Philippines. *IAMURE International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 2(1), 28-47.
- Alderson, J. C., & Urquhart, A. H. (1984). *Reading in a Foreign Language*: Longman Pub Group.
- Alptekin, C. (2006). Cultural familiarity in inferential and literal comprehension in L2 reading. *System*, 34(4), 494-508.
- Barrett, T. C. (1968). What is reading? Some current concepts. In H. M. Robinson (Ed.) *Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction: The Sixteenth Handbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Bibi, H. (2009). *Improving the Teaching of Reading Comprehension in English as a Foreign Language Classroom in Karachi* (Unpublished master's dissertation). Aga Khan University, Karachi, Pakistan. Retrieved from http://ecommons.aku.edu/theses_dissertations/294/
- Bonito, J. A., Ruppel, E. K., & Keyton, J. (2012). Reliability estimates for multilevel designs in group research. *Small Group Research*, 43(4), 443-467.
- Cleland, D. L. (1965). A construct of comprehension. *Reading and Inquiry*, 59-64.
- Cornoldi, C., & Oakhill, J. V. (Eds.). (2013). *Reading Comprehension Difficulties: Processes and Intervention*. Routledge.
- Day, R. R., & Park, J. (2005). Developing reading comprehension questions. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 17(1), 60-73.
- Diaz, S., & Laguado, J. C. (2013). Improving reading skills through skimming and scanning techniques at a public school: action research. *Opening Writing Doors Journal*, 10(1), 133-150.
- Government of Pakistan (2006). *National Curriculum for English Language; Grades 1-XII 2006*. Ministry of Education. Islamabad, Pakistan. Retrieved from http://www.ibe.unesco.org/curricula/pakistan/pk_al_eng_2006_eng.pdf

- Hale, A. D., Henning, J. B., Hawkins, R. O., Sheeley, W., Shoemaker, L., Reynolds, J. R. & Moch, C. (2011). Reading assessment methods for middle-school students: An investigation of reading comprehension rate and Maze accurate response rate. *Psychology in the Schools*, 48(1), 28-36.
- Hertzog, M. A. (2008). Considerations in determining sample size for pilot studies. *Research in nursing & health*, 31 (2), 180-191.
- Hessamy, G., & Sadeghi, S. (2013). The relative difficulty and significance of reading skills. *International Journal of English Language Education*, 1(3), pp-208.
- Izumi, H. (2012). Exploring the relationship between teacher questioning and students' interest in the content: teachers' general perceptions. *Sophia*, 42-61.
- Javed, M., Eng, L. S., & Mohamed, A. R. (2013). Comparison of male and female ESL students scores in literal reading comprehension. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, 8(3), 302-308.
- Jones, B. F., & Idol, L. (eds.) (1990). *Dimensions of Thinking and Cognitive Instruction*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kendeou, P., Van den Broek, P., White, M. J., & Lynch, J. S. (2009). Predicting reading comprehension in early elementary school: The independent contributions of oral language and decoding skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(4), 765.
- Longman (2012). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. Retrieved from <http://www.amazon.com/Longman-Dictionary-Language-Teaching-Linguistics/dp/1408204606>
- Mahboob, A. (2003). *The future of English in Pakistan. Strengthening Participatory Organization*: Islamabad. Pakistan.
- Mansoor, S. (2005). *Language Planning in Higher Education: a case study of Pakistan*. Oxford University Press: Karachi.
- McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., & Blake, R. G. (2009). Rethinking reading comprehension instruction: A comparison of instruction for strategies and content approaches. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 44(3), 218-253.
- Mellard, D. F., Fall, E., & Woods, K. L. (2010). A path analysis of reading comprehension for adults with low literacy. *Journal of learning disabilities*, 43(2), 154-165.
- Mustafa, Z. (2011). *Tyranny of Language in Education: the problem and its solution*. Usha Publishing International: Karachi.

- Pearson, P. D. (2009). The roots of reading comprehension instruction. In K. Ganske and D. Fisher (Eds.) *Comprehension Across the Curriculum: Perspectives and Practices K-12* (pp. 279-321). New York: The Guilford Press
- Roe, B. D., & Smith, S. H. (2011). *Teaching Reading in Today's Elementary Schools*. Belmont: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Sénéchal, M., & LeFevre, J. A. (2002). Parental involvement in the development of children's reading skill: A five-year longitudinal study. *Child development*, 73(2), 445-460.
- Shafi, S. M., & Loan, F. A. (2010). Reading habits among college students of Kashmir across genders. *Trends in Information Management*, 6(2), 92-103.
- Stutz, F., Schaffner, E., & Schiefele, U. (2016). Relations among reading motivation, reading amount, and reading comprehension in the early elementary grades. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 45, 101-113.
- Ulu, M. (2016). A structural equation model to explain the effect of fluent reading, literal comprehension and inferential comprehension levels of elementary school 4th grade students on success in problem Solving. *Egitim ve Bilim*, 41(186), 13-25.
- Welcome, S. E., Chiarello, C., Thompson, P. M., & Sowell, E. R. (2011). Reading skill is related to individual differences in brain structure in college students. *Human brain mapping*, 32(8), 1194-1205.
- Widodo, H. P. (2009). Key issues in teaching EFL/ESL intensive reading: A videotaped self-observation report. *The Journal of Effective Teaching*, 9(3), 38-58.
- Yeh, Y. F., McTigue, E. M., & Joshi, R. M. (2012). Moving from explicit to implicit: A case study of improving inferential comprehension. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 51(2), 125-142.
- Zoghi, M. (2013). Let's Cross the Rubicon: Strengthening Reading Comprehension Instruction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 537-543.
- .

Relationship of Fathers' Parenting Style with Secondary School Students' Anti Social Behaviour

Uzma Kirn*

Muhammad Tahir Khan Farooqi**

Shazina Zia***

Abstract

The study at hand was aimed to find out relationship between father's parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour. Population of the study consisted of all students of 10th grade enrolled in public secondary schools of the Punjab province i.e. session 2015-2016. Multistage random sampling technique was used to select the sample. Sample selected for the study comprised of 390 students (190 male and 200 female). Data were analyzed through SPSS version 20 and MS Excel 2010. Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) developed by Buri (1991) was used to measure fathers' parenting style while students' anti-social behaviour was measured using STAB (Sub-Types of Antisocial Behaviour). STAB was originally developed by Burt and Donnellan (2009). To measure fathers' parenting styles and students' antisocial behaviour, mean and standard deviation were calculated. Correlation was computed to measure relationship between above mentioned variables. Results of the study revealed that authoritarian is the most perceived while permissive is the least perceived parenting style among secondary school students. Children of authoritarian as well as permissive fathers are the most antisocial behaviour exhibitors. No significant relationship was found between fathers' authoritative parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour. Fathers should employ authoritative parenting style to deal with children's antisocial behaviour.

Keywords: Parenting style, Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive, Anti-social behaviour.

Background of the Study

Parents have been bestowed due respect in Islam. Quran' o Sunnah bequeaths luminous codes in this phenomenon. Hazrat Muhammad (PBUH) said, "No child is born but upon Fitra (as a Muslim). It is her parents who make him a Jew or a Christian or a Polytheist" (The Hadith, n.d). It is historically evident that since the inception of mankind,

* M. Phil Scholar, University of Okara. (kirnuzma53@gmail.com)

** Assistant Professor, University of Okara. E mail: drtahirfarooqi@ue.edu.pk, drtahirfarooqi@hotmail.com (Corresponding Author)

*** M. Phil Scholar, University of Okara. ziahashazina@gmail.com)

the parents remained the major source of training and guidance of their kids. This mode of training and educating to their children is called Parenting style. As Johnson (2012) defined that parenting style are those strategies which one uses in child rearing. Similarly, Akhtar (2012) stated that it is a flexible construct having plethora of techniques accorded by parents to rear their children. It is universal phenomenon that usually fathers are unaware of the effects of their parenting style on children's behaviour. The choice of parenting style heavily influenced the personal experiences of a child, perception of father role, popular beliefs and socioeconomic status of a person (Kopko, 2007).

Parenting style is the mouth word of theorists and practitioners since long time ago. As Baumrind (1966) classified parenting style into three types i.e. authoritarian, permissive and authoritative (Basirion, Majid, & Jelas, 2014). As for as authoritarian parenting style (ATS) is concerned, it is a parents centered approach (Coplan, Hastings, Lagacé-Séguin, & Moulton, 2002) based on belief that parents are the authority and emphasizes on submission and compliance from children (Geeraert, Van den Noortgate, Grietens, & Onghena, 2004). The authoritarian fathers have clear expectations and more control over their children. They do not give explanations for their acts. They use reward and punishment as a disciplinary technique and enforce rules (Baumrind, 1967). They are not responsive to the needs of their children. They do not allow their young ones to take decisions. Resultantly, the children of authoritarian fathers learn early how to please their parents (Burt & Donnellan, 2009). They are highly demanding but not responsive to their children's needs (Hoskins, 2014). Moreover, Darling (1999) reported two categories of authoritarian fathers i.e. authoritarian-directive and autocratic. Autocratic fathers are more intrusive as compared to authoritarian directive ones.

The second type of parenting style is permissive. The permissive father does not disturb his child's activities. He gives them full freedom without any responsibility. He behaves like friend not an authority. He is afraid of imposing limits because his children would dislike him. His only goal is to make his children feel happy (Schaffer, Clark, & Jeglic, 2009).

The third type is Authoritative Parenting Style (APS) which is characterized as high on both demandingness and responsiveness scale (Hoskins, 2014). APS is a child-centered approach and typically identified with concerted cultivation parenting style (Cheadle, 2008). Authoritative fathers encourage their children to take decisions and face the consequences of their choices. They are warm and involve with their children. Baumrind (1991) favoured APS out of the three styles because the best of authoritarian i.e. demandingness and the best of permissive style i.e. responsiveness are both present in this style. APS offers balance between freedom and responsibility as parents give reasons for their acts (Hoeve et al., 2008).

Additionally, Maccoby and Martin (1983) further expanded Baumrinds' (1971) theory by introducing Uninvolved Parenting Style (UPS). Hoskins (2014) argued that

uninvolved fathers are neither responsive nor demanding. Tiller (2002) observed that UPS is least researched parenting style because uninvolved fathers are not cooperative enough to participate in study. Uninvolved fathers remain unaware of their children's activities. Walker and Smreker (2002) claimed that there are many reasons behind this kind of parenting style. Fathers are too busy to give attention, have preferences other than their children, are addicted and cannot pay heed to their children's matters.

It is empirically proved across the globe that parenting style is one out of various factors that develop students' behaviour (Schaffer, Clark, & Jeglic, 2009) which affects students' success or failure at school. As Gillman, (2005) stated that behaviour is as we act or conduct ourselves, especially towards others. Attitude is internal while behaviour is an external expression (Myers, 2004). There are two types of behaviour i.e. pro social and anti-social. Prosocial behaviour is identified with willingly supporting others e.g. saying words of comfort or to help others in achieving their goals (Veenstra, 2008).

On the other hand, anti-social behaviour is defined as violating social norms. It is characterized by harming oneself or others intentionally. Antisocial behaviour can also be categorized in another way i.e. absence of prosocial behaviour and presence of anti-social behaviour. Willoughby, Smitt, and Bryant (2001) stated two categories of antisocial behaviour i.e. covert and overt. Burt and Donnellan (2009) developed a questionnaire named STAB (Sub Types of Antisocial Behaviour) and identified three subtypes of antisocial behaviour i.e. physical aggression, social aggression and rule breaking.

The researchers Azimi, Vaziri, and Kashani (2012) defined aggression as fatal, harmful and unfriendly behaviour that people demonstrate due to disappointment. Rapid increase in the reports of aggressive acts has boosted up its importance so that we may deal with it as a psychological problem (Trenas, Osuna, Olivares, & Cabrera, 2013). Consequences of students' anti-social behaviour are quite destructive because students indulge in harming others, rudeness, verbal abuse etc. (Johnson, 2012). It is a clinically approved behaviour disorder and must be treated like a disease. The major causes of anti-social behaviour include personal experiences, media influence, domestic violence and parenting style etc.

In the light of above mentioned review of relevant studies, it has been concluded that there is significant relationship between fathers' parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour. Authoritarian parenting style has adverse psychological effects on students' behaviour. Children of authoritarian fathers have lack of social knacks and confidence (Barber, Stolz, Olsen, Collins, & Burchinal, 2005). Father's harsh punishment and low level of support lead students towards behavioural problems. As Schaffer, Clark, and Jeglic (2009) claimed that permissive parenting style is positively associated with children behavioural problems because high level of support and low level of

demandingness nurtures socially immature students. They feel hesitation while facing challenges.

While unlimited freedom with no responsibility leads towards irresponsible and disruptive behaviour on the part of the students (Sailor, 2004). Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, and Dornbusch (2006) theorized that the students who are brought up by permissive parenting style are immature, overprotected and easily got under pressure by their fellows. Their academic grades are also poor. Authoritative fathers do not use punishment as a disciplinary technique (Hoeve et al., 2008). Their high level of support and control lead their children to become less dependent and depressed. Resultantly, students usually have better self-esteem and are more cooperative. Maccoby and Martin (1983) also termed authoritative as optimal parenting style. Each parenting style has its benefits and limitations. Many studies have been conducted to find out causes of anti-social behaviour. The study at hand focuses on students' antisocial behaviour by dint of parenting style.

Statement of the Problem

The study was planned to investigate the relationship of fathers' parenting style with secondary school students' anti social behaviour.

Objectives of the Study

Objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To explore fathers' parenting styles as perceived by public secondary school students of the Punjab province.
2. To find out antisocial behaviour of secondary school students.
3. To investigate relationship between parenting styles and students' antisocial behaviour.

Research Questions

Following research questions were formulated to achieve the objectives of the study:

1. Do students enrolled in public secondary schools perceive their fathers' parenting style similar?
2. Do students enrolled in public secondary schools possess same antisocial behaviour?
3. Does there any significant relationship exist between public secondary school students' perception about their fathers' parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour?

Delimitations of the Study

Due to time, resources and financial constraints, this study was delimited to public secondary schools of the Punjab province only and 10th grade children from these schools.

Methodology

The study was correlational in nature as the researchers were intended to find out the correlation between fathers' parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour. Data were collected through survey method. According to Louis, Lawrence, and Keith (2007) survey is used to describe the characteristics of a population on certain variables e.g. behaviour etc. When the targeted population is too large to get access, we use survey type study.

Population of the study comprised of all public secondary school students of the Punjab province enrolled in session 2014-2015. There are 6266 secondary schools in the Punjab province having 3387 male schools and 2879 female schools. Total enrolment of secondary school students in Punjab was found to be 3750205 consisting of 2168715 males and 1581390 females (www.schools.gov.pk on April 6, 2016).

Multistage random sampling (fish bowl method) was used to select the sample. It was not feasible for the researcher to approach the whole population due to time and resources constraints, thus the researcher randomly selected three divisions namely, Sahiwal, Faisalabad and Multan. Further, one district was also randomly selected from each division i.e. Okara, Faisalabad and Khanewal respectively.

Table 1

District Wise Division of the Selected Schools

Sr.no.	Division	District	Schools				Total
			Urban		Rural		
			Male	Female	Male	Female	
1.	Sahiwal	Okara	2	2	2	2	8
2.	Faisalabad	Faisalabad	2	2	2	2	8
3.	Multan	Khanewal	2	2	2	2	8
Total			6	6	6	6	24

District wise distribution of schools is presented in the aforementioned table. Eight schools from each district were taken as the sample of the study. Further, twenty students from each school participated in the study.

Table 2

District Wise Distribution of Participants

District Name	Sample Size	Responses	Response Rate
Okara	160	160	100%
Faisalabad	160	135	84.4%
Khanewal	160	95	59.38%
Total	480	390	81.3%

Table 2 describes that 480 students were approached to participate in the study whereas 390 students responded. Therefore, the response rate was 81.3%.

Instrumentation

To collect data from selected sample of the study, following two types of information were required.

1. Fathers' parenting styles as perceived by students enrolled in public secondary schools of the Punjab province.
2. Students' antisocial behaviour

Data were collected with the help of two questionnaires i.e. PAQ (Parental Authority Questionnaire) and STAB (Sub Types of Antisocial Behaviour). Separate instruments were used to measure both variables. The researcher got the permission to use the instruments. The questionnaires were bi-lingually translated i.e. Urdu & English. Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) developed by Buri (1991) was used to measure parenting styles. Due permission was sought from the owner of the instrument. It was generously granted on 21 Sep, 2015. It consisted of 30 items. Each subset of PAQ comprised of 10 items. Translated version of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) was tried out on 80 secondary school students of district Sahiwal. Keeping in view the nature of questionnaire, PAQ was filled out by students themselves. The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was 0.79. After reliability and validity analysis, it was concluded that bilingual version of PAQ proved to be valid and reliable tool to measure parenting styles as perceived by Punjab public secondary school students in Pakistani context.

The second questionnaire was developed by Burt and Donnellan (2009). The permission to use this questionnaire was obtained on Sep 19, 2015. It is a Lickert type close-ended instrument and consisted of 32 items. It has three factors related to antisocial behaviour i.e. physical aggression, social aggression and rule breaking having reliability coefficient 0.86. First part of the instrument was to take demographic information for both parents and children i.e. name and gender of the student, locality of the school etc. These items portrait a clear and sound background of respondents. Translated version of STAB was tested on same sample size as described earlier for pilot study of PAQ. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of STAB scale is raised from 0.86 to 0.88 after

deleting five items (1, 2, 4, 6 &13) from STAB scale due to low item-total correlation. The scale actually used in research comprised of 27 items.

Data Collection

Researchers personally administered both questionnaires in Okara, Faisalabad and Khanewal district.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20 and Microsoft Excel 2010 were used to analyze the data.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics on Subsets Fathers' PAQ

Father's Parenting Style	M	SD
Authoritative	3.21	0.63
Authoritarian	3.29	0.54
Permissive	2.78	0.58

Table 3 shows the mean scores on the subsets of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) as perceived by students enrolled in public secondary schools of the Punjab province about their fathers' parenting style. Majority of students perceive authoritarian (M=3.29, SD=0.54) parenting style to be most employed by their fathers. Whereas Permissive (M=2.78, SD=0.58) parenting style is the least perceived parenting style.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics on Subsets of STAB

Subsets of STAB	Mean	SD
Physical Aggression	1.70	0.59
Social Aggression	1.67	0.52
Rule Breaking	1.45	0.41

Table 4 shows mean scores of public secondary school students on subscales of antisocial behaviour. Figures indicate that physical aggression (M=1.70, SD=0.59) is the most exhibited antisocial behaviour by students and rule breaking (M=1.45, SD=0.41) is the least one. Social Aggression (M=1.67, SD=0.52) is the second most exhibited subtype of antisocial behaviour.

Table 5

Correlation between fathers' parenting styles and students' anti-social behaviour

Respondent	N	Mean	S. D	Correlation(r)	Sig.Value
Parenting Styles	390	3.09	0.42	0.16**	0.001
Children's Antisocial Behaviour	390	1.59	0.43		

N=390, *p<0.05, **p<0.01

Table 5 reflects that Pearson Correlation “r” value (0.16**) is significant beyond at significance level $\alpha=0.01$. Hence, answer to the research question is that there exists a significant positive relationship between fathers' parenting style and students' anti-social behaviour.

Table 6

Correlation between Subscales of fathers' parenting style and children's anti-social behaviour

Parenting Style	N	Mean	S. D	Correlation(r)	Sig.value
Authoritative	390	3.21	0.63	0.009	0.08
Authoritarian	390	3.29	0.54	0.11*	0.04
Permissive	390	2.78	0.58	0.15**	0.003

N=390, *p<0.05, **p<0.01

Table 6 reflects that Pearson Correlation “r” value (0.009) is not significant beyond at significance level $\alpha=0.05$. Moreover, Correlation between authoritative parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour is negligible since $r=0.009 < 0.1$ (Bartz, 1999). Students' antisocial behaviour is significantly correlated with fathers' authoritarian ($r=.11^*$ & $p=0.04 < 0.05$) and permissive ($r=.15^{**}$ & $p=0.003 < 0.01$) parenting style. It leads us to conclude that there exists no significant relationship between fathers' authoritative parenting style and students' anti-social behaviour. However, there is a significant relationship between fathers' authoritarian and permissive parenting styles and students' antisocial behaviour.

Table 7

Correlation between Subsets of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) and Subtypes of Antisocial Behaviour (STAB)

Factors of Parenting Styles	Factors of Antisocial Behaviour					
	Physical Aggression		Social Aggression		Rule Breaking	
	<i>r</i> - value	Sig.value	<i>r</i> -value	Sig.value	<i>r</i> -value	Sig.value
Authoritative	0.01	0.06	0.05	0.33	0.09	0.07
Authoritarian	0.16**	0.002	0.11*	0.03	0.008	0.88
Permissive	0.211**	0.000	0.06	0.28	0.163**	0.001

N=390, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Table 7 depicts that Pearson *r* values of the relationship between authoritative parenting style and all three subsets of STAB scale are negligible ($r=0.01, 0.05, 0.09 < 0.1$) and insignificant at $\alpha=0.05$ level. Authoritarian parenting style is significantly correlated with physical aggression, $r=0.16^{**}, p=0.002 < 0.01$ as well as social aggression subscale as $r=0.11^{*}, p=0.03 < 0.05$. Permissive parenting style is significantly correlated with physical aggression i.e. $r=0.211^{**}, p=0.000 < 0.01$. and rule breaking subscale as $r=0.163^{**}, p=0.001 < 0.01$. All other correlations are insignificant at $\alpha=0.05$ level. Therefore, it is concluded that a positive significant relationship exists between authoritarian parenting style and physical and social aggression subscales. Permissive parenting style is significantly correlated with physical aggression and rule breaking subscales. However, authoritative parenting style is not significantly correlated with any subscale of antisocial behaviour. Moreover, correlations between authoritative parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour are negligible.

Findings

- 1) A comparison of the mean scores on the subsets of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) as perceived by students enrolled in public secondary schools of the Punjab province about their fathers' parenting style revealed that majority of students perceive authoritarian ($M=3.29, SD=0.54$) parenting style to be most employed by their fathers. Whereas Permissive ($M=2.78, SD=0.58$) parenting style is the least perceived parenting style. (Table 3)
- 2) Students enrolled in Punjab public secondary schools exhibit more antisocial behaviour in terms of physical aggression ($M=1.70, SD=0.59$) & social aggression ($M=1.67, SD=0.52$) and are less inclined to rule breaking ($M=1.45, SD=0.41$). (Table 4)
- 3) Analysis reflects that Pearson Correlation "*r*" value (0.16^{**}) is significant beyond at significance level $\alpha=0.01$. Hence, it is found that there exists a

significant positive relationship between fathers' parenting style and students' anti-social behaviour. (Table 5)

- 4) Pearson Correlation " r " value (0.009) is not significant beyond at significance level $\alpha=0.01$. Moreover, correlation between authoritative parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour is negligible since $r=0.009<0.1$. Students' antisocial behaviour is significantly correlated with fathers' authoritarian ($r=.11^*$ & $p=0.04<0.05$) and permissive ($r=.15^{**}$ & $p=0.003<0.01$) parenting style. It leads us to conclude that there exists no significant relationship between fathers' authoritative parenting style and students' anti-social behaviour. However, there is a significant relationship between fathers' authoritarian and permissive parenting styles and students' antisocial behaviour. (Table 6)
- 5) Pearson r values of the relationship between authoritative parenting style and all three subsets of STAB scale are negligible ($r=0.01, 0.05, 0.09<0.1$) and insignificant at $\alpha=0.05$ level. There is a significant correlation between authoritarian parenting style and physical aggression, $r=0.16^{**}$, $p=0.002<0.01$. Authoritarian parenting style is also significantly correlated with social aggression subscale as $r=0.11^*$, $p=0.03<0.05$. Permissive parenting style is significantly correlated with physical aggression i.e. $r=0.211^{**}$, $p=0.000<0.01$ and rule breaking subscale as $r=0.163^{**}$, $p=0.001<0.01$. All other correlations are insignificant at $\alpha=0.05$ level. Therefore, it is concluded that a positive significant relationship exists between authoritarian parenting style and physical and social aggression subscales. Permissive parenting style is significantly correlated with physical aggression and rule breaking subscales. However, authoritative parenting style is not significantly correlated with any subscale of antisocial behaviour. Moreover, correlation between authoritative parenting style and students' antisocial behaviour is negligible. (Table 7)

Conclusions

- 1) Authoritarian parenting style is the most perceived fathers' parenting style by secondary school students. (Finding 1)
- 2) Physical aggression is the most exhibited antisocial behaviour while rule breaking is the least possessed behaviour by public secondary school students. (Finding 2)
- 3) Fathers' parenting style contributes significantly to lead students towards antisocial behaviour. Fathers' authoritative parenting style is not related with students' antisocial behaviour but authoritarian as well as permissive parenting style leads the students towards antisocial behaviour. Moreover, fathers' permissive parenting style is more significantly correlated with students' antisocial behaviour than authoritarian parenting style. Authoritarian parenting style is the major reason behind students' possession of physically and socially

aggressive behaviour. Students having permissive fathers are more inclined towards physical aggression and rule breaking. (Finding 3,4,5)

Discussion

The study at hand rectify the results of previous studies (Hoeve et al., 2008; Schaffer et al., 2009) revealing that a significant positive relationship was found between parenting styles and children's antisocial behaviour. A great number of researches are in line with the results of present study at hand that authoritarian parenting style (ATS) is significantly correlated with children's score on physical and social aggression subscales of Sub-Types of Antisocial Behaviour (STAB). Authoritarian parents are highly demanding but it creates negative perfectionism on the part of child. Authoritarian parenting style has adverse psychological effects on children's behaviour. Children of authoritarian parents are dissatisfied, introverted, have adjustment problems with their fellow beings, lack social knacks and confidence (Barber, Stolz, Olsen, Collins, & Burchinal, 2005) and are more disheartened and worried as compared to other children (Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, & Keehn, 2007). ATS characterized by high level of control sometimes leads children towards the opposite side and children become rebellious (Miller, Benson, & Galbraith, 2001; Sailor, 2004). In its extreme form, when parents accord physical punishment with oral abuse it will lead a child towards suicide in order to get rid of challenging situations (Gershoff, 2002).

Previous researches (Azimi, Vaziri, & Kashani, 2012; Baumrind, 1967; Querido, Warner, & Eyberg, 2002; Sailor, 2004; Santrock, 2007; Schaffer, Clark, & Jeglic, 2009; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 2006; Mullens, 2004; Wright & Cullen, 2001) rectify the results of present study demonstrating that permissive parenting style is significantly correlated with physical aggression and rule breaking subscales of antisocial behaviour. Children of permissive parents are more antisocial as compared to the children of authoritative or authoritarian parents. The results of study conducted by Schaffer, Clark, and Jeglic (2009) provide empirical evidence for this conclusion. Social skills of the children are fully developed because they are given the opportunities to express themselves. Children begin to overpower their parents because parents want to have friendly relationship at any cost (Azimi, Vaziri, & Kashani 2012). They do not realize the need of showing appropriate behaviour and always want their desires to be fulfilled (Santrock, 2007). Such children consider this world as a laboratory and do not afraid of being indulged in illegal activities (Querido, Warner, & Eyberg, 2002). Schaffer, Clark, and Jeglic (2009) claimed that permissive parenting style is positively associated with behavioural problems. High level of support and low level of demandingness produce such children as are socially immature, self-catered, irresponsible and unconcerned about others' welfare. They feel hesitation while facing challenges. Unlimited freedom with no responsibility leads to the disruptive behaviour on the part of the children (Sailor, 2004).

An important finding made by present study i.e. authoritative parenting style is not significantly correlated with children's antisocial behaviour is in line with the results of previous researches (Berg, 2011; Bronte, Moore, & Carrano, 2006; Choe, Olson, & Sameroff, 2013; Gonzalez, Holbein, & Quilter, 2002; Hoeve et al., 2008; Mensah & Kuranchie, 2013; Milevsky, Schlechter, Klem, & Kehl, 2008; Simons & Conger, 2007; Speirs, Neumeister, Williams, & Cross, 2009; Steinberg & Silk, 2002; Turkel & Tezer, 2008; Van Duijvenvoorde, Zanolie, Rombouts, Raijmakers, & Crone, 2008; Wargo, 2007). Children of authoritative parents usually have better self-esteem and are more cooperative, self-confident, cheerful (Baumrind, 1967), less antisocial, more adjusted with the class fellows (Choe, Olson, & Sameroff, 2013), achievement oriented (Gonzalez, Holbein, & Quilter, 2002), altruistic and contented with their lives as compared to those brought through other parenting styles (Milevsky, Schlechter, Klem, & Kehl, 2008). Children do not suffer from insecurities, low self-esteem and anxiety (Simons & Conger, 2007).

To conclude, fathers' authoritarian parenting style as well as permissive parenting style leads children towards antisocial behaviour. Responsiveness and demandingness are desirable qualities. Authoritative style contains the qualities of both. Permissive style lacks control whereas authoritarian lacks support. We can also say that authoritative parenting style stands between the both extremes. Children must know their limits and parents should be forgiving in case of mistakes. Research studies (Baumrind, 1967; Santrock, 2007) support the above-mentioned results.

Recommendations

- 1) Fathers should deal with children's antisocial behaviour by employing authoritative parenting style.
- 2) Permanent post of psychologist should be announced by the education department in public secondary schools for proper guidance and counseling of students exhibiting antisocial behaviour.
- 3) Social skills training program should be conducted to improve prosocial skills of children.
- 4) It is revealed in the study that fathers mostly used authoritarian parenting style. Hence, Education department should arrange training workshops for both teachers and parents so that they can effectively deal with children suffering from antisocial behaviour and participation of fathers must be ensured in parent teacher meetings.

References

- Akhtar, Z. (2012). The effect of parenting style of parents on the attachment styles of undergraduate students. *Language in India*, 12(1), 555-566.
- Azimi, A. L., Vaziri, S., & Kashani, F. L. (2012). Relationship between maternal parenting style and child's aggressive behaviour. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 69(1), 1276-1281.
- Barber, B. K., Stolz, H. E., Olsen, J. A., Collins, W. A., & Burchinal, M. (2005). Parental support, psychological control, and behavioural control: Assessing relevance across time, culture, and method. *Monographs of the society for research in child development*, 70(4), 1-147. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-5834.2005.00365.x
- Bartz, A. E. (1999). Basic statistical concepts (4 ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Basirion, Z., Majid, R. A., & Jelas, Z. M. (2014). Big five personality factors, perceived parenting styles, and perfectionism among academically gifted students. *Asian Social Science*, 10(4), 8-15. doi: 10.5539/ass.v10n4p8
- Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of authoritative parental control on child behaviour. *Child Development*, 37(4), 887-907. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.1966.tb05416.x
- Baumrind, D. (1967). Childcare practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behaviour. *Genetic psychology monographs*, 75(1), 43-88.
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental psychology*, 4(1p2), 1-103. doi: 10.1037/h0030372
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95.
- Berg, B. (2011). The effects of parenting styles on a preschool aged child's social emotional development (Master's thesis). The Graduate School, University of Wisconsin-Stout.
- Bronte-Tinkew, J., Moore, K. A., & Carrano, J. (2006). The father-child relationship, parenting styles, and adolescent risk behaviours in intact families. *Journal of Family Issues*, 27(6), 850-881.
- Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental authority questionnaire. *Journal of personality assessment*, 57(1), 110-119. doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa570113
- Burt, S. A., & Donnellan, M. B. (2009). Development and validation of the Subtypes of Antisocial Behaviour Questionnaire. *Aggressive behaviour*, 35(5), 376-398. doi: 10.1002/ab.20314
- Cheadle, J. E. (2008). Educational investment, family context, and children's math and reading growth from kindergarten through the third grade. *Sociology of Education*, 81(1), 1-31. doi: 10.1177/003804070808100101

- Choe, D. E., Olson, S. L., & Sameroff, A. J. (2013). The interplay of externalizing problems and physical and inductive discipline during childhood. *Developmental psychology*, 49(11), 2029. doi:10.1037/a0032054
- Coplan, R. J., Hastings, P. D., Lagacé-Séguin, D. G., & Moulton, C. E. (2002). Authoritative and authoritarian mothers' parenting goals, attributions, and emotions across different childrearing contexts. *Parenting*, 2(1), 1-26.
- Darling, N. (1999). Parenting Style and Its Correlates. ERIC Digest. {ED427896 1999-03-00 Parenting Style and Its Correlates. ERIC Digest.} ERIC Development Teamwww.eric.ed.gov}
- Geeraert, L., Van den Noortgate, W., Grietens, H., & Onghena, P. (2004). The effects of early prevention programs for families with young children at risk for physical child abuse and neglect: A meta-analysis. *Child Maltreatment*, 9(3), 277-291. doi:10.1177/1077559504264265
- Gershoff, E. T. (2002). Corporal punishment by parents and associated child behaviours and experiences: a meta-analytic and theoretical review. *Psychological bulletin*, 128(4), 539.
- Gonzalez, A. R., Holbein, M. F. D., & Quilter, S. (2002). High school students' goal orientations and their relationship to perceived parenting styles. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 27(3), 450-470.
- Hoeve, M., Blokland, A., Dubas, J. S., Loeber, R., Gerris, J. R., & Van der Laan, P. H. (2008). Trajectories of delinquency and parenting styles. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 36(2), 223-235. doi:10.1007/S10802-007-9172-x
- Hoskins, D. H. (2014). Consequences of parenting on adolescent outcomes. *Societies*, 4(3), 506-531. doi:10.3390/soc4030506
- Johnson, E. L. (2012). Parenting Styles, Peer Pressure, and the formation of Antisocial Behaviour. (Bachelor of Arts' Thesis), Retrieved from <http://aquilla.usm.edu/honors-theses/101>
- Kopko, K. (2007). Parenting styles and adolescents. Retrieved Nov, 20, 2011, from <https://www.human.cornell.edu>
- Louis, C., Lawrence, M., & Keith, M. (2007). Research methods in education. New York: Routledge.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. *Handbook of child psychology: formerly Carmichael's Manual of child psychology*/Paul H. Mussen, editor.
- Mensah, M. K., & Kuranchie, A. (2013). Influence of parenting styles on the social development of children. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 2(3), 123-129. doi:10.5901/ajis.2013.v2n3p123

- Milevsky, A., Schlechter, M., Netter, S., & Keehn, D. (2007). Maternal and paternal parenting styles in adolescents: Associations with self-esteem, depression and life-satisfaction. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 16(1), 39-47. doi:10.1007/s 10826-006-9066-5
- Milevsky, A., Schlechter, M., Klem, L., & Kehl, R. (2008). Constellations of maternal and paternal parenting styles in adolescence: Congruity and well-being. *Marriage & Family Review*, 44(1), 81-98. doi:10.1080/01494920802185447
- Miller, B. C., Benson, B., & Galbraith, K. A. (2001). Family relationships and adolescent pregnancy risk: A research synthesis. *Developmental review*, 21(1), 1-38. doi:10.1006/drev.2000.0513
- Mullens, A. D. (2004). The relationship between Juvenile delinquency and family unit structure. (Master's Thesis). The Graduate College of Marshall University. Retrieved from <http://mds.marshall.edu/etd/750>
- Myers, G. D. (2004). Social psychology (7th Ed.) Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Querido, J. G., Warner, T. D., & Eyberg, S. M. (2002). Parenting styles and child behaviour in African American families of preschool children. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 31(2), 272-277. doi:10.1207/S15374424JCCP310212
- Sailor, D. H. (2004). *Supporting children in their home, school, and community* (pp. 158-159). Allyn and Bacon.
- Santrock, J. (2007). Life Expectancy: A Topical Approach to Life-Span Development, 128-132. (7th Ed). Mc Graw Hill.
- Schaffer, M., Clark, S., & Jeglic, E. L. (2009). The role of empathy and parenting style in the development of antisocial behaviours. *Crime & Delinquency*, 55(4), 586-599. doi:10.1177/0011128708321359
- Schools information. (n.d). Retrieved April 6, 2016, from School Education Department website, <http://schools.punjab.gov.pk>
- Simons, L. G., & Conger, R. D. (2007). Linking mother–father differences in parenting to a typology of family parenting styles and adolescent outcomes. *Journal of Family Issues*, 28(2), 212-241. doi:10.1177/0192513X06294593
- Speirs, Neumeister, K. L., Williams, K. K., & Cross, T. L. (2009). Gifted high-school students' perspectives on the development of Southerland, Edwin H. 1939, Principles of Criminology (3rd Ed). Philadelphia Lippincott Perfectionism. *Roeper Review*, 31(4), 198-206.
- Steinberg, L., & Silk, J. S. (2002). Parenting adolescents. *Handbook of parenting*, 1, 103-133. doi:10.1111/1532-7795.00001

- Steinberg, L., Blatt-Eisengart, I., & Cauffman, E. (2006). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful homes: A replication in a sample of serious juvenile offenders. *Journal of research on adolescence*, 16(1), 47-58. doi:10.1111/J.1467- 8624.1991.tboo781.x
- The Hadith, (pp. Sahih Muslim, Book 33, Hadith Number 6426).
- Tiller, A. E. (2002). *The Influence of Parenting Styles on Children's Cognitive Development*. USA: State University AgCenter.
- Trenas, A. F. R., Osuna, M. J. P., Olivares, R. R., & Cabrera, J. H. (2013). Relationship between parenting style and aggression in a Spanish children sample. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 82(1), 529-536. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.304
- Türkel, Y. D., & Tezer, E. (2008). Parenting styles and learned resourcefulness of Turkish adolescents. *Adolescence*, 43(169), 143-152.
- Van Duijvenvoorde, A. C., Zanolie, K., Rombouts, S. A., Raijmakers, M. E., & Crone, E. A. (2008). Evaluating the negative or valuing the positive? Neural mechanisms supporting feedback-based learning across development. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 28(38), 9495-9503.
- Veenstra, R., Lindenberg, S., Oldehinkel, A. J., De Winter, A. F., Verhulst, F. C., & Ormel, J. (2008). Prosocial and antisocial behaviour in preadolescence: Teachers' and parents' perceptions of the behaviour of girls and boys. *International Journal of Behavioural Development*, 32(3), 243-251. doi:10.1177/0165025408089274
- Wargo, E. (2007). Adolescents and risk: Helping young people make better choices. *Research Facts and Findings*, 1-4.
- Willoughby, M., Kupersmidt, J., & Bryant, D. (2001). Overt and covert dimensions of antisocial behaviour in early childhood. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 29(3), 177-187. doi:10.1023/A:1010377329840
- Wright, J. P., & Cullen, F. T. (2001). Parental efficacy and delinquent behaviour: Do control and support matter. *Criminology*, 39(3), 677-704. doi:10.1111/J.1745-9125-2001.tboo937.x

Reasons Behind the Selection of Open and Distance Learning by Women in Punjab Province of Pakistan

Uzma Munawar*
Nasreen Akhter**

Abstract

Women in Pakistan have social problems in the way of acquiring higher education in many parts of the country. Distance Education (DE) system performs major role in providing higher educational to those who are unable to access the educational facilities because of any personal or cultural constraints or because of living in deprived areas. Because of the policies of Higher Education Commission of Pakistan, distance education has its legal recognition in Pakistan like other parts of the world. Therefore, women in Pakistan are also enjoying benefits of this system to boost up their educational position in cases where they feel unable to attend the formal institutions. The aim of current study was to discover the reasons that incline women to study through distance education system rather than attending the formal institutions with rural and urban differences. This study was conducted following the survey method using a sample of 410 women from Southern Punjab in Pakistan. Tool of study was a questionnaire on 5-point rating scale. Data was analysed using mean scores and t test statistics. Results indicated that females adopted this system due to flexibility in its procedures. They were happy that they continued their studies along with performing their social and domestic responsibilities. Distance education provided chance to women to struggle for the uplift of their career without disrespecting their family values and disturbing customs of their families in Pakistan.

Keywords: Distance education, Women education, Women empowerment, Education

Introduction

Women in rural areas of Pakistan are deprived of minimum facilities of education. On the other hand, traditions play vital part in our rural sight to obstacle the women empowerment and liberty for attending institutions that are sometimes located at far flung areas from the living places. Distance education play role to facilitate people especially in deprived areas. It is a type of educational process in which the students acquire instruction through utilizing web, TV, radio, or mail. There is no need to attend

* Research Scholar, Preston University Kohat.

** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, E mail: drnasreenakhtar01@gmail.com (Corresponding Author)

regular classes and has face to face interaction with the teacher. According to Akhter (2014) distance learning is appeared as the group of tutoring practices in which distance learners study without attending their institution on regular bases. This system facilitates all without differentiation of gender, race and locality.

Dodds (1998) described distance learning as a system of education that provides instruction by correspondence through different tools like print media and electronic media. It plays a key role in access of education for all genders without any discrimination. It is beneficial for those who have no access for regular classes in universities. This mode of education is helpful for people in attaining a degree without disturbing their work responsibilities or some other obligations.

The formal system of education in Pakistan covers only limited female population. Women are the centre of civilization of the country. Taking into consideration the place of women in society, women need education to accomplish their activities in well-mannered ways. But, it has observed that they are not well equipped to perform their obligations due to low education or no education. The greatest problem in the way of women education is; how to provide education to the overwhelming majority who has remained outside because of not getting permission to attend formal institutions? In this regard, Allen and Seaman (2007) explain that along with formal education, women should be provided the opportunities for non-formal education which aims at arousing awareness of their pitiable condition and the need for increased skill for efficiency, a change of outlook, mode of thinking, living and adopting conducive behaviour to social justice.

Mostly education plans and policies emphasize on “education for all without any gender discrimination”. The distance education system is one of the educational systems which is trying to achieve these policies and targets in real sense. In Pakistan, distance education is certainly playing a fundamental role in development of education at higher level. Safdar and Hussain (2010) pointed out that distance education increases female students’ attraction and involvement in education at higher level from different areas of the country. Buksh (2013) stated that this system of education plan routed from institutions and apply in scattered areas. Numerous students especially female want to continue their education but do not able to get admission in regular institutions because of personal and official instincts. They cannot pay high amount of fees of regular institutions. Moreover, some cannot travel to attend institution that is far away from their residence. Distance education provide alternate source of education that is flexible in shape of time, distance and money as compare to other systems of education for such female or male students.

Majority of population in Pakistan lives in rural areas. Although, gender discrimination is one of the major issues related to low status of women in Pakistan (Akhter, 2011) but female have poor social position especially in the rural society. Rural

society do not give due importance to female education. They consider it only a source of wastage of money and time because they have weak and sometimes no proper educational facilities in their accessible range. Mostly individuals particularly in rural areas believe that only education for males is essential. Due to this reason, there is a great disparity among male and female literacy rate in Pakistan especially in rural and remote areas.

According to population survey by Government of Pakistan (2007), literacy rate of Pakistan is 61%. Literacy rate of female is only 32%. The situation of women literacy is more bitter in rural areas of Pakistan (29%). UNESCO (2007) stated that gender disparities of literacy unpleasantly has alarming situation in Pakistan. Male literacy is more than 65% and female literacy rate is under 40%. Behind it, the reason is social limit for female. Parents bear the costs of education for their sons but they do not spend money on their daughters (PHHS, 2005). Other reasons like unavailability of institutions, long distance of institutions from home and social taboos pressure are also counted behind poor educational status of women in Pakistan. There are many studies that put conclusion about social obstacle, financial issues, and non-accessibility of female education in Pakistan.

Literature points out that the conventional model of face to face education was the only choice particularly for students of higher education in past. But, now many universities of the world are effectively running distance learning programs and millions of students across the world are benefitting from the blessings of DE mode of education. The concept of girls and women education have been met with a lot of resistance for a long time in history globally. Aderinoye (2005) described in his research that ODL in Nigeria plays its role in national development especially for women. It is an important key to women empowerment. Study demonstrated that ODL took changes in attitudes, standards, and behaviour of women in their society. Through distance education, educated women become able to make choices about their present and future.

Khatoon (2010) observed the extension of educational services for women by distance education at higher level in Pakistan. The results exposed that distance education performed important part in the extension of women education at higher level for those who have some personal or social impulses to go in educational institutions for up gradation of their education. Distance education is flexible especially for women to enhance their educational status. Grabe, Dutt, and Dworkin (2014) observed that developing countries have serious issue of gender disparity. In developing countries, large number of women have been facing social, political and environmental problems. Unawareness of education is a major reason behind these types of disparities. Education is the basis for the all type of advancement in any nation and ODL has been progressively promoted as a key solution for the deprived groups like women. It has emerged as an

instrument for accessing higher education for females. ODL has been breaking all divisions in the education system based on sex, age, race, space, wage, and time etc.

Ahsan (2007) discussed position of distance education and problems for women in enrolment at higher education institution. In his views, distance education is a growing need of nation. It covers obstacles to discourse large-scale educational problems for women. Therefore, it is important to consider it as alternative way of the education. In the light of above discussion, it is concluded that DE mode is effective for women empowerment and solving issues of backwardness of women in all sections without discrimination. Therefore, present study was conducted in Pakistan to analyse distance learner women' opinions about factors to select the DE mode of education.

Statement of the Problem

Topic of current study was "Reasons behind selection of open and distance learning by women in southern Punjab Province of Pakistan". Researchers were interested to study factors responsible for promotion of ODL in Pakistan and explore benefits of distance learning mode of education for women in the country.

Objectives of the Study

Objectives of the study were;

1. To study factors responsible for the promotion of distance learning in Pakistan.
2. To explore benefits of distance education for women in Pakistan.
3. To find out differences between perceptions of rural and urban distance learners regarding the factors responsible for promotion of distance learning in Pakistan.
4. To find out differences between perceptions of rural and urban distance learners regarding the benefits of distance education for women in Pakistan.

Research Questions of the Study

This study targeted to search answers the following research questions.

1. Which factors motivate women to join distance learning in Pakistan.
2. Why distance education is beneficial for women in Pakistan.
3. Does factors for promotion of distance learning in Pakistan are same for rural and urban women.
4. Does distance learning is equally beneficial for rural and urban women.

Methodology

This research focused to investigate the reasons behind selection of Open and Distance Learning by women in Southern Punjab. Therefore, this study was descriptive in nature by method. Design for the study was "survey research". For convenience, this study was delimited to master level female students of Allama Iqbal Open University who belonged to Southern Punjab region of Pakistan during 2016 to 2017. It was assumed that factors behind selection of distance learning mode can be best identified studying the

case of distance learners under study, and their perceptions about the expected benefits in future can help to predict the motivating factors for promotion of ODL in Pakistan.

Research Tool of the Study

A close ended questionnaire was tool of the study. It had 41 items on 5-point Semantic differential rating scale (1 to 5). Its validity was determined through expert opinion method. For the sake of determination of reliability, the tool was distributed to a sample of 30. Its' reliability was noted as 0.79 (Cronbach's alpha) after analysis of data of pilot study. But after collecting data of final study from the sample of 410, value of r was 0.921 for all items ($r = 0.881$ for the 13 items related to benefits of DE for women and 0.849 (r) for the 15 items regarding factors responsible for distance learning for women).

Population, Sample, Data Collection and Data Analysis

The population of the study was female students of M.A. program of AIOU from Southern Punjab Region enrolled in Spring and Autumn semesters during 2016. A sample of 600 students from four districts (Bahawalpur, Rahim Yar Khan, Multan and D.G. Khan) of Punjab was selected. At sampling stage, study centres in approach of researchers were chosen adopting convenience sampling approach. After reaching the study centres, all available women while attending the workshop were requested to provide data. Six hundred women were requested to provide data but 410 agreed to participate in the study. Therefore, sample of the study who provided data of the study was 410 (142 rural and 268 urban) women enrolled in MA programs in AIOU during 2016. Data of the study was analysed applying mean score and t-test statistics on data. Mean score was used to conclude respondents' acceptance/agreement to the statement. T-test was applied on data to find out mean difference between rural and urban groups regarding factors behind promotion of DE mode and effectiveness of DE mode for urban and rural groups.

Results and Interpretation

According to objectives of the study, results have given in table 1 to 4. In table 1 results regarding reasons behind selection of distance learning have given. While collecting data for this section, respondents were requested to rate items (1 to 5) keeping in mind the reasons for preferring distance learning rather than formal system of education. Explanation of results of data given in tables has added at the end of table.

Table 1

Reasons for joining distance learning by women

<i>Items</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>MD</i>	<i>SED</i>
I am not satisfied with current status of education and have aspiration for further education	Rural	3.648	1.222	.103	1.379	.169	.174	.126
	Urban	3.474	1.213	.074				
I feel low self-esteem under value of current educational status and I want to improve my qualification	Rural	3.690	1.322	.111	1.273	.204	.164	.129
	Urban	3.526	1.197	.073				
Distance learning is a self-paced learning for me	Rural	3.838	1.241	.104	1.599	.110	.193	.120
	Urban	3.646	1.114	.068				
Through improving qualification may be by distance learning, I can enhance my control over family income /resources	Rural	3.486	1.341	.113	.035	.972	.005	.132
	Urban	3.481	1.238	.076				
I want to enhance employment opportunities for me through improving me	Rural	4.021	1.176	.099	3.374	.001*	.432	.128
	Urban	3.590	1.261	.077				
I want my contribution in economic growth of my family	Rural	3.662	1.091	.092	-.932	.352	-.103	.110
	Urban	3.765	1.050	.064				
My economic status has been increasing through improving qualification by ODL	Rural	3.606	1.220	.102	-1.867	.063	-.215	.115
	Urban	3.821	1.048	.064				
I feel improvement in decision-making capability after getting education through ODL	Rural	3.831	.922	.077	1.036	.301	.104	.099
	Urban	3.728	.981	.060				
I cannot bear the expenses of formal system of education so I joined ODL system	Rural	3.894	.958	.080	2.487	.013*	.268	.106
	Urban	3.627	1.075	.066				
There is resistance and hesitation for sending girls in college or university so I join ODL	Rural	3.655	1.215	.102	-.106	.916	-.013	.122
	Urban	3.668	1.160	.071				
I find lack of support from family for joining formal system of education so I join ODL	Rural	3.768	1.029	.086	2.181	.030*	.275	.126
	Urban	3.493	1.303	.080				
I can easily perform family responsibilities while continuing education through ODL	Rural	3.578	1.211	.102	-1.497	.135	-.173	.115
	Urban	3.750	1.053	.064				
I found lack of mobility facilities to formal college/campus so I joined ODL	Rural	3.634	1.152	.097	1.117	.265	.138	.123
	Urban	3.497	1.204	.074				
I expect to get promotion in my job/ career through ODL	Rural	3.986	.967	.081	2.334	.020*	.255	.109
	Urban	3.731	1.093	.067				
I have not left my job for my education because of ODL	Rural	3.923	1.118	.094	2.238	.026*	.281	.125
	Urban	3.642	1.254	.077				

*Note: M= Mean Score; MD= Mean Difference; SEM= Standard Error Mean; P= Sign.2 tailed at 0.05 level; MD= Mean Difference; SED= Standard Error Difference; *= significant mean difference*

According to Table 1, the data regarding factors responsible for ODL indicates respondents' agreement with all statements. The results revealed women' frustration with their current educational status. In their perception, low self-esteem, low educational status, flexibility of ODL process, wish to increase income by improving the educational status, attainment of better decision-making skills and powers were utmost intentions that inspired women to favour distance learning on formal system courses. Moreover, data also illustrate agreement of women to the fact that formal system of education was not affordable for their families. On the other hand, women accepted that their families also avoid sending their daughters in formal institutions because of social restrictions. Women acknowledged that by joining ODL process, they can perform household duties along attending the non-formal institutions. Moreover, working women can improve their qualification and working status without leaving their current job.

A prominent point observed by this data is that rural and urban groups had significant difference of opinion about some items (see p value of items 5, 9, 11, 14 & 15 in table 1). Comparison of mean difference hints that rural women are more in favour of the statements in comparison to urban ones. This explores that distance education is more favourable for rural community.

A part of this study was related to explore benefits of distance learning for women. Therefore, respondents were requested to rate statements (1 to 5) given in table 2. While providing data of this part, respondents were directed to keep in mind the benefits they have taken or expected to gain after getting their degree by distance learning.

Table 2

Benefits of Distance Learning for Women

<i>Items</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>MD</i>	<i>SED</i>
I decided ODL system because I feel intimidated by male. ODL gave me confidence	Rural	3.11	1.47	.124	-1.790	.074	-.264	.148
	Urban	3.37	1.39	.085				
I feel that I am not fit for requirements of my present job. By ODL I am improving my qualification that will enables me to fulfil requirements of better employment too.	Rural	3.50	1.36	.114	1.217	.224	.175	.144
	Urban	3.32	1.40	.086				
I joined ODL to attain degree for my satisfaction	Rural	2.83	1.43	.121	-2.685	.008*	-.371	.138
	Urban	3.20	1.26	.077				
ODL is flexible for me with time and space	Rural	3.26	1.26	.106	1.783	.075	.253	.142
	Urban	3.00	1.41	.087				

Distance learning provided me second chance of learning as I was dropout from formal system due to personal issues	Rural	3.51	1.29	.109				
	Urban	3.37	1.18	.072	1.081	.280	.137	.127
I got respect in family and community by studying through distance learning	Rural	3.70	1.11	.093	2.069	.039*	.268	.129
	Urban	3.43	1.31	.080				
ODL gives more freedom to me for learning according to my circumstances	Rural	4.00	1.06	.090				
	Urban	3.87	1.02	.063	1.205	.229	.130	.108
ODL is eliminating women discrimination in higher education	Rural	3.55	1.27	.107	-.868	.386	-.104	.120
	Urban	3.66	1.08	.066				
ODL is boosting up the position of women in Pakistan	Rural	3.66	1.26	.106	.278	.781	.035	.126
	Urban	3.62	1.19	.073				
Distance learning creates sense of liability in my personality	Rural	3.43	1.11	.093	-2.133	.034*	-.243	.114
	Urban	3.67	1.08	.066				
Distance learning has developed awareness in myself about my (responsibilities, social and legal rights)	Rural	3.39	1.35	.114				
	Urban	3.66	1.13	.070	-2.107	.036*	-.266	.126
Distance Learning has enabled me for getting better employment	Rural	3.64	1.15	.096	1.450	.148	.189	.130
	Urban	3.45	1.30	.080				
Studying by ODL, I learnt to work systematically and feel responsibility to perform tasks on time.	Rural	3.89	1.10	.093	3.390	.001*	.432	.127
	Urban	3.46	1.28	.078				

*Note: M= Mean Score; MD= Mean Difference; SEM= Standard Error Mean; P= Sign.2 tailed at 0.05 level; MD= Mean Difference; SED= Standard Error Difference; *= Significant mean difference*

Table 2 exhibits that respondents agreed with all statements. This explored that women are humiliated by male members. Men think that women are not fit for their job requirements. These damages the confidence of women. By joining distance learning process, women accepted that they felt enhancement in their confidence. They also found themselves more confident because improvement in educational status helped them in upgrading their professional status. Women also accepted that, unless adopting distance learning, a raise in academic status, economic status, confidence and satisfaction was impossible or very difficult. Women were happy that as distance learners, they are working in limits of culture and family traditions without disturbing their family responsibilities and life routines. On the other hand, women accepted that gender gap in higher education is declining because of distance learning. Women accepted that distance education has boosted up their status, improved sense of accountability, awareness about their legal and social rights and responsibilities. A prominent benefit indicated by women was that they learnt to work systematically because studying by distance education process demanded them to work on time following a schedule to get success. On the whole, it is depicted from whole data that women found distance education process

beneficial for them from economic, social and national perspectives. Analysis of results by mean comparison (t- test analysis) indicates that rural and urban groups have significant difference of opinion regarding some items (see p-value of items 3, 6, 10, 11 & 13 in the table).

Table 3 and 4 exhibits summative comparison of scores about the reasons and benefits of ODL for women with rural and urban differences point of view.

Table 3

Rural urban difference regarding benefits of ODL for women

<i>Groups</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>MD</i>	<i>SED</i>
Rural	45.5141	8.28203	.69501	.419	.675	.37229	.88752
Urban	45.1418	8.68910	.53077				

Note: M= Mean Score; MD= Mean Difference; SEM= Standard Error Mean; P= Sign.2 tailed at 0.05 level; MD= Mean Difference; SED= Standard Error Difference

Table 3 presents rural urban differences between scores of groups about the benefits of ODL. Although, mean score of rural group is higher than of urban. But results of t-test indicate insignificant mean difference between groups. This explores that rural and urban female distance learners are united about the benefits of ODL process.

Table 4

Rural urban difference regarding reasons of joining the ODL by women

<i>Groups</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>MD</i>	<i>SED</i>
Rural	56.2183	9.36276	.78571	1.830	.068	1.78174	.97356
Urban	54.4366	9.38840	.57349				

Note: M= Mean Score; MD= Mean Difference; SEM= Standard Error Mean; P= Sign.2 tailed at 0.05 level; MD= Mean Difference; SED= Standard Error Difference

Table 4 indicates difference between evaluations of respondents regarding reasons behind joining of ODL process. Although, mean score of rural group is higher than urban. But, mean comparison by t-test statistics indicates insignificant mean difference between groups. This explores that on the whole, rural and urban women join ODL process because of similar reasons. This also hints that cultural and social issues and problems related to women in Pakistan are similar in rural and urban areas of Pakistan. Therefore, ODL is equally important for women living in rural as well as urban areas.

Discussion

This study investigated the reasons behind selection of ODL by women. Result of the study shows that distance education is the valuable equipment for women in

Pakistan for the improvement of their educational status. It has gained popularity in Pakistan particularly among female students providing equal opportunities of education to all. Gender discrimination that is an incredible issue in regards to provision of education in Pakistan, distance education is the best solution of such type of issue. It is clear from the results that ODL is a source for female to upgrade their educational and life standard when they especially belong to deprived groups. Therefore, present study has indicated that women in Pakistan are getting benefits of distance learning. On the other hand, women who are affiliated with distance education process in Pakistan have positive opinions regarding the process and benefits of this system. A discussion on notable results of the study has given in the following.

The present study indicated that gender discrimination by families is a huge problem for women in Pakistan. In perspectives of social issues of people living in deprived areas of Pakistan, parents usually prefer their sons and degrade their daughters by behaviour or by discriminating them in awarding less privileges than their sons. Reasons for the gender discrimination by parents include; their negative thinking, low vision, lack of religious knowledge about the teachings of Islam, cultural distinctions and sometimes the financial issues. Previously Olakulein, and Ojo (2006) indicated that women living in Purdah, working women and women belonging to weaker areas can get best benefits from distance learning.

Present study has also indicated that women belonging to such families who degrade them can remove their deprivations and get rights adopting distance learning. In this study, women accepted that gender discrimination was a valuable motivator for them to join distance education. They accepted that unless entering in distance education process, their families could not allow them to improve their educational status because their families restrict them to live at home. Their families were not ready to send them in formal institutions especially for higher education due to their personal thinking, less resources or family intentions. Previously, Abimbola and Omolara (2015) also pointed out that there are enormous opportunities for men for getting higher education through formal system of education. It was pointed out that parents spend on their sons. There are fewer opportunities for females and many social cultural barriers for getting higher education. Therefore, women can avail blessings of distance learning to get right of education directly and other benefits related to better educational status indirectly.

In present study, a result indicated that women joined distance education because of its flexibility in process and opportunities for convenience of women and their families to continue education. This result has its matching with the study reported by Khatoon (2009). No doubt, distance education has opportunities for users to work easily without disturbing their routines and other family members.

A prominent result indicated by this study has resemblance with the study conducted by Akhter (2014). The study indicated that “DE process has cost effectiveness

and flexibility for learners”. In present study major reasons behind selection of distance learning by women gives hints for women intention to adopt flexible process that should not disturb their families, life routine and not become a financial burden for them. Results indicated that distance learners were continuing education along working and performing their professional responsibilities.

Conclusion

Distance and open learning is one of the new trends in education. Factors behind promotion of distance education for women include lack of educational opportunities in deprived areas of Pakistan. But in some cases, besides of having educational facilities at own areas, some women are not allowed to continue their education because of traditions, cultural restrictions, economic problems of family, social issues, family responsibilities and restrictions of formal system that unable women to become empowered. This study has found out that women in southern Punjab have adopted ODL in perspectives of belonging to; deprived areas, economically less empowered families, non-opportunities to attend formal institutions but having urge of getting higher education along with continuing educational facilities. Women expect that after getting higher education they can progress economically under the restrictions of traditions. Therefore, need is to promote ODL in Pakistan but also focus to improve educational standard of ODL courses equal to formal system of education. So, higher education commission in Pakistan needs to extend ODL opportunities for higher education in Pakistan especially in weaker regions of Pakistan. It is also requirement of the age that parents need to change their views and attitudes towards their daughters. Education of a female is in fact education of her next generation. Therefore, media and welfare associations should play their role for the change of minds of people in Pakistan. This is necessary for the uplift of women and progress of Pakistan to meet demands of the age.

References

- Abimbola, A. E. & Omolara, W.O. O. (2015). Assessing the impact of open and distance learning (ODL) in enhancing the status of women in Lagos State. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 174, 1512-1520.
- Ahsan, M. (2003). An analytical review of Pakistan's educational policies and plans. *Research Papers in Education*, 18(3), 259-280.
- Akhter, N. (2014). *Effectiveness of Assesment of Distance Teacher Education in Pakistan*. (Unpublished Ph. D Dissertation). Islamabad: Preston University Kohat.
- Akhter, N. & Naeem, M. (2011). Push and pull factors behind domestic violence practices in Bahawalpur, Pakistan. *Journal of Educational Research*, 14(1), 154-163.
- Allen, I. E., & Seaman, J. (2007). *Online Nation: Five years of growth in online learning*. ERIC.

- Bukhsh, Q. (2013). Empowerment of women through distance education in Pakistan. *International Women Online Journal of Distance Education*, 2(2), 45-60.
- Burge, E., & Lenksyj, H. (1990). Women studying in distance education: Issues and principles. *International Journal of E-Learning & Distance Education*, 5(1), 20-37.
- Dodds, T. (1998). *Administration of Distance Teaching Institutions: A Manual*, International Extension College. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Grabe, S., Dutt, A., & Dworkin, S.L. (2014). Women's community mobilization and well-being: local resistance to gendered social inequities in Nicaragua and Tanzania. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 42(4), 379-397.
- Janaki, D. (2006). *Empowering Women through Distance Learning in India*. (Paper presented at Fourth Pan Commonwealth Forum for Open Learning Conference, Sunset Jamaica Grande Resort, Ocho Rios, Jamaica, 30th October-3rd November). Retrieved from <http://pcf4.dec.uwi.edu/viewpaper.php?id=329> (Accessed on 27 December, 2016).
- Malik, S. K. (2010). Role of distance education in the expansion of female education at higher level in Pakistan: A review. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 11(1), 162-180.
- Ojo, O. D., & Olakulein, F. (2006). Distance education as a women empowerment strategy in Africa. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 7(1), 271-280.
- Olakulein, F. K., & Ojo, O. D. (2006). Distance education as a women empowerment strategy in Africa. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 7(1), 92-115.
- Qureshi, S. (2003). *Pakistan: Education and Gender Policy; Girl's Education: A Lifeline to Development*. Budapest: Center for Policy Studies, Central European University.
- Safdar, M. & Hussain, I. (2010). Role of Allama Iqbal Open University in promoting access and demoting gender disparity in higher education in Pakistan. *Proceedings of the 23rd Annual Conference of Asian Association of Open Universities (AAOU)*, Tehran on November 3-5.
- Shaikh, B. T., & Hatcher, J. (2004). Health seeking behaviour and health service utilization in Pakistan: challenging the policy makers. *Journal of public health* 27(1), 49-54.
- Zubair, S. S. (2013). Total quality management in public sector higher education institutions. *Journal of Business & Economics*, 5(1), 24-55.

Testing Maxwell's Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire: Appraising Executives Leadership Level in Educational Context

Ayaz Muhammad Khan*

Amna Ramzan**

Rabia Ghafaar***

Abstract

The core purpose of the existing paper was to measure the validity and reliability of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire developed by J.C. Maxwell in Pakistan particularly in educational context. Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire was designed to assess the executives' leadership level familiarized by Maxwell. This was a quantitative research and survey method was used for collecting data from the top and middle-level leaders. Through multistage sampling technique, 580 subordinates were selected to participate in this study. Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire was partially used as an instrument of the study. The results exposed that the Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire has good internal consistency ($\alpha=0.95$), discriminant ($AVE=0.89$) convergent ($SMC=0.94$) and construct ($PCA=0.67$) validity in the Educational context in Pakistan. However, there was a dire need to test the Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire fully in educational or other perspectives of leadership.

Keywords: Position, Permission, Production, People development, Pinnacle

Introduction

Johan C. Maxwell is an American leadership expert, and in May 2014, he was professed world No. 1 Leadership and Management expert by *Inc.* magazine. Maxwell is an author in the field of leadership and management also known as professional speaker and pastor. He is a well-reputed leadership expert of the 21st century and got the title of best seller list to New York Times by selling his millions of copies of his literature. Maxwell has currently developed the leadership skills in their learning students at "Equip" about 6 million leaders (*including the CEO of world best companies*) from 196 countries. Chiefly he defines leadership as "influence" and this influence consisted of five levels which were called five levels of Maxwell's leadership.

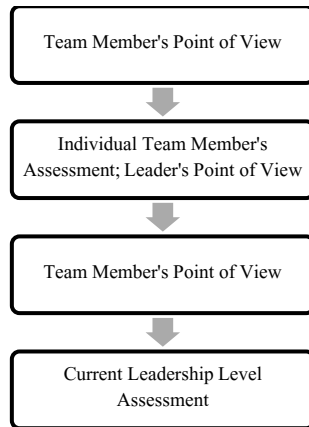
The current paper was an empirical support to the assumption how the five levels effectively play their role in sustaining organizational change (*Ultimate test of*

* Associate Professor of Education, University of Education Lower Mall Campus Lahore
Email: ayaz@ue.edu.pk (Corresponding Author)

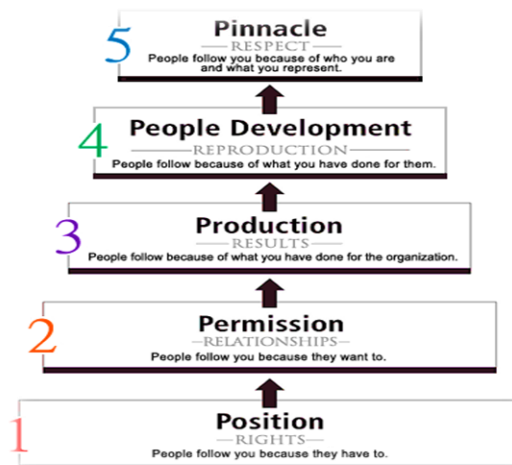
** PhD. Scholar; University of Education Lower Mall Campus Lahore

*** PhD Scholar University of Education Lower Mall Campus Lahore

leadership) in public and private companies. The figure No. 1 depicts the parts of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire”



Maxwell throughout his work defines leadership as influence and these levels are the degree of influence which he concedes that every leader has to come to some extents. The literature (Maxwell, 1993; Maxwell, 1997; Maxwell, 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Maxwell, 2004; Maxwell, 2007a, 2007b, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b; J.C. Maxwell, 2012; John C Maxwell, 2012a, 2012b; Maxwell, 2013a, 2013b; Maxwell, 2014a, 2014b, 2016; Maxwell & Dornan, 1997, 2013; Maxwell & Parrott, 2005) regarding Maxwell’s five levels of leadership also confessed that these levels may be enhance or controlled by certain factors.



This study adapted the *Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire* (LLAQ) Questionnaire (depicted at the end section of this paper). This instrument was developed, tested and validated by J C Maxwell (2011). The purpose of the *Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire* (LLAQ) was to evaluate the level of leadership. The *Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire* was slightly modified to fit the Lahore context. All factors were identical to the original Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire excluding for two. Maxwell identified a 4 Parts Questionnaire that was used to measure the level of leadership. 1st two parts of the Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire filled by the leaders by themselves and the 3rd part rated by the subordinates to rank their leader's level prescribed by J.C Maxwell. This factor was judged as suitable for the current testimonial of the problem. Additionally, an exploitation change was added:” *Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire*” converted into the six-point Likert scale and demographics section was added to the instrument to represent information of the respondents. Universities are considered a hub of leadership development (Anwar, Yousuf, & Sarwar, 2011) and this sector is producing workforce including leaders for national and multinational companies of Pakistan. There is a scarcity of literature on Maxwell's leadership levels because it is a current concept in the field of leadership and management. According to our best knowledge, there is no empirical support or evidence related to Maxwell's Leadership Level assessment questionnaire. Researchers use this questionnaire in another study and for stronger empirical evidence design this study. This study also contributes the educational leaders in appraising their current level of leadership. The educational leaders may also increase their level by identifying these five-level assessed through this study. Keeping in consideration above deal of literature this study was conducted.

Purpose of the Study

The objectives of the paper were to:

1. Test the validity and reliability of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire in an educational context.
2. Investigate the segment-wise association of the factors of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire in an educational context:
 - I. Position
 - II. Permission
 - III. Production
 - IV. People Development
 - V. Pinnacle

Research Questions

On the basis of above-stated objectives of the paper following research questions were framed:

1. What is the validity of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire when it was conducted with the leadership of university level?
2. What is the factorial validity of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire when it was conducted with the leadership of university level?

Methodology

This was a quantitative study Cross-sectional survey design was used with the non-contrived setting. All the public and private universities of Lahore District were constituted as the population of the study.

Population/Sample

Through multistage sample, technique sample was selected from the three public and three private universities of Lahore district. At first stage, the universities were clustered on the three criteria's 1. It must hold Education Department: 2. The University has Regular teaching faculty and 3. The university was included in the 5th ranking list issued by HEC (Higher Education Commission) Islamabad in 2016. There public and three private universities were nominated under these conditions. At the second stage, the whole list of leaders and subordinates were counted using simple random sampling calculator and 580 subordinates were selected as sample of the study. The adapted questionable "Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire" was circulated and responses were coded into SPSS-21 for further analysis.

Table 1

Sample for the Present Study

Universities Located in Lahore		Department/s
Public	University of Education, Lahore	Division of Edu. & LMC, BRC, TC
	University of the Punjab, Lahore	
	Lahore College for Women University, Lahore	Institute of Education & Research
Private		Institute of Education
	University of Management & Technology, Lahore	Arts & Social sciences
	University of Lahore, Lahore	Arts & Social sciences
	Beacon house National University, Lahore	Education

Sources: HEC Website: www.hec.gov.pk

Instrumentation

The LLAQ was used as a research tool to collect the data from selected teacher to encamp the validity and reliability of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire. The unabridged questionnaire consisted of four parts (depicted in figure No.1) but in this study Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire partially (Team Member's Point of

View Third Section Rank the leaders by his/her followers) tested. The factor wise items of the questionnaire were displayed in table no. 12, 13 14 15 & 16 respectively.

Data Analysis

The data analysis was started with data cleaning and screening. The collected data was coded and entered into SPSS-20. After establishing data normality, the descriptive presentation of the data was offered. As the major purpose of this paper was to validate LLAQ so the Correlation and Factor analysis contains major part in data analysis section of the paper.

Table 2

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Total	.266	580	.674	.970	580	.891

Data Cleaning and Screening

Data screening is assumed preliminary condition for conducting SEM analysis. Violation of this postulation always showed in misleading interpretations of data. So, the research chose at first to run the Data screening commands in SPSS for missing Values outliers, the skewness of data and kurtosis were used to set normality. Circulated 580 Questionnaires to the randomly selected sample subordinates by email and self-approach received. Table no 2 shows the normality of data.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Demographics Variables

	N	Mini	Maxi	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	580	1	2	1.55	.498
Sector	580	1	2	1.35	.478
Age	580	1	6	2.29	1.040
Experience	580	1	6	3.02	1.316
Department	580	1	4	1.94	1.051
Income	580	1	3	1.17	.427
Frank	580	1	4	1.33	.593
Education	580	1	3	2.10	.635

Demographic Analysis

Among 580 respondents seven demographics were requested and interpreted in the study. Table no 3 exposed the descriptive statistics of demographics variable Gender (M=1.55; SD=.49), Sector (M=1.35; SD=.47), age (M=2.29; SD=1.04), Experience (M=3.02; SD=1.3), Department (M=1.94; SD=1.05), Income (M=1.17; SD=.42), Faculty

Rank (M=1.33; SD=.59) and education (M=2.10; SD=.63) were calculated respectively. Further Table No 3 disclosed the minimum and maximum values of frequencies.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mini	Maxi	Mean	Std. Deviation
Level 1	580	3.00	18.00	14.6207	2.74115
Level 2	580	11.00	30.00	23.5569	3.95945
Level 3	580	13.00	30.00	23.4310	3.73386
Level 4	580	7.00	24.00	18.9000	3.95095
Level 5	580	3.00	18.00	13.4362	3.54606
Total	580	52.00	115.00	93.9448	11.49515

Descriptive Analysis 1

Table 4 exhibited the mean and SD values of questionnaire level wise Position (M=14.62; SD=2.74), Permission (M=23.55; SD=3.95), Production (M=23.43; SD=3.73), People Development (M=18.90; SD=3.95) and Pinnacle (M=13.43; SD=3.54). Additionally, the calculated total mean and SD also depicted in this table.

Table 5

Correlation among Five Levels of Leadership

Factors	Mean	SD	Total	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Total			1	.308**	.646**	.728**	.641**	.801**
Level 1			.308**	1	.006	.102*	.033	.075
Level 2			.646**	.006	1	.371**	.149**	.417**
Level 3			.728**	.102*	.371**	1	.275**	.508**

Correlation

Table 5 exposed the association between factors of the Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire Position ($r=.308^{**}$), Permission ($r=.646^{**}$), Production ($r=.728^{**}$), People Development ($r=.641^{**}$) and Pinnacle ($r=.801^{**}$). It was examined that all the coefficient values are positively correlated. All the five factors were significantly positively associated.

Factor Analysis

EFA extricates imperceptibly factors from data without indicating the measure of factors or without deciding how the estimation items or the perceived variables are loaded onto which particular factor rather, factors are characterized after they are extracted (Khan & Adil, 2013).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

As such, EFA is connected in circumstances where the factorial structure or the dimensionality of an instrument for a given populace is obscure, more often than not in the circumstance of developing new instruments (Field, 2005).

Table 6

Intercepts: (Group number 1 - Default model)

Factors	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
ll1c	4.793	.047	101.889	***	par_26
ll1b	4.778	.044	108.236	***	par_27
ll1a	5.050	.045	112.929	***	par_28
ll2e	4.698	.052	89.656	***	par_29
ll2d	4.624	.049	93.461	***	par_30
ll2c	4.943	.048	103.831	***	par_31
ll2b	4.884	.048	101.268	***	par_32
ll2a	4.407	.059	74.219	***	par_33
ll3d	4.605	.050	91.612	***	par_34
ll3c	4.786	.045	106.560	***	par_35
ll3b	4.916	.044	111.144	***	par_36
ll3a	4.833	.050	95.790	***	par_37
ll4d	4.609	.049	93.830	***	par_38
ll4c	4.679	.049	94.907	***	par_39
ll4b	4.752	.050	94.882	***	par_40
ll4a	4.860	.051	95.950	***	par_41
ll5c	4.390	.058	75.945	***	par_42
ll5b	4.474	.051	87.273	***	par_43
ll5a	4.572	.056	81.234	***	par_44
ll3e	4.291	.057	75.822	***	par_45

Table 7

Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

A number of distinct sample moments:	230
A number of distinct parameters to be estimated:	70
Degrees of freedom (230 - 70):	160

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Interestingly, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) (Bollen, 1984; R. Brown, Condor, Mathews, Wade, & Williams, 1986; T. A. Brown, 2003) is utilized in a situation where one has some knowledge of the dimensionality of the factors under investigation either in view of a hypothesis or observational discoveries (Wang & Wang, 2012). When researchers try to use or testify an already developed questionnaire they are directed to conduct CFA (Bollen, 1984; T. A. Brown, 2003; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 1983; Keith, 2014; Khan & Adil, 2013; Pallant, 2005; Wang & Wang, 2012). The factors loading values of CFA were depicted in the CFA figure and the criteria for their good fit also displayed in the table no 11.

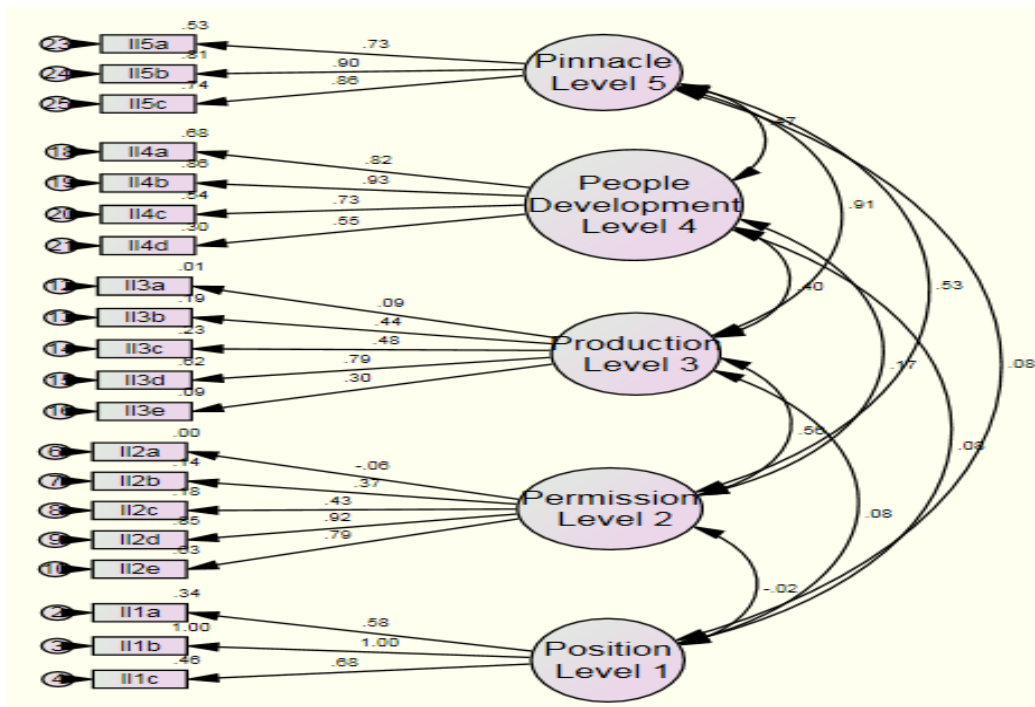


Table 8*Validity and Reliability of Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire*

S.#	Discriminant Validity	Convergent Validity	Construct Validity	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
Statistical Values	AVE	SMC	PCA	R	CR
Ellipses	Average Variance Extracted	Squared multiple Correlation	Factors Loadings	Internal Consistency	Composite Reliability
Equations	$AVE = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^2 = 1 - (1 - R_1^2)(1 - R_2^2) \dots$ $y_1 = \eta_1 + \varepsilon_1$ $y_2 = \lambda_{y21} \eta_1$ $\alpha = \frac{N \cdot \bar{C}}{\bar{V} + (N - 1) \bar{C}}$ $CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum \psi_i}$				
Position	0.88	0.91	0.81	0.85	0.92
Permission	0.78	0.88	0.90	0.91	0.81
Production	0.75	0.80	0.65	0.88	0.70
People Dev.	0.91	0.77	0.91	0.94	0.98
Pinnacle	0.81	0.88	0.90	0.70	0.95
Five Levels	0.89	0.94	0.67	0.95	0.93

Table 9*Parameters of Goo Fit Values of Model*

S#	Fit Test	Good Fit	Moderate Fit	Literature support
1	χ^2	$0 \leq \chi^2 \leq 2df$	$0 \leq \chi^2 \leq 3df$	(Wang & Wang, 2012).
2	χ^2 / df	$0 \leq \chi^2 / df \leq 2$	$0 \leq \chi^2 / df \leq 3$	(Keith, 2014).
3	GFI	$0.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$0.90 \leq GFI \leq 0.95$	(Khan & Adil, 2013).
4	CFI	$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 0.97$	(Wang & Wang, 2012).
5	RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.08$	(Bollen, 1984).
6	NFI	$0.05 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$0.90 \leq NFI \leq 0.95$	(Cohen, Cohen, West, &

Model Fit

The results were deliberate as Chi-square = 2396.361 at the degree of freedom = 160 level of probability = .000 Sig. *Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)* by (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) also called *NFI* by (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Result (Default model) Minimum was achieved. Degrees of freedom = 160 and Probability level = .000.

The model x Statistics

$$\chi^2 = f_{ML}(N - 1)$$

Comparative Fit Index

$$CFI = \frac{d_{null} - d_{specified}}{d_{null}}$$

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI/ NFI)

$$TLI = \frac{\left(\frac{\chi_{null}^2}{df_{null}} - \frac{\chi_{specified}^2}{df_{specified}} \right)}{\left(\frac{\chi_{null}^2}{df_{null}} - 1 \right)}$$

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

$$RMSEA = \sqrt{\frac{(\chi_s^2 - df_s)/N}{df_s}} = \sqrt{\frac{(\chi_s^2/df_s) - 1}{N}}$$

Table 10

Baseline Comparisons; Model Fit

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.830	.961	.946	.778	.945
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Table 11

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.842	.731	.843
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

Results and Findings

1. The Data screening results catch that data set is free from missing Values outliers, the skewness of data and kurtoses were checked used to set normality.
2. Among 580 respondents seven demographics were requested and interpreted in the study. Results exposed the descriptive statistics of demographics variable Gender (M=1.55; SD=.49), Sector (M=1.35; SD=.47), age (M=2.29; SD=1.04), Experience (M=3.02; SD=1.3), Department (M=1.94; SD=1.05), Income (M=1.17; SD=.42), Faculty Rank (M=1.33; SD=.59) and education (M=2.10; SD=.63) were calculated respectively.

3. Results exhibited the mean and SD values of questionnaire level wise Position (M=14.62; SD=2.74), Permission (M=23.55; SD=3.95), Production (M=23.43; SD=3.73), People Development (M=18.90; SD=3.95) and Pinnacle (M=13.43; SD=3.54). Additionally, the calculated total mean and SD also depicted in this table.
4. Results exposed the association between factors of the Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire Position ($r=.308^{**}$), Permission ($r=.646^{**}$), Production ($r=.728^{**}$), People Development ($r=.641^{**}$) and Pinnacle ($r=.801^{**}$). It was examined that all the coefficient values are positively correlated. All the five factors were significantly positively associated.
5. Model Fit the results was deliberate as Chi-square = 2396.361 at the degree of freedom=160 level of probability = .000 Sig. *Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)* by (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) *also called NFI* by (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Result (Default model) Minimum was achieved. Degrees of freedom = 160 and Probability level = .000

Discussion and Future Directions

The one and only limitation of the study was the scarcity of literature on this research questionnaire. The results revealed that questionnaire has good validity and reliability. As displayed in the data analysis section of paper in hand. This validation testing was conducted partially it may be tested with complete Leadership Level Assessment Questionnaire. This was tested in an educational context it can be tested in other organization leadership. The expert (LLAQ was presented for three experts validity) declared that questionnaire has good face validity and the all values related to the validity of questionnaire calculated through confirmatory factor analysis are satisfactory excluding one or two have low factor loading than 0.7. But as recommend by Mr. Maxwell (Maxwell, 1993; Maxwell, 1997; Maxwell, 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Maxwell, 2004; Maxwell, 2007a, 2007b, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b; J.C. Maxwell, 2012; John C Maxwell, 2012a, 2012b; Maxwell, 2013a, 2013b; Maxwell, 2014a, 2014b, 2016; Maxwell & Dornan, 1997, 2013; Maxwell & Parrott, 2005) that, (LLAQ) questionnaire is successfully gauging your current leadership level so the result encoded with the assumptions of Maxwell. This instrument was tested in a particular context, the developer of LLAQ recommended it for the leadership beyond organization it must be implemented and tested completely in educational and other fields.

Acknowledgment

This validation testing was the scope and context-sensitive, it's complete and consistency result may be attained with replication and complete execution in several national or multinational organizations.

References

- Anwar, M. N., Yousuf, M. I., & Sarwar, M. (2011). Decision-making practices in universities of Pakistan. *Journal of Diversity Management (JDM)*, 3(4), 19-26.

- Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88(3), 588.
- Bollen, K. A. (1984). Multiple indicators: Internal consistency or no necessary relationship? *Quality and Quantity*, 18(4), 377-385.
- Brown, R., Condor, S., Mathews, A., Wade, G., & Williams, J. (1986). Explaining intergroup differentiation in an industrial organization. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 59(4), 273-286.
- Brown, T. A. (2003). Confirmatory factor analysis of the Penn State Worry Questionnaire: Multiple factors or method effects? *Behaviour research and therapy*, 41(12), 1411-1426.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (1983). Applied multiple regression/correlation for the behavioural sciences. Retrieved from www.google.com
- Field, A. (2005). *Factor analysis using SPSS*. Retrieved from www.google.com on March 17, 2009.
- Keith, T. Z. (2014). *Multiple regression and beyond: An introduction to multiple regression and structural equation modelling*: Routledge.
- Khan, M. N., & Adil, M. (2013). Data analysis techniques in service quality literature: Essentials and advances. *Serbian Journal of Management*, 8(1), 95-112.
- Maxwell, J. C. (1993). *Developing the leader within you*: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (1997). *Your Roadmap for Success*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2001). *The power of leadership*. London: David C Cook.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2002a). *Leadership 101: What every leader needs to know*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2002b). *Your Road Map for Success: You Can Get There from Here*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2004). *The Journey from Success to Significance*. USA: Countryman.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2007a). *The 21 irrefutable laws of leadership: Follow them and people will follow you*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2007b). *Failing forward*. USA: Harper Collins.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2008). *Go for gold: Inspiration to increase your leadership impact*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2010a). *Everyone communicates few connect: What the most effective people do differently*: USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2010b). *A Leader's Heart: 365-Day Devotional Journal*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.

- Maxwell, J. C. (2011a). *The 360 Degree Leader with Workbook: Developing Your Influence from Anywhere in the Organization*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2011b). *The Maxwell daily reader: 365 days of insight to develop the leader within you and influence those around you*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2012). *The Complete 101 Collection: What Every Leader Needs to Know*. USA: Thomas Nelson Incorporated.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2012a). *The Law of Sacrifice: Lesson 18 from The 21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership*. Harper Collins.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2012b). *Mentor 101: What Every Leader Needs to Know*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2013a). *The 17 indisputable laws of teamwork: Embrace them and empower your team*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2013b). *Be a people person: Effective leadership through effective relationships*. David C Cook.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2014a). *Good Leaders Ask Great Questions: Your Foundation for Successful Leadership*. Hachette Nashville.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2014b). *Thinking of a Change: 11 Ways Highly Successful People Approach Life and Work*. FaithWords.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2016). *JumpStart Your Priorities: A 90-Day Improvement Plan*. Center Street.
- Maxwell, J. C., & Dornan, J. (1997). *Becoming a person of influence: How to positively impact the lives of others*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C., & Dornan, J. (2013). *How to influence people: Make a difference in your world*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Maxwell, J. C., & Parrott, L. (2005). *25 ways to win with people: how to make others feel like a million bucks*. USA: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- Pallant, J. (2005). SPSS survival guide. *Crow's Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin*.
- Tucker, L. R., & Lewis, C. (1973). A reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 38(1), 1-10.
- Wang, J., & Wang, X. (2012). *Structural equation modelling: Applications using Mplus*. John Wiley & Sons

Mathematics Teachers' Beliefs and their Practices towards Collaborative Learning in Public and Private Schools: A Comparative Case Study

Maria Shiraz*
Shahzada Qaisar**

Abstract

A multiple case study was designed to find the consistency of mathematics teachers' beliefs towards collaborative learning with their practices. Moreover, it explored the similarities\ differences of public and private school teachers' practices who highly believe in collaborative learning. Careful analysis of the transcribed classroom observations into four categories; classroom tasks, classroom discourse, classroom environment and types of evaluation, revealed that the collaborative pedagogical beliefs and practices of both teachers are not consistent. However, the public-school teacher used collaborative layout in some of her classes but could not implement the social pedagogy in true spirit. On the other hand, the private school teacher did not implement the collaborative learning in her classroom.

Keywords: Collaborative learning, Beliefs, Mathematics Teachers' practices

Introduction

A plethora of researches have investigated the relationship between beliefs of teachers and their instructional practices and have reported that the beliefs are in line with their practices (Beswick, 2007; Ertmer, 2005). The studies conducted on teachers' beliefs have projected the connection between instructors' beliefs and didactic practices (Cohen, Moffitt, & Goldin, 2007). On the contrary, there are researches that report the connection between the beliefs and practices of the teachers to be inconsistent e.g. (Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Sadik, Sendurur, & Sendurur, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Hence, the connection between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices as (Pehkonen, 2009) argues is exceptionally complicated and is often found to be a weak one.

In Pakistan, mathematics research is at the initial phase of development (Alia & Sadia, 2013) and has a lot of unanswered questions. Though collaborative learning (CL) and beliefs of mathematics teachers have been separately investigated in Pakistan (Qaisar & Butt, 2015), yet no study has been carried out to explore the relationship among the beliefs and practices towards a particular teaching approach. In the present study we will

* PhD Scholar Division of Education, University of Education Lahore (Corresponding Author)

** Assistant Professor, University of Education, Township Lahore

illuminate the similarities\differences of the practices of teachers from both public and private schools regarding collaborative learning.

The association between beliefs of mathematics teachers and their practices is highly uncertain and the aim of this research is to seek the consistency between the two constructs. For the purpose of this research we are initially defining mathematics teachers' beliefs & collaborative learning.

Mathematics Teachers' Beliefs

Some researchers have said that beliefs act as a "regulating system" that drive actions and that they are the determinants of actions (Pehkonen, 2009).

Collaborative Learning

Research reveals that in Pakistan collaborative learning in mathematics classroom is limited whereby teachers mostly use a teacher- centered approach (Barwell, 2007; Alia and Sadia, 2013). In collaborative learning students cooperate in groups with the teacher in an effort to develop knowledge (Davidson & Major, 2014, p. 3).

Research Design & Research Questions

A multiple case study design was selected for this study. This qualitative approach is often the preferred choice for empirical inquiry that explores a phenomenon within its real-world context (Robson, 2016; Yin 2014). In this study, the meaning of 'cases' refer to the individual mathematics teachers. Hence two teachers make the two cases of the present study. Guiding this study are the following research questions:

Q. 1. To what extent are mathematics teachers' beliefs aligned with their practices regarding collaborative learning?

Q.2. What are the similarities and differences between the practices of public and private school teachers?

Participants and Context

This article reports on data gathered through questionnaires from fifty elementary mathematics school teachers. The analysis shows that only twelve out of fifty questionnaires showed that the teachers believed in the use of collaborative learning. We selected four teachers out of twelve. The grounds for selecting those teachers from the wider study were twofold: (1) their beliefs regarding collaborative learning were higher than the rest; (2) they all had their bachelors in Mathematics and were having an average of three years teaching experience. We are reporting two cases for the present study; "Noureen", who is a public-school teacher and "Sana", who is a private school teacher.

Data Collection

The data was collected over a period of five months, which took place in 2014. The study is divided into the following two stages:

Stage 1: Teachers' beliefs Questionnaire

Mathematics researchers have classified teachers' beliefs into three types: beliefs about the nature of mathematics, beliefs about mathematics teaching, and beliefs about students' learning (Loucks-Horsley, Stiles, Mundry, Love, & Hewson, 2009). The results of the questionnaire helped us to find teachers whose beliefs regarding CL in mathematics were the highest.

Stage 2: Observation (Video Recordings)

Two teachers (cases) were selected; one from the private school and the other from the public school. The researchers observed ten classes of each case. Hence 20 formal observations (video recordings) were done altogether at various intervals during the term. The purpose of recording the classroom practices of these cases was to see the alignment of beliefs of teachers and their practices.

Data Analysis

We used the analytical framework of Raymond (1997) for the analysis of the data of the video recordings which comprises of four themes (table 1).

The Analytical Framework

There are different indicators given with their respective codes for each theme.

Table 1

Criteria for the Categorization of Teachers' Mathematics Teaching Practice

<i>Themes</i>	<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Categories</i>
Tasks	The teacher instructs solely from the textbook	T1
	The teacher instructs primarily from the textbook with occasional diversions from the text	T2
	The teacher teaches equally from textbook and problem-solving activities	T3
	The teacher solely provides problem-solving tasks	T4
	The teacher selects tasks based on students' interest and experience	T5
	The teacher selects tasks that stimulate students to make connections	T6
	The teacher selects tasks that promote communication about mathematics	T7
Discourse	The teacher approaches mathematics topics in isolation	D1
	The teacher approaches mathematics instruction in the same pattern daily	D2
	The teacher primarily encourages teacher-directed discourse, only occasionally allowing for student-directed interactions	D3

	The teacher encourages teacher-directed and student-directed discourse	D4
	The teacher encourages mostly student- directed discourse	D5
	The teacher poses questions that engage and challenge students' thinking	D6
	The teacher has students clarify and justify their ideas orally and in writing	D7
Environment	The teacher creates an environment in which students are passive learners	E1
	The teacher creates an environment in which students are passive learners, occasionally calling on them to play a more active role	E2
	The teacher creates a learning environment that at times allows students to be passive learners and at times active explorers	E3
	The teacher presents an environment in which students are to be active learners, occasionally having them play a more passive role	E4
	The teacher creates an environment that reflects respect for students' ideas and structures the time necessary to grapple with ideas and problems	E5
	The teacher has students work cooperatively, encouraging communication	E6
Evaluation	The teacher poses questions in search of specific, predetermined responses	Ev1
	The teacher evaluates students solely via questions seeking "right answers"	Ev2
	The teacher primarily evaluates students through set questions from the textbook, only occasionally using other means	Ev3
	The teacher evaluates students' learning equally through set questions from the textbook and alternative means, such as observations and writing	Ev4
	The teacher primarily evaluates students using means beyond the textbook	Ev5
	The teacher observes and listens to students to assess learning	Ev6

The Interpretation of Scores

For the sake of drawing out the meaning from the data, we used the following criteria for qualification such as categories of analytical framework to quantification in the form of percentage of collaborative work in the classroom. We admit that there is no statistical ground for these boundaries. It is a kind of arbitrary common-sense scale that will help us to know the extent/nature of collaborative learning of these teachers.

Table 2*Categorization of Collaborative Learning against their respective percentages*

<i>Categories</i>	<i>Percentage of Collaborative Learning</i>
T1, D1, D2, E1, Ev1, Ev2	0%
T2, D3, E2, Ev3	25%
T3, D4, E3, Ev4	50%
T4, D5, E4, Ev5	75%
T5, T6, T7, D6, D7, E5, E6, Ev6	100%

When we were arranging the categories from stage 2 (observations) data, we were noting the regularities as well as the patterns within emerging data. The data having similar features were placed within a category in order to accommodate emerging information (table 1). Teachers' teachings were observed and categorized accordingly (figures 1 to 4).

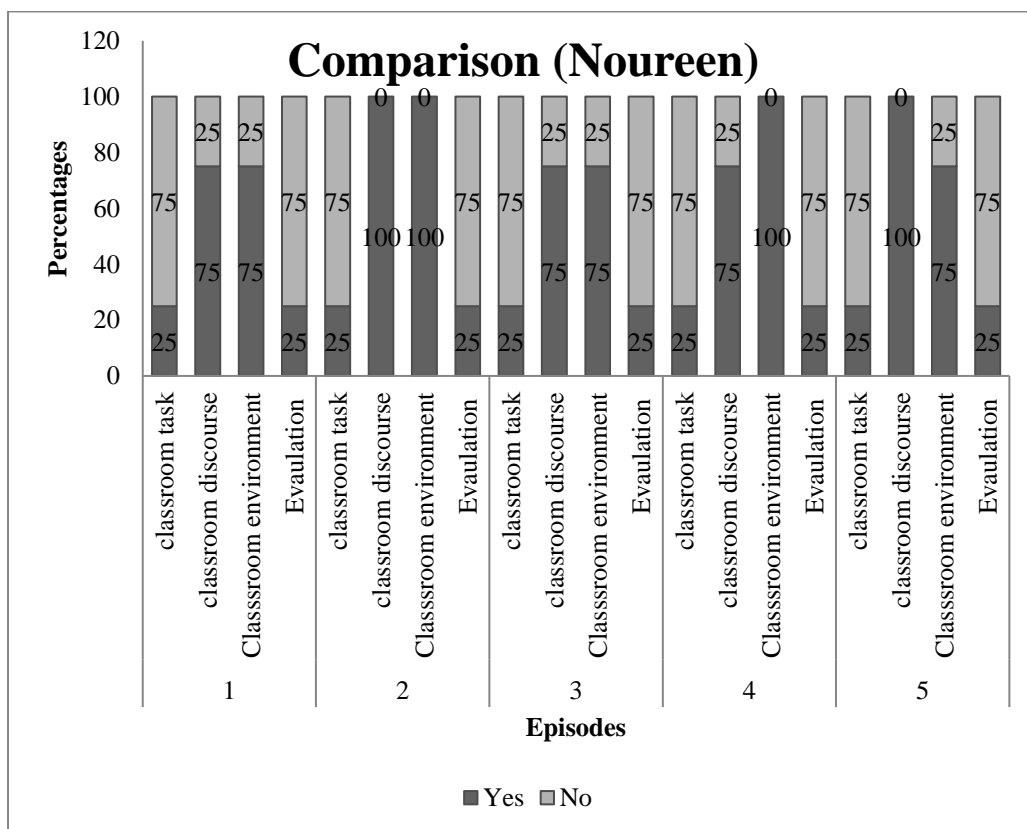


Figure 1. Graphical representation of Noureen's classroom practice (from episode 1-episode5)

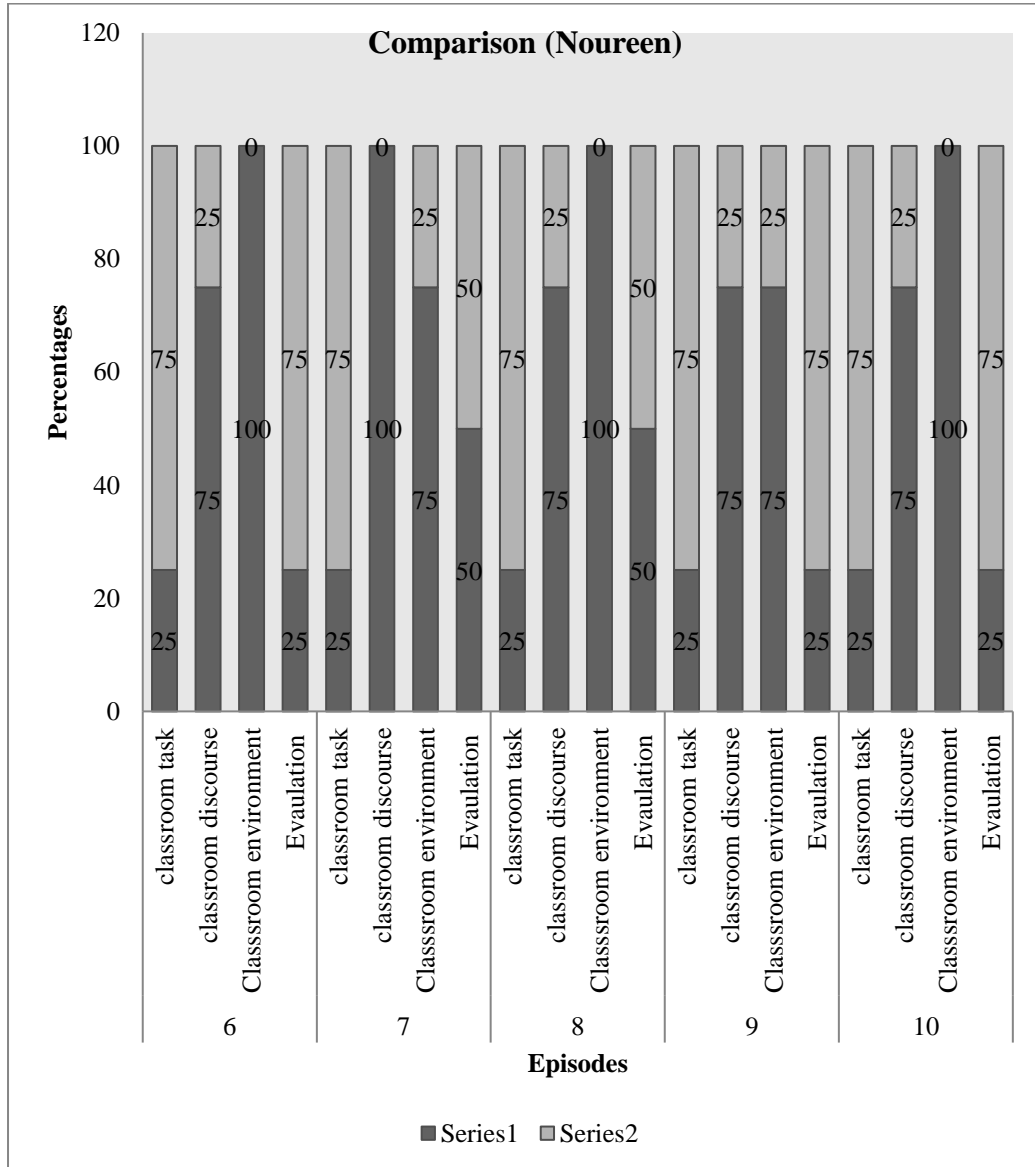


Figure 2. Graphical representation of Noureen's classroom practice from episode 6-episode 10)

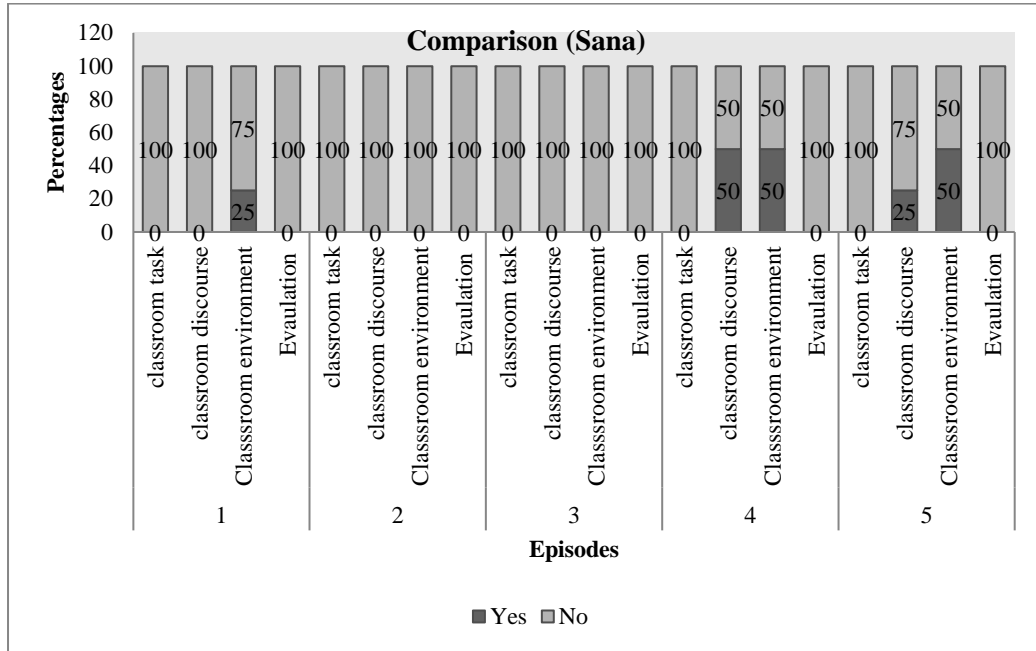


Figure 3. Graphical representation of Sana's classroom practice (from episode 1-episode 5)

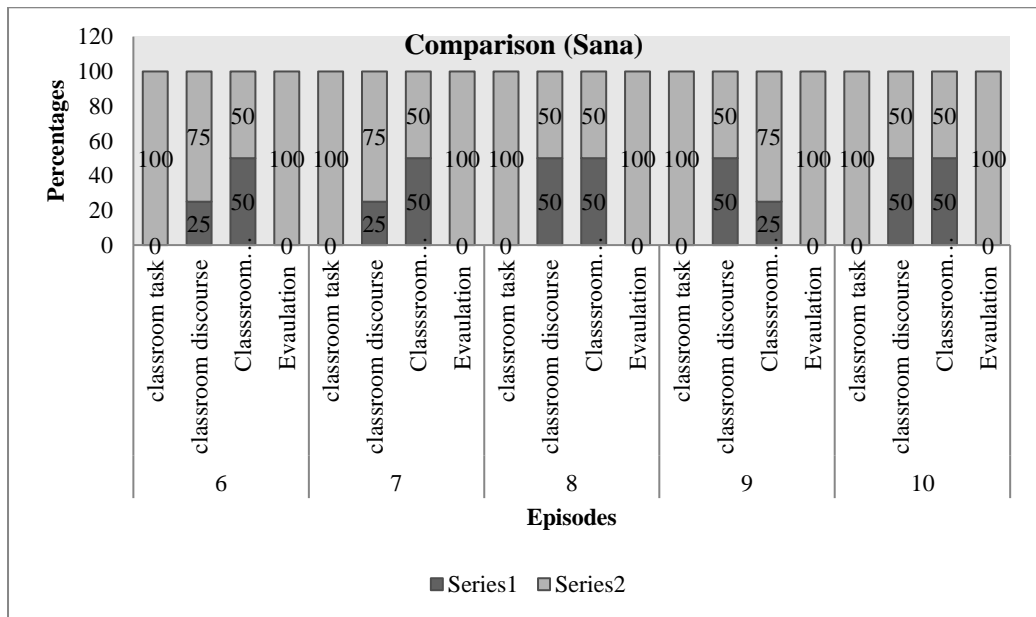


Figure 4. Graphical Representation of Sana's Classroom Practice (from episode 6-episode 10)

Background and setting

“Noureen” (Pseudonym) was an elementary mathematics teacher in a Government Girls High School. She had a post graduate degree in mathematics. When we explained about our study she was a bit reluctant to video record her lessons. But on the assurance to maintain the confidentiality she agreed to record her classes. The classroom of Ms. Noureen was very comfortable and spacious.

“Sana” (pseudonym) has been teaching in a private school at elementary level. She had a graduate degree in mathematics and a post graduate degree in communication. She was not enthusiastic in teaching and wanted to leave this profession. Ms Sana had no issue in recording her teachings since she had already been filmed by some other researcher. The physical conditions of Ms Sana’s classroom were miserable. During electricity failure it became very difficult to continue teaching because of poor lightening.

Teaching Practice

The teaching practices of both the teachers were grouped into four categories (Table 1).

Case-1: Noureen’s Classroom Task1

The table 3 shows that the tasks used by Noureen fall under the category T2

Table 3

Analysis of Classroom Tasks (Noureen’s Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1, Epi-2, Epi-3, Epi-4, Epi-5, Epi-6, Epi-7, Epi-8, Epi-9& Epi-10	T-2

Evidence from the Context

The teacher used tasks from the textbook in all the episodes and adopted the same procedure for teaching so the students were familiar with the teacher’s source of choosing the tasks which helped them to give the answers (given at the end of book). Following extract is an example:

- 12.1 Teacher (*After exchanging the greetings asks them to*) Open 69 Ex 4.11
- 12.2 Teacher (*confirms*) Did you complete Part 1 in your homework?
- 12.3 Students (*Altogether*) Yes teacher.
- 12.4 Teacher (*smiles*) Ok! Let’s see how much you remember
(*pauses, looks into the book*)

In episode 3, for the first time Noureen gave a task to the students other than the textbook. The students became very excited and started discussing in their respective groups. They gave their answers however; they were not very much sure about their answer, because they could not check them since were given at the end of the textbook.

Case II – Sana’s Classroom Task

Throughout the episodes that were recorded the teacher instructed solely from the textbook. This indicated that the tasks used in the class were non-collaborative.

Table 4

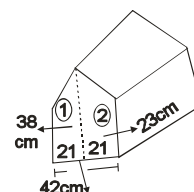
Analysis of Classroom Tasks (Sana’s Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1 Epi-2, Epi-3, Epi-4, Epi-5, Epi-6, Epi-7, Epi-8, Epi-9 &Epi-10	T-1

Evidence from the Context

The following excerpt shows how the teacher uses the traditional way to solve the tasks on the board.

- 31.4 Teacher (Asks) Area of trapezium (*draws as well*)
- 31.5 Students $=\frac{1}{2} \times h \times (\text{sum of 11 side})$ (*all of them*)



Such tasks used by the teacher did not stimulate the students to make connections as well as did not encourage them to think of alternative ways of doing mathematics. The teacher follows the same pattern and uses the textbook tasks. She kept walking between desks as long as students noted down the solutions from the board.

Case-I: Noreen’s Classroom Discourse

Noureen’s classroom discourse was not collaborative.

Table 5

Analysis of Discourse (Noureen’s Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1, Epi-3, Epi-4, & Epi-8	D-3
Epi-2, Epi-5, Epi-6, Epi-7, Epi-9& Epi-10	D-4

Evidence from the context

The following extract from episode 4 shows the case

- 14.9 Teacher (*Smiles and asks from the rest of the class*) Where have you seen it?
 14.10 (*All students start discussing*)
 14.11 Student (*One of the student stands up and answers*) In our result reports.

It was the routine of the teacher that appeared in almost all the episodes to direct the students about the page number of the textbook. The purpose of this announcement was to keep the students focused without wasting time. However, the discourse that proceeded was teacher led, where the teacher was asking questions and the students are replying. Ethno mathematics activities help the students to understand those concepts of mathematics by linking them with the students' cultural and daily experiences. Such kind of activities used by the teacher while introducing the concept of percentages facilitates the students in developing critical thinking in mathematics.

In the D4 category the teacher encouraged mostly student-directed discourse. Students discussed their confusions with each other as the teacher '*created situations that let*' the students to discuss together of how to solve questions first before starting the exercise.

Case II – Sana's Classroom Discourse

The classroom discourse of Sana was not collaborative.

Table 6

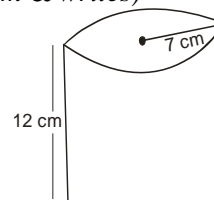
Analysis of Classroom Discourse (Sana's Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1, Epi-2 & Epi-3	D-2
Epi-5, Epi-6 & Epi-7	D-3
Epi-4, Epi-8, Epi-9 & Epi-10	D-4

Evidence from the Context

Sana's classroom discourse fall under the category D2, whenever the teacher started teaching a new concept. Following is an example:

33.5 Teacher So, Volume = base area x height (*tells them & writes*)
 33.10 In Ex 9c lets see Q 1



The students are listening to the teacher's instruction quietly (lines 33.5-33.9). The teacher did not provide any opportunity to the students to share their ideas with each other. Dialogue-rich mathematics classrooms on the other hand are only possible if students are encouraged to discuss the new concept.

Case-1: Noreen's Classroom Environment

Noreen's recordings show that her classroom environment was collaborative.

Table 7

Analysis of Classroom Environment (Noreen's Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1, Epi-3, Epi-5, Epi-7& Epi-9	E-3
Epi-2, Epi-4, Epi-6, Epi-8& Epi-10	E-4

Evidence from the Context

In the E3 category the teacher creates a learning environment that sometimes allows students to be inactive learners and at times active explorers. Following segment is an example of this.

16.28 Teacher (*Writes*) $16\frac{1}{2}\%$

16.29 $\frac{33}{2} \%$ (*Students are actively participating by answering the question*)

The students would have learnt the above taught concept more effectively through investigation and discovery. Although the teacher encouraged learner participation, there is still a step-by-step direction by the teacher.

Episode 1 is an example of E4 category where Noreen gives the students the autonomy to discuss and share their findings within the group. Students were seen to 'enjoy' a close relationship with peers.

Case II – Sana’s Classroom Environment

The classroom environment provided by Sana was not collaborative.

Table 8

Analysis of Classroom Environment (Sana’s Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1, Epi-2 & Epi-3	E-2
Epi-4, Epi-5, Epi-6, Epi-7, Epi-8, Epi-9& Epi-10	E-3

Evidence from the Context

In the E2 category the teacher creates an atmosphere in which students are not active, occasionally asking them to play a more active role. The following teaching scenario portrays the E2 category.

- 32.12 Teacher (*Writes and Explains*) Q 1 (a) M.P = \$ 100, S.P - & 88
- 32.13 Teacher [*So*] discount = (100 – 88) = \$ 12 (*students are attentively looking at the board*)
- 32.14 Teacher
- $$[\text{Now}] \text{ percentage Discount} = \frac{\text{Discount}}{\text{M.P}} \times 100$$

As in the above example it is noted that the teacher is doing all the work. She is explaining the process of finding discount while on the other hand students are passively sitting and listening to the teacher. However, in a constructivist classroom it is the teacher who is responsible for establishing a conducive learning environment that develops the interest of children towards mathematics.

In episode 7, the students’ role is passive in the beginning since they are listening to the teacher’s explanation. However, it is seen that after Sana’s explanation when she asks the students to “*do the next questions together*”; the students become “*very active*” and start the discussion. Consequently, the classroom culture becomes positive and lively.

Case-1: Noureen’s Classroom Evaluation

The assessment procedures used by Noureen were non-collaborative.

Table 9

Analysis of Classroom Evaluation (Noureen’s Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1, Epi-2, Epi-3, Epi-4, Epi-5, Epi-6, Epi-9& Epi-10	Ev-3
Epi-7& Epi-8	Ev-4

Evidence from the Context

According to the Ev 3 category, the teacher primarily evaluates students through a set of questions from the textbook, only occasionally using other means. Students were seen to be mostly evaluated from the previous day's lesson at the beginning of the class. This extract justifies the case.

- 15.2 Teacher What did we do yesterday Madiha? (*the teacher goes near her*)
 15.3 Madiha (*Confidently answers*) Percentage; Ex 4.14

In the Ev4 category the teacher evaluates students' learning equally through set questions from the textbook and other means, such as observations and writing. The teacher is seen using her observations when one of the students who is a bit confused about the working of the question posed by the teacher. When some of the students are unable to solve the sum in their notebooks, the teacher facilitated them by asking if anyone could solve the question on the board.

Case II – Sana's Classroom Evaluation

The evaluation procedure adopted is non-collaborative.

Table 10

Analysis of Classroom Evaluation (Sana's Teaching)

<i>Episode Number</i>	<i>Category</i>
Epi-1 Epi-2, Epi-3, Epi-4, Epi-5, Epi-6, Epi-7, Epi-8, Epi-9 &Epi-10	Ev-1, Ev-2

Evidence from the Context

This example illustrates the assessment strategies the teacher used in her class time

- 38.4 Teacher (*writes*)Q1 (a) $\frac{2}{7} \times 90^\circ = \frac{180^\circ}{7} = 25.7$
 38.5 (*asks*)Is it acute, obtuse or right angle?
 38.6 Students It is an acute angle (*all*)

Teachers' questioning strategies also play a vital role in the quality of instruction students receive and in the evaluation process. Teachers can foster students' reasoning ability by asking questions that promote student thinking. However, our interpretation both at the time of this episode in the classroom and upon later analysis was that Sana was just evaluating them by asking very basic questions that were based on recall and did not provide opportunities to the students to think creatively and collaboratively.

Discussion

Sewornoo (2016) states that the beliefs of teachers have a strong impact on teachers' instructional practices. However, the results of current study show that both the teachers' beliefs are not completely aligned with their instructional practices towards collaborative learning. Such types of discrepancies are also reported by many other researchers (Thompson, 1992). Classroom task, classroom discourse, classroom environment, and classroom evaluation are used as analytical framework's categories to identify whether the collaborative practices are being followed by the teachers. These categories are discussed in detail as follows:

Classroom Tasks

The results show that project teachers did not practice collaborative tasks. The tasks used by both the teachers are mostly close ended practicing tasks that did not provide the opportunity to the student for thinking actively. Both teachers frequently selected tasks from the textbooks. We are not challenging whether the nature of tasks given in the textbooks are collaborative or non-collaborative, however; one of the indicators of the analytical framework informs that tasks chosen from the textbook are considered non-collaborative. Hence, it was very rarely observed that when both teachers used the tasks from another source or developed them on their own. They did not use any tasks that stimulated students to make connections through problem solving activities. In collaborative learning tasks students are given the opportunity to explore new ideas through discussing, questioning, and organizing processes. This then helped to develop students' comprehension and internalization of critical concepts (Palincsar & Herrenkohl, 2002). It is also apparent from different researches (Kabooha, 2016) that the textbook is not the only source that the teachers should rely on for their task selection. It is expected from the teachers that they should develop and use constructivist tasks in their classrooms for effective learning of mathematics.

Classroom Discourse

Both public and private teachers controlled the behaviour of the students and stressed that they must memorize all definitions. And the teachers indicator "these definitions are very important from the examination point of view" also encourage to do so. The teachers explained all the concepts without involving the students. The conceptual explanation is not done by the teachers. According to Gilbert (2006), a mathematical explanation consists of two parts. The first one is the calculation explanation that describes the process of reaching to an answer and second one is the conceptual explanation that rationalizes as to why a process was selected. Hence, students will not only be able to solve a mathematics question but will also be able to justify as to why they choose a particular method to solve the given question.

On the contrary, in collaborative learning teachers focus on such context where definitions are socially constructed within a discourse community. So, both teachers have

transmission absolutist view in which the teacher is the dispenser of knowledge. Although, Noureen had a professional training before joining the schools but her classroom discourse was not different from Sana.

It was observed in both cases that the classroom discourse was more teacher-led. This may often be because of the expected classroom management issues that accompany as well as a perceived urgency to complete a syllabus (Ingram, 2012).

Classroom Environment

Noureen's classroom environment was very appropriate. It had all the basic facilities (space, proper lighting). Students were given tasks to solve in their respective groups. Noureen's teaching practices with respect to environment (as far as the physical layout of the classrooms is concerned) seemed to align with her beliefs. In Noureen's class the students were given the opportunity to discuss the mathematics problems in groups but the nature of discussions was controlled by the teacher that did not motivate students to evaluate their understanding and explore their errors on their own. Teachers' intervention rate was very high during collaborative work since she did not want to lose her authority. On the contrary, it is essential in a collaborative classroom environment that students have the opportunity to discuss mathematics with one another, refining and critiquing each other's ideas. It seemed to us that Noureen knows how to make a layout of collaborative work but could not implement it in 'true sense' where students construct their knowledge on their own and role of teacher is very passive and he provides process help if needed.

Sana's classroom environment did not indicate any signs of collaborative learning; although she believed in collaborative learning. It may be assumed that Sana was trying to avoid management problems. Menzies & Bruhn (2010) argue that environmental factors, such as size of the classroom and basic facilities may affect the motivation of students to engage verbally in the classroom and perform specific activity patterns. In Sana's case she did not put her effort in developing collaborative learning environment. Classroom space seems to be an issue nowadays for private schools which are merely money-makers who keep on having admissions to raise funds. Sana made same textbook diagram on the board even she may have referred towards book but it seems she was just killing her time. In Pakistan, just like Sana mostly teachers join the teaching profession as their last choice and do not have professional training. They get jobs on the basis of their highest qualifications and English proficiency. Females are seen in majority in this profession since according to them and their families it is the 'most respectable profession and they feel more secure in same gender school.

Classroom Evaluation

Noureen's patterns of evaluation were not collaborative. She called only those students who knew the answers. One of the reasons might be that she does not want to waste time on students' wrong answers. However, in some collaborative learning

classroom students when engaged in questioning should have equal participation of all the students. Similarly, Sana did not bother to ask any question from the previous day's lesson. This may be because she thought that assessing them at the beginning of the lesson may be a burden to her teaching. Classroom assessment should not be viewed as an added requirement but should be thought as a means to improve teachers' teaching. Although Noreen had gone through a teachers' training program however, her evaluation methods were not better than Sana who had not gone through any professional training. It seems that one of the factors of having no difference in assessments process between trained and untrained teachers was what Christenson et al. (2008) explains that most teacher education programs skim over classroom assessment, leaving teachers to assess in the way they were assessed when they were in school. The training programs that Noreen had gone through were not rigorous in terms of collaborative assessment techniques. As Crane et al. (2012) suggest that specific training is necessary for teachers to learn how to foster collaborative assessment in their classrooms.

Conclusion

The results of these video recordings revealed that although both the teachers highly believed in collaborative learning but their beliefs were not practically seen in their classrooms. The classroom practices of both the teachers were similar in terms of classroom task, classroom discourse and classroom evaluation. However, they appeared different in terms of classroom environment.

We admit that the relationship between beliefs and practices of mathematics teachers is a complex phenomenon and teachers' beliefs were seemed to play an important role in 'modulating' teachers' practices but the result of this study show that it is not always true that the teachers' practices are formed by their beliefs. Hence in order to bring any reform in the teaching practices of mathematics teachers in Pakistan it is necessary to find the influence of other factors other than teachers' beliefs that influence teaching learning process. The findings in this article therefore, indicate a need for further research. Specifically, a study needs to be done in finding the constraints and the extent to which they directly influence the instructional practices decisions teachers make against their beliefs. The present study is inevitably limited because of the methodology that has been adopted to conduct the study. Although the data provides us with in depth understanding about the phenomena; still it is gathered from a very small number of cases. Thus, we are not in a position to make generalizations. It must be borne in mind that more research is needed to identify the constraints\opportunities of teachers who believe in practicing collaborative learning in mathematics classrooms.

References

- Alia, A., & Sadia, S.K. (2013). A study on implementation of suggested pedagogical practices in ADE & B.Ed. (Hons.). *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 35(2), 1-17.

- Barmby, P., Bolden, D., Raine, S., & Thompson, L. (2010). Developing the use of Diagrammatic Representations in Primary Mathematics through Professional Development. *Educational Research*, 55(3), 263-290.
- Barwell, R., Bishop, K., & Halai, A. (2007). Implementing curriculum change: Literature reviews—South Africa, Rwanda, and Pakistan. *The Research Programme Consortium on Implementing Education Quality in Low Income Countries, EdQual Working Paper No*, 6(1), 32-40.
- Beswick, K. (2007). Teachers' beliefs that matter in secondary mathematics classrooms. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 65(1), 95-120.
- Christenson, S.L., Reschly, A.L., Appleton, J. J., Berman, S., Spanjers, D., & Varro, P. (2008). Best practices in fostering student engagement. *Best practices in school psychology*, 5, 1099-1120.
- Cohen, D.K., Moffitt, S. L., & Goldin, S. (2007). Policy and practice: The dilemma. *American Journal of Education*, 113(4), 515-548.
- Crane, R.S., Kuyken, W., Williams, J.G., Hastings, R.P., Cooper, L., & Fennell, M.J.V. (2012). Competence in teaching mindfulness-based courses: concepts, development and assessment. *Mindfulness*, 3(1), 76-84.
- Davidson, N., & Major, C.H. (2014). Boundary crossings: Cooperative learning, collaborative learning, and problem-based learning. *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching*, 25(3/4), 7-55.
- Ertmer, P. A. (2005). Teacher pedagogical beliefs: The final frontier in our quest for technology integration? *Educational technology research and development*, 53(4), 25-39.
- Ertmer, P.A., Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A.T., Sadik, O., Sendurur, E., & Sendurur, P. (2012). Teacher beliefs and technology integration practices: A critical relationship. *Computers & education*, 59(2), 423-435.
- Gilbert, J. K. (2006). On the nature of context in chemical education. *International journal of science education*, 28(9), 957-976.
- Ingram, J. (2012). *Whole class interaction in the mathematics classroom: a conversation analytical approach*. University of Warwick. Ph.D.
- Kabooha, R.H. (2016). Using movies in EFL classrooms: A study conducted at the English Language Institute (ELI), King Abdul-Aziz University. *English Language Teaching*, 9(3), 248.
- Kelleher, F., Severin, F.O., Samson, M., De, A., & Afamasage, W.T. (2011). *Women and the Teaching Profession: Exploring the Faminisation Debate*: UNESCO.

- Loucks-Horsley, S., Stiles, K.E., Mundry, S., Love, N., & Hewson, P.W. (2009). *Designing Professional Development for Teachers of Science and Mathematics*. New York: Corwin Press.
- Menzies, H.M., & Bruhn, A.L. (2010). *Managing Challenging Behaviour in Schools: Research Based Strategies that Work*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Mewborn, D.S., Lee, H.S., & Strutchens, M. E. (2015). *Scholarly Practices and Inquiry in the Preparation of Mathematics Teachers*. London: Citeseer.
- Palincsar, A.S., & Herrenkohl, L.R. (2002). Designing collaborative learning contexts. *Theory Into Practice*, 41(1), 26-32.
- Pehkonen, E. (2009). How Finns learn mathematics: What is the influence of 25 years of research in mathematics education. *Teaching mathematics: Retrospectives and Perspectives*, 71-101.
- Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, 37(3), 380-390.
- Qaisar, S., & Butt, I.H. (2015). Effect of Social Relations on the Productivity of Collaborative Group Work. *Journal of Research*, 9(1), 42-53.
- Raymond, A. M. (1997). Inconsistency between a beginning elementary school teacher's mathematics beliefs and teaching practice. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 550-576.
- Robson, C., & McCarten, K. (2016). *Real World Research*. New York: John Willey & Sons.
- Sewornoo, S. (2016). *Assessment Literacy of Mathematics Teachers and Challenges in the Implementation of the School-Based Assessment in Senior High Schools of Ghana* (Unpublished PhD Dissertation). University of Education.
- Thompson, A. G. (1992). *Teachers' beliefs and conceptions: A synthesis of the research*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co, Inc.
- Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. New York: Sage Publications.

Global Changes and Improving Teacher Education Institutions in Pakistan

Muhammad Abiodullah*

Uzma Shakoor**

Irshad Ahmad Farrukh***

Abstract

This study attempts to explore positive changes resulted from an endeavour to improve teacher education in Pakistan. This paper presents findings of the evaluation of 69 teacher education programs in Pakistan. The researchers examined different aspects based on observations related to curriculum, classroom management, teaching methods and teaching practice on the bases of the opinion of program heads, teacher educators, prospective teachers, alumni and the information related official documents and two or three external evaluators' judgment for each program. Quantitative and qualitative aspects of evidences were observed through multiple sources. Data were analysed using SPSS V22.0 and results were presented in graphical form. Analysis of the data reveals that infrastructure and teacher related matters are stronger as compared to students' understanding and skills development. Prospective teachers should be prepared to face challenges of the digital era. Teaching practice and internships are an integral part of almost all teacher education institutions but teaching practice manual, mentoring and feedback components are not as strong as to fulfil needs of the program. Teachers teach the classes regularly but practice traditional methods of teaching and rare by using appropriate and effective instructional procedures and methods. There is also lack of innovative and relevant pedagogical approaches and strategies to promote analytical/ critical thinking and problem-solving skills in the prospective teachers. Teachers' coordination and cooperation for varied and flexible teaching-learning experiences has not been established. This paper also argues that focus should be shifted from information transfer to understanding, application, skills development and dispositions.

Keywords: Teacher education, Teacher training, Curriculum, Classroom management, Teaching practice

* Assistant Professor, Institute of Education and Research, University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan, Email: abiodullah.ier@pu.edu.pk (Corresponding author)

** Research Officer National Accreditation Council for Teacher Education (NACTE) Pakistan,

*** Secretary National Accreditation Council for Teacher Education (NACTE)

Introduction

The year 2009 is a special year in the history of Teacher Education in Pakistan because two major steps were taken to uplift teacher education programs i.e. four-year B.Ed. the program was introduced and National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST) in Pakistan were documented and disseminated. Like medical and engineering, the duration of the teaching profession has been increased to enable the new entrants to get training and long experience during studies. All existing programs of teacher education were of one or two years. Those students may take admission in four-year programs of teacher education, which would like to adopt and stay in the teaching profession and would like to develop themselves according to the future needs of the profession.

National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST) in Pakistan have provided a roadmap for institutions and teacher educators to further improve the performance, output, and quality of their functioning. In view of this context, it was necessary to study trends and developments in teacher education to identify the weak areas and gaps between the present and the expected statuses of the profession.

Teacher Education Institutes (TEIs) are working to educate prospective teachers across the country. The quality of the prospective teachers and their competence can be assessed, both directly and indirectly. Prospective teachers can be assessed through standardized tests or classroom performance. The competencies they acquire during teaching practices and learning can be reviewed and evaluated in the context of national and international standards for teacher education. In this study, programs offered by TEIs were evaluated on the components of curriculum development Process, Course and Content, Course Transaction and Classroom Management, Teaching Learning Procedures and Methods, and Teaching Practice.

Literature Review

The role of curriculum in teaching and learning process is vital. It keeps teachers on the track, on one side, and on the other side motivates them to progress and explore new destinations. It provides guidelines for preparing and training of prospective teachers. Curriculum and curriculum development are major concerns of both educators and the government and both have an impact on the development of the community and its prosperity. The curriculum is viewed more than before, as the centre of daily life (DeConinck, 2008). Initially, curriculum is planned and developed with the cooperation of curriculum and subject experts with its alignment to the government policies and planes. All stakeholders are involved for improvements and necessary changes.

In contemporary curriculum process key, stakeholders should be engaged for recommendations (UNESCO, 2009). The stakeholders may vary from discipline to discipline or country to country but for teacher education especially in Pakistan, the major

stakeholders of the curriculum are teacher educators, alumni, employers of teachers and representatives of the society. Views of different stakeholders help to improve the curriculum in different dimensions and make its implementation feasible and closer to the attainment of the objectives. The curriculum is developed for teacher educators' facilitation. Teacher educators disseminate the knowledge and develop skills among prospective teachers. Having such an important position, their experience and feedback can help to reform the curriculum. In short, teacher educators provide opportunities for learning the essential knowledge and offer avenues to improve the required skills (Churyk & Yu. 2015). The alumni are incredible assets of the institutions and emotionally attached to their institutions. They are always willing to work for improvements in their institutions and its programs on the basis of their experience (Churyk & Yu. 2015).

The reforms or changes in the curriculum is a time consuming, costly, sensitive and continues our process. New Curriculum takes time for its implementation. Teachers demand training and new guidelines, students require new materials and Government and publishers have to put more effort for new study materials. Parents and teachers ask for justification of change in the curriculum. Curriculum revision cycle may take at least five to ten years. In these years, curriculum should go through five steps. According to Richards (2001) Step1 is Review: in the review it is checked which current practices are useful and bring changes in students' knowledge, behaviour, and practices as viewed by students, parents and colleagues. New research articles, books are consulted and conferences are also attended for review. Feedback from professional organizations is also appreciated for the purpose of review. The 2nd step is where the curriculum redesigned to align it with quality and standards. It is updated according to the need of time. In the 3rd step, new added topics and activities are taught for testing and checking their results. In the fourth step, new aligned or revised curriculum is implemented and in the last step, new or revised curriculum is evaluated for success and effectiveness (Richards, 2001).

The B.Ed. (4year) curriculum of teacher education programs cover four types of courses: (1) compulsory courses; (2) professional courses; (3) foundation courses; and (4) content courses. Teaching practice is also a part of this program. To complete this degree, students are required 135 credit hours. B.Ed. (4 year) was started to make the teacher education degree compatible with global and international trends. Most of the teachers in the Public institutions had qualifications in B.Ed. (1year) or M.Ed. programs but B.Ed. (4 years) program have many extra courses, which is the horizontal and vertical extension of B.Ed. one-year courses. Teachers and institutions are facing challenges to cope with the new programs, in term of competent teachers for the new and extended courses (Higher Education Commission Pakistan, 2010).

Availability of Curriculum document in the institutions may be ensured but teacher educators and prospective teachers rarely desire to have it because they think

textbooks are a good source for teaching and preparing for the examination. No doubt, good books enrich the experience and motivation to gain new Knowledge (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998). The textbook is a window through which one can see the outer world. Teacher's experience to use textbook, his personal exposure to real world and students' involvement help in the better use of the book. Record keeping of the course file and attendance is mostly exercised in all the institutions. Teachers are also careful about course plan and its implementation. The most important component of teaching-learning process is interaction among colleagues. Sykes, Bird, and Kennedy (2010) conclude that to resolve any issue or problem, teachers sit together with their knowledge and skills which they bring to the work setting. Fullan (2005) advocated that capacity building encourages one another and builds up best practice with on-going learning. Rosenholtz (1998) encourages cooperation among colleagues in improving learning and development. Teachers' sharing of knowledge and good practices strengthens the performance of the schools (Dougherty & Rutherford, 2009). According to Zeichner (2003) professional development should be based on participation, cooperation of the experienced and skilled teachers.

Teaching-learning procedures and methods are other aspects of teacher education programs. It is media through which teacher educators try to impart their knowledge, skills, and competencies to the prospective teachers. These procedures and methods should be updated and made it effective. Prospective teachers are expected to acquire research and reflective competencies during the programs. Most of the teacher educators use teacher centred procedures and methods without having and giving feedback. They provide exam oriented material and students have to do rote memorization to pass the examination.

Teaching practice is an important component of teacher education programs. Generally speaking, there are some positive and negative issues related to teaching practice. It provides the opportunity to individuals to observe the experienced teachers, to interact with the students, control the class, share ideas with the colleagues and develop contact with school reality. In Pakistani context some prospective teachers lose interest in teaching due to the attitude and behaviour of the school administration, with the un-conducive environment, available facilities, and congested classrooms. There are many problems in selection of schools, pick and drop service, lack of orientation before the teaching practice, delayed or no feedback from the supervisors and lack of coordination among the departments. There is a mismatch between the given subject and the prospective teacher's needs and use of ineffective teaching practice model (Flores, Santos, Fernandes, & Pereira, 2014).

Methodology

For this investigation, these 69 teacher education programs were taken which applied for accreditation to the National Accreditation Council for Teacher Education

(NACTE). It included 47(68%) B.Ed. (1year) programs and 22 (32%) B.Ed. (4 year) programs. To evaluate each indicator of the standards, different statements were assessed through different approaches. For past events, official notifications, letters and manuals were assessed. For the transaction of knowledge, classroom observation, interviews of students and teachers were conducted. A team of the three experienced members and competent teacher educators visited the institutions and administered different tools for evaluation. A comprehensive evaluation system was used to rate each statement. Final scores to each statement were awarded on the basis of multiple pieces of evidence.

Instrument

The instrument consisted of 35 items with 4 subscales: curriculum, 17 items; classroom management, 6 items; teaching methods, 5 items and teaching practice, 10 items. Each item was scored on the basis of five resources i.e. documentary proof, an opinion of head of the institution or program, at least three teacher educators, three prospective teachers, three alumni and judgment of two external evaluators. The authenticity of data was ensured through all the relevant and concerned resources.

Sample

The description of the sample TE programs is given below:

Table 1

Description of the sample by province, institute, and Program

Province/ Zone	College				University					Total
	Public	Private		Army	Public		Private		Army	
	BEd1	BEd1	BEd4	BEd1	BEd1	BEd4	BEd1	BEd4	BEd1	
Punjab	2	8	2	2	2	6	0	0	0	22
Sindh	0	4	2	1	2	4	3	0	0	16
Baluchistan	1	5	0	0	2	1	1	1	0	11
KPK	0	3	0	2	2	3	4	0	0	14
AJK	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
ICT	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	3
Gilgit	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total	4	21	4	5	8	16	8	2	1	69

Table 1 shows the number of teacher education programs across the country and is representative of the population of the country. All provinces are weighted according to their population. Punjab is the most populated province of the Pakistan. Its' population is 101 million and Gilgit is the least populated province and its population is 1.1 million and other provinces are between the two extremes. So, the sample size represented teacher education institutions of all the provinces of Pakistan.

Data Analysis

Data obtained from different sources were used to assign the score to each statement. Each statement was assigned one score on qualifying all relevant evidence otherwise it was scored zero in case of absence of any evidence. The percentage scores were calculated for B.Ed.(1year) and B.Ed.(4year) programs. Percentage scores against each statement indicate that B.Ed.(1year) or B.Ed.(4year) programs qualify out of 100 programs. The data related to the study is presented in the graphs below:

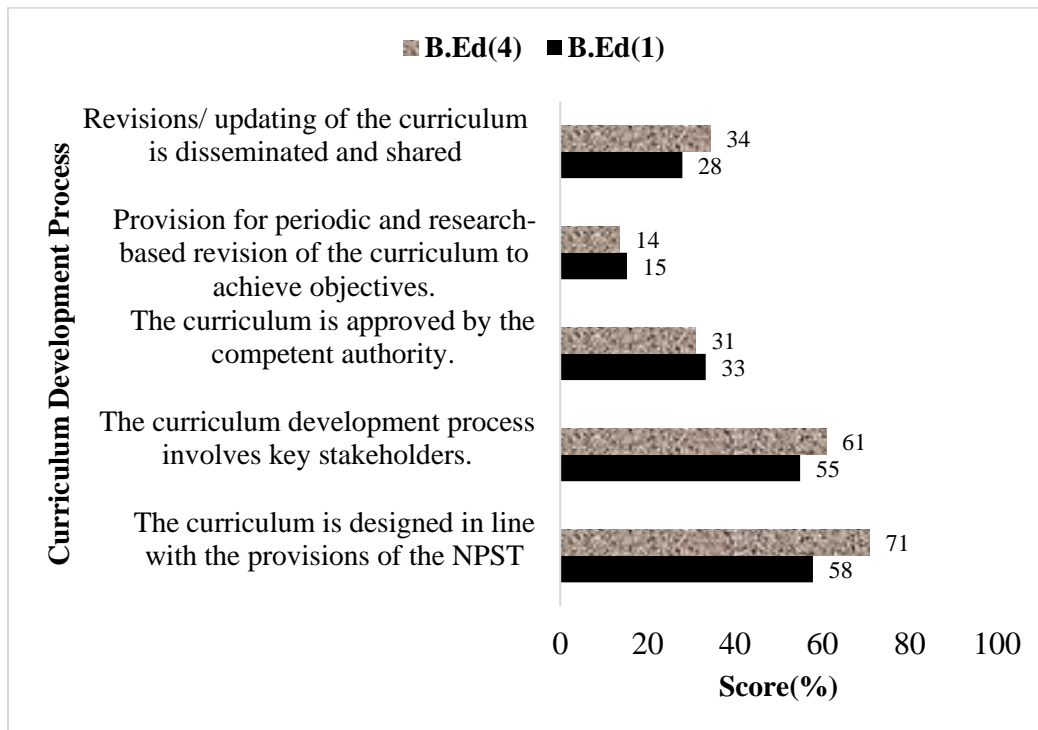


Figure 1: Score (%) on Curriculum development process of B.Ed. (4) and B.Ed. (1) programs

Figure 1 reveals different aspects related to B.Ed. (1) and B.Ed. (4) programs' curriculum. The alignment of curriculum with NPST, the involvement of key stakeholders in curriculum development, approval of curriculum by the competent authority, revision of curriculum, and dissemination of curriculum to the concerned stakeholders. All aspects are essential to keep the curriculum effective and updated. In B.Ed. (4) 64% and in B.Ed. (1), 55% programs involved the key stakeholders in the curriculum development process. Only 32% teacher education programs' curriculum area was approved by the competent authority. Only 15% teacher education programs do periodic revision in the curriculum. On the average, 31% institutions disseminate and

share revisions with the key stakeholders. The weakest element related to the curriculum is that it is not revised periodically, especially B.Ed. (1year) which has long history while B.Ed. (4year) has been developed six years before. It may be that sufficient researches are not conducted which could have supported to revise the curriculum. This area needs more attention of the teacher education institutions. Dissemination of revised curriculum to all stakeholders demands more attention.

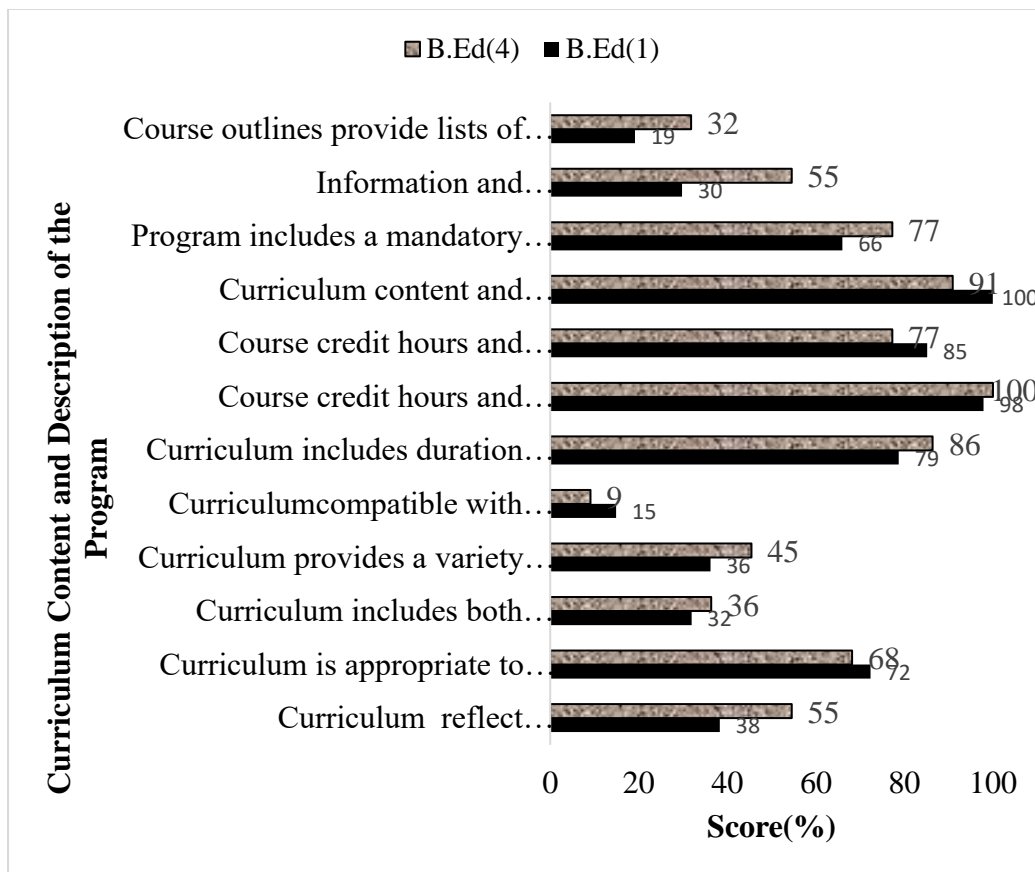


Figure 2: Score (%) on Curriculum effectiveness of B.Ed. (4) and B.Ed. (1) programs

The curriculum is not only an official document; it is a path to the destination to produce effective teachers. Curriculum effectiveness can be assessed through the following initiatives: how much is the curriculum helpful to fulfil needs of teachers and their expectations? Whether curriculum has potential to develop knowledge, skills, and dispositions? How much is theoretical and practical input is in rest of the curriculum contents? Data disclose significant weaknesses in the curriculum of teacher education

program. Curriculum initiatives can be classified into three categories below: 50%, 50% to 75% and more than 75% of teacher education programs show curriculum effectiveness.

Below 50% effective initiatives were: Curriculum reflected teachers' expectations and concerns, the curriculum included theoretical and practical inputs, a curriculum with the variety of learning experiences, and compatibilities of a curriculum with emerging needs of the society. Information and communication technology is integrated into Curriculum. Fifty percent to 75% effective initiatives were: Relevance of curriculum to develop knowledge, skills and disposition and mandatory courses on the application of the information and communication technology.

More than 75% effective initiatives included: the curriculum includes the minimum duration of the program and course outlines. Curriculums of B.Ed. (1 year) and B.Ed. (4 year) are able to get degree equivalence.

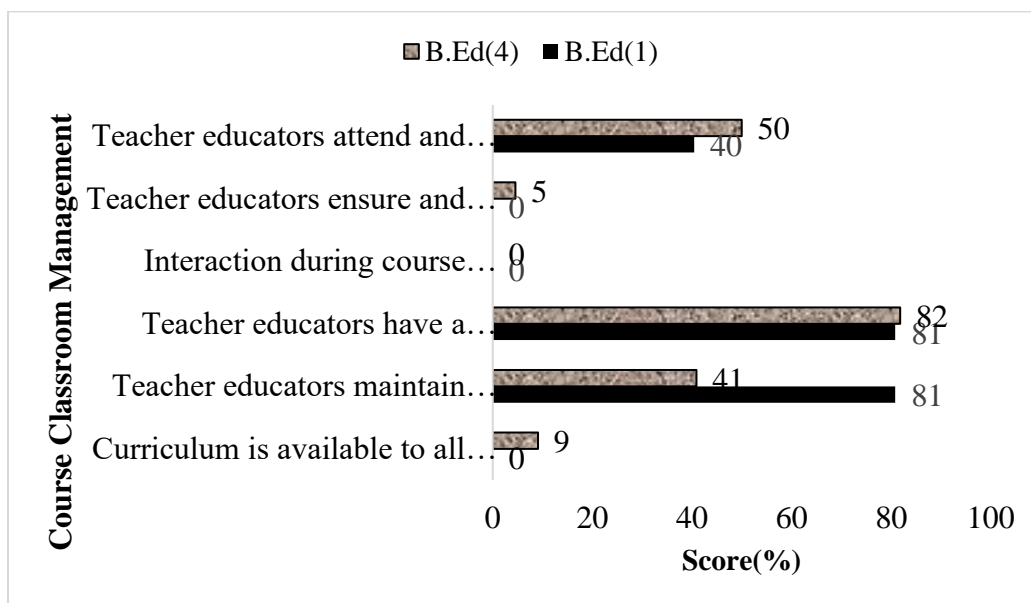


Figure 4: Score (%) on Course Transaction and Classroom Management of B.Ed. (4) and B.Ed. (1) programs

Figure 4 shows Percent scores on Course Transaction and Classroom Management of B.Ed. (1) and B.Ed. (4) programs. Data revealed that curriculum documents were not frequently available to all stakeholders in all teacher educations programs. There was no evidence of frequent effective interaction between the teacher

educators and the prospective teachers and even no efforts were initiated by Teacher educators to create an opportunity for interaction.

The 81% B.Ed. (1year) and 41% B.Ed. (4year) teacher educators maintain mandatory course files and prospective teachers' attendance record. Whereas 82% teacher educators of teacher education programs maintain written course plan and follow it.

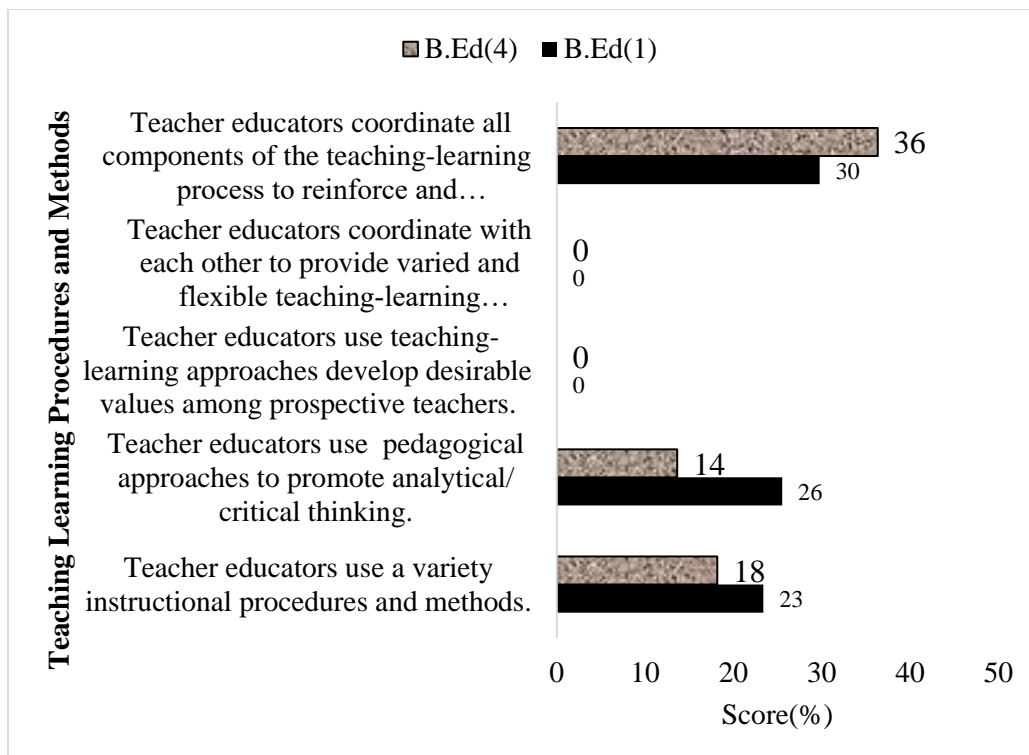


Figure 5: Scores (%) on Teaching Learning Procedures and Methods of B.Ed. (4) and B.Ed. (1) programs

Data revealed some alarming perceptions among the prospective teachers that teacher educators were not using any type of strategies to develop desirable values and there was no sharing of experience of teaching and learning among teacher educators. Fourteen Percent B.Ed. (4) and 26% B.Ed. (1) teacher education programs use pedagogical approaches to promote analytical and critical thinking. Only 18% B.Ed. (4) and 23% B.Ed. (1) teacher education programs used a variety of instructional procedures and methods in the classroom. However, 36% B.Ed. (4) and 30% B.Ed. (1) teacher

educators coordinated all components of the teaching-learning process to reinforce and complement each other.

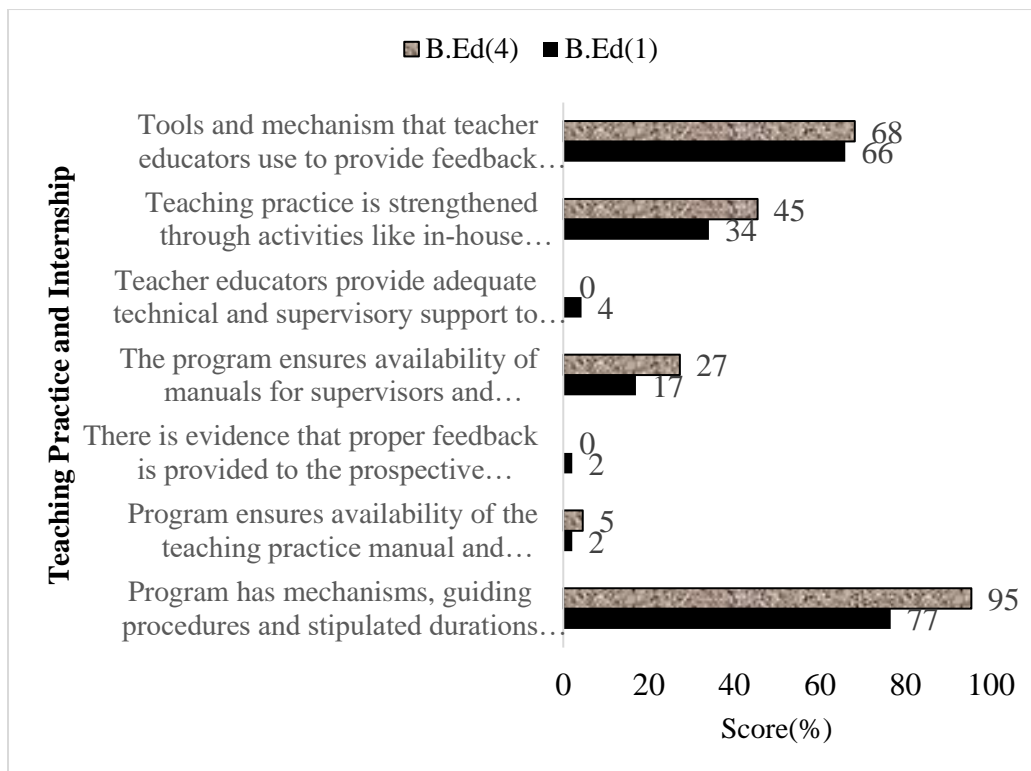


Figure 6: Scores (%) on teaching practice and internship of B.Ed. (4) and B.Ed. (1) programs

Data indicated that almost all programs had procedures and stipulated durations for teaching practice/internship and mechanism for teacher educators used to provide feedback to prospective teachers on their teaching and conduct during the teaching practice.

A few institutions have teaching practice manual and planner for prospective teachers, proper feedback regarding their teaching practice and internship, few programs had manuals for supervisors, cooperative teachers and facilitators to provide adequate technical and supervisory support to the prospective teachers doing their practice/internship in the cooperative schools. For strengthening the practice teaching in-house orientations, simulated practice and microteaching also were missing from many programs.

Discussion

The focus of the study was on four important components of teacher education i.e. curriculum, classroom management, teaching methods and teaching practice. These are pillars of teacher education system. For discussion, all issues can be summarised into three areas; Bottom line areas, middle areas, and better areas. The bottom line issues are those which have not yet been initiated and need the sound strategy and plan for initiation.

Curriculum documents were not available to all key stakeholders; seminars and meetings were not conducted to align curriculum with the national professional standards for teachers. Frequent interaction within and outside the class between teacher educators and prospective teachers was not encouraged. Teacher educators were not using teaching-learning approaches to develop desirable values among the prospective teachers. Teacher educators did not coordinate with each other for sharing teacher learning experiences. Teaching practice manuals were not developed in most of the teacher education institutions and no supervisory and technical support was provided to the prospective teachers. There was no proper mechanism for feedback on prospective teachers learning and performance. The curriculum content was not compatible with the changing and emerging needs of the society. There was no provision for periodic and research-based revision of the curriculum to achieve the stated objectives effectively. Course outlines did not provide lists of websites and recommended books of recent editions for each course. Most of the Teacher educators did not use a variety of appropriate and effective instructional procedures and methods. Teacher educators were not using innovative and relevant pedagogical approaches and strategies to promote analytical/ critical thinking and problem-solving skills among the prospective teachers. The revisions/ updates of the curriculum were less disseminated and shared with the concerned Teacher Education Institutions.

The curriculum was approved by the competent authority. Teaching practice was strengthened through activities like in-house orientations, simulated practice, and microteaching. The curriculum content provided a variety of learning experiences in the institution and in the practicing school. The curriculum content was inclusive enough to effectively reflect and include the concerns and expectations of a teacher. Teacher educators attended to and facilitated the resolution of difficulties faced by the prospective teachers in their learning process. The curriculum development process involved the key stakeholders.

The curricula were designed in line with the provisions of the national professional standards for teachers. The programs included mandatory courses on the application of Information and Communication Technology. There were prescribed tools and mechanisms that teacher educators used to provide feedback to the prospective teachers in their teaching. The program had mechanisms, guiding procedures and stipulated durations for teaching practice/internship. The curriculum document included

duration of the program (number of years, semesters and credit hours) and course outlines. Teacher educators maintained mandatory course files and prospective teachers' attendance record. There was evidence that the teacher educators had a written course plan and they followed it. The course credit hours and duration of concurrent degree program was equal to relevant and equivalent degrees. The course credit hours and duration of the program met the minimum requirements of the Higher Education Commission. The curriculum content and duration of program /courses were compatible with each other.

Data revealed some mismatch between curriculum standards and the National professional standards of teacher education. Fifty-eight percent B.Ed. (1) and 71% B.Ed. (4) curriculum had alignment with the national professional standards for teachers. Inconsistency and lack of coherence in the curriculum of teacher education programmes of Pakistan were observed in many studies (Mahmood, 2014; Memon, 2007; Kanu, 2005). The major agents of teacher education are still not active. As a result, no significant change at school level is observed. According to Memon (2007), many educational reforms in teacher education were initiated in public schools but their area was limited. "Teaching techniques such as group work, problem-solving, and activity approaches are lectured about, but are not practiced by the trainers. The trainees are not involved in any of the activities or practical work suggested in the syllabi. As a consequence, the student teachers go to their classrooms and teach exactly the way they were taught" (USAID, 2007 p.7).

Any program for human training and development has some infrastructure and logistics to ensure its success and existence. Houses have some infrastructure but the transition from house to home require some life and life events. Teacher education programs are houses but a lot of effort, wisdom, and commitment are required to convert them into sweet homes. The condition of teacher education programs in Pakistan has been gradually on a decline for many decades. There are big investments and personalities but there is no productive and innovative initiative and no link with real school life and its ongoing practices. Major problems of Teacher education in Pakistan are lack of consistent policy, inconsistencies in curriculum, lack of resources, incompetent and irrelevant teachers, traditional and ineffective teaching process (The British Council, 1988, Farooq, 1994; Ali, 2006; Saeed, 2007; Haider, 2008; Bilal & Khan, 2012, Mahmood, 2014).

Conclusion

The evaluation of teacher education programs is based on multi-sources and evidences. It is for the first time in the history of Pakistan, that data was gathered through reliable, relevant and authentic resources. After the collection process, data were shared with the concerned teacher education programs to check any inconsistency. However, where subjectivity was involved, it was reduced using multiple sources. The qualifying scores were awarded on the basis of evidence.

After the development of the curriculum, the curriculum was approved by competent authorities; Curriculum revision and curriculum dissemination were not planned systematically and carried out without commitment and periodic expectations. Teachers teach the classes regularly but practice traditional methods of teaching and rarely use appropriate and effective instructional procedures and methods. There is need to inculcate new teaching approaches for developing critical thinking and problem-solving abilities among the prospective teachers. Teachers' coordination and cooperation for varied and flexible teaching-learning experiences were not established. Teaching practice and internship play very important role in training and improving prospective teachers, work performance and for the teacher educators to get feedback on their practices. Teaching practice and internships are the permanent part of all teacher education institutions but teaching practice manual, mentoring/monitoring, and feedback components were not strong enough to give the desired results.

References

- Ali, S. (2006). Why does policy fail? Understanding the problems of policy implementation in Pakistan a neurocognitive perspective. *International Studies in Educational Administration*, 34(1), pp 220.
- Bilal, M., & Khan, I. (2012). Issues and prospects behind the depressed higher education in Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary journal of contemporary research in business*, 4(7), 157.
- Chambliss, J. M. & Calfee, C. R. (1998). *Textbooks for learning: Nurturing children's minds*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Churyk, N. T., & Yu, S. C. (2015). Reducing the observed curriculum perception gaps between stakeholders. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 29, 1.
- De Coninck, C. (2008). Core affairs: Flanders, Belgium: Case studies basic education in Europe.
- Dougherty, C., & Rutherford, J. (2009). The NCEA Core Practice Framework: An Organizing Guide to Sustained School Improvement. National Centre for Educational Achievement.
- Farooq, R.A. (1994). *Education System in Pakistan*. Islamabad: Asia Society for Promotion on Innovation and Reform in Education.
- Flores, M. A., Santos, P., Fernandes, S., & Pereira, D. (2014). Pre-service teachers' views of their training: key issues to sustain quality teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education for Sustainability*, 16(2), 39-53.
- Fullan, M. (2005). *The Tri-level Solution. Education Analyst-Society for the Advancement of Excellence in Education*. London: Mc Graw Hill.

- Government of Pakistan. (2009). *National professional standards for teachers in Pakistan*. Islamabad: Policy and planning Wing Ministry of Education.
- Haider, S. Z. (2008). Challenges in higher education: Special reference to Pakistan and South Asian developing countries. *Nonpartisan education review*, 2.
- Higher education commission Pakistan. (2010). *Curriculum of education for B.Ed. (1) (Hons.) 4-year degree program (Elementary & Secondary)*. Islamabad: Curriculum division, HEC.
- Kanu, Y. (2005). Tensions and dilemmas of cross-cultural transfer of knowledge: post-structural/postcolonial reflections on an innovative teacher education in Pakistan. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 25(5), 493-513.
- Mahmood, K. (2014). The Silent Revolution: Rethinking Teacher Education in Pakistan. *Journal of Research*, 8(2), 146-161.
- Memon, G. R. (2007). Education in Pakistan: The key issues, problems and the new challenges. *Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 3(1), 47-55.
- Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(7), pp. 157-172.
- Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Saeed, M. (2007). Education System of Pakistan and the UK: Comparisons in context to inter-provincial and inter-countries reflections. *Bulletin of Education & Research*, 29(2), pp. 43-57.
- Sykes, G., T. Bird, & M. Kennedy. (2010). Teacher Education: Its Problems and Some Prospects. *Journal of Teacher Education* 61 (5): 464–476.
- The British Council (1988). *A Survey of Teacher Training in Pakistan*. Islamabad: Overseas Development Agency, The British Council.
- UNESCO (2009). *EFA Global Monitoring Report: Overcoming Inequality. Why Governance Matters*. Paris: UNESCO.
- USAID (2007). *Assessment of the Pakistan Teacher Education and Professional Development Program (PTEPDP)*. Islamabad.
- Zeichner, K. (2003). The adequacies and inadequacies of three current strategies to recruit, prepare, and retain the best teachers for all students. *The Teachers College Record*, 105(3), 490-519.

Accreditation and Quality Enhancement Dynamics in Higher Education

Hina Jalal*

Muhammad Ayub Buzdar**

Muhammad Naeem Mohsin***

Abstract

The perspective of accreditation and quality enhancement in terms of collaborative practices framed the best model of quality assurance. Accreditation and quality enhancement cells are the main approaches of quality assurance mechanism. This study described the accreditation and quality enhancement dynamics towards programs quality and development of graduate attributes. This study adopted qualitative research methodology. The sample of this study comprised of 3 members NACTE, 3 members of PEC, and 21 directors of QECs. This research employed qualitative research approach, using semi-structured interviews as data collection instrument. Findings of this study explored that NACTE, PEC, and QECs plays limited roles to assure quality of faculty, quality of curriculum, bridging skills gap, development of graduate attributes, and eliminating conflict of interest, academic corruption, and political interferences in higher education. These lacks increase the challenges of NACTE, PEC and QECs to assure program quality in terms of responding towards working world. This study proposed that direct links of accreditation and QECs practices make them more effective divisions of quality assurance mechanism to assure program quality and graduate attributes.

Keywords: Accreditation; Quality enhancement; Graduates' attributes

Introduction

Quality assurance refers to the degree of confidence that academic provision meets predefined standards (DePaor, 2016). Quality assurance (QA) mechanism monitor quality of higher education through policies, procedures, and practices of internal and external approaches (Verma, 2016; Williams, 2016). Internal and external segments of quality assurance are complementary to each other (Paor, 2016). The multifaceted nature of QA has driven through accreditation. Accreditation is the main division of quality assurance mechanism. Accreditation is a third-party peer review process (Theobald, Gardner, & Long, 2017). In last three decades, accreditation changed from traditional

* PhD Scholar, Department of Education, Government College University Faisalabad

** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, Government College University Faisalabad, ayubbuzdar@gmail.com (Corresponding Author)

*** Associate Professor, Department of Education, Government College University Faisalabad

independent monitoring system to the subject of national needs. This change influenced higher education sectors greatly (Liu, Tan, & Meng, 2015). Meanwhile, quality enhancement serves the quality assurance mechanism as augmentation of higher education institutions. It serves both improvements in individuals' learning and institutional programs. Quality enhancement regulates and improve the existing system of progression as per predefined standards (Hina & Ajmal, 2016).

In case of Pakistan, quality assurance agency (QAA) evaluates effectiveness of higher education institution through internal and external quality assurance divisions. Internal quality assurance (IQA) is a self-developed mechanism. IQA carried out by the institutions itself to align activities with pre-set goals (Haider, ul Husnain, Shaheen, & Jabeen, 2015). Whereas, External Quality Assurance (EQA) executes through accreditation councils. QAA works through QECs and accreditation councils. QECs executes the policies of IQA. Accreditation performs as EQA in higher education. Higher education commission (HEC) made establishment of QECs compulsory in every HEI. QECs coordinate with accreditation to streamline quality of programs ("Institutional Performance Evaluation Process Manual for Eight Standards," 2011). HEC has two tier of accreditation as institutional accreditation and program accreditation. Institutional accreditation undertakes by HEC. Program accreditation carried out through accreditation councils. Accreditation councils are working in collaboration with QAA and HEC. HEC has aim that universities' institutional internal quality assurance should parallel to the national external quality assurance system (Batool & Qureshi, 2009).

Present Research

However, HEC took many short and long-term initiative to compel approaches of quality assurance. Yet, still HEC is far away to achieve its objectives(Qureshi, 2016). The issue of quality in higher education as increasing as growth of HEIs and programs. The state of quality in higher education is not encouraging (Haider et al., 2015). This condition raised many questions on the effectiveness of QAA, accreditation, and QECs process of quality assurance. It is necessary to analyse quality assurance approaches in contemporary higher education system. The current study investigated the accreditation and quality enhancement dynamics in higher education of Pakistan. It focused on practices of accreditation council and QECs to scrutinize the quality of programs and development of graduate attributes. As well as, this study analysed the program quality process whereby accreditation and quality enhancement directly interact as professional drivers of quality assurance.

Research Objectives

This study explored accreditation and quality enhancement dynamics to promote program quality and graduate attributes in higher education. Following research objectives were formulated by the researchers:

1. To examine the role of accreditation councils in program quality assurance and development of graduates' attributes.
2. To investigate the challenges of accreditation councils in program quality assurance.
3. To find out the contribution of QECs in program quality enhancement and development of graduates' attributes.
4. To explore the challenges of QECs to practice quality enhancement in higher education institutions.
5. To examine the extent in which accreditation councils and QECs share their balance practices for quality assurance

Research Questions

The following questions were made by the researchers to meet research objectives:

1. How does national accreditation council for teacher education (NACTE) play its role to assure program quality and development of graduates' attributes in Pakistan?
2. What challenges of NACTE faces to assure program quality and development of graduates' attributes?
3. How does Pakistan engineering council (PEC) play its role to assure program quality and development of graduates' attributes in Pakistan?
4. What challenges of PEC faces to assure program quality and development of graduates' attributes?
5. How do QECs contribute to promote quality enhancement in higher education?
6. What type of challenges directors of QECs face to enhance program quality and develop of graduates' attributes in higher education institutions?
7. To what extent accreditation councils and QECs are cooperate to each other for program quality assurance?

Research Methodology

The present research was qualitative in its nature. The phenomenological approach was adopted to achieve research objectives. As, phenomenological approach helps the researchers to investigate perceptions of participants who experience phenomena and identify the commonalities among participants (Fraenkel et al., 2016). The researchers used multiphase sampling technique to select the sample for this study. Two councils NACTE and PEC were purposively selected. 3 members of NACTE and 3 members of PEC were conveniently selected. There were two male and one female members of NACTE. The members of NACTE were also related to the academia with more than 15 years of experience. The members of PEC were associated to the academia with more than 25 years of experience. 21 directors of QECs associated with 24 public and private universities in Punjab and Capital City Islamabad were randomly selected. There were two female and 19 male directors of QECs. 17 directors have the experience of directorship more than five years, while, 4 directors were experienced the QECs'

conflict of interest on accreditation process, and graduate attributes in NACTE and PEC process were covered the average area equally.

Figure 3 displays the comparative extent of coding references to the contemplation of members of NACTE and PEC. The coding matrix query presents data proportionally to accreditation council. Matrix coding query demonstrate the length of discussions of members on various themes. The result of coding matrix query show that members of NACTE talked more about the challenges of council, conflict of interest, effect of academic corruption on accreditation process, reflection of program quality in graduates, graduates' attributes in accreditation process, and strengths of accreditation council than that of PEC's members.

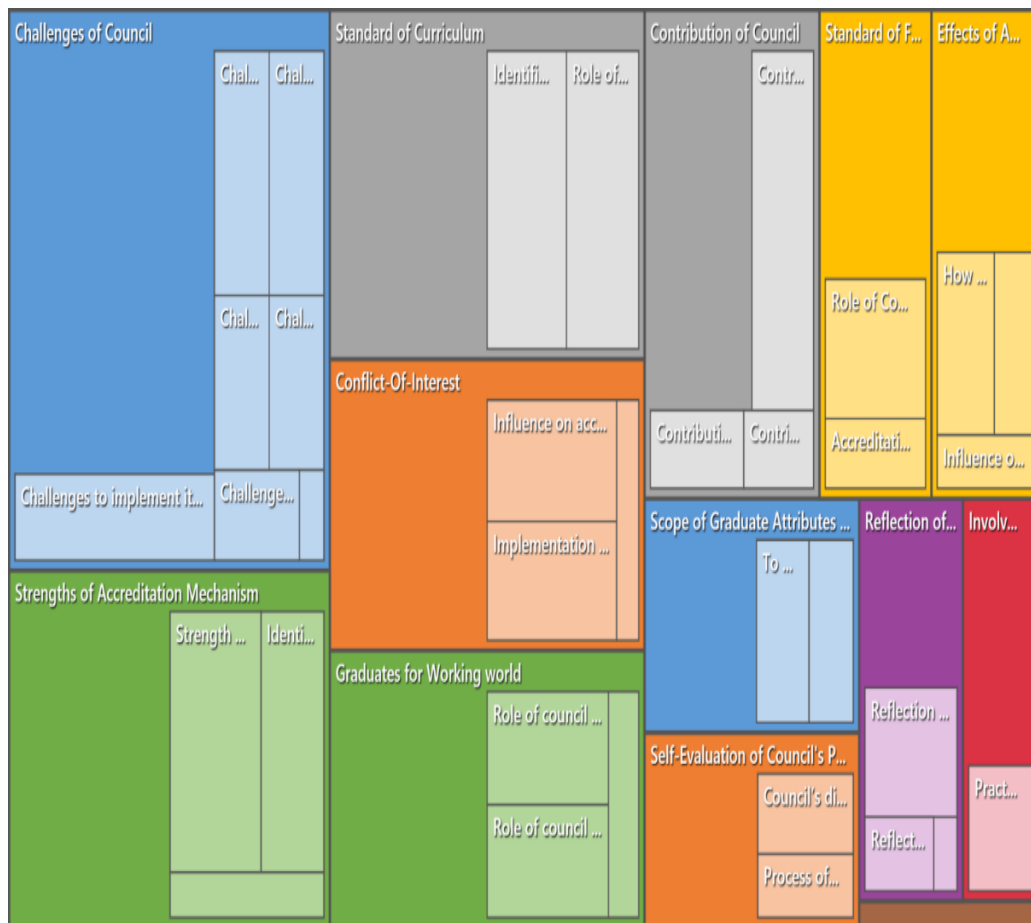


Figure 2. Hierarchy nodes compared by number of coding references to extent of coding references

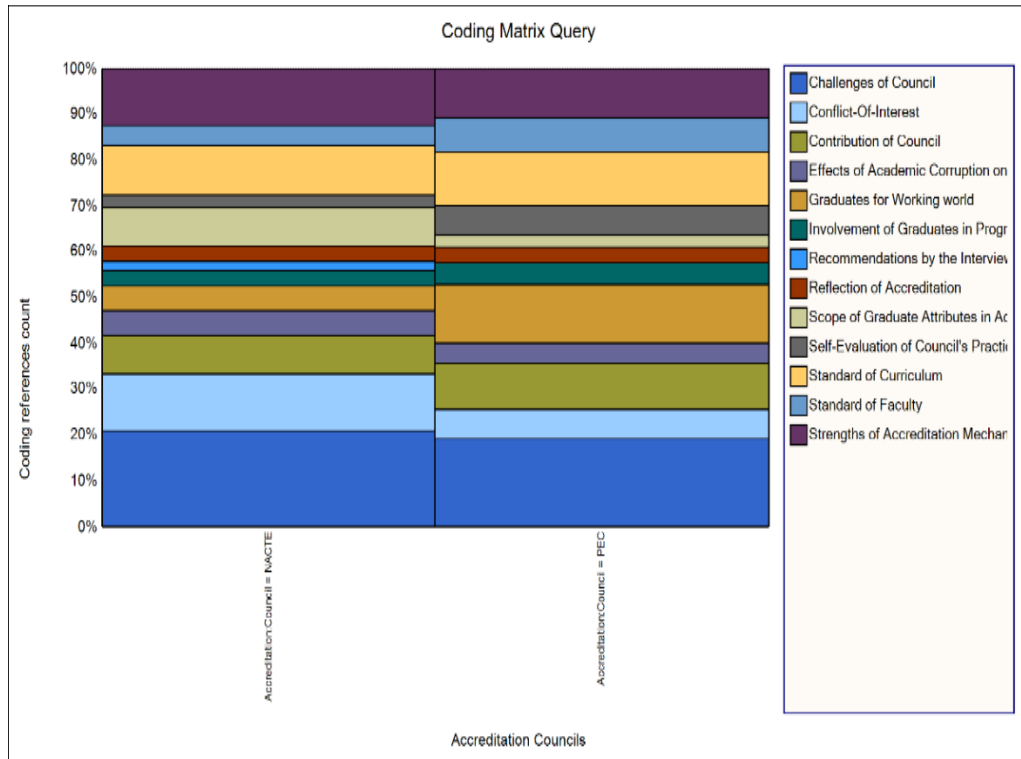


Figure 3. Matrix Coding Query to compare the extent of coding references

Whereas, members of PEC talked much about development of graduates' attributes for working world, involvement of graduates' attributes in accreditation process, quality assurance of curriculum, and quality of faculty than that of NACTE's members. Members of NACTE and PEC equally discussed about the contribution of council and self-accreditation of council.

Analysis of Data Collected from the Directors of QECs

In initial analysis, word cloud used to identify the words image. The words in big sizes demonstrate the more attention of interviewees than that of smaller words (Figure 4). In next analysis, the query of hierarchy of nodes compared by number of coding references of sources was ran (figure 5). The area of challenges faced by the QECs emerges bigger than other nodes. After challenges, global compatibility of QECs practices and scope of graduate attributes in quality enhancement are covering large area.



Figure 4. Word tag cloud to display frequently used words on different patterns

The other nodes extent as QECs practices to measure program quality inside the institution, contribution of QECs in external program quality assessment, Role of QECs in promoting program quality enhancement, role of QECs in reflection of program quality enhancement in graduates, institution cooperation with QECs, and suggestions provided by the directors to tackle challenges reveal extent of interviewees discussion.

The researchers ran coding matrix query to display the comparative extent of coding references in terms of directors associated with public and private HEIs (Figure 6). The coding matrix query shows that the directors of public sector HEIs explained more about challenges of directors, institutions corporation with directors, QECs assessment practices, and suggestions for improvements than that of directors of QECs private HEIs. The directors of private sector HEIs talked more about global compatibility of QECs practices, reflection of quality enhancement, and graduates' attributes in quality enhancement than that of directors of public sector HEIs. Both sectors are equal in covering the matrix area on contribution of QECs in quality enhancement (Figure 6).

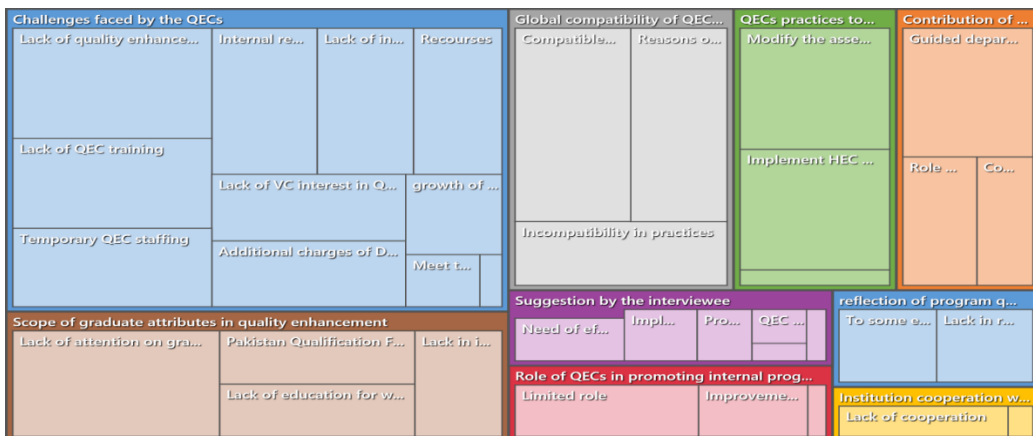


Figure 5. Hierarchy node s compared by number of coding references to display extent of coding references

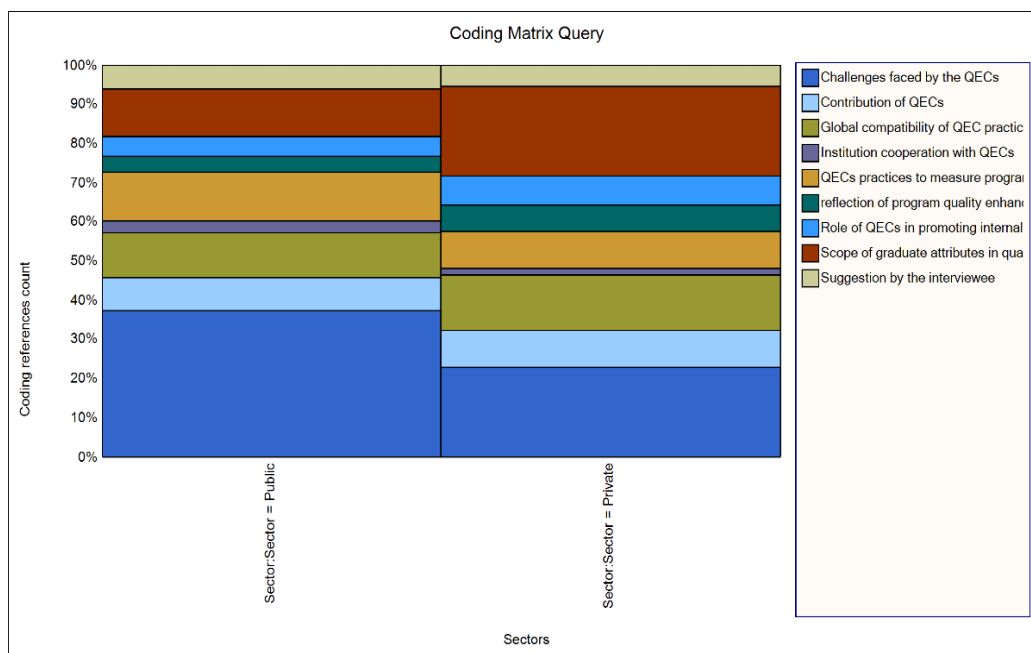


Figure 6. Matrix coding query to compare the extent of coding references

Research Findings

The findings of qualitative data of this study revealed the role and challenges of NACTE, PEC, and QEC in program quality assurance and graduates' attributes development. The themes of interviews emerged through the interviews of members of NACTE, members of PEC, and directors of QECs' agreements. The following are the findings on various themes of interviews.

Strengths of NACTE/PEC Mechanism for Programs Quality Assurance

The members of the NACTE expressed that the mechanism of NACTE was very effective as it was improving the MA/MEd programs' quality. Members of PEC also showed the same perspective as their strength of PEC mechanism was in the improvement of engineering programs quality. However, members of PEC added that full signatory status of Washington Accord (WA) made PEC more effective. The NACTE member added that *"NACTE provides a proper framework to run department and program of teacher education. In past, we neglect this, but now this is happening practically. This framework places in education field and now keep in proper record to facilitate the NACTE mechanism"*. Members of PEC showed the same perspective that full signatory status of Washington Accord (WA) makes PEC more effective mechanism. A member of PEC said that *"PEC has the strongest and experienced committees in council...which are the largest panel of member in accreditation in Pakistan. The members of the accreditation*

committee are the most experiences, trained, and professional in comparison to the other councils". Finding of directors of QECs shows similar context as directors that the structure of QECs is compatible to the global standards of quality enhancement yet there are many lacks in implementations. A director of QEC from public sector "Basically, the QECs are UK based mechanism, and 60 percent or criteria are adopted. We are also following the QS ranking. So, the mechanism is compatible to global requirement. The problem is in involvement and implementation".

Contribution of NACTE/PEC in Program Quality Assurance

Members of NACTE believed that the major contribution of council is setting minimum standards for program quality. A member of NACTE explained that "NACTE is very important organization. Since, the acceptance of NACTE, the standards for teacher education, educators, and teacher education programs are going to be enhanced day by day". Members of PEC stated that contribution of PEC is that threshold standards for engineering programs and achieving full signatory status of WA. A member of PEC expressed that "The major contribution of PEC is its criteria to assess the quality. These parameters set the quality standards in engineering. These standards assure the quality which is great contribution". The directors of QECs demonstrated that QECs are only implementing HEC standards and enhance quality in HEIs. This is the QECs major contribution to meet those standards set by HEC.

Reflection of Program Quality in Students and Graduates

Members of NACTE stated that quality of educational programs is not reflecting in graduates. One male member of NACTE said that "I have believed that NACTE has a big role to play for the improvement of teacher education program and for the improvement of education as subject as well. There is still a gape. it does not fully reflect". Majority of PEC members believed that quality of program reflects in graduates through PEC's standards. A member mentioned that, "We assure the quality of engineering for the students. We also periodically assess the satisfaction level of students from our faculty, facilities, and other academic things. This enables quality to reflect in students". Directors believed that there is lack of quality enhancement reflection in graduates. A director of private sector QEC stated that "Still, it is not reflecting. It is not happening in Pakistan. It is not implemented. In my point of view, graduates are not taking any benefit from this". The directors' answers exhibit that there is very limited role of graduate attributes in quality enhancement practices.

Graduate Attributes in NACTE/PEC Process

The members of NACTE admitted that there is no assurance of graduate attributes. A senior member of NACTE explained that "NACTE is not properly evaluate attributes or students' quality. It is only evaluating program quality rather to monitor students' quality in teacher education. The major focus of NACTE is on program quality. The documentation of NACTE is not including graduates' quality assurance". Whereas,

members of PEC explained that PEC is conscious to implement the engineer profile of WA as graduate attributes in all disciplines of engineering. A senior member of PEC stated that *“there are 12 graduate attributes and we are trying to successfully adopt in manual. So, we are slowly moving towards at 9 and 5 attributes mechanism, at this moment most you know 90% institutions are not on that criteria of international standards”*.

Influence of Conflict-Of-Interest on NACTE/PEC Process

Most members of NACTE agreed that conflict of interest influenced NACTE's process. A member explained that *“Everyone has affiliations, whether individual or regional affiliations. So, I am not in the part of implementations, but NACTE should be careful of being transparent and unbiased in the process of accreditation”*. Most of PEC members admitted that to some extent conflict of interest influences the accreditation process. A senior most member of PEC stated that *“As I said before. It is default of accreditation process system. In the context of higher education, it is like you scratch my back and I scratch your, that is the conflict of interest”*.

Academic Corruption that Influence Accreditation Process

Majority members of NACTE admitted that academic corruption influence accreditation process. One male member of NACTE expressed *“That it can influence, for example if I go to the organization for accreditation, it depends on my honesty and professionalism. This is the biggest issue. Some may be happy with this. It influences the accreditation process”*. Most of members of PEC disclosed that to some extent corruption influence accreditation practices and decisions. One member said that *“I do not think that PEC undertakes task of eliminating corruption in the academic”*.

Self-accreditation of NACTE/PEC Practices

The members of NACTE mentioned that there is annual reporting and review system to evaluate NACTE's activities. The NACTE member suggested that *“I believe NACTE needs more work to accredit its activities”*. While, members of PEC said that PEC reviews the activities of accreditation annually through Annual General Meeting (AGM) consists of members and governing body. As one of member specified that *“Well, Pakistan Engineering Council has obvious functions and those functions are being supervised by the boards which are called the Board of Governor or a Governing party and obviously, the entire report annually is being produced the governing body and then it is being to produce to the Annual General Meeting (AGM) all the entire engineers and open meeting is called by the all members. So, that audit is being carried out internally by Board of Governor”*.

Assurance of Quality of Curriculum by NACTE/PEC

Members of NACTE explained that there is standard of curriculum but there is need to assure it through teaching, upgradation, and revision. One NACTE member highlighted that *“Teacher education program revolves around the professional standards. There are the characteristics of good teacher in teacher education curriculum. But the*

National Curriculum Review Committee does not take care of the compatibility of these things". Similarly, members of PEC pointed out that PEC is assuring the quality of engineering curriculum through its standards and criteria, but curriculum should be upgraded and revised. One PEC member said that "Pakistan Engineering Council also analysed the curriculum because this is a team who has experience of looking at the curriculum of many other similar institutions as well. So, during the visitation, they always guide and recommended with their report what changes they think we should have carried out".

Assurance of Quality of Faculty by NACTE/PEC

The majority members of NACTE stated that there is standard on quality of faculty. But it is documental mostly. One NACTE members admitted that there are lacks in accreditation process to investigate the criteria of faculty. The member said that *"It is very important what our teachers have for the field of education. I think, there are still lacks in our recruitment process. This creates sometimes issues in the quality of faculty"*. Besides this, members of PEC mentioned that PEC is strict about standard of faculty but agreed that there is lack of professionalism. A member explained that *"PEC strict to its standard on faculty, in which qualification, strength, experience, credit hours, involvement in research and development, ratio of faculty and students, and continues development in profession. PEC while conducting its visit, grace the faculty pyramids and if an institution does not have those of amount of faculty, it will deprive of accreditation. Another very important factor that PEC generally does not encourage the institution to hire visiting faculty"*.

Role of NACTE/PEC to Bridge Gap Between Graduates and Industries

NACTE members explored that NACTE is not responsible to bridge gap between graduates and industries. A member stated that *"There is no role of NACTE to bridge the gap between them all these rules and regulations are made by the government. The government should have to keep all these matters in mind. But government use parallel option against the graduates of teacher education"*. The member of PEC explained that *"In case of PEC, who authorize PEC to remove this gap? No one. Even not government helps the PEC to enable our engineers to compete in working world. Even government does not implement PEC buildings codes, earthquake codes and precautions and others. Then what PEC does"?*

Challenges of NACTE/PEC to Assure Educational Program Quality

The NACTE members disclose that there is lack of accreditation awareness which is the biggest challenge for council. One male member said that *"The NACTE is an international phenomena and people do not accept change immediately"*. A member of NACTE explained that *"Now, we are only 3 to 4 persons (who) working in NACTE, who looking after accreditation in all over the country and there are 5 to 6 hundred institutions who engage in teacher education programs"*. The members of PEC explained the

challenges of PEC in various perspectives. One senior member explained that *“PEC implements all its initiatives is a biggest challenge”*. He also added that *“to limit the excessive numbers of engineers in Pakistan is another challenge”*. He further stated that *“Conflict of interests, in my point of view is the biggest challenge to the accreditation committee which is EANQEC. They get this challenge. Sooner or later we will come out of this dilemma and we need to have very neutral place. At last, no merit system is the also biggest challenge in this entire country”*. A senior PEC’s member stated that *“The research and development side is also neglecting in Pakistan”*. The PEC’s member said that *“The another, which is real challenge, a homogeneous set of inspection profession also. We need more professional, expert, and experiences accreditors”*. Another member added that *“more training of the evaluators”*.

Majority of directors are agreed that the biggest challenges are: additional charges of directors, lack of institutional corporation, resources, and trainings. One of director also criticized the institutional administration and said that *“The proposal of QEC is not compatibility to the administration. The grouping and nepotism in our public sector is also main hurdle of QEC”*. One of director from the pioneer QEC of public sector said that *“The biggest challenge is that society must realize and care about quality of higher education. They must have to realize how much quality of higher education is important for future. So, to disseminate this is a biggest challenge”*.

Institution cooperation with QECs

The findings disclosed that most of the departments in HEIS do not corporate with the directors of QECs in QECs practices. A senior director from private sector strongly emphasized that *“This is true the departments are not cooperative in most of the universities. It is a hassle work. It is not that much easy to convince heads of the departments and people of department to write SARs”*. It is found that directors in HEIS have limited authorities to work independently.

Accreditation Councils and QECs

It is found that there is no direct links between NACTE/PEC and QECs. Accreditation councils do not have any straight contact to the QECs for evidences program evaluation. QECs only encourage the departments for accreditation as facilitator. An experienced director of QEC from private sector said that *“It is very limited. HEC just provide guidelines and forced institutions to establish QEC. Nevertheless, QECs try to guide the department for program accreditation as mediocre”*.

Discussion

This study sought to analyse the dynamics of accreditation and quality enhancement regarding program quality and graduate attributes. The current study investigated the role, influential factors, and challenges of NACTE, PEC, and QECs. It is found that the mechanism of NACTE was very effective as it was improving the teacher

education programs' quality. However, members of PEC added that full signatory status of Washington Accord (WA) made PEC more effective. These findings are related to the studies of Ard, Beasley, and Nunn-Ellison (2017), Hegji (2017), and Mendoza (2013) that accreditation was one of the most effective mechanism to evaluate educational programs. As, directors of QECs appreciated the mechanism of QECs, yet, they also mentioned there were many challenges to implement QECs' framework in HEIs. Findings from QECs, relate to the study of Haider, ul Husnain, Shaheen, and Jabeen (2015), as, they pointed out that QECs policy unsuccessfully implemented in higher education institutions.

NACTE was improving quality of teacher education programs in teacher education through NACTE's standards. While, members of PEC stated that PEC was contributing not only in improvement of engineering programs but regulate professionalism through its standards. The directors of QECs demonstrated that QECs were only implemented guidelines of HEC to enhance quality in HEIs. Some of members of NACTE believed that quality of programs is not fully reflect in our students. These finding are against the study of Hegji (2017) that framework of accreditation should shift to evaluate students acquired learning skills. On the other hand, majority of member of PEC believed that quality of program reflects in students through the implementation of PEC standards. Directors of QECs believed that there was lack of quality reflection in graduates. These findings relate to the study of Yingqiang and Yongjian (2016), and Theobald, Gardner, and Long (2017). They pointed out that quality assurance in higher education should go beyond traditional assessment and needs reflection in their stakeholders on through innovative procedures.

The members of NACTE admitted that NACTE was not observe graduate attributes in accreditation process. Whereas, members of PEC explained that PEC was very serious to implement the graduate attributes adopted from WA. The findings showed that members of NACTE declared that NACTE neither responsible nor playing any role to bridge the gap between graduates and working world. Whereas, members of PEC agreed that there was criterion on industrial linkages but PEC was limited to play its role about bridging skill gap. Likewise, directors of QECs expressed that QECs conducted graduates and employees' feedback surveys but there was nothing in practice to bridge the gap. These findings relate to the study of Filippetti and Savona (2017), and Garfolo and L'Huillier (2015). They discussed this gap as shortfall of accreditation bodies. They pointed out that accreditation should provide assurance of program quality which aligned with working world. Majority of members from NACTE and PEC agreed that conflict of interest influenced accreditation practices and decisions as well. This finding against the ethical considerations as mentioned in the study of Neill (2016). He suggested that practitioners should pursue accreditation which provide training of ethics in practice. The findings from NACTE and PEC regarding conflict-of-interest, were identical to the study

of Hegji (2017). He critically reviewed that conflict of interest was biggest shortfall in accreditation process.

Meanwhile, majority of NACTE members admitted that academic corruption influenced both accreditation practices and decisions. Most of members of PEC disclosed that to some extent corruption influenced accreditation practices and decisions. This was one of major finding which was similar to the studies of Capasso & Santoro (2017), Feday (2017), and Tierney & Sabharwal (2017). These studies discussed that academic dishonesty and corruption greatly influenced the structure of higher education. Additionally, Martin (2016) suggested that quality assurance organization should prevent corruption in its procedures. Furthermore, it is found that NACTE needs transparency in their accreditation process and practices as well. Similarly, the study of Hegji (2017) criticized accreditation that it should have potential to be transparent and well informed to their customers. Majority members of NACTE and PEC stated that politicians indirectly influenced the accreditation process. This finding related to the study of Ibad (2017) that politicization in HEIs was the destruction of our learning outcomes. The members of NACTE mentioned that council engaged in self-evaluation process through annual review system to the members. While, PEC was not only review the activities of accreditation annually but also conducted Annual General Meeting (AGM) consists of members and governing body. As (Garfolo & L'Huillier, 2015) criticized that accreditation bodies needed greater accountability process to review their own findings and activities.

Hence, the members of NACTE identified that there was standard on teacher education curriculum but there was need of proper presentation, upgradation, and revision of curriculum. Similarly, members of PEC pointed out that PEC was assuring the quality of engineering curriculum through its standards and criteria, but curriculum should be upgraded and revised. These findings were associated to the study of Ashraf, Muhammad Azeem, and Hafiza Iqra Ismat (2016), who reviewed that outdated curriculum decreased educational quality. The other findings exhibit that members of NACTE stated that there was standard on quality of faculty. But it was only documental and numbering type criteria. There was lack in practices to assure the quality of faculty. Besides this, members of PEC mentioned that PEC was strictly looked at the quality of faculty. However, members of PEC agreed that there was lack of professionalism in engineering faculty. Such as, study of Ahlem (2016) explored that ensuring quality of teaching should occupy in quality assurance organizational structure.

This study revealed that NACTE faced several challenges as: stimulating HEIs towards accreditation, developing program quality accreditation culture, implementing code of conduct for accreditors, brings professionalism in accreditors, trainings for institutional officials for accreditation preparation, training for NACTE's staff, improving quality of teaching faculty to make program quality more effective, and transparency in accreditation process. As much as, members of PEC demonstrate challenges of PEC as:

tackling internal and external resistance to implement policies of PEC, encouraging industries to take interest in academia, control on excessive growth of engineering programs, counselling of private higher education sectors, and reducing gap between PEC and government. The findings regarding challenges of accreditation (NACTE & PEC) were associated to the studies of Debono et al. (2017), Law (2017), Sin, Tavares, and Amaral (2017), Ibad (2017), Denisova-Schmidt, (2017), Greenfield, Hinchcliff, Pawsey, Westbrook, & Braithwaite (2013), Islam, Ali, & Islam (2017), Marklein (2017). These mentioned studies also identify the almost same challenges.

Directors of QECs highlighted the challenges of QECs as: permanent charges of QECs' directors, limited institutional interest, enactment of QECs' policy in institution, developing culture of research and development among teachers, cooperation of administration, temporary QEC staffing, independent practices of QECs inside institutions, and meet the minimum criteria of HEC as possible. Additionally, it is found that QECs were neither directly linked with accreditation body nor play any role for accreditation except encourage department to get status of accreditation. Oppositely to these findings, the study of Sin et al. (2017) suggested that internal quality assurance should work in collaboration with accreditation bodies. Jawad, Jamshaid, and Wahab (2015), and Sin et al. (2017) also expressed that awareness of quality assurance in that area should brought change and improvement in quality assurance practices.

Conclusion

This study investigated that the role of NACTE is very limited to assure quality of curriculum and faculty, reflection of accreditation in graduates, and promoting graduate attributes to bridge skills gap. NACTE is rarely eliminated negative factors that affects the NACTE process such as, conflict of interest, political interference, and academic corruption. Present study concluded that NACTE faced various challenges such as: conflict of interest, academic corruption, and politicians influence, lack of transparency in accreditation process, developing program quality accreditation awareness, training and professionalism of accreditors, trainings of institutions for accreditation preparation, improving quality of teachers, encourage industries to take interest in HEIs, and control on excessive growth of programs. The PEC played limited role regarding expanding accreditation standards with outcome based education, removing gap between academia and industries, implementing graduate attributes by WA, and assurance of curriculum and faculty quality. PEC is faced various challenges as, encourage industries to take interest in academia, control on excessive growth of engineering programs, counselling of private sector, reducing gap between PEC and government, encourage industrial interest of academia, eliminating academic corruption, clear cut policy on conflict of interest, training of accreditors, developing resources for accreditation, including attributes in accreditation and institutional outcomes. QECs' contribution is limited to meet standards of HEIs, act as per HEC's guidelines, making

SARs, and prepare IPE documentations. Nonetheless, the directors of QECs faced various challenges to promote quality enhancement as, additional charges of directors, lack of departmental corporation, limited resources, counselling of vice chancellors to take interest in QEC practices, dominant behaviour of administration, mushroom growth of programs, untrained QECs' staff, and awareness about quality assurance and enhancement. This study also concluded that there is lack of direct relationship between accreditation and QECs which causes gaps in program quality and graduates attributes improvement. However, accreditation and QECs are integral parts of QAA but both have minimal real contacts and work in isolation.

Recommendations

It is recommended that QAA should framed quality assurance practices in which accreditation councils directly contact to the QECs. As well as, this framework privilege QECs to work incorporation with national accreditation councils to enhance and assure program quality. The triangular relationship of accreditation councils, QECs, and HEIs deliberately improve the program quality with equal priorities of internal and external quality assurance. Moreover, this linkage may greatly contribute in development of graduates' attributes for working world. Furthermore, HEC and QAA should also play a role of facilitator to build successful relationship between higher education and industries. Accreditation and QECs should take place to provide benefits for institutions with identification of weak areas for improvements.

References

- Ahlem, S. (2016). Ensuring Quality Teaching of English-speaking Civilization and Culture in Higher Education. 73–63, (43)43, *مجلة العلوم الانسانية*.
- Ard, N., Beasley, S., & Nunn-Ellison, K. (2017). Quality Education Through Accreditation. *Teaching and Learning in Nursing*, 12(2), 85–87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.teln.2017.01.007>
- Ashraf, Muhammad A. & Hafiza I. I. (2016). Education and Development of Pakistan: A Study of Current Situation of Education and Literacy in Pakistan. *US-China Education Review B*, 6(11). <https://doi.org/10.17265/2161-6248/2016.11.003>
- Batool, Z., & Qureshi, R. H. (2009). Quality assurance manual for higher education in Pakistan. *Higher Education Commission, Pakistan*. Retrieved from http://www.iiu.edu.pk/wp-content/uploads/downloads/qec/HEC_Quality_Assurance_Manual_for_Higher_Education_in_Pakistan.pdf
- CAPA's, S., & Santoro, L. (2017). Active and passive corruption: Theory and evidence. *European Journal of Political Economy*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpoleco.2017.05.004>
- Debone, D., Greenfield, D., Testa, L., Mumford, V., Higden, A., Pawley, M., Braithwaite, J. (2017). Understanding stakeholders' perspectives and experiences of general

- practice accreditation. *Health Policy*, 121(7), 816–822.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2017.05.006>
- Denisova-Schmidt, E. (2017). *The Challenges of Academic Integrity in Higher Education: Current Trends and Prospects*. The Boston College Center for International Higher Education (CIHE). Retrieved from <https://www.alexandria.unisg.ch/id/eprint/251258>
- Feday, S. W. (2017). Academic Dishonesty in Ethiopian Higher Education and Its Implication for Corruption. *Beijing Law Review*, 08(01), 10–20.
<https://doi.org/10.4236/blr.2017.81002>
- Filippetti, A., & Savona, M. (2017). University–industry linkages and academic engagements: individual behaviours and firms’ barriers. Introduction to the special section. *The Journal of Technology Transfer*, 42(4), 719–729.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10961-017-9576-x>
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2016). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (International 9th Edition). Singapore: McGraw-Hill Education - Europe.
- Garfolo, B. T., & Huillier, L. B. (2015). Demystifying Assessment: The Road to Accreditation. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning (TLC)*, 12(3), 151–170.
- Greenfield, D., Hinchcliff, R., Pawley, M., Westbrook, J., & Braithwaite, J. (2013). The public disclosure of accreditation information in Australia: Stakeholder perceptions of opportunities and challenges. *Health Policy*, 113(1–2), 151–159.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2013.09.002>
- Haider, A., Ul Husnain, M. I., Shaheen, F., & Jabeen, S. (2015). Quality Assurance of Higher Education in the Context of Performance Models: The Case of Pakistan. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Azad_Haider/publication/280658318_Quality_Assurance_of_Higher_Education_in_the_Context_of_Performance_Models_The_Case_of_Pakistan/links/55c0e10e08aec0e5f448b829.pdf
- Hegji, A. (2017). *An Overview of Accreditation of Higher Education in the United States* (No. R43826). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R43826.pdf>
- Hina, K., & Ajmal, M. (2016). Quality Assurance and Enhancement Mechanism in Tertiary Education of Pakistan: Recent Status, Issues and Expectations. *Pakistan Journal of Education*, 33(1). Retrieved from <http://pje.aiou.edu.pk/journal/index.php/PJE/article/view/13>
- Ibad, F. (2017). Analysis of Pakistan’s educational policy in terms of higher education. *Pakistan Business Review*, 19(1), 273–278.

- Institutional Performance Evaluation Process Manual for Eight Standards. (2011). Retrieved from <http://hec.gov.pk/english/services/universities/QAA/external/QA/IPE/Documents/IPES%20Manual%20for%20Universities%2011%20standards-Final.pdf>
- Islam, G. M. N., Ali, M. I., & Islam, M. Z. (2017). Quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms of higher education institutions: policy issues and challenges in Bangladesh. *European Journal of Education Studies*. Retrieved from <http://edu.oapub.org/index.php/ejes/article/view/658>
- Jawad, S., Jamshaid, I., & Wahab, F. (2015). Quality culture in higher education institutes: perspective of different stakeholders. *VFAST Transactions on Education and Social Sciences*, 6(2). Retrieved from <http://www.vfast.org/index.php/VTESS/article/view/309>
- Law, D. (2017). The challenge of quality. *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education*, 21(1), 1–3. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603108.2017.1251182>
- Liu, S.-Y., Tan, M., & Meng, Z.-R. (2015). Impact of Quality Assurance on Higher Education Institutions: A Literature Review. *Higher Education Evaluation and Development*, 9(2), 17–34.
- Marklein, M. B. (2017). Changing world challenges higher education, accreditation - University World News. Retrieved August 1, 2017, from <http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20170204061426756>
- Martin, M. (2016). External quality assurance in higher education: how can it address corruption and other malpractices? *Quality in Higher Education*, 22(1), 49–63. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13538322.2016.1144903>
- Mendoza, R. R. (2013). Perceived Gains and Pains of Accreditation in Philippine Public Accountancy Practice. *Browser Download This Paper*. Retrieved from https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2422443
- Neill, M. S. (2016). Accredited vs. non-accredited: How accreditation impacts perceptions and readiness to provide ethics counsel. *Public Relations Review*, 42(5), 856–866. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2016.08.002>
- Paor, C. De. (2016). The contribution of professional accreditation to quality assurance in higher education. *Quality in Higher Education*, 22(3), 228–241. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13538322.2016.1263925>
- Qureshi, R. H. (2016). *Quality Assurance & Accreditation (Organization, Mechanisms and Practice)* (TERTIARY EDUCATION SUPPORT PROGRAM (TESP)). Islamabad, Pakistan. Retrieved from <http://hec.gov.pk/english/universities/projects/TESP/Documents/TESA%20Report%20-%20Quality%20Assurance.pdf>

- Sin, C., Tavares, O., & Amaral, A. (2017). The impact of programme accreditation on Portuguese higher education provision. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 42(6), 860–871. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2016.1203860>
- Theobald, J., Gardner, F., & Long, N. (2017). Teaching Critical Reflection in Social Work Field Education. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 53(2), 300–311.
- Tierney, W. G., & Sabharwal, N. S. (2017). Academic corruption: Culture and trust in Indian higher education. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 55, 30–40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2017.05.003>
- Verma, A. (2016). A review of quality assurance in higher education institutions. *International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Literature (IMPACT: IJRHAL)*, 44(5), 55–66.
- Williams, J. (2016). Quality assurance and quality enhancement: is there a relationship? *Quality in Higher Education*, 22(2), 97–102. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13538322.2016.1227207>
- Yingqiang, Z., & Yongjian, S. (2016). Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Reflection, Criticism, and Change. *Chinese Education & Society*, 49(1–2), 7–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10611932.2016.1192382>

Comparison of Study Material and its Approaches Used in Formal and Distance Education

Amir Mahmood*

Muhammad Imran Rashid**

Muhammad Rashid***

Abstract

Study material is a compulsory component of distance as well as formal system of education. Effective education process is impossible unless using effective study materials for learners. Study material and teaching techniques used in formal and distance education are different in nature due to difference of demands of modes. This study was designed on “Comparison of study material and its approaches used in formal and distance education”. The objectives of this study were; to explore the deficiency in material written for formal and distance education, to identify the approaches used in formal and distance education and suggest the possible measures for the improvement of material and approaches used in formal and distance education. The population of study was students and teachers/tutors of Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) and University of Education (UE). For distance education Rawalpindi and Lahore Region were selected whereas for Formal system Lahore and Okara Region were selected. Questionnaires on five points rating scale were drafted for students and teachers/tutors. Their responses were recorded and analysis of data was made through mean. The main findings of study were the study material of both systems was written by competent authority. The format of study material of both systems of education was in a sequence. Discussion and lecture methods were used as regard to distance education. TV and radio programmes were prepared and presented at proper time from AIOU. However, there were some deficiencies found in both systems. i.e. the study material in AIOU has built in activities whereas in the formal systems built in activities are not included in their material. Teleconference facilities were not used in both systems. Thus, it is recommended that teleconference facilities may be provided in both system and built-in activities may be given in formal system of education.

Keywords: Study materials, Formal education, Distance education, Approaches

* PhD Scholar, Preston University, Islamabad

** Research Scholar, Preston University, Islamabad

*** Dean Faculty of Education and Doctoral Studies, Preston University, Islamabad
(Corresponding Author).

Introduction

The study material used for formal and distance education are different. In formal education teacher is present in the classroom and explains the study material but in distance education the tutors and the learners are not physically present at the same place so the student has to read and understand the study material at their own pace. Thus, the study material for distance education is self-explanatory which is supported by suitable illustrations and examples.

Study material is the source given to group of students or class or in a set of instructions. It may be textbook, a representative source for the students, teaching in any school or an educational institution. In this regard, Gijsselaers, Tempelaar, Keizer, Blommaert, Eugene Bernard, and Kasper (2013) explain that the function of formal education is mainly filled by the teacher but in distance education there is high demand in designing and developing material keeping in view the learning objectives, application of knowledge and the characteristics of education.

According to Popov (2003) the courses of distance education are associated with the correspondence whereas the interaction between teacher and students take place through the delivery of study material. However, in distance education there may be assignments, face to face meeting, telephone guidance, interaction between teacher and students through web and students to students' interaction also take place in the same manner.

Different approaches are being used in formal and distance education according to need of the learners. In formal education these approaches are lecture method, demonstration, questions and answers technique, trip to different places and role play in distance education. These approaches are applied through T.V. and Radio programs, tutorial workshops and in seminars.

Maidment and Egan (2009) stated that in formal education focus is made on discussion, demonstration, practice on micro-skills and debates on a particular topic are being used. Students can also do their work in pair or group during the class session and this can also be adopted for online learning through distance education.

According to Iqbal (2014, p.394) various factors are contributing in teaching learning process. These factors are age of students, nature of the content, available resources and expertise who used teaching methods. Age of students is one of the key factors in teaching. In early age students learn by doing, so activity method is suitable for them. While adults learn by listening, discussing and sharing of ideas. Thus, lecture and discussion methods are suitable for them. The nature of the content is another factor, for example teaching science contents, demonstration or problems solving method are used instead of discussion, lecture method or question-answer technique.

If class size is large then lecture method and project method are appropriate while discussion method is good for small class or group of students and finally those sources are used in teaching learning process which are available in the existing educational institutions. However, teaching methodology may suffer with low-budget and poorly management. Iqbal (2014, p.394) further adds that:

There are some principles in selecting teaching method. The teaching method creates maximizing opportunities to achieve multiple goals, motivate students in accordance with the objectives of the course, facilities, equipment and available resources are used. A particular teaching method maximize the opportunities of learning to attain numerous goals. The selection of teaching method can be developed during learning. It is concern with what extent that particular teaching method is applicable for learners and the delivery of that lesson that fit the teaching purpose.

A brief explanation about the approaches of teaching in formal and distance education has given below.

Lecturer Method

The common approach in formal education system is lecture method. It is convenient for larger classroom sizes. Lecturer method emphasizes on presentation of the content with explanation. Many lectures are delivered through combination of visual aids, such as slideshow, PPT showing an image etc. Whiteboards or chalkboards are also used for writing important points on the lesson. According to Paris (2014, p.1)

The lecturer method is just one of several teaching methods, though in schools it is usually considered the primary one. It is not surprising either. The lecture method is convenient and usually makes the most sense, especially with larger classroom sizes. This is why lecturing is the standard for most college courses, when there can be several hundred students in the classroom at once; lecturing lets professors address the most people at once, in the most general manner, while still conveying the information that he or she feels is most important according to the lesson plan.

This method concentrates on cognitive development and delivers large content in shortest possible time. Teachers can employ their verbal communication and competency and their personality influences on the learner/s personality.

Discussion Method

Discussion method is applied in formal system of education, small groups and assembled to communicate with each other by means of speaking and listening. The group members have different influence over one another through their behavior. This

method based on the principles of active participation, freedom of work and provides equal opportunities to answer the relevant questions. This method has three phases, beginning phase, middle phase and the end phase. Discussion method helps students to incorporate and integrate information which they have acquired from lecture. It is effective in the involvement of the huge class. It is very useful in social sciences because it is an ideal way to demonstrate the social, cultural and political problem of the students.

Through this method participants may dominate over the others. In this regard Wilkinson, (2009) states that discussion methods are presented in a variety of forms for the creation of students thinking, learning, problem solving and understanding.

Demonstration Method

Demonstration method is applied in formal system of education particularly in science subjects. Teacher performs and explains the theme or assignment before students. Demonstration method support the learners in learning process through watching practicals and involves in learning. According to Ekeyil (2013) demonstration method is that type of education in which teacher acts as principal actor while the learners watch with great intention.

This method is used in skill development among students. It attracts the attention of students but does not allow for discussion. It also requires different resources like audio-visual aids.

Heuristics Method

This method is used for self-learning of students. In this method, a problem is placed before the learners and they attempt to seek solutions by themselves with full freedom of working and thinking. It develops scientific attitude through observation and logical and imaginative thinking among the learner. The teacher provides guidance to individual learners. This method is time consuming so not suitable for large classes. According to Kuhlemann (2012, p.1-2).

Especially when students employ unusual strategies of solving a task students' thinking is not always directly obvious and easily comprehensible. There is a need for teachers to use heuristic strategies to reconstruct possible thinking processes with the aim to understand the students' work.

Project Method

Project method is an approach used in both formal and distance education. Project method is used to remove problems involved in the completion of natural setting. According to Portyanskaya (2009, p.133) "project method like on other method gives an opportunity to wisely combination the theory and practical use of knowledge in real life".

Project Method develops insight of students and imparts in new knowledge by linking according to existing situations. It provides an opportunity for work gain experience, and creates thinking among students.

Activity Method

Activity approach is used in formal education mode. Activity creates such environment in which learners perform certain activity and get experience. According to Hackathorna et.al (2011, p. 44) “In-class activities are usually a technique that involves all of the students in the class, either working in groups or alone, to solve a problem or puzzle”.

Problem-Solving Method

Problem-solving approach is applied in both formal and distance education. Problem-solving method develops scientific attitude and skills in student. This is capable to create self-dependent, self-reliant and self-confident. According to Ali and Akhter (2010, p.114) “The most important achievement of a teacher is to help his/her students along the road to independent learning. In problem based learning, teacher acts just as facilitator, rather than a primary source of information”. Through this method new ideas generate, discovery takes place and students learn different facts by themselves.

Question-Answer Method

In formal education system this approach is used to share maximum knowledge within learner and teacher. It makes possible for students to discover topic of their interest, opinions and ideas. In this method teacher present subject-matter and learner recognizes the truth, and identify it. In this regard Gangel (2015, p.7) states “question and answer teaching give the student the opportunity to reflect his inquiries and needs for further information. At the same time, by soliciting answers to key questions the teacher gains some insight into the class progress”.

It enhances the encouragement, motivation, and activeness of students by exploring the behaviors of students. It strengthens the learning process by linking previous knowledge with new one. Moreover, this method develops thinking and analyses the abilities of the learners by evaluating the effectiveness of the teaching learning activities.

Role Playing or Dramatization

Role play is a part of drama or poetry. In this method students have to play their role according to script. It is an effective method for formal learning by teaching historical stories and events. These events cannot be repeated but can only dramatize by role-playing.

According to Teed (2012) perspective teacher has to teach a small lesson to colleagues by assuming them as student of another class. Every learner has to deliver a lesson in rotation by discussion and suggestions are given for the modification of lesson.

Radio and Television

Radio is an oldest approach used to distance education for students living far flung areas. This technique is used worldwide through open universities. According to Karim, et.al (2001, p.153):

Distance learning, by combining the radio with other media, particular with the print materials and occasional personal contact sessions, attempts to replace both the teacher and the institution. Radio is more convenient and cheapest way to provide distance education to the various sections of the population.

Television broadcast is another effective approach to disseminate knowledge. Television is a complex medium because it is an audio-visual process that enables the student to cover their relevant material at their own pace. This approach motivates students towards their studies. Television is a power full medium used in distance education. It depends upon the quality of materials and the skill that are used in delivering lectures. However, it is to improve learning efficiency. In this regard Rashid and Rashid (2010, p.178) state:

The Allama Iqbal Open University, being a distance education institution, rely heavily on all varieties of available media to reach its students in an effective manner. The main components of its multimedia package include: Radio and television broadcasts generally relate to the study materials of the package. Satellite transmission: AIOU is putting on air its educational media material on PTV-2 which is beaming out its transmission through satellite to more than 45 countries.

According to Chandar and Sharma (2003, p.145)

Indira Gandhi National Open University has been allotted 40 FM radio stations from which to broadcast educational programmes for the benefit of students and general public in India. These FM Radio stations, delivered through the Gyan Vani Network, cater to learners seeking to gain knowledge in the areas of basic, primary, higher and extension education. Radio programming covers various subject areas. It is anticipated that the opening of India's airwaves will prove beneficial to the nation's general population, thus fostering the democratizing principles of empowerment, advocacy, and community participation. This study examines the results of a survey conducted to obtain feedback

from a representative sample of the Gyan Vani network's projected audience.

Printed Material

In distance education tutoring is made through printed material, open correspondent method is used. In which printed material is delivered at the door step of the learners. This material is prepared for self-study, self-pacing and self-learning, because students are at par from educational institutions and connection is made through printed material. Visual tapes and Audio cassettes are also used as a supplement printed material where necessary. According to Martin, et.al (1996, p.77):

In a distance education content there is hardly any face to face contact between students and teachers/tutors, so the learning materials have to be sufficiently supportive. Therefore, an essential part of self-study material consists of embedded support devices (ESD). The central role of embedded support in distance education can be illustrated by the fact that learning materials in this context consists of about 40% of ESD.

Programmed Instruction

Programmed Instruction is useful approach in distance learning. In this method, learning material is divided into many sections. The lesson is delivered through a teaching device or programmed textbooks. According to Pappas (2014, p.41) "As an educational technique, it is characterized by self-paced, self-administered instruction, which is presented in a logical sequence and with multiple content repetitions" Each unit or step of programmed instruction contains individualized instruction. It is not consisted of only information but terminated with a question.

Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI)

This approach is particularly used in distance learning. In Computer-Assisted Instruction presents programme lessons and interact with the learners directly. The computer-based programmed lesson engages the learners in a dialogue while delivering different information. According to Willis (2013, p.17) Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI) are considered as a self-contained teaching machine that present discrete lessons to achieve specific educational objectives. There are several CAI modes, including: drill and practice, tutorial, simulations, games, and problem-solving, etc.

CAI motivates the learners through various features like colour, music and animated graphics add that reality and appeal to drilling exercises, laboratory activities and simulations.

Teleconferencing/Videoconferencing/Interactive Video

Teleconferencing is an electronic means which bring the number of two, three and four or more easily from different locations to discuss and share two-way

communication by using electronic boards, computer graphics, radio, satellite and videotext etc. The use of these approaches has makes distance education more feasible and approachable for everyone, Bidjerano., Wilkinson (2008, p.117) states:

Video Conferencing as implemented for the purposes of classroom instruction, bridges physical distances and provides access to distant educational resources. Among the acknowledged advantages of videoconferencing over traditional classroom instruction are the opportunities provided to students to have authentic experiences through interaction with experts, and to acquire knowledge in a dynamic and visual fashion that is rooted in dialogue and discussion. This approach is more beneficial for remote learners. Interactive video is an effective method of delivering information to remote distance educational settings. It supports two-way video and audio communication between multiple locations.

Tutorial Workshops

In tutorial workshops tutor helps students through guidelines which are already prepared by the tutor. His role binds a link between the institution and learners. Tutor helps learners in an effective learning. According to Bukhari (1997, p.2).

Distance education is, as yet, an emerging concept and it is placed in the category of a developing discipline. The staff of an Open University needs to be provided training in various aspects of distance education; tutorial support being an area of great significance in this respect.

In a study, Akhter and Akbar (2015) explored that, tutorials and workshops are held mostly in buildings shared with formal institutions. These are held in afternoon timings because of non-availability of place in morning and because of working distance learners.

Seminars

Seminars are held for exchange of information and ideas. The participants share and exchange their ideas, experiences, knowledge and adopt suitable strategy for their learning. Seminars also open the way of research, add new programmes, and evaluate the methods. These are useful for the adoption of new advanced technologies. These technologies reduce the educational costs in distance education as compare to formal education. It also cut the residential and transportation cost, which is a part of formal education on daily basis. Advancement in technologies made it convenient to handle large community of far flung and remote area through distance education. Use of video and computer conferencing is also highlighted in the seminars held for distance education. In this regard Robinson (1997, p.125) states:

Distance education for teacher training has potential advantages. It can provide the means of slide-stepping the slowness and dilution factor of the cascade approach by putting 'information about curricula and teaching approaches directly into the hands of individual and by cutting down the time between learning about new teaching practices and trying them out in the classroom.

The above literature explains that nature of formal and distance education modes demands academicians to adopt different strategies in selection of teaching materials, methods for dissemination of materials and learning experiences to students. Distance education that is a new mode of education has popularity due to its benefits. Mostly, distance education institutions get assistance of formal teachers because of lack of experts in distance education. Researches indicate that; distance education institutions face difficulty to hire experts in distance teaching process. Therefore, role of tutors, learners and institutions is mostly criticized by critics (Akhter, 2015). This situation requires to educate the personnel involved in distance education to be clear about the instructional demands in open and distance education. Infact, training of personnel involved in distance education is required but Pakistan still is far behind. So, Present study on *“Comparison of study material and its approaches used in formal and distance education”* was conducted. The objectives of study were;

1. Identify the teaching approaches used in formal and distance education.
2. Explore the deficiency in material written for formal and distance education.
3. Suggest possible measures for the improvement of material and approaches used in formal and distance education.

Methodology

This study was descriptive in nature. Survey method was used to carry out the study. According to Schwab (1999) survey method is comparatively simple research. It finds out the issues and problems involved in research and to investigate the relevant variables, whereas Gay (2005) points out that survey is an attempt to collect data from the respondents, which are taken from the population with respect to variables used in the research.

Population of the Study

This research was delimited to; 1). Rawalpindi and Lahore regions of AIOU and Lahore and Okara campuses of UE. Autumn 2012 for AIOU as distance education system and 2012-13 academic year of University of Education as Formal system of Education. Therefore, the population of this study comprised of 1425 students of Allama Iqbal Open University and 450 students of university of Education. Likewise, 42 tutors of AIOU and 22 teachers of University of Education.

Sample of the Study

Three hundred and fifty students and 22 teachers from each system of Education were taken as sample. These samples were further divided according to ratios of students and teachers of the respective universities.

Research Tools of the Study

This study was designed by drafting 2 questionnaires (for students and teachers/tutors) at five points Likert Scale. In this regard Rovai, Baker and Ponton (2013, p.96) state that people ideas are being change with the passage of time and variation among their ideas depends upon their potential responses. i.e. strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree and strongly disagree. The participants check the place on the scale which reflects their feelings.

Validity and Reliability of Tools

After development of research tools, content validity was checked by five experts and pilot tested by sample of 10 students. After evaluating suggestions of experts and difficulties of sample in filling questionnaire, required amendments in tool were made. For checking of reliability Cronbach' Alpha was computed. Value of r was 0.79 that identified good level of internal consistency.

Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaires were sent to the sample of universities through pre-paid mail, email and where necessary personal contact was made. For maximum responses reminders were also sent to the sample member of study. The collected data was analyzed by using percent of score and mean comparisons.

Findings of the Study

Findings were drawn from responses of students and teachers. Fifty percent samples were from distance education and same number was from formal mode universities. Findings of questionnaire for students about the material and approaches stated that 76.16% respondents of formal education system and 74.17% respondents of distance system agreed that study material involve students into studies. 74.84% respondents of formal system of education and 77.48% respondents of distance education system were agreed that study material was written by competent authority. Similarly, 72.52% respondents of formal education system and 70.53% respondents of distance system agreed that study material is logically sequenced.

In regard to approaches, 71.85% respondents (students) of formal education system and 82.12% respondents of distance system agreed that teachers/tutors encouraged discussion method in their teaching. Similarly, 68.21% respondents of formal education system and 91.72% respondents of distance system agreed that workshops provide interaction between students and teacher. Moreover, 68.21% respondents of formal education system and 71.52% respondents of distance system agreed that

sufficient time was given to complete home assignments while 63.58% respondents of formal education system and 75.50% respondents of distance system agreed that teachers used lecture methods in the class.

Findings also explore demonstration method is used in formal education system particularly for practical purpose whereas there is lack of using this method in distance system of education. However, TV programs are presented to fill this deficiency. Radio broadcast is not being used in formal system of education whereas it is used up to some extent in distance education system.

Findings of questionnaire for tutors/teachers explore that 95.00% respondents of formal education system and 90% respondents of distance system agreed that study material received on time. Similarly, 85% respondents of both formal and distance education system agreed that study material is written by competent authority. Moreover, 65.00% respondents of formal education system and 85.00% respondents of distance system agreed that study material contains self-assessment exercise.

About the teaching method, 95 % respondents of formal education system and 80% respondents of distance system agreed that lecture method is used in teaching learning process. 85% respondents of formal education system 65% respondents of distance system agreed that discussion method provides interaction between students and teacher.

However, a contradiction was found between the approaches used in both systems of education. 25% respondents of formal system of education and 75% respondents of distance education system agreed that duration of workshop/ teaching in class is appropriate. But, 15% respondents of formal education system and 65% respondents of distance education system agreed that study material has built in activities. Similarly, 80% respondents of distance education system states that radio broadcast are used as supplement of study material while none of the respondents of formal education were agreed with this statement.

Discussion

Many institutions are offering open and distance education courses in Pakistan. HEC has allowed formal institutions to offer distance learning courses. Therefore, formal universities are rapidly offering DE courses without fulfilling the demands and conditions for distance education. Nature of distance education and formal systems demands different types of arrangements for effective outcomes. Therefore, institutions need to design courses and services for learners according to demands of system. All personnel involved in distance education process needs to perform their role objectively and accurately (Akhter, 2015).

Study material used in formal and distance education is different in a sense that distance learners have less face to face contact with their tutors but formal learners study

mostly in the conditions where they meet their teachers regularly. So, distance education course materials need to be supportive for learners to become autonomous learners. This study was taken to compare the study material and approaches used in formal and distance education systems. It discusses the particular issues that are mostly happen with the study material and the approaches used by the teachers and tutors from time to time in distance and formal modes of education. a brief discussion on the results regarding issue investigated has given in the next.

Present study has indicated that there was high acceptance of the respondents of both education systems that study material involves students into studies. The mean scores of formal system and distance education systems were calculated 3.67 and 3.76 respectively. Similarly, the study material of both system of education was written by the competent authority. The mean score of formal system of education was 3.62 and distance education system was 3.89. “Study material is logically sequenced”. This was highlighted by the respondents of both systems of education. The mean scores were 3.59 and 3.79 respectively. In this regard Dowson (2003, p.199) states that study material which was written by competent authority and characterized with individual analysis is capable to enhance students’ communication skills and give them experience in dealing with the problems faced by them in understanding the study material.

Present study has also explored that study material contains self-assessment exercises. The means scores were calculated 3.80 and 3.40 respectively for distance and formal mode. Moreover, distance mode study material has built-in exercises. The mean score of formal system of education was 2.35 whereas the mean score of distance education system was 3.55. Thus, it was concluded that study material of distance education system has more self-assessment exercise while the study material written for formal system of education has no self-assessment exercises. As regard to built-in activities the study material of distance education system contains built-in exercises while the study material of formal education system lacks of built-in exercises. Theses highlight efforts of AIOU in offering need based materials to learners.

Conclusion

Comparison of formal and distance education study materials show that study material of both system of education was written by competent teachers. So, the study material is well in order, sequence, logic and understanding but however, there is a difference between the systems of education so the material has also some differences i.e. in study material for formal education system, teacher explain each and every thing thus there is a lack of self-assessment and built in exercises while distance education system is self-pacing thus it contains self-assessment exercises and built in activities. About the approaches used in both systems of education, some approaches have the same effect and utilization purpose. Whereas, few approaches differ according to the differences and structure of formal distance education system.

Lecture method is used in both systems. Similarly, the discussion method is also being used in both systems in a very effective manner because it involves the students into interaction and useful for up-gradation of their knowledge. About the workshop in distance education and classroom teaching in distance education, it was concluded that both provide interaction opportunities among teacher and students. Thus, in formal as well as distance education system it is appreciable. About the workshops, it was concluded that these are more needed in distance education process.

Some deficiencies and contradictions were found in both systems, i.e. multimedia is up to some extent used in the formal system of education whereas frequently used in the distance education. Similarly, in distance education radio broadcast is used as a supplement of textual material whereas in formal education radio broadcast is not being used at any place. TV programs are also telecast in distance education while in formal education presentation of TV program as supplement of textual material is not favourable. This means that TV programs were given more importance in distance education for understanding and up-gradation of students' knowledge.

References

- Akhter, N. (2015). Distance education at a glance. *Journal of Educational Research*. 18 (2) 1-13
- Akhter, N. (2015). Perceptions of Academicians regarding assessment process of distance teacher education courses in Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*. 9 (1), 248-260
- Akhter, N. and Akbar, R.A. (2015). Problems of distance learners regarding assessment process in Pakistan. *Bulletin of Education & Research*. 38 (2), 59-65.
- Campbell, A., McMamara, O. & Gilroy, P. (2004). *Quantitative Research is Characterized Through Five Points Likert Scale and It is Easy for the Statistical Analysis*., London: Longman.
- Ali, R., Akhter, A. (2010). Effect of Using Problem Solving Method in Teaching Mathematics on the Achievement of Mathematics Students. *Journal of Asian Social Science*, 6 (2), 87-95
- Bidjerano, T.& Wilkinson, D. (2008). *Designing and Implementing Collaborative Classroom Video Conferences*. Hershey: IGI Global, Chocolate Avenue.
- Bukhari, M.A. (1997). *Tutorial Support in Distance Education*, Paris: UNESCO.
- Campbell, A., McMamara, O., & Gilroy, P. (2004). *Practitioner Research and Professional Development in Education*. Virginia: Sage Publications.

- Cargan, L. (2007). *Doing Social Research*. New York: Rowman and Littlefield Publisher Inc.
- Chandar, U., & Sharma, R. (2003). *Bridges to Effective Learning through Radio*. India: Indira Gandhi National Open University.
- Dowson, P. (2003). *Reshaping Change, a Professional Perspective*. London and New York: Routledge, Taylor and Francis Group.
- Ekeyil, D.N. (2013). Effect of Demonstration Method of Teaching on Students' Achievement in Agricultural Science. *World Journal of Education*, 3(6), 2-9
- Gay, L.R. (2005). *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Applications* (5th Edition). Islamabad: National Book Foundation.
- Gijsselaers, W.H., et.al. (2013). Educational Innovation in Economics and Business Administration: *The Case of problem-based learning*. Maastricht. The Springer. PP.112-18
- Hackathorna, J. et.al. (2011). Learning by Doing: An Empirical Study of Active Teaching Techniques. *The Journal of Effective Teaching an Anline Journal Devoted to Teaching Excellence the Journal of Effective Teaching*, 11(2), 40-54
- Kuhlemann, S. (2012). *Heuristic Strategies Prospective Teachers Use in Analysing Students' Work*. Germany: University of Oldenburg.
- Maidment, J., & Egan, R. (2009). *Practice Skills in Social Work and Welfare: More than Just Common Sense*. Crows Nest: Allen & Unwin.
- Martin, R., et. al. (1996). Functions, Use and Effects of Embedded Support Devices in Printed Distance Learning. *Journal of Learning and Instruction*, 6 (1), 77-85
- Newing, H. (2010). *Conducting Research in Conservation: Social Science Methods and Practice*. London and New York: Routledge, Taylor and Francis group.
- Pappas, C. (2014). *Instructional Design Models and Theories: Programmed Instruction as an Educational Model*. Retrieved May 11, 2015, from eLearning Industry: <http://elearningindustry.com/programmed-instruction-educational-model>
- Paris, C. (2014). *Lecture Method: Pros, Cons, and Teaching Alternatives*, retrieved on 8-7-15 from <http://blog.udemy.com/Lecture-Method>
- Popov, O.B. (2003). Creative and innovative management. *Series III. Computer and System Sciences*, (Vol 189). Ohmasa: IOS press.
- Portyanskaya, Z. (2009). The project methods as an alternative technique in secondary schools. *The Journal on Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, (Vol. 10)

- Rashid, M., & Rashid, N. (2010). Student support services of eastern & western institutes of distance education. *Journal of Educational Research*, 13(2), 178-89
- Robinson, B. (1997). Distance education for primary teacher training in developing countries. In Lynch, J., Modgil, C. & Modgil, S. (Eds.) *Education and Development: Tradition and Innovation in Delivering Primary Education*. London: Cassell Educational Press
- Rovai, A.P., Baker, J. D., & Ponton, M. K. (2013). *Social Science Research Design and Statistics: A Practitioner's Guide to Research method and IBM SPSS Analysis*. Chesapeake: Watertree Press.
- Schwab, D. P. (1999). *Research Methods for Organizational Studies*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associate.
- Teed, R. (2012). *Role-Playing, Pedagogy in Action: the SERC portal for Educators*. Retrieved on May 9, 2015, from Carleton College: <http://serc.carleton.edu/sp/library/roleplaying/index.html>
- Willis, B. (2013). *Distance Education. Strategies and Tools and Distance Education. A Practical Guide Distance Education at a Glance*. New York: University of Idaho.

Role of Female Teachers in Personality Development of Secondary School Students in Lahore: A Quantitative Exploration

Misbah Malik*

Ghulam Fatima**

Abid Hussain Chaudhry***

Abstract

The substantive purpose of the study was to identify the role of female teachers in personality development of students enrolled in public and private secondary schools in Lahore. The sample of the study comprised 300 (156 public and 144 private) students (boys=110, girls=190) who were selected through multi-stage random sampling technique. A self-developed questionnaire was used to elicit participants' responses regarding their teachers' role in the development of their personality. A pilot study was conducted to validate the questionnaire. Validity was ensured by three experts in the area whereas; the reliability index (Cronbach Alpha) was 0.79 which was statistically significant. Data were analysed through IMB Version 20, t-test was used to identify the difference in students' responses regarding role of public and private school female teachers in their personality development. Descriptive statistics were used to assess the students' responses regarding teachers' role for the development of different personality aspects. Results showed that female teachers in private schools were more focused on personality development of girl students as compared to those of working in public schools. Mean scores reflected that secondary school girl students were of the view that female teachers were playing a significant positive role in personality development of students. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations to School Education Department were made to put emphasis on the training of female teachers regarding girl students' personality development.

Keywords: Personality development, Role of female teachers, Secondary school students

Introduction

One of the prime aims of education is to create complete individuals capable of manifesting their full potential. But these day's most of the education systems are emphasizing more on the cognitive aspect of students than other personality traits which

* Assistant Professor, Township Campus, University of Education, Lahore, Email: misbahmalik@ue.edu.pk

** Assistant Professor, Department of Special Education, University of the Punjab, Lahore, Email: fatima.dse@pu.edu.pk

*** Professor of Education, Institute of Education and Research, University of the Punjab, Lahore, Email: chabidhussainier@yahoo.com

are necessary for success in practical life. Teachers effect their students' personality in many ways: students follow the method of their teachers to everyday problems; they follow teachers' point of views and the manners their teacher' adopt. So, teachers' play an important role in the personality development of their students other than the subjects they teach. This study has been conducted to identify the extent to which teachers' influence students' personality development in school.

Considering discipline in educational environments is one of the important educational goals, to which the schools' administrators give special attention and priority. As a result, the students' educational behavior and activity is determined (Houghton et al., 1990; Galloway & Rongers, 1994). Discipline in students' activity and in their daily life can be a basis for the achievement and pleasure and consequently flourish their lives (Seyf & Hossein, 1998). Students spend numerous hours in school during a school year and their high interaction with their teachers has a great influential impact on shaping their personality and behavior which is a source of their educational advancement.

Teaching, on the other hand, is the process in which the individual develops talents (obtained during the education phase) in proportion to their capacity (Karsli, 2007). The most important factor in education and teaching activities is the teacher. A teacher, in the most general terms, is a person working in educational institutes who enables students to achieve cognitive, sensory and behavioral aim and gains within the range determined by the educational system (Gundogdu & Silman, 2007).

According to Ahmad (2017) teachers' role is not only confined to the transfer of knowledge but he goes far beyond it. Intentional or unintentionally teachers relate their teachings with social values they think are important. And ultimately their own personality and believes effect their students' personality development. Research on teachers' personality is based on the assumption that the teacher as a person is a significant figure in the teaching-learning process and effects students in a strong way. Teachers' personality influences the personality of their students in diverse ways, such as in interaction with students, method selected for teaching and students' learning experiences.

To effective influence on students' personality, teachers need to focus on students' personality development while conducting instructional activities. Students' personality development gets profound effect from teacher's intent even if there is no formal communication between them (Arif, Rashid, Tahira, & Akhter, 2012). The contemporary education in these days not only places the responsibility of becoming effective in students' intellectual development but also the personal development is exclusively on the shoulder of the teachers. The accomplishment of this liability is merely feasible through the teacher's focus on the endorsement of healthy personality values not only among themselves but also by developing effectiveness in their relations with

students in order to allow them to develop their personality generously (Can, 2011; Inelmen, 2011).

Many of the aspects of teachers' role on students' cognitive development and academic achievement have been investigated by the researchers, since there is a scarcity of the research to identify role of teachers in students' personality development in our local context. This study was designed to identify teachers' role in students' personality development. More specifically it investigated the students' perception regarding focus of their teachers on their personal and social traits.

Objectives of the Study

The study was conducted to achieve the following objectives:

- To identify the role of female teachers in personality development of students enrolled in public and private secondary schools in Lahore.
- To investigate difference between perceptions of male and female students regarding the role of female teachers in their personality development.
- To know the difference between perceptions of students enrolled in secondary schools of public and private sector.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were formulated for the study:

- H₁ There is significant difference in the perceptions of male and female students about role of female teachers in their personality development.
- H₂ There is significant difference in the perceptions of students about role of female teachers in their personality development in public and private sector secondary schools.

Methodology

The population of study included all male and female students enrolled in public and private sector secondary schools in Punjab. A sample of 300 students (male= 110, female=190) were selected randomly from two public and two private sector secondary schools. An indigenously developed instrument was used to get students' responses regarding role of their teachers in their personality development. Questionnaire was consisted of five-point Likert type scale. There were two components of personality development i.e. personal traits (statements 1-8) and social traits (statements 9-20) in the questionnaire. Considering the respondents' convenience, the questionnaire was developed and administered in national language Urdu. Questionnaire was validated through a pilot study. To assess the content and phenomenon validity of the instrument the questionnaire was presented to three experts in the field. Suggested amendments were incorporated before administering the instrument. To ensure the reliability of the

instrument reliability index (Cronbach Alpha = .79) was identified which was statistically significant.

Data Collection Procedure

First of all, the consent of the heads of public and private sector secondary schools was taken for collection of data from students studying in class 9th. On the scheduled days the randomly selected students were given briefing about the nature of questionnaire. They were also assured of keeping the information given by them confidential. Data were collected personally and it took approximately 15 minutes in filling up one questionnaire.

Data Analysis and Results

The data were analyzed on IBM Version 20. The tables with interpretation are being presented in this section.

Table 1

Table of descriptive statistics of the questionnaire

Serial No.		Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Our teachers advise us to be truthful by stressing importance and benefits of truth.	3.47	1.104
2	Our teachers teach to be respectful towards others.	2.69	1.088
3	Our teachers instruct us to adopt good behaviors.	3.3	1.2
4	Our teachers direct us to take up good manners i.e. manners of dressing, eating, talking and self-organization and cleanliness etc.	2.85	0.965
5	Our teachers train us to use polite language.	3.31	1.199
6	Our teachers instruct us to be tolerant and humble in different situations.	3.25	1.347
7	Our teachers teach us manners of sitting in the classroom/or in a gathering i.e. keeping quiet, be organized, keep cleanliness etc.	3.74	1.262
8	Our teachers tell us how to react to different situations i.e. abusive language, quarrelling, pushing etc.	2.03	0.731
9	Our teachers encourage us to facilitate others (peers, parents, relatives, neighbors etc).	2.95	0.841
10	Our teachers advise us to accept others' opinions.	2.58	1.062
11	Our teachers advise us not to do backbiting.	3.19	0.892
12	Our teachers highlight the importance of others' feelings and advise not to hurt others' emotions.	3.37	1.241
13	Our teachers advise us to fulfil our responsibilities.	4.00	0.936

14	Our teachers forbade us from cheating others and advise to avoid such deeds.	3.16	1.231
15	Our teachers advise us to be cooperative.	3.99	0.771
16	Our teachers educate us to be unbiased and do equality.	2.84	1.243
17	Our teachers emphasize to fulfil others' needs if we have capacity.	2.27	1.118
18	Our teachers educate us to be obedient to our teachers, parents, young ones and elders etc.	3.97	1.052
19	Our teachers teach forgiveness.	2.1	1.461
20	Our teachers ask to avoid personal grudges.	1.84	0.829

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation of the statements for students' responses regarding role of female teachers in personality development of students. The mean score (3.47) of statement 01 reflects that female teachers used to advise the students to be truthful by stressing the importance and benefits of truth. As mean score ranged from one to four the mean value showed teachers strong focus on truthfulness of students. The mean score (3.3) of statement 03 shows that female teachers advised the students to adopt good behaviour. High mean value depicts that female teachers wanted to endorse good behaviors among students.

The mean score (3.31) of statement 05 exhibits that female teachers used to train the students to use polite language. Humbleness is our social value and educated persons must be polite and humble. High mean score is a notion of teachers' attention to make students polite while interacting with others. The mean score (3.25) of statement 06 shows that female teachers taught the students to be tolerant and humble in different situations. Humbleness is a good personality trait and enhances individual personality. It is a good indication that teachers want their students to be polite and humble which definitely entails in enhanced personality development. The mean score (3.74) of statement 07 reveals that female teachers used to teach the students manners of sitting in the classroom or in a gathering. High mean score value demonstrates strong focus of teach on teaching sitting manners to improve students' personality. Similarly, the mean score (3.19) of statement 10 shows that female teachers used to advise students to accept opinions of others.

The mean score (3.37) of statement 12 illustrates that female teachers used to highlight the importance of others' feelings and advise not to hurt others' emotions. The mean score (3.16) of statement 14 proves that female teachers used to forbade the students from cheating others and advise to avoid such deeds. The mean score (3.99) of statement 15 demonstrates that female teachers used to advise students to be cooperative with others. In the same manner, the mean score (3.97) of the statement 18 confirms that female teachers used to educate students to be obedient to their teachers, parents, young ones and elders. The mean scores of major statements give an idea that female teachers

as reported by the students were playing a significant role in the personality development of their students.

Table 2

Independent sample t-test to identify difference in perceptions of boys and girls about role of female teachers in personality development

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t-value	sig.
Boys	110	65.2474	6.55032	298	-4.561	.000
Girls	190	62.0455	4.41305			

Table 2 shows the results of Independent sample *t-test* to identify difference in perceptions of boys and girls about role of female teachers in personality development. Values of the independent sample *t-tests* show that there was significant difference in perceptions of boys and girls about role of female teachers in personality development $t(298) = -4.561, p = .000$. Higher mean score value of the boys' responses for the role of teachers in their personality development presents that female teachers are more concerned with male students' personality. So, our research hypothesis that "there is significant difference in the perceptions of boys and girls about role of female teachers in personality development" is accepted and it is concluded that teachers were paying more attention to the personality development of male students than female students.

Table 3

Independent sample t-test to identify difference in perceptions of students in public and private sector schools about role of female teachers in personality development

Institute	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t-value	sig.
Public	156	62.923	5.85140	298	3.211	.001
Private	144	65.134	6.05575			

Table 3 shows the results of independent sample *t-test* to identify difference in perceptions of students in public and private schools about role of female teachers in personality development. Values of the independent sample *t-test* show that there was significant difference in perceptions of students in public and private schools about role of female teachers in personality development $t(298) = 3.211, p = .001$. the mean score value is higher for private schools which depicts that female teachers working in private schools put more focus on the development of their students' personality than in public schools. So, our research hypothesis that "there is significant difference in the perceptions of students in public and private schools about role of female teachers in personality development" is accepted and it is concluded that in private sector schools, teachers were

paying more attention on the personality development of students than in public sector schools.

Discussion

The results indicate that the female teachers were paying more attention on the personality development of boy students than the girls. This result finds its root in our cultural context where males are given more importance due to their role as bread winner of a family. This finding is also consistent with those of studies conducted by Hameed (2003), Saif and Bibi (2010), and Fatima (2015) who found that parents of children with disabilities were more inclined towards sending boys to schools than girls. Ismail (1999) found in her doctoral study on early childhood education that there were differences in the attitude of family members, school teaching staff, and society members towards girls and boys of preschool age. She has highlighted parental biasness towards their young boys and girls. During conducting interviews with and observations of parents, she judged that parents were more concerned about the education and personal development of their sons than daughters (Atta & Nosheen, 2013; Azhar & Arshad, 2014).

The results of the independent sample *t*-test are surprising which reflect that the female teachers of private sector schools were paying more attention on the personality development of secondary school students. It is significant on the part of private schools where personality development of children is central focus of mission statement, whereas, public sector schools are not fulfilling this requirement due to overcrowded classrooms, lack of teaching staff, insufficient resources, and lack of motivation.

Conclusions

On the basis of results, it can be concluded that the female teachers are playing a significant role in the personality development of students at secondary school level. It is important to note that female teachers are more inclined to the personality development of male students than female students. This finding is reflective of Asian culture where boys are given priority over girls at home and in society as well. Secondly, a significant difference has also been found in the perceptions of students of public and private sector secondary schools which embodies that female teachers working in the private sector secondary schools were more concerned to the personality development of students than those working in the public sector. The reason may be the disciplined environment of the private sector where personality grooming of the students is more emphasized. Teachers' behavior towards students is more friendly and cooperative.

Recommendations

- The female teachers should be persuaded to get more involved in the personality development of female students through pre-service and in-service training workshops and refresher courses.

- Public sector should come forward and make arrangements to create awareness among their female teachers about paying attention to the personality development of secondary school students.
- Personality development of students should be incorporated in the syllabus of teacher training programmes.

References

- Ahmad, A. (2017). Role of teacher in student's personality development. *Psychology and Behavioral Science International Journal*. 2(2), ISSN 2474-7688. DOI:10.19080/PBSIJ.2016.02.555581
- Arif, M. I., Rashid, A., Tahira, S. S., Akhter, M (2012). Personality and teaching: an investigation into prospective teachers' personality. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(17), 161-171.
- Atta, S. & Nousheen, S. (2013). *A Study of the Problems Faced by the Parents in Social Adjustment of their Children with Hearing Impairment in Inclusive Settings* (Unpublished Master Thesis). Department of Special Education, University of the Punjab, Lahore.
- Azhar, A. & Arshad, I. (2014). *Relationship of Degree of Parental Involvement and Academic Achievement of Students With Hearing Impairment* (Unpublished Master Thesis). Department of Special Education, University of the Punjab, Lahore.
- Fatima, G. (2015). *An Evaluation of Early Childhood Special Education Program of Government Deaf & Defective Hearing Schools in Punjab*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Institute of Education and Research, University of the Punjab, Lahore
- Galloway, David, & Rogers, Colin, (1994). Motivational style: A link in the relationship between school effectiveness and children's behavior? *Educational and Child Psychology*, 11(2), 16-25.
- Gundogdu, K., Silman, F. (2007). Teaching as a profession and effective teaching. in Z. Cafoglu (Ed.) (2007). *Introduction to Education: Handbook of Basic Concepts* (PP. 259-292). Ankara: Grafik
- Hameed, A. (2003). Inclusive schools: An emerging trend in Pakistan. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Inclusive Education: A framework for reforms. Hong Kong*.

- Houghton, Stephen; Wheldall, Kevin; Jude, Rod; & Sharp, Anthony. (1990). The effects of limited private reprimands and increased private praise on classroom behavior in four British Secondary school classes. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 60 (3), 255-265.
- Ismail, S. (1999). *An evaluation study of early childhood education in Pakistan* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Hamdard Institute of Education and Social Sciences, Hamdard University, Karachi.
- Karsli, M.D. (2007). *Egitim Bilimine Giris (Introduction to Education)*. Tehran: Milad Publications.

Perceptual Posture of Stakeholders: Efficacy of Sports in Curbing Violent Behaviors among Youth

Mohammad Yunis Khan*
Asif Jamil**

Abstract

Sports are considered as very strong agent for bringing positive changes in the behaviors of its participants. In this perspective a study was conducted in Pakistan's Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province to explore the perceptions of stakeholders about role of sports in curbing violent behaviors among youth. The study focused on eradication of antisocial behavior, aggressiveness, juvenile delinquency, violence, criminal offensiveness, and negative sentiments through participation in sports. The population for the study comprised of four strata consisting of parents, teachers, students and sportsmen/women. Multiphase sampling technique was used for taking sample out of target population. Teachers and students were selected through simple random, while parents and sportsmen/women were selected through convenient sampling technique. It was found that stakeholders consider sports as quite effective instrument for curbing antisocial and fostering pro-social behavior. Sports were found very effective tool for elimination of certain social problems such as aggressiveness, juvenile delinquency, violence, criminal offensiveness and negative sentiments. It was also found that sports are quite means of promoting self-control. It was recommended that sports competitions should be organized at union councils, tehsils and districts level and standard sports facilities should be provided to educational institutions and in each city and town of the country.

Keywords: Perceptions, Stakeholders, Sports, Violent behaviors.

Introduction

Sports may be defined as “all forms of physical activities that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games.” (UNIATFSDP, 2003).

Sports and physical activities are excellent vehicles for socialization and best sources for social development of youth. Sport is considered to be a very valuable institution that helps the players learn numerous qualities that help them lead a successful

*Ph. D Scholar, IER, Gomal University, Dera Ismail Khan, E-mail: yunskhan@hotmail.com, Cell # 03467851816 (Corresponding Author)

**Professor Dr. Asif Jamil, Director IER, Gomal University, D.I. Khan, Cell # 03347216634, E-mail asifjamil72@hotmail.com

practical life. Traits like leadership, moral character, and perseverance can be developed through participation in sports (Butcher, 1979). Violent behavior is a social problem and it is clear evidence of positive impact of sports on behavior. It is believed that sports activities within community reduce the crime rate and anti-social behavior among youth (Canadian Centre for Ethics in Sports, 2002). In a review of related literature, it is argued that sports develop the character, morality and positive values among youth such as good behavior, social relations between individuals and groups, hard work, sportsmanship and sense of fair play. The authors further argue that sports itself do not build and develop character in youth but create such positive traits among participants which are helpful in developing character and morality in youth (Ewing et al., 2002). An analysis of youth activities found that sports build character, develop physical skills and self-knowledge (Hansen et al., 2003). A study affirmed that through sports children and youth learn sportsmanship, morality and fair play. Sports can build and develop character of the children and youth. It is a powerful social experience (President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sport, 2006). Through participation in sports children and youth learn moral and ethical behavior. Sport is a tool for citizenship and cooperation. There is clear evidence that sports coaches play an important role in developing ethical and moral behavior among young players. Children and youth, who participate in sports, learn moral values and good behavior directly and indirectly. Through coaches' instruction and engagement in sports they learn moral values and good behavior directly while through observing the coaches' responses, they learn moral values and good behavior indirectly (Ewing et al., 2002).

In his study Cigliano (2006) stated that the officials of sports consider "discipline" among one of the behavioral attitudes that the participants learn through sports. It has been observed that the discipline players and athletes learn through sports participation gradually becomes a component of their behavioral conduct in their daily lives (National Federation of High Schools Association, 2003). Respect is another feature of the behavioral conduct that players and athletes learn through sports participation. Davis (2002) said that gatherings and frequent social interaction through sports participation enhance the sociability of the players and improve the abilities of respecting feelings of the others. In a survey study held in Canada the respondents considered tremendous contribution of sports activities in developing many behavioral traits such as honesty, fair play and respect. According to the respondents of this survey "participation in sports develops fair play skills such as respecting teammates, opponent's players, judges, umpires, referees, and accepting official decisions with grace and dignity" (Butcher & Schneider, 2003). Rasmussen, (1999) asserted that through participation in sports players and athletes learn life skills such as respect for authority, honesty and conflict resolution. Conference Board of Canada conducted a survey on the "Socio-economic benefits of Sports in Canada". Respondents of this survey stated that through sports participants learn problem solving skills, administrative skills, personal management, teamwork, decision

making, leadership and communication. The respondents further stated that leadership qualities and team work have a strong attitudinal dimension. The survey illustrated that respondents conceived a positive role of sports participation in character building, and improving personal traits such as self-discipline, honesty, integrity, courage, respect for others, a sense of fair play and fair dealing (Bloom et al., 2005).

Sport is an integral part of rehabilitation programs for young criminals and persons involved in anti-social behavior. Through participation in sports these young people learn community living and social norms (Andrews & Andrews, 2003). One advantage of sport is their therapeutic value and everyone believes on therapeutic value of sports (Seefeldt & Ewing, 2002). Youth sports programs that develop self-confidence, self-control, self-esteem, self-discipline, social and cognitive skills are the potentials to prevent from antisocial behavior (Saskatchewan, 2003).

Research disclosed that participation in sports help contain pessimism and negative sentiments (Mutrie & Biddle, 1995). Research provided some evidence that participation in sports help to control criminal offensiveness and using of drugs (United States of America_National Recreation and Park Association). Research also affirmed that Sports activities may be used for the prevention and reduction of crimes in society (Utting, 1996). But it will be unrealistic to say that sports activities alone be used for this purpose. Participation in sports develops such traits in youth which are beneficial for reduction of youth crimes. Sports give positive identity to youth, helps to develop the qualities of self-governance under the supervision of mature persons, team work, leadership and feeling of empowerment which are useful for crime reduction (Jamieson et al., 2007). Research reported that delinquent attitudes adversely effects student's ability to learn (DeVoe *et al.*, 2004), whereas many studies established that self-discipline and self-esteem develops through participation in sports help in minimizing the tendency towards delinquency (Taylor et al., 1999), anti-social behaviors (Jones & Offord, 1989) and crimes (Hartmann & Depro, 2006). Melnick et al. (1988) professes that in comparison to non-sportsmen, the sportsmen are less likely to be indulged in delinquency.

Power of sports in preventing many social problems and social evils has been recognized. It is therefore necessary to provide ample chances of sports participation to youth, not only for their social development but also for them to avoid many social problems such as antisocial behavior, juvenile delinquency, aggressiveness, violence, criminal offensiveness, and negative sentiments etc. But it is a matter of fact that in the eastern societies like Pakistan children take part in sports activities with the consent and permission of their parents. This permission by the parents is resulted, the way they perceive or conceptualize sports activities. According to Beets et al, parents are the primary inhibitors or proponents of their children's participation in sports and physical activity (Beets *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, teachers have influence and firm hold upon the students and they are particularly influential in encouraging students to

participate in sports. Teachers play an important role in motivating or de-motivating the students for participation in sports by virtue of their influence. Therefore, teachers' positive attitude and perception towards physical education and sports activities tends to promote participation in sports. Sportsmen/women are viewed as role models and they have positive impact upon individuals and community. The children and youngsters inspire from them and start their sports. Moreover, students are the future of our nations and their positive perception, belief and attitude towards sports motivate them to participate in sports activities. These four categories of persons are known as stakeholders. It was very important to know the perception, opinion and approach of the stakeholders towards positive role of sports specially in controlling violent behavior. Positive perception of stakeholders can help implement different sports programs for controlling violent behavior among youth. In this context this study was conducted to explore the perceptual posture of stakeholders regarding efficacy of sports in curbing violent behavior among youth.

Objective of the Study

The objective of the study was to explore the perceptions of stakeholders about efficacy of sports in curbing violent behaviors among youth between the ages of 15 to 24 years.

Research Methodology

The study was conducted in the main Districts of Pakistan's Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province. Prime aim of the study was to explore the perception of stakeholders about efficacy of sports in curbing violent behavior. It was basically a survey design descriptive research study. The population for this study consisted of stakeholders included parents, teachers, students and sportsmen/women. The teachers, students and sportsmen/women of only Government Colleges of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa were included in the study. Opinion of the sample population regarding role of sports in controlling violent behavior was taken through some basic questions.

In first phase of sampling the researcher randomly selected 7 districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa out of 26 Districts. These districts were Peshawar, Mardan, Saidu Sharif, Haripur, Abbottabad, Dera Ismail Khan and Kohat. Secondly, four colleges i.e. two males and two female colleges were randomly selected from each sampled district. In the third phase stratified sampling technique was applied to sample out representatives from all the four strata of stakeholders i.e. parents, teachers, students and sportsmen/women. Teachers and students were selected through random sampling technique and parents and sportsmen/women were selected through convenient or available sampling technique. A total of 512 stakeholders were selected, whereas proportional representation was given to each stratum.

For the purpose of data collection, a structured questionnaire on five-point Likert scale (Likert, 1931) ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” consisted of 10 items was developed, validated and pilot tested by the researchers. The reliability of the measuring scale was tested through the Cronbach’s Alpha showing a value of 0.932 on standardized items. Following null hypotheses were tested.

1. There is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports participation in controlling antisocial behavior.
2. There is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports participation in helping to control aggressiveness.
3. There is no significant difference of perception among parents and teachers regarding role of sports in controlling criminal offensiveness.
4. There is no significant difference of perception among male and female regarding role of sports in helping to control Juvenile delinquency.
5. There is no significant difference of perception among students and sportsmen/women regarding role of sports in controlling negative sentiments.

Data Analysis and Results

The collected data were arranged, coded, tabulated and analyzed separately and treated statistically through statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version-16. Percentage was used for analysis of data while Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Independent Sample T-Test were used for testing of hypotheses. Results of the study based on data collected from questionnaire have been given in table 1 below.

Table 1

Frequency (%) of participants’ responses to the questionnaire (n=512)

Statements	SA		A		NS		DA		SDA	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Sports participation improves problem solving skills	22	4.3	282	55.1	79	15.4	105	20.5	24	4.7
Sports help to control antisocial behavior.	51	10.0	278	54.3	25	4.9	133	26.0	25	4.8
Sports participation foster pro-social behavior.	56	10.9	286	55.9	33	6.4	114	22.3	23	4.5
Sports participation helps to control aggressiveness.	36	7.0	302	59.0	36	7.0	115	22.5	23	4.5
Sports help to control Juvenile delinquency.	41	8.0	283	55.3	34	6.6	128	25.0	26	5.1
Sports participation helps to prevent violence.	52	10.2	254	49.6	64	12.5	121	23.6	21	4.1
Sports help to control criminal offensiveness.	37	7.2	267	52.1	65	12.7	125	24.4	18	3.6

Sports help to control negative sentiments.	33	6.4	282	55.1	79	15.4	94	18.4	24	4.7
Sports develop greater self-discipline.	81	15.8	299	58.4	29	5.7	68	13.3	35	6.8
Sports provide means of encouraging self-control.	85	16.6	302	59.0	31	6.1	75	14.6	19	3.7

F= Frequency, SA=Strongly Agree, A= Agree, NS= Not Sure, DA= Disagree, SDA=Strongly Disagree

Inferential Statistics

1. There is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports participation in controlling antisocial behavior.

Table 2

ANOVA Table showing perception of stakeholders about role of sports participation in controlling antisocial behavior

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between Groups	2.224	3	.741		
Within Groups	615.248	496	1.240	.598	0.617
Total	617.472	499			

It was assumed that all the stakeholders have a similar opinion about role of sports in controlling antisocial behavior. To examine the hypothetical assumption made by the researcher, ANOVA was applied, the result of which has been given in Table 2 above. Table 2 shows that $F(3, 496) = .598$, $p = 0.617 > \alpha = 0.05$, which assert that null hypothesis has been accepted. It has established that there is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports in controlling antisocial behavior.

2. There is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports participation in helping to control aggressiveness.

Table 3

ANOVA Table showing perception of stakeholders about role of sports participation in controlling aggressiveness.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between Groups	1.712	3	.571	.528	0.663
Within Groups	535.936	496	1.081		
Total	537.648	499			

It was supposed that all the stakeholders have a similar standpoint about role of sports participation in helping to control aggressiveness. ANOVA was applied to test the hypothetical assumption made by the researcher, the result of which has been given in Table 3 above. Table 3 shows that $F(3, 496) = .528$, $p = 0.663 > \alpha = 0.05$, which asserts that null hypothesis has been accepted. It has established that there is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports in controlling aggressiveness.

3. There is no significant difference of perception among parents and teachers regarding role of sports in controlling criminal offensiveness.

Table 4

Independent sample T-Test results showing comparative approach of parents and teachers about role of sports in controlling criminal offensiveness

Respondents	N	Mean	Std. Dev	t	df	p-value
Parents	128	3.38	1.061	-.179	248	0.858
Teachers	128	3.41	1.056			

The researcher assumed that parents and teachers have a similar perception about role of sports in controlling criminal offensiveness. To test the hypothetical assumption made by the researcher, independent sample t-test was applied, the result of which has been given in Table 4 above. Table 4 shows that $t(248) = -.179$, $p = 0.858 > 0.05$, which asserts that the null hypothesis has been substantiated and reveals that there is no significant difference of perception among parents and teachers regarding role of sports in controlling criminal offensiveness.

4. There is no significant difference of perception among male and female regarding role of sports in helping to control Juvenile delinquency.

Table 5

Independent sample T-Test results showing comparative approach of parents and teachers about role of sports in controlling criminal offensiveness

Respondents	N	Mean	Std. Dev	t	df	p-value
Male	269	3.40	1.079	.114	498	0.909
Female	243	3.39	1.086			

It was assumed by the researcher that there is no significant difference of perception among male and female regarding role of sports in helping to control Juvenile delinquency. This hypothetical assumption of researcher is tested through independent sample t-test, the result of which has been given in Table 5 above. Table 5 shows that $t(498) = .114$, $p = 0.909 > 0.05$, which asserts that the null hypothesis has been approved.

It has established that there is no significant difference of perception among male and female regarding role of sports in helping to control juvenile delinquency.

5. There is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports in controlling negative sentiments.

Table 6

ANOVA Table showing perceived stance of stakeholders about role of sports in controlling negative sentiments

	Some of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between Groups	1.366	3	.455	.472	0.702
Within Groups	478.656	496	.965		
Total	480.022	499			

It was hypothesized by the researcher that all the stakeholders have a similar perception regarding role of sports in controlling negative sentiments. To examine the hypothetical assumption made by the researcher, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was applied, the result of which has been given in Table 6 above. Table 6 shows that $F(3, 496) = .472$, $p = 0.702 > \alpha = 0.05$, which assert the acceptance of null hypothesis, and reveals that there is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports in controlling negative sentiments.

Discussions

The findings show that 59.4 % of stakeholders agreed with the notion that participation in sports improves problem solving skills. Research provided evidence that participation in sports improve the power and ability of resolving problems and making independent decision (Kerr, 1996). A survey was conducted through conference Board Canada on “the Socio-economic benefits of sport participation in Canada”. Bloom *et al.*, (2005) reported that respondent’s perceived sports as a tool that helps participants learn numerous attributes including problem solving, decision making, personal management, administrative skills, communication, team work and leadership. Williams *et al.*, (2002) stated that sports develop life skills such as problem-solving skills, cognitive skills, communicative skills and control of aggression.

It was standpoint of 64.3 % of the respondents that participation in sports helps to control antisocial behavior. Many research studies found that self-discipline and self-esteem gained through sports participation help to reduce the inclination towards delinquency, crimes and antisocial behavior (Taylor *et al.*, 1999). Seefeldt and Ewing (2002) argued that when sports used in combination with a full range of social, educational, and job-skill training programs, its usefulness to mediate anti-social

behavior in young people improves. Satcher (2005) found participation in sports help to reduce disruptive behaviors among the youth.

It was perceived by 66.8 % of the respondents that sports foster pro-social behavior, which matches with the findings of Heather et al. (2015) who found that participation in sports related to self-regulation, self-esteem, life skills and pro-social behavior. Similarly, Eccles *et al.* (2003) reported that sports develop pro-social behavior, increase self-esteem and reduce depression.

It was perception of 66 % of the respondents that participation in sports helps to control aggressiveness. This is consistent with the finding of Keren Shahar who found that sports help to control self-control, discipline and reduce overall feelings of aggression (cited by Toporek, 2011). Bredemeier and Shields (1986) stated that sportsmen/women show comparatively less aggressiveness.

It was the view of 63.3 % of the respondents that participation in sports helps to control Juvenile delinquency. Jamil et al. (2009) concluded that Juvenile delinquency was considered to be positively addressed through maximum participation in sports among the young people. Nicholson and Hoyer (2008) asserted that sports activities can be used as effective tool to reduce juvenile delinquency via involving endangers disadvantaged groups.

It was perceived by 59.8 % of the stakeholders that sports participation helps to prevent violence. Nichols and Crow (2004) argued that according to pro-social development theory sports can provide a system of legitimate relationships- coaches, fans, program leaders, peers - that can increase discipline, empathy, ability to work with others, pro-social values, self-esteem and professional goals among sports participants. Proponents of sports and physical education maintain that these are the psychological factors that ultimately reduce violence among youth. In other words; participation in sports can indirectly reduce violence among young people by protecting them from deviant peers. Hartmann and Depro (2006) classify large number of sports and recreation program that help to reduce violence in youth. According to them the United States of America Recreation and Park Association indicated 621 such programs and the Australian Institute of Criminology indicated more than 600 programs that help to reduce violence among youth.

It was the opinion of 59.3 % of the respondents that sports participation helps to control criminal offensiveness. This is consistent with the finding of Jamil (2009) who found that sports effectively control drug abuse, juvenile delinquency and criminal offensiveness. In another study Jamil et al. (2009) concluded that criminal offensiveness was believed to be controlled through maximum participation in sports.

This was the view point of 61.5 % of the respondents that sports participation helps control negative sentiments. This finding is supported by Jamil (2009) who found

that sports control over negative thoughts. The opinion of respondents was also evidenced by Mutrie and Biddle (1995) who found that sports activities help contain negative sentiments and pessimism, and prevents crimes and delinquency.

It was perceived by 74.2% of the respondents that sports develop greater self-discipline. Light (2010) found that sports and recreation programs develop self-discipline. Similarly, as a result of evaluation of the Sporting chance program, Lonsdale *et al.* (2011) found that sports develop self-discipline among participants. Hartmann (2003) argued that sports programs are often conceived as providing a site for self-discipline and character building. In a literature review

This was the perception of 75.6% of the respondents that sports provide a means of encouraging self-control. Many research studies reported that sports activities enhance self-control (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995) that helps improve the power of commitment among the players (Arnold, 1986). Cote and Fraser-Thomas (2007) suggested that youth sports programs are important to psychological development of youth. These programs provide the opportunities to learn important life skills such as self-control, discipline, cooperation and leadership.

Conclusions

It was concluded that the stakeholders consider sport as useful activity which improves problem solving skills. The study reveals that sports activities help to control antisocial behavior and foster pro-social behavior. The study discloses that sports activities are conceived as quite capable in controlling aggressiveness. Juvenile delinquency is one of the most serious social problems within society was also considered to be positively controlled through enhancement in sports participation among youth. The stakeholders believed that violence being a social phenomenon can very effectively be prevented through increase in sports participation in young peoples. Similarly, criminal offensiveness, which is a social problem and harmful act to individuals, society, community and state, can be controlled through maximum participation of sports among the youth. It was also concluded that negative sentiments can also be controlled through participation in sports. The stakeholders believed that self-discipline & self-control may be developed through maximum participation in sports.

It is concluded that there is no significant difference of perception among all categories of stakeholders regarding role of sports participation in controlling antisocial behavior, aggressiveness and negative sentiments, while no significant difference of perception found among parents and teachers regarding role of sports in controlling criminal offensiveness and among male and female regarding role of sports in controlling Juvenile delinquency.

Recommendations

This study was conducted only in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan. To achieve better results and to generalize these results across Pakistan, this study may be conducted throughout Pakistan. To increase sports participation from grass root level different sports competitions should be organized at Union Councils, Tehsils and District level. Sports should be promoted in Educational institutions at large scale for having a nursery of sports right from the grass root level. Sufficient sports fund and facilities should be provided to educational institutions. Standard sports facilities should be provided in each city and town of the country including backward areas.

References

- Andrews, J. P., & Andrews, G. J. (2003). Life in a secure unit: the rehabilitation of young people through the use of sport. *Social Science and Medicine*, 56 (3): 531-550.
- Arnold, P. J (1986). Moral aspects of an education in movement, *Proceedings for the 57th Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Physical Education*, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Butcher, C.A (1979). *Foundations of Physical Education (8thed.)*. St. Louis, the C.V Mosby Company.
- Butcher, R & Schneider, A (2003). *Community Sport, Community Choice: The Ethical Challenges of Community Sport*. Retrieved from www.google.com.
- Bloom, M, Michael, G, & Douglas, W (2005). *Strengthening Canada: The Socio-Economic Benefits of Sport Participation in Canada*. A Survey Report submitted to Conference Board of Canada.
- Beets, M.W, Cardinal, B. J, & Alderman, B. L (2010). Parental social support and the physical activity-related behaviors of youth. A review. *Health Education & Behavior*, 37(5): 621-644.
- Bredemeier, B.J., & Shields, D.L. (1986). Athletic aggression: An issue of contextual morality. *Sociology of Sports Journal*, 3 (1):15-28.
- Canadian Centre for Ethics in Sports (2002). *Canadian Public Opinion Survey on Youth and Sports* (Final Report). Ottawa.
- Cigliano, L. M. (2006). *A Perceptual Study of The Impact of Athletic Programs in Selected Community Colleges in The State of Tennessee* (PhD Dissertation). East Tennessee State University, Johnson, USA.
- Côté, J, & Fraser-Thomas, J. (2007). Youth involvement in sport. In P.R.E. Crocker (Ed.), *Introduction to Sport Psychology: A Canadian Perspective*. Toronto: Pearson Prentice Hall.

- Davis, R.W (2002). *Inclusion Though Sports*. Champaign, IL, Human Kinetics.
- DeVoe, J. F., Peter, K., Kaufman, P., Miller, A., Noonan, M., Snyder, T. D., & Baum, K. (2004). *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* (U.S. Departments of Education and Justice, NCES 2005–002/NCJ 205290). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office
- Ewing, M, Gano-Overway, Branta, C, & Seefeldt, V. (2002). The role of sports in youth development. In M. Gatz, M. Messner& S. Ball-Rokeach (eds.), *Paradoxes of Youth and Sport*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Eccles, J. S., Barber, B. L., Stone, M., & Hunt, J. (2003). Extracurricular activities and adolescent development. *Journal of Social Issues*, 59 (4):865–889.
- Gould, D. (1983). *Developing Psychological Skills in Young Athletes*. Coaching Science Update, 4-13.
- Hansen, D.M, Larson, R.W, & Dworkin, J.B. (2003). What adolescents learn in organized youth activities: A survey of self-reported developmental experiences. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 13 (1): 25-55.
- Hartmann, D &Depro, B (2006). Rethinking sports-based community crime prevention. *Journal of Sport and Social Issue*, 30 (2): 180-194
- Heather J.C, Martin, C, Terrance J.W, & John, C (2015). Sport participation and its association with social and psychological factors known to predict substance use and abuse among youth. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 8(1): 224-250
- Hartmann, D, & Depro, B (2006). Rethinking sports-based community crime prevention: A preliminary analysis of the relationship between midnight basketball and urban crime rates. *Journal of Sports and Social Issues*, 30(2): 180–196.
- Jamieson, L, M & Ross, C.M (2007). Research update; Using recreation to curb extremism. *Parks and Recreation Magazine*, 42 (2): 28-29
- Jones, M. B, &Offord, D. R (1989). Reduction of antisocial behavior in poor children by non-school skill-development’, *Journal of Child Psychology*, 30 (5):737-750.
- Jamil, A, Rahman, A, & Anwar, S (2009). Perceptual experience of stakeholders regarding role of sports participation in uprooting social evils from society. *Pakistan Journal of Life and Social Sciences*, 7(1): 148-154.
- Jamil, A (2009). *Perception of Stakeholders Regarding Role of Sports in The Development and Promotion of Appropriate Socio-Cultural Traits Among its Participants* (PhD Dissertation). Institute of Education and Research, Gomal University, Dera Ismail Khan.

- Kerr, G. (1996). The role of sport in preparing youth for adulthood. In B. Galloway & J. Hudson (Eds.), *Youth in Transition: Perspectives on Research and Policy* (PP.293-301). Toronto, Canada: Thompson Educational Publishing.
- Likert, R. A (1931). *Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes*, New York, Columbia University Press
- Mutrie, N, & Biddle, S.J (1995). The effects of exercise on mental health in non-clinical populations, in Biddle, S. (Ed.) *European Perspectives in Exercise and Sport Psychology, Champaign, Illinois, Human Kinetic*. Retrieved from www.google.com.
- Melnick, M.J., Vanfossen, B.E., & Sabo, D.F. (1988). Developmental effects of athletic participation among high school girls, *Sociology of Sports Journal*, 5 (1):22–36
- National Federation of State High Schools Associations (2003). *The Case for High School Activities*. Retrieved from <https://www.nfhs.org/articles/the-case-for-high-school-activities/>
- Nicholson, M, & Hoyer, R (2008). *Sport and Social Capital: An Introduction in Sport and Social Capital*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Nichols, G. & Lain, C (2004). Measuring the impact of crime reduction interventions involving sports activities for young people. *The Howard Journal*, 43(3): 267–283.
- President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sport (2006). Sports and Character Development, *Research Digest Series*, 7/1, Washington, DC: President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sport.
- Rasmussen, K (1999). The changing sports scene. *Educational Leadership*, 57(4): 26-29.
- Seefeldt, V. & Ewing, M.E (2002). *Youth Sports in America: An Overview, President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest*; 2 (11), 1-14.
- Satcher, D. (2005). Healthy and ready to learn. *Educational Leadership*, (63): 26-30.
- Shields, D.L, & Bredemeier, B.L. (1995). *Character development and physical activity*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Taylor, P., Crow, I., Irvine, D., & Nichols, G. (1999). *Demanding Physical Activity Programmes for Young Offenders under Probation Supervision*, London: Home Office.
- Toporek, B (2011). *Sports Help Reduce Aggression in Boys, Researchers Find*. Retrieved from http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/schooled_in_sports_/2011/07/sports_help_reduce_aggression_in_boys_researchers_find.html

- UNIATFSDP: United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (2003). *Sports for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals*. UN United States of America National Recreation and Parks Association. Retrieved from [http://: www.nrpa.org/](http://www.nrpa.org/)
- Utting (1996). Reducing criminality among young people: A sample of relevant programs in the United Kingdom, *Home Office Research Study*. London, England.
- Williams, D. J., Streat, W. B., & Bengoechea, E. G. (2002). Understanding recreation and sport as a rehabilitative tool within juvenile justice programs. *Juvenile and Family Court Journal*, 53(2): 31-41.

School Choice Autonomy- A Source of Generating Inequities in Pakistan

Muhammad Ramzan*

Muhammad Uzair-ul-Hassan**

Iram Parveen***

Tariq Aziz****

Abstract

Pakistan comprises of a complex and chaotic society divided into various socio-economic strata. These strata are characterized in terms of their access to the resources and social mobility. Obviously rich strata are the privileged ones who have access and opportunities to the best resources and have social mobility. Lower classes have less opportunity to compete with the upper strata. The average class keeps struggling to attain their position in the society. This phenomenon has deep implications in parents' school choice for their children, more specifically in a society where they have free choice to select school of their choice. This is in contrast to Education system of Europe and America, where governments exert influence on parents' school choice to reduce inequities in the society. The study, thus, explores practices, actions and inclinations of parents' school choice for their children with respect to their social strata. The study endeavors to explain how and what various parents of different cultural capital look for while preferring one school to other. Exploratory design was used for the study. A sample of twenty-nine parents, fifteen from urban and fourteen from rural areas of Sargodha district was purposively selected and interviewed. Qualitative data were analyzed to get appropriate patterns of parents' school choice for their children. Overall, private schools are preferred over public schools due to the stigma attached to the public schools for not providing quality educational atmosphere and the parents' concerns for safety, security, caring atmosphere and good teachers with whom children feel comfort. As government plays no significant role in school choice for children, this creates segregation among students and generates inequities.

Keywords: Parents, School choice, Equity, Students

* Assistant Professor, Department of Educational Training, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Email: ramzaniub@hotmail.com (Corresponding Author)

** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, University of Sargodha, Sargodha Email: uhassan74@gmail.com

*** Lecturer, Department of Education, University of Sargodha

**** Graduate, Department of Education, University of Sargodha

Introduction

Pakistan comprises a complex and chaotic society divided into various socio-economic strata of rich, average and poor classes. These strata are characterized in terms of their access to the resources and social mobility. Obviously, classes belonging to rich strata are the most privileged ones who have access and opportunities to the best resources and ultimately climb up the ladder of social mobility. Poor classes having less access and opportunities lack far behind to compete with the upper strata and hence are left behind in all walks of life. The average class keeps getting inspired from rich and keeps struggling to attain their position in the society. This phenomenon has deep implications in parents' school choice for their children, more specifically in a society where parents have free choice to select any school of their choice. This is in contrast to schooling system of Europe and America, where governments exert influence on parents' school choice to reduce inequities in the society.

Coleman (1988) explained that parents' school choice is a component of a communal process of prominent properties of societal class and networking of social interaction. According to Smrekar and Goldring (1999), parents are constrained in their capacity to choose best school whose weak networking of valuable information about option of school does not provide access to suitable information regarding option of school choice. Similarly, Fung and Lam (2011) elaborated that school choice is a concern that has been paying attention in the education area and school choice gives parents superior power over their children's education. Parents are important stakeholders in the nurture of their children. According to Bosetti (2007), school choice and parent self-efficiency in part stem from dissatisfaction with comprehensive schools, superficial low educational values in public schools, and poor student performance among minority and socioeconomically disadvantaged groups. Parental school choice has become attractive area and now it is not a new trend. No doubt, it has attained its place in education management in the last three decades. Studies on parental school choice have not been confined to parent rights in education. For example, Fung and Lam (2011) has found that school choice increases parents' happiness and satisfaction and students' achievement. Parents are more important stakeholder in choice of school for children. According to Reich (2008), permitting parents to manage how their children are educated is the right of parents in a self-governing society. Ball (2003) has explained that parent's school choice and competition of market improve consumer-provider relationship between parents and schools, replacing it with a mutual partnership. Lubienski (2008) argued that parents look for a school that serves the values in accordance with the values at home. About school choice Cohen & Farrar (1995) explained that choice strengthens voices of parents and fulfills family's desire to impart the best education to their children. Weidner and Herrington's (2006) study found that decision of parents to choose school is based on an academic quality of school, quality of teachers, special education system, syllabus, class size, performance of school, students' achievements, financial aid, values, and

safety of school. Proponents of school choice argue that parents have the right to educate their children in accordance with their life-pattern and values. "Education is a natural extension of child rearing preferences; therefore, parents should be able to choose schools consistent with these preferences" (Levin, 2000, p. 7).

Parents wish to get enrolled their children in a better school that would help children to excel academically and to become productive citizen. However, there are financial constraints that consequently compel and perpetuate parents to select the right and proper school for children. While choosing appropriate school for children, parents keep in mind proximity or ease of travel, location of school from home, family or friends opinion, academic standards, general impression of the school, facilities, religious activities at schools, pre-school's childcare and curricular activities etc. According to Bempechat (1992), parents who are involved in choosing school for their children also tend to bring in good attitudes toward the teachers who teach the children. Kobayashi (2009) argued that choice in Paris (France) is not only determined by the social categories of parents but also by the result of the balance of force among different motivations, children and parents' previous school experience, their social representations, their expectations, the financial and geographical constraints, etc.

Excellent school choices enhance the students' satisfaction and performance. Wise & Darling-Hammond (1995) have explained that school choice enables parents to provide their children good education potential. Houston (2004) argued that parents' true school choice made them more liable to devote themselves in their children's learning. Lubieniski (2008) has explained that parent's primary school's choice decision is based on their children strengths and weaknesses, family values, parents' purview, parents' right to choose right school for their children. School choice behavior can be selected through demand side factors and supply side components or both. The selection is based on child specific behavior and characteristics like gender, age and intelligence, and also parents' specific characteristics in term of education and awareness as well as information through colleagues and market. Similarly, house-hold specification characteristic like income and wealth are also considered in this regard. Supply side factors include school specific characteristics like school management, quality, medium of instructions, private or public, school distance for home to school, co-education school or single sex school etc. Smrerkar and Goldring (1999) elaborated that school choice revitalizes public education through the establishment of private schools as an alternative source, that enhancing parents' involvement in choice and satisfaction, sense of community and resulting in enhancing students' achievement, and improved learning. Rationale theory choice explains more choice of school plans. For example, the theory proposes that parents are the main focusing agent for decision of school with respect to success and benefit. Ball (2003) has explicated that parent's school choice is a part of societal process which was influenced by different features and properties of social class and network of social relationships. Parents rely on their personal values, feeling and collect information from their social and

professional network to make decision about children education. According to Smrekar and Goldring (1999), parents who do not have extended network, do not access to get information from different people and it is hard collect valuable information regarding option of school choice. The involvement of parents in school is fruitful. In this regard, Henderson (1988) explicates that schools which favor involvement perform better as compared to those schools which do not. Moreover, Rose and Elicker (2010) concluded that there is a much gap between parental likings and the actual choices

Parents are differing in beliefs regarding how children should be treated that constitutes an ideal learning environment. The choice can be very effective and beneficial when child gets outstanding learning and outstanding school with reasonable money. According to Hill (2006), parents who are inexperienced and less privilege have scarcity of information about schools and they do not know how to make a good choice. According to Theobald (2005), literature indicates that parents choose conveniently located schools. Hastings, Justine, Thomas, Kane, and Staiger (2005) found that parents prefer schools which are close to home rather than high academic achievement. OECD (1994) reported that parents of middle class and in a specified profession paid more attention to schools' academic prestige and whether school could help improve students' academic performance. Riley and Glass (2002) indicate that poor parents cannot afford good school but they prefer public schools. Rose and Elicker (2010) found that many families spend their income on childcare which is not their first fondness. Barbarin, McCandies, Early, Clifford, Bryant, and Burchinal (2006) explained that parents whose income is high are more likely to spend on developmental aspect of child.

Manage school choice to avoid segregation and increased inequities providing full parental school choice can result in segregating students by ability, socio economic background and generate greater inequities across education systems. Choice programmes can be designed and managed to balance choice while limiting its negative impact on equity. There are different options possible: introducing controlled choice schemes can combine parental choice and ensure a more diverse distribution of students. In addition, to ensure balance, incentives to make disadvantaged students attractive to quality education, school selection mechanisms, vouchers or tax credits can be alternative options. Policies are also required to improve disadvantaged families' access to information about schools and to support them in making informed choices.

Parental Choice of Schooling in Pakistan

In Pakistan, the private schools started to emerge from 1970 but the support of government to strengthen private sector started in 1990 with the formation of national and provincial level education foundation. The growth of private schools was no more an urban best phenomenon after denationalization in Pakistan. The school was also rapidly increasing and starts spreading in rural areas. Parents also check school quality, infrastructure and infer quality differences between schools from the fees which

responded to predictable way. Over the past some years, researches show that private schools system and provision of education has become an excellent and significant phenomenon in Pakistan both in rural and urban area. The main factor in fast growth of private educational institution in Pakistan is quality of education and learning. The research of Andrabi, Das and Khwaja (2002) indicate that if quality is low in some private school, it also needs to be given in society for low income people. Parents can differentiate between schools through the range of fees, quality of teaching and predictable way to school inputs. Parental choices are also affected on many other factors as well as personal references, school results, marketing of school, publicity, annual examination result and quality. In some instances, if school inputs are very high and quality is also very excellent but some time parents observed school building and low students-teacher ratio. According to Bengali (1999), education policies in Pakistan have intervened private provision.

Rationale, Research Problem and Research Questions

For the last two or three decades, forces to weaken public schools in Pakistan are getting strength and parents are getting more concern towards opting private schools on the basis of their assessment. Parents have a lot of concerns when choosing schools for children. Parents consider academic standards, ease of travel, facilities, curricular activities, tuition fee etc., while selecting schools. Considering the concerns of parents in opting schools for children, the study intends to explore parental choice of primary schools to get insight about how and what parents look for while preferring one school to other. This study also takes into account the parents' participation to support academically to their children in schools. The intended study identifies factors influencing parental school choice, assess views of parents' school choice for children, gets insight about how and what parents look for while opting school, explain parental participation to support the children academically. The study addresses following questions: (1) what factors influence parents to choose school for their children? (2) How do parents think of public and private schools while making decision to choose schools for their children?

Methodology

The study functions under the umbrella of qualitative approach where interviews were considered as the most appropriate technique to get insight of school choice from respondents. According to Gay, Mills and Airasian (2012), qualitative research is based on a more holistic view and it is not about answering questions such as "to what extent" or "how well" something is done. The study followed exploratory design to explore parent's practices of choosing schools with respect to their cultural capital and for this purpose open-ended questions in interviews were used. Parents who have enrolled their children in rural and urban public and private primary schools of Sargodha division were population of the study. It was assumed that parents understand the dynamics under

which they reach to decision while choosing one school over the other. A sample of twenty-nine parents of Sargodha district from both rural and urban areas was purposively selected from the population after taking into account their interest to willingly respond on the questions. The place of interviews was suggested by the parents. So, researchers conducted interviews either in parents' drawing room where both parents i.e. father and mother of a student were present or sometimes either one of them was available for interview. The time of each interview varied depending on the nature of the person interviewed as some parents were more vocal as compared to the others. The interviews lasted from 35 minutes to 1 hour in general. Researchers stopped to conduct further interviews when information started to repeat and it was the indication of data saturation. Thus, the data were confined to twenty-nine parents only and due to this saturation of the data the decision was changed to collect further information from rest of the parents chosen earlier for data collection. In total, data were collected from fifteen parents whose children enrolled in urban schools and fourteen parents whose children were enrolled in rural schools. During data collection process, it was observed that some parents at onset of interview were hesitant but later they were relaxed. Researchers tried to include parents with varied cultural capital. For example, socio-economic status, parents' education and nature of job etc of various parents included in the sample were different from each other. The sample consisted of both type of parents who send their children in private and public schools to explore patterns behind their school choice and to explore whether school choice autonomy is better in the aspect that does not link to inequities in education.

Experts' opinion was sought on the questions included in the interview to ensure the validity. Similarly, interviews were piloted to five parents before collecting final data. This step provided twofold benefit to researchers. In the first form, it brought clarify in screening parents and secondly it made the consistency in the patterns of information shared by the parents certain. Questions asked in interviews were flexible in structure i.e., if parents provided extra but relevant information to the purpose, they have not been interrupted. Researchers developed question based on global literature reviewed and trends and tendency of regional and national circumstances related to choose of school. The interview comprised of fourteen questions, related to basic information of parents and children, reasons concerning the idea to get admission in particular school, feelings of parents concerning school, satisfaction on teaching quality, curriculum, learning environment, teaching facilities, and medium of instruction used in schools. The researchers visited different areas and places to conduct interviews. Throughout the course of conducting interview the researchers introduced himself, introduced the topic and started formal interview and wrote some views of parents about school choice and also recorded interviews with the permission of parents and saved for further procedure. Finally, the researchers could be able to conduct 29 interviews of parents living in different places conveniently but purposively. Parents expressed themselves in Punjabi and Urdu language because they were comfortable to express themselves in mother

tongue or in national language. When all the interviews were transcribed, then these interviews were translated into English. The translated material and content were further corrected and validated by English Language teacher to keep the data as original as it was in Urdu language.

Data Analysis

According to Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003), qualitative data helps to better understand the complexities of a phenomenon and an issue that is being explored. Data were analyzed by following Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003) approach of qualitative data analysis. Researchers transcribed the recorded interviews and arranged the text of transcribed interviews sequentially based on questions included in the interview. Texts of transcribed interviews were split into codes, categories, sub-themes and themes. According to Saldana (2009), the researchers coded data to identify regular patterns or general themes. Taylor-Powell (2003) explained that all data were required to bring order and understanding for creativeness, order, discipline and organization. Qualitative researchers build their patterns, categories, and themes from the “bottom-up,” by organizing the data into increasingly more abstract units of information (Creswell, 2007, p. 38-39). This inductive process makes researchers to continue to work between the extremes of text until the emergence of exclusive themes. Interactive collaboration with participants also facilitates the process. Researchers identified themes and under each emerged title, different categories were also identified. To avoid chances of overlapping among themes and categories many readings were conducted of the transcribed text. It was taken into account that parents often responded multiple times under the same category or under different categories. In such cases, parents’ expressions were placed under relevant categories earlier established. Each parent was assigned with a specific identity code. The questions asked to parents in interviews were open-ended. The assigned codes represent the major category of the text in which parents reflected. The digit represents parents’ frequency response on the issue. For example, the code PG4 i.e., parent who gathered information to choose schools while talking to relatives, friends, neighbours etc., represents information on which four parents reflected. Similarly, code PW5 represents the issue relevant to the schools which are welcomed and reflected by five parents. In this way all the interviews’ text was coded. Consistency in elaborative responses of parents on similar issue also indicates the reliability of analysis. Transcription of interviews was completed in Microsoft Office Word. Themes and categories which are emerged from transcribed text of interviews were:

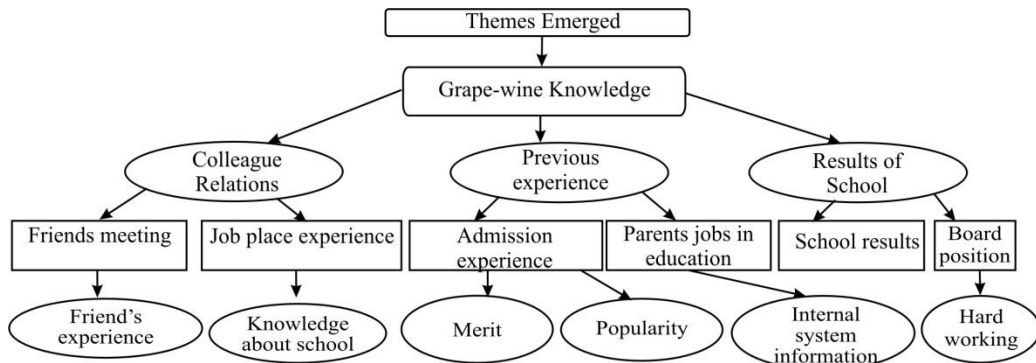
1. On the grapevine
2. What curriculum exists in school
3. Welcoming schools
4. School access
5. Money matters

6. Private versus public schools

The details of pictorial reflection of codes, sub-categories, categories, sub-themes under the themes “grapevine information or knowledge” and “preference of innovative curriculum” are given below:

1. *On the Grapevine*

Parents rely on the information got through the grapevine. To choose school, most parents hear from other people about schools informally. Parents discuss with friends, colleagues and neighbors and other person of community. Parents also consider their previous experiences as well. For uneducated parents, it is difficult to understand the better choice and they do not look for better school’ result. For example, the parent interviewed expressed, “... meeting with friends is a good tool to get information...” (PG1). Parents also decide to finalize school when other parents seem satisfied and their child feels good and goes to school happily. Also, Parents look for security as well. A parent explained during the interview, “... now-a-days, you know, a good security system is important...” (PG5). Similarly, another parent expressed his views regarding choice of school in these words: “we seek information of different schools through many sources like friends regarding better management, qualified staff, class size, school location and above all results of school” (PG4). Parents also ask through “on the grapevine” regarding fee-package. A parent explained “sometimes I feel school is not good but when I look at my pocket I become helpless to choose the same school... the school building is not fully furnished but I have to send my children in the school” (PG15).



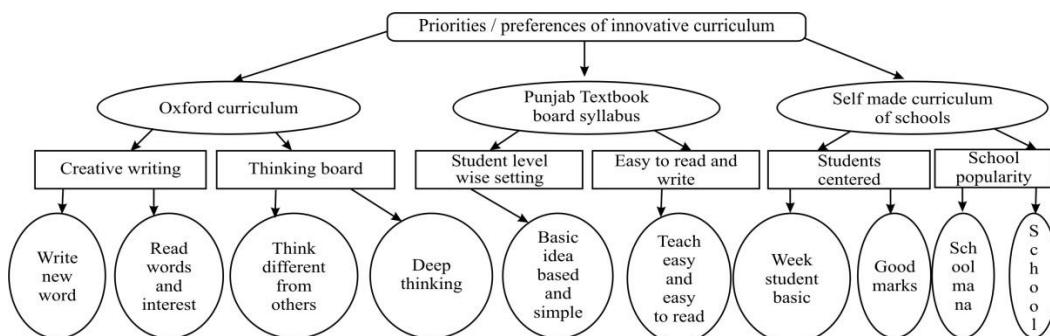


Figure 1: *Pictorial reflections of subthemes under the themes “grapevine knowledge” and “what curriculum exists in schools?”*

2. What curriculum exists in school?

The second theme we traced during qualitative analysis is the preference of innovative curriculum. This is more important for parents in selection of school for their children. Most of the parents interviewed seemed interested to get information of curriculum and visit different schools before decision making. A parent showed satisfaction over choice of school in her words “I fully satisfied with the curriculum that is the best for children’s concepts” (PC1). Mostly parent preferred activity based curriculum in schools. A parent argued “oxford syllabus, I think, should be used which is best for students learning as compared to others ... I am satisfied because concepts of student are more important as compared to marks” (PC2). Another parent stressed the importance of curriculum for school choice as “curriculum used in my children’s school is of oxford...this is activity based hence I am satisfied and my children concepts are good” (PC13). Similarly, a parent reflected “... I want a good learning environment at school, and syllabus should contain Islamic values” (PC14). Mostly parents considered it worthwhile when private schools opt for oxford curriculum that is best for students learning. To choose schools, parents prefer curriculum that facilitates in conceptual understanding. Some parents focus on curriculum that includes children’s regional experiences. For example, a parent elaborated “curriculum of that school is interesting because of students’ personal experiences, I think it is developed by the institution itself” (PC3). Most of the parents want reading and writing activities in the curriculum. The other parent explained “we were conscious about curriculum when we decided to choose school for our children... it should be good ... children should be able to write particularly creative...” (PC6). For parents, getting good marks is of prime importance for students learning. Record of school should be good as far as results are concerned. Parents are satisfied and reflected as “our children get good marks in examination and I am happy from schools” (PC8). Similarly, parents considered the repute of the school significant along with its result. For example, a parent reflected “... school repute is good and the results are better that is why I have enrolled my child in this school” (PC10)

3. Welcoming Approach and Accessibility

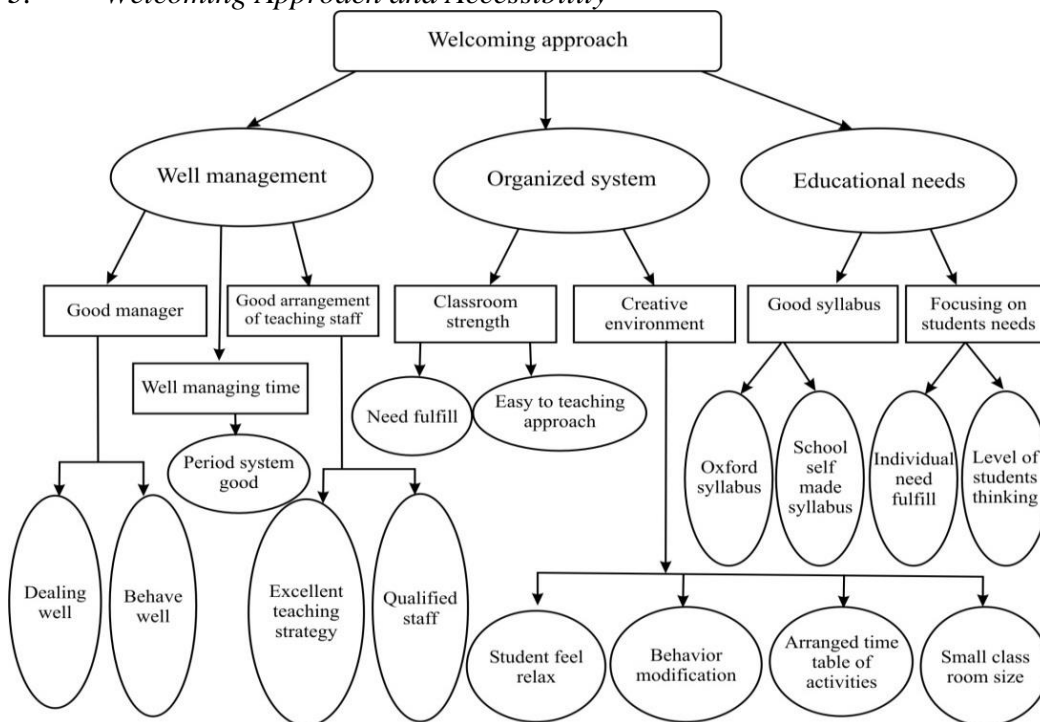


Figure 2: The details of pictorial reflection of codes, sub-categories, categories, sub-themes under the theme “welcoming schools”

This is about the parents’ feelings about school. How do schools welcome parents and children? How do management system, school administration and school leadership greet parents? Parents visit schools to observe management and administrative system to make a choice for their children’s first entry in school. Parents’ satisfaction of school management consequentially leads them to school selection. A teacher who have visited and observed the classroom explained: “... on visiting schools, I suppose..., I see good qualities of personnel involved in management...” (PW5). In the same context, another parent who also visited school and classroom elaborated “... school have designed and decorated classroom with colorful chairs and tables for play-group children...it seems us very attractive... class teacher with teaching-assistant was present... students were doing different task” (PW5). Similarly, a parent reflected “... no extra coaching needed for our children... they go to school happily and do their home-work daily with keen interest” (PW1). “Excellently fulfil educational needs and concept according to level of student and class. “We visited and observed schools where classes are well manageable...we want this for our children” (PW11). Parents also voiced as “...school contains sixteen

students per class... not more than that... that's good school but some feel that fee package is high ...” (PW14). A parent who chose public school for her children reasoned: “...now-a-days I managed better school with proper classrooms, affordable fee and above all teachers are good...” (PW14). Another teacher declared his choice good because the school is welcoming: “...less number of students in class, well learning environment ...good results... qualified staff... teaching facilities and moderate fee packages...” (PW18).

Parents choose schools which are easily accessible with respect to location and ease of traveling. Parents are satisfied if schools are safe and provide healthy and rich environment for children. A Parent expressed as “...less number of students and easily approached school... I am satisfied” (PA5). Another parent explained as “...the schools is near to our house and no transport is required...we save money and also ... I go to job and my child go to school alone without any fear” (PA14). The reflections converge towards conclusion that parents prefer schools in terms of location and access.

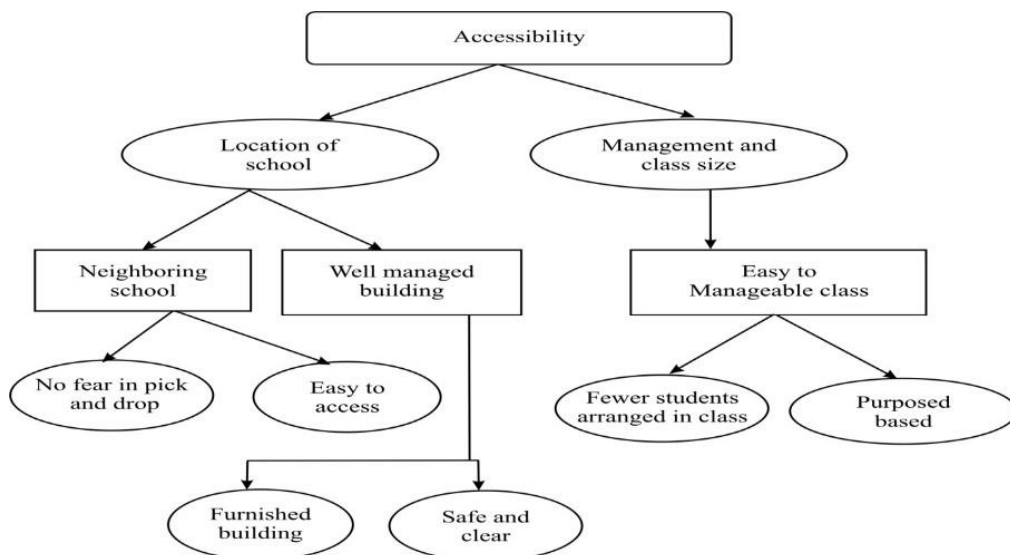


Figure 3: Pictorial reflection of sub-themes under the theme “location and accessibility”

4. Money Matters

Money is a significant factor in school choice. Parents’ autonomy seems less autonomous rather bound with respect to their cultural capital. The choice depends on parents’ capacity for fee affordability. “...we cannot afford high fee...our children go to public school” (P4). Another parent explained “...in this school I can pay fee easily” (PM9). Parents choose school that provides better facilities and fewer fee packages. A parent reflected “...being an employee of this school I prefer to choose this school...here

is qualified staff, proper campus for children, and fee is low because of concession...I am fully satisfied” (PM11). Similarly, another parent expressed “I couldn’t continue previous school that was very expensive and ... due to some financial problem... I choose this school because of low fee...” (PM15). The same parent continues to explain “...I want to continue children further education in this school as I have shifted in this city...I am not fully satisfied but you know... here lays financial constraints... although school building is not fully furnished and not safe...” (PM15). “...good result, qualified staff, better system, good curriculum, physical facilities, moderate fee packages all these things are required in schools, I think...” (PM18), a parent reflected.

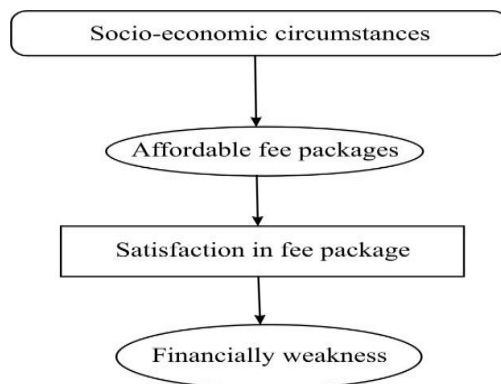


Figure 4: Pictorial reflection of sub-themes under the theme “money matters”

5. Private versus public schools

Now-a-days, almost all parents prefer private over public schools. The trends seem to be emerged and reached to its peak. Public schools have been weakening for two to three decades. Private schools emerged on the basis of quality. Not only parents assume that private schools are better in quality but under social pressure parents are compelled to choose private schools for their children as they feel inferior if they reflect that their children are going to public schools. A parent expressed “... I prefer private school due to well learning environment and management...” (PP2). Another parent explained the reason to choose private school as “... I feel fear in Army Public School due to some security reason ...” (PP1). Parents do not prefer public school because of resources unavailability. According to a parent “I choose private school but I also prefer army school for better students learning and education ... high qualified teachers are available in public schools but all other resources are not available...” (PP5). Another parent argued “...in public schools there are no facilities and poor learning environment and also classrooms are not available...” (PP3). “I chose private schools...public schools are poorly managed...” (PP4). Parents prefer private over public schools on basis of various factors like quality learning, organized school system, facilities available, management, educational environment, parent-teacher meetings, qualified staff, students’ needs

fulfilments, good syllabus, well managed and safe building, security system. Parents prefer public over private schools due to affordable fee, good reading and writing skill practices, qualified staff and sometimes wider and organized buildings.

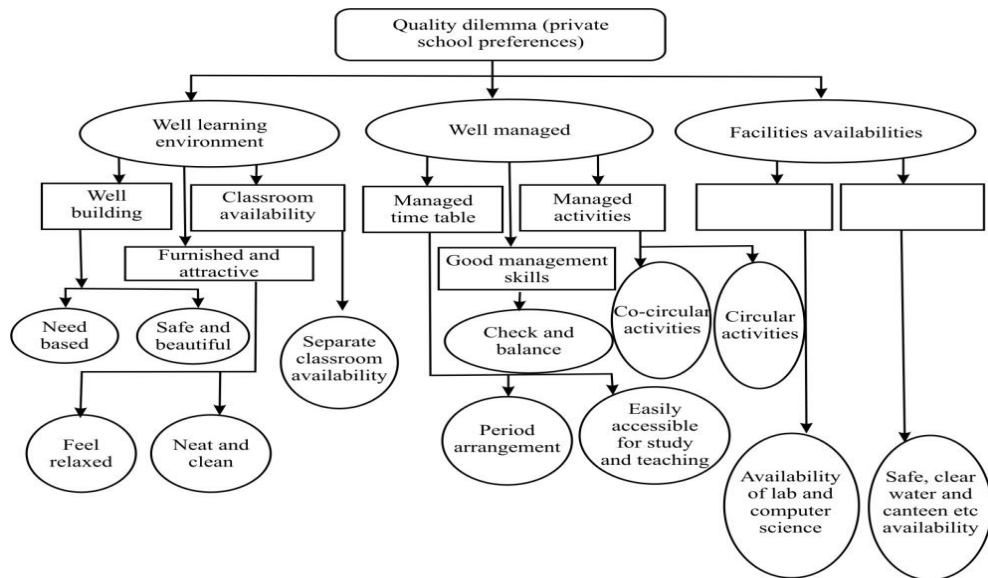


Figure 4(a): Pictorial reflection of sub-themes under the theme “private versus public schools”

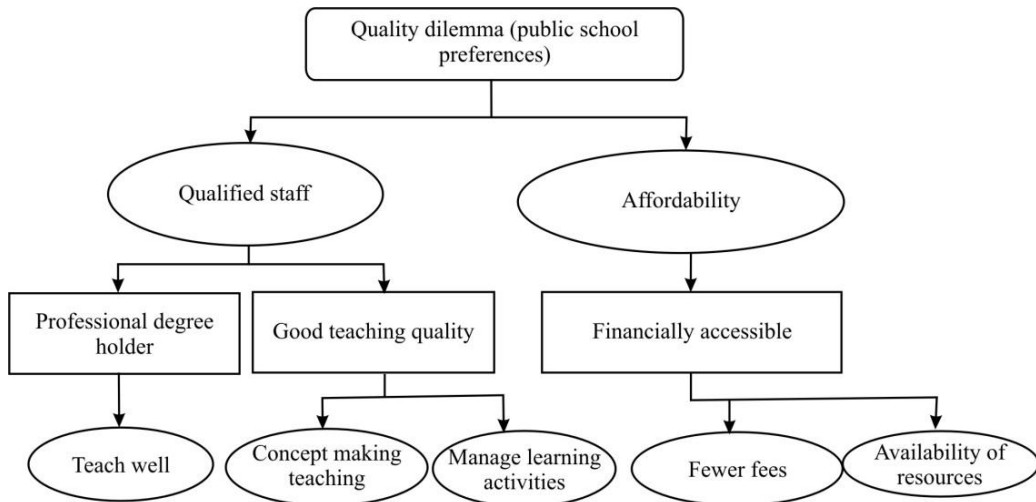


Figure 4(b): Pictorial reflection of sub-themes under the theme “private versus public schools”

Discussion and Conclusion

The study conducted indicates that parents choose schools in accordance with their social category they have in the society. Similarly, Kobayashi (2009) concluded in her study that choice is not only determined by the social categories of parents but also by the result of the balance of force among different motivations, children and parents' previous school experience, their social representations, their expectations, the financial and geographical constraints, etc. The study also indicates the importance of curriculum, pedagogy, achievements of students and school environment as performance indicators for parents that affect school choice. In the same way, OECD (1994) reported that parents in particular profession and average class parents paid much attention in choice of school and check school academic performance whether school help the children in achieving quality education? Safety is another factor, particularly in the country where terrorism activities exist, sans doubt; parents have more conscious about the safety of their children.

Parents always try to get enrolled their children in a better school that would help children to excel academically so that they may become a productive and active citizen. However, parents' affordability in terms of tuition fee becomes a barrier that consequently compels and perpetuates them to select appropriate school in accordance with their aspiration for their children. In addition, parents consider proximity or ease of travel, location of school from home, family or friends opinion, academic standards, general impression of the school, facilities, religious activities at schools, pre-school's childcare and curricular activities etc. Parents keep in view their own socio-economic condition as well as that of school's fee. Parents are also found to incline towards religious values while choosing school for their children. Parents' school choice is also based on school distance and location. In this study none of the parents reflected about the duration or length of time that children spend in schools. School's resources and facilities are important for parents. The study also reflects whether schools are welcoming in terms of fulfilling educational needs or not. The study unfolds that parents' cultural capital restrains their opportunities to choose desired school for their children. Their access to resources and social mobility are conditioned to their circumstances and hence to their children. Parents who are well off are concerned with the location, management and the environment provided in schools. Overall, private schools are preferred over public schools due to the stigma attached to the public schools for not providing quality educational atmosphere and the parents' concerns for safety, security, caring atmosphere and good teachers with whom children feel comfort. The study also reveals that parents are entirely autonomous in school choice albeit conditioned to respective cultural capital or social class strata. As government plays no significant role in school choice for children, this creates segregation among students and generates inequities. The OECD (2012) also declared that parental school choice independence can result in segregating students by ability; socio-economic background can generate greater inequities across education systems. The study recommends that there is a dire need to improve the

performance of public schools so that parents show confidence for their children's admission to the public schools, and at the same time, school choice be addressed at policy level and strategies be developed through which segregation and increasing inequities could be lessened among students of various classes in Pakistan.

References

- Andrabi, T., Das, J., & Khwaja. A. (2002). *The rise of private schooling in Pakistan: catering to the urban elite or educating the rural poor?* Retrieved July 6, 2011, from [http://economics-files.pomona.edu/Andrabi/Research/Pakschool% 20 March29.pdf](http://economics-files.pomona.edu/Andrabi/Research/Pakschool%20March29.pdf)
- Bengali, K. (1999). *History of educational policy making and planning in Pakistan*. Islamabad SDPI Working Paper Series no. 40.
- Ball, S. (2003). *Class strategies and the education market: the middle classes and social advantage*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Barbarin, O.A., McCandies, T., Early, D., Clifford, R.M., Bryant, D., . . . Burchinal, M. (2006). Quality of prekindergarten: what families are looking for in public sponsored programs. *Early Education and Development*, 17(4), 619–642.
- Bempechat, J. (1992). The role of parent involvement in children's academic achievement. *The School Community Journal*, 2(2), 31–41.
- Bosetti, L. (2007). Parental motivation in school choice: seeking the competitive edge. *Journal of School Choice*, 1(4), 90.
- Cohen, D. K., & Farrar, E. (1995). Power to the parents? The story of education vouchers. In M. D. Tannenbaum (Ed.), *Concepts and issues in school choice* (pp. 41-67). New York, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.
- Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital, *American Journal of Sociology*, 94, 95–121.
- Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Feinberg, W., & Lubienski, C. (2008). Introduction. In W. Feinberg & C. Lubienski (Eds.), *School choice policies and outcomes: Empirical and philosophical perspectives* (pp. 1- 20). New York, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Fung, K., & Lam, C. (2011). Empowering parents' choice of schools: the rhetoric and reality of how Hong Kong kindergarten parents choose schools under the voucher scheme. *Current Issues in Education*, 14(1). Retrieved from <http://cie.asu.edu/>

- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. W. (2012). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. Boston: Pearson.
- Hastings, J.S, Thomas, J.K., & Douglas, O.S. (2005). *Parental preferences and school competition: evidence from a public-school choice program*. New York: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Hatcher, R. (1998). Class differentiation in education: rational choices? *British Journal of Education*, 19(1), 5–24
- Henderson, A. (1988). Parents are a school's best friends. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 70(2), 148-153.
- Hill, D. (2006). Education services liberalization. In Roskam, E (ED.) *Winners or losers? Liberalizing public services*. Geneva: ILO. Retrieved July 8, 2011, from http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/2005/105B09_613_engl.pdf
- Houston, P. D. (2004). *Outlook and perspectives on American education*. London, UK: Scarecrow Education.
- Kobayashi, S. (2009). *Sociological Study on The Practices of Parental Choice of Secondary School: The Case of Paris*. Thèses et écrits académiques Unpublished. Université Paris Descartes, Ecole doctorale Sciences humaines et sociales : cultures, individus, sociétés, Paris, France.
- Levin, H. (2000) *A comprehensive framework for evaluating educational vouchers*, Occasional Paper No. 5. National Centre for the Study of Privatization in Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Lubienski, C. (2008). The politics of parental choice: Theory and evidence on quality information. In W. Feinberg & C. Lubienski (Eds.), *School choice policies and outcomes: Empirical and philosophical perspectives* (pp. 99-119). New York, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Ministry of Education in collaboration with UNESCO. (2003). *National Plan of Action on Education for All (2001-2015) Pakistan*, Islamabad, Government of Pakistan.
- OECD. (1994). *School: A matter of choice*. Paris: OECD.
- Reich, R. (2008). Common schooling and educational choice as a response to pluralism. In W. Feinberg & C. Lubienski (Eds.), *School choice policies and outcomes: Empirical and philosophical perspectives* (pp. 21-40). New York, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Riley, L., & Glass, J. L. (2002). You can't always get what you want – Infant care preferences and use among employed mothers. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 64(1), 2–15.

- Rose, K. K., & Elicker, J. (2010). Maternal child care preferences for infants, toddlers, and preschoolers: The disconnect between policy and preference in the USA. *Community, Work & Family*, 13(2), 205–229.
- Saldana, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. London: Sage.
- Smrekar, C., & Goldring, E. (1999). *School choice in urban America: magnet schools and the pursuit of Equity* (New York, teachers' College Press).
- Taylor-Powell, E., & Renner, M. (2003). *Analyzing qualitative data*. University of Wisconsin - Extension, Program Development and Evaluation. Retrieved on February, 2015 from <http://learningstore.uwex.edu/assets/pdfs/g3658-12.pdf>
- Theobald, R. (2005). School Choice in Colorado Springs: The Relationship between Parental Decisions, Location and Neighborhood Characteristics. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education*, 14(2), 92–111.
- Weidner, V. R., & Herrington, C. D. (2006). Are parents informed consumers: Evidence from the Florida McKay scholarship program. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 81(1), 27–56.
- Wise, A. E., & Darling-Hammond, L. (1995). Educational vouchers: Regulating their efficiency and effectiveness. In M. D. Tannenbaum (Ed.), *Concepts and issues in school choice* (pp. 104-118). New York, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.
- Zanten, V. A. (2005). New Modes of Reproducing Social Inequality in Education: the changing role of parents, teachers, schools and educational policies. *European Education Research Journal*. 4(3), 155 - 169.

Problematic Mobile Phone Use, Academic Procrastination and Academic Performance of College Students

Shahzada Qaisar*

Nasreen Akhter**

Afsheen Masood***

Sumaira Rashid****

Abstract

The article examined the relationship among Problematic Mobile Phone (PMP) usage, academic procrastination and academic performance among college students. The terms PMP and academic procrastination both are defined as an excessive usage of mobile phone by ignoring time and all other assignments, and delay in educational assignments and all other academic activities till the deadline respectively. Cross-sectional correlational research design was used for sampling of college students (N= 200) of age 17 to 25 years. PMP questionnaire (Billieux, 2008) and General Procrastination Scale (Lay, 1986) were adopted to collect the data from students. Pearson Product Moment correlation and hierarchical regression analysis was used to analyze data through SPSS. The results revealed that excessive usage of mobile phone is associated with a poorer performance of students in academics. It was found that academic performance is high among male students as compare to female college students. Another finding revealed that academic procrastination and PMP was significantly high among college students studying in annual system and academic performance was significantly high studying in semester system. Moreover, PMP use and academic procrastination in their combined effects did not emerge as significant predictors of academic performance among college students.

Keywords: Problematic-mobile-phone use, Academic procrastination, Academic performance, College students, Technology Usage and academia

* Assistant Professor, University of Education, Lahore, E-mail: qaisarshahzada@yahoo.com, Cell: 03004307360 (Corresponding Author)

** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, E-mail: drnasreenakhtar01@gmail.com, Cell 03336387807

*** Assistant Professor, Institute of Applied Psychology, University of the Punjab, Lahore, E-mail: afshen1402@gmail.com, Cell: 03424225572

**** Assistant Professor, Kinnaird College for Women, Lahore, E-mail: profsmalik@yahoo.com, Cell 03234241018

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to explore the effects of excessive usage of mobile phones on academic procrastination and academic performance among college students. Generally, it is observed that students look crazy in using mobiles, ignoring its worst effects on their academic record. Problematic mobile phone utilization has been defined as the deviant usage of mobile phone in terms of time duration and also for the type of content that is consumed through mobile phone. This behavior has been construed as the compulsion which leads its users to feel bound and impulsively consume it, mimicking the effects of addiction. Thus, the time duration as well as the nature of content used through mobile phones somehow, makes it problematic (Beranuy, Oberst, Carbonell, & Chamarro, 2009).

Problematic-mobile-phone use is to be held with painstaking concerns by academicians and parents since this leads to wide array of psychological issues of grave nature. There have been some western empirical studies elaborating that compulsive usage of mobile phones cause significant worry, distress, demotivation patterns, low self-esteem, depression, and unhealthy lifestyle practices. These unhealthy practices are further elaborated as disordered eating, irregular and unhealthy sleep patterns, meal-skipping, innumerable intriguing sexual neurotic accomplices, poorer relaxation propensities, smoking, and illegitimate drug utilization (Ezoe, Toda, Yoshimura, Naritomi, Den, & Morimoto, 2009).

There have been some significant studies on problematic mobile-phone use. One such study by Jumoke, Oloruntoba and Blessing (2015) explored that mobile phone use was significantly and negatively related to academic performance of the students. Their findings highlighted that academic performance of the students usually gets impaired due to excessive internet usage through mobile phones.

With advent of technological enrichment, the compulsion of using Wi-Fi/ internet-equipped mobile phone has become one of the pivotal behavioral addiction among people and somehow looms large as significant non-drug addictions pattern. Compulsive Mobile phone usage involves behavioral urges to use the mobile at the cost of one's ease, comfort and these hankering patterns of usage are compulsive in nature, demanding from its user to habitually and frequently indulge into them. Compulsive mobile-phone sufferers have to face alienation, confused and deluded status of reality, social isolation/ asocial patterns and financial and time losses (Ahmed, Qazi, & Perji, 2011) yet the fact stays eminent that behavior addiction of these sorts have so far not been made a part of any behavior disorders' classification system (Choliz, 2010).

Mobile phone dependent internet usage has become much more indispensable among youth as there are various applications introduced, which are needed to function in daily life such as educational, commutation and health apps (Nurullah, 2009). There are newer avenues of socialization that have been introduced due to this. Majority of the

undergraduate students like to correspond with their friends through Social Networking Sites (SNS) based apps. No doubt, mobile phone utilization is a preferred means of communication among college students; though this has been commonly being observed that this has taken the form of nuisance when its usage start turning into an impediment in their functional lives. Most of college students get distracted and their studies adversely get affected. They start indulging into tardiness, diversion, report lack of concentration and are found to have poor physical and psychological functioning due to lack of sleep (Massimini & Peterson, 2009). A study by Lepp, Barkley, and Karpinski (2015) exposed the association between compulsive mobile phone usage and academic performance among college students. They found that compulsive mobile phone use was significantly and negatively related to academic performance of the college students.

Milgram, Tal, and Levinson (1998) define procrastination as when students intentionally or unintentionally postpone their academic tasks till the last minute without bothering any distress or inconvenience they may face in return. Steel (2007) revealed that procrastination is the unnecessary delay of any decided task or assignment by the students without considering the multifacet negative consequences of their acts. Tan, Ang, Yeo, Wong, Huan, and Chong, (2008) intended to investigate the relationship between academic procrastination of the students and grade goals that they attain. Their findings revealed that grade goals were significantly and negatively related to academic procrastination of the students.

Academic procrastination has affective component. In accordance to this perspective, procrastination in academia pertains to specific behaviors which result in unpleasant emotional reactions (Solomon & Rothblum, 1984). In another context, the academic procrastination is basically a gap between intention and action (Steel, 2007; Eerde, 2003). On contrary to this, academic procrastination is considered to be the purposeful delay of the academic tasks, that have been adopted by the students and which are considered as beneficial to be performed for the student (Chu & Choi, 2005). According to this perspective, academic procrastination is considered as maladaptive only when this tends to interfere with the work ability and when this seems to hamper the performance of the college students (Schraw, Wadkins, & Olafson, 2007).

The study of Lakshminarayan, Potdar and Reddy (2012) also established the association of academic procrastination and academic performance among a group of undergraduate dental students. The findings from their empirical work divulged that a significant negative relationship between procrastination and academic performance of the students exist. This implied that higher the scores on procrastination the lower the scores on academic performance was attained by their students.

Knaus (2000) has discussed that not all types of postponement or delays have negative consequences such as the times of delay which enables an individual to gain more comprehensive data and that help in planning the wok with more utility orientated

detailed information. Chu and Choi (2005) have distinguished between two types of procrastination, illustrated as active procrastination and passive procrastination. In active procrastination, an individual is capable of acting upon his decisions within the appropriate time but they delay their work intentionally to complete other important tasks, while, passive procrastination is a kind of conventional and negative procrastination, in which, the procrastinators do not delay their work deliberately but they are unable to make decisions or to work quickly and usually complete their tasks with postponement (Chu & Choi, 2005).

Steel (2007) has categorized task characteristics, individual differences, outcomes and demographic characteristics as four major reasons and correlates of procrastination. Task characteristics include environmental factors that may cause procrastination, individual differences deal with personality traits, outcomes include proximal effects and demographics deal with physical mediators (Steel, 2007). Academic performance is learning level of any student in a subject, which can be assessed by exams, tests, on the basis of information, skills, logic and reasoning of a student have. It can be measured in the terms of marks, percentage and GPA. Tuckman (1975) has described that academic performance can be defined as “the observable manifestation of knowledge, concepts and understanding of ideas” (Bourne, 2005).

The attainment of specific evaluations on examination also demonstrates the student's capacity, mastery over knowledge and aptitudes in applying obtained information to specific circumstances. A student's prosperity is for most of the time, evaluated and judged on the basis of one's examination performance. Students' achievement on examination is a conclusive marker in establishing whether a student has earned benefit from a course of study or has just made the futile efforts in gaining its benefits. The researchers accept that real academic execution ought to include an examination of the overall aggregate that implies that the examination should include a person's academic capacity and aptitudes in carrying out practical implications (Bourne, 2005).

Performance cannot be explained by a single model that will be applicable to all, at all stages of education. In all places, this may become pertinent to develop models that are subject-specific, locale specific and even the client-specific (Wani, 2013). In this convention, the practical implications of knowledge may be known as performance (Shahid, 2008). Moreover, the learner' characteristics are very important in showing good performance (Pungello, Kuprsmit, Burchinal, & Patterson, 1996).

In the light of above cross examination, this research aims to examine the compulsive mobile-phone usage, academic procrastination and academic performance of college students. This rigorous empirical and theoretical review leads to derive the targeted objectives of the current investigation. The core objective of the study was to examine; how does Problematic-mobile-phone use, academic procrastination, Academic

stress and academic performance of College Students are interrelated? Another purpose was to shed light on the intricate and intriguing effects of an increased use of mobile phones in college students and to establish whether this causes higher academic stress and poorer academic performance in college.

Hypotheses of the Study

Following hypotheses were condensed from these objectives.

1. There is likely to be a significant relationship between problematic-mobile-phone use, academic procrastination and academic performance among college students.
2. Problematic-mobile-phone use and academic procrastination are likely to predict academic performance among college students.
3. There is likely to be a significant gender difference among problematic-mobile-phone use, academic procrastination and academic performance among college students.
4. There is likely to be a significant difference among problematic-mobile-phone use, academic procrastination and academic performance among college students studying in annual as compared to those studying in semester system.

Methodology

Research Design

This research was designed through cross sectional, correlational research design.

Sample of the Study

A sample of 200 college students (males= 100, females=100) was selected conveniently from different government colleges of Lahore, age ranges between 17 to 25 years ($M= 20.98$, $SD= 1.76$). None of them belonged to sound income group, termed as middle-class income group and had been using mobile phones at least from past two years or so. Another prerequisite criterion was to keep into consideration that they had regular Wi-Fi/internet usage through their smart phone. The sample was using Wi-Fi for different purposes such as for academics (74%), for socialization (88%), for playing games (65%), for information and current affairs (25%), for music and movies (82%) and for general purpose usage such as for following the news streams etc. (73%). This was ascertained from the sample before their inclusion into final target sample set that the average usage time for mobile phone based internet was at least three hours or more on daily basis for each of the students.

Instruments of the Study

The following assessment tools were used in the present study:

Demographic information questionnaire. Demographic Information Questionnaire (DIQ) comprised of different questions. It included information about gender, age, education, education system, possession of mobile phone, etc.

Problematic-mobile-phone use questionnaire (PMPUQ; Billieux, 2008). PMPUQ consists of 30 items out of which 19 items i.e. item no. 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30 are reverse coded. Each statement is a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. PMPUQ measures four factors that are:

1. Dangerous use: It is defined as “the tendency to use the mobile phone while driving”. It consists of five items i.e., item no. 4, 11, 16, 23 and 29.
2. Prohibited use: It is defined as “the tendency to use the mobile phone in banned places”. It consists of five items i.e., item no. 1, 7, 13, 19 and 25.
3. Dependence symptoms: It is based on features of addictive behaviors (e.g., loss of control, occurrence of negative affect in situations or contexts in which the use of the mobile phone is not possible or allowed). It consists of seven items i.e., item no. 2, 6, 8, 10, 17, 22 and 27.
4. Financial problems: It reflects “the extent to which mobile phone use resulted in tangible financial problems”. It consists of thirteen items i.e., item no. 3, 5, 9, 12, 14, 15, 18, 20, 21, 24, 26, 28 and 30.

General procrastination scale (Lay, 1986). General procrastination scale is a self-report measure of procrastination tendencies of students. It is a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1-5, where 1 indicates extremely uncharacteristic and 5 indicates extremely characteristic. It has been developed for the student population. On this scale, students indicate their behavioral tendencies to procrastinate regarding beginning and completing the task (Lay, 1986).

It gives a sense of tendency to procrastinate by adding the scores on items 1, 2, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 16, 17 and 19 and then adding reverse coded items 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14, 15, 18 and 20. If the total score comes between 66-91 procrastination may be limiting success and happiness. In literature, the scale has the reliability of 0.70 and in current study it has the reliability of 0.57.

Academic Performance. The academic performance was analyzed through aggregate Percentage/ CGPA of the students from previous two exams.

Data Collection Procedure

The permission for the use of the instruments was taken from the authors through e-mail. Institutional permission was obtained prior contacted to the sample. The consent

was taken from the students regarding their willingness to participate in the research, after explaining them the instructions as well as the nature and purpose of the research. The students were assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of the information they provided. After obtaining written consent, one by one all of the questionnaires were administered on the students. All tools were administered in English language. Total time spent in data collection was two months. The data was analyzed through SPSS. The results were discussed in the light of empirical evidences. The limitations and applications of the study were discussed.

Results

The analysis involved performing descriptive and inferential analysis.

Reliability Analysis

The reliability analysis was carried out for each assessment measure using Cronbach's Alpha. The Problematic-mobile-phone use Questionnaire (PMPUQ) had the reliability 0.97 and General Procrastination Scale had reliability 0.57. The reliability values of the scales were good to carry out further analysis.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Problematic-Mobile-Phone Use Questionnaire and General Procrastination Scale (N=200)

Variables	(k)	M	SD	α	Actual Range		Potential Range	
					Min	Max	Min	Max
PMPUQ	30	84.47	22.82	.91	40	123	30	150
PUF1	5	13.86	4.01	.83	4	20	5	20
PUF2	5	12.96	4.27	.87	5	20	5	20
PUF3	7	20.23	5.52	.90	7	28	7	28
PUF4	13	35.43	10.20	.93	19	54	13	54
GPS	20	61.34	8.01	.57	40	100	20	100

Note: M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, PMPUQ= Problematic-mobile-phone use Questionnaire, PUF1= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dangerous Use), PUF2= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Prohibity Use), PUF3= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dependence Use), PUF4= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Financial Problems), GPS= General Procrastination Scale.

The results of Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis are shown in the Table 2.

Table 2

Correlation between Problematic-Mobile-Phone Use, Academic Procrastination and Academic Performance among College Students (N=200)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Age		.47**	.11	.10	.02	.12	.04	.09	.06	.13	.19*	-.06	.05	.00	.06
2. Edu			.38**	-.03	-.16*	-.10	-.016	-.14*	-.11	.23**	.30**	.04	.20**	.20**	.28**
3. Per				-.51**	-.61**	-.63**	-.58**	-.64**	-.62**	.63**	.50**	.64	.63**	.66**	.64**
4.AP					.61**	.72**	.67**	.64**	.70**	-.32**	-.19**	.00	-.41**	-.50**	-.42**
5.PU						.81**	.78**	.77**	.76**	-.45**	-.30**	-.09	-.52**	-.58**	-.53**
6.PUF1							.84**	.87**	.85**	-.46**	-.31**	-.10	-.57**	-.64**	-.58**
7.PUF2								.84**	.78**	-.38**	-.30**	-.13	-.53**	-.58**	-.54**
8.PUF3									.82**	-.46**	-.33**	-.13*	-.60**	-.65**	-.61**
9.PUF4										-.42**	-.34**	-.09	-.57**	-.59**	-.58**

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, AP= Academic Procrastination, PU= Problematic-mobile-phone use, PUF1= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dangerous Use), PUF2= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Prohibitory Use), PUF3= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dependence Use), PUF4= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Financial Problems), Per= Academic Performance.

Table 2 indicated that there was a significant negative relationship between problematic-mobile-phone use and academic performance of college students. Academic procrastination was significantly negatively related to academic performance of the college students. Furthermore, the table indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between problematic-mobile-phone use and academic procrastination of the college students. Level of education of the college students was significantly positively related with academic performance while it was significantly negatively related with problematic-mobile-phone use.

Table 3

Summary of Hierarchical Regression: Effect of Problematic-Mobile-Phone Use and Academic Procrastination on Academic Performance among College Students (N=200)

Predictors	Academic Performance	
	ΔR^2	B
Step 1	.09	
Age		-.02
Edu		.31***
Step 2	.42	
AP		-.13
PU		-.10
PUF1		.02
PUF2		-.10
PUF3		-.26*
PUF4		-.12
Total R ²	.51	

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, AP= Academic Procrastination, PU= Problematic-mobile-phone use, PUF1= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dangerous Use), PUF2= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Prohibitory Use), PUF3= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dependence Use), PUF4= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Financial Problems).

Table 3 showed that level of education of the college students was a significant positive predictor while problematic-mobile-phone dependence use was significant negative predictor of the academic performance of college students.

Table 4

Comparison of Problematic-Mobile-Phone Use, Academic Procrastination and Academic Performance among College Students with Gender

Variables	Males (n=100)		Females (n=100)		T	P	95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			LL	UL	
Per	67.85	8.13	64.00	8.01	3.37	.00	1.59	5.10	0.47
AP	65.11	11.41	64.65	17.65	.219	.82	-3.68	4.60	0.03
PU	71.56	19.41	81.32	24.57	3.11	.00	15.93	-3.58	24.57
PUF1	8.61	4.63	10.13	5.84	-2.01	.04	-2.97	-.02	0.28
PUF2	8.61	4.24	10.13	5.76	-2.14	.03	-2.93	-.10	0.30
PUF3	15.24	4.73	17.33	6.46	-2.60	.01	-3.67	-.50	0.36
PUF4	31.28	8.19	34.09	11.38	-2.00	.04	-5.57	-.04	0.28

Note: LL= Lower Limit, UL= Upper Limit, CI= Class Interval, M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, Per= Academic Performance, AP= Academic Procrastination, PU= Problematic-mobile-phone use, PUF1= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dangerous Use), PUF2= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Prohibitory Use), PUF3= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dependence Use), PUF4= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Financial Problems).

Table 4 showed that there were significant differences in Problematic-mobile-phone use and Academic Performance among male and female College Students. Academic Performance is significantly different among male and female students and is high among male students. The table also showed that the problematic-mobile-phone use was significantly high among female college students.

Table 5

Comparison of Problematic-Mobile-Phone Use, Academic Procrastination and Academic Performance with Education System (Annual, Semester) among College Students

Variables	Annual (n=100)		Semester (n=100)		T	P	95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			LL	UL	
Per	53.53	7.83	68.32	8.05	-4.26	.00	-7.00	-2.57	1.86
Total AP	65.64	17.49	64.12	11.60	.72	.47	-2.62	5.66	0.10
PU	82.55	23.31	70.33	20.24	3.95	.00	6.13	18.30	0.55
PUF1	10.40	5.86	8.84	4.59	2.09	.03	.09	3.02	0.29
PUF2	10.11	5.77	8.63	4.22	2.06	.04	.06	2.89	0.29
PUF3	17.39	6.43	15.18	4.75	2.76	.00	.63	3.78	0.39
PUF4	34.37	11.00	31.00	8.59	2.41	.01	.61	6.12	0.34

Note: LL= Lower Limit, UL= Upper Limit, CI= Class Interval, M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, Per= Academic Performance, AP= Academic Procrastination, PU= Problematic-mobile-phone use, PUF1= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dangerous Use), PUF2= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Prohibitory Use), PUF3= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Dependence Use), PUF4= Problematic-mobile-phone use (Financial Problems).

Table 5 showed that problematic-mobile-phone use, academic procrastination and academic performance was significantly different among college students studying in annual and semester system. The results showed that academic procrastination and problematic mobile phone was significantly high among those college students studying in annual system. On the other hand, academic performance was significantly high among college students studying in semester system.

Discussion

The present study investigated the relationship among Problematic-mobile-phone use, Academic Procrastination and Academic Performance among College Students.

The first finding of the study revealed that Problematic-mobile-phone use had a significant negative relationship with academic performance of the college students which means that as the mobile phone use among college students increases, their academic performance decreases. This finding is consistent with many other researches (Lepp, Barkley, & Karpinski, 2013; Lepp, Barkley, & Karpinski, 2015; Olufadi, 2014;

Jumoke, Oloruntoba, & Blessing, 2015; Menayes, 2014; Beranuy, Oberst, Carbonell, & Chamarro, 2009). All these researches explored the relationship between mobile phone use and academic performance of the students and revealed that mobile phone use was significantly and negatively related to academic performance among students. Mobile phone has become an indispensable part of the people's life. More than a source of communication, it is a source of pleasure for people. On the other hand, it is becoming a cause of several problems for the students as well as other people. It can be said that mobile phone has a double-edged nature i.e. sometimes it is used as a performance enhancer device or sometimes as performance destroyer device. Apart from its pleasures and uses, the destroying effects of mobile phones especially for the students are too many.

The present study revealed that academic procrastination is significantly negatively related to academic performance of the college students. It shows that the more the students procrastinate, the less would be their academic performance. Our results are in line with the results of the study conducted by Tan, Ang, Yeo, Wong, Huan, and Chong (2008) investigating the relationship of Academic Procrastination and students' grade goals, which showed that procrastination was significantly and negatively related with academic success and grade goals of the students. Our finding is also consistent with many other researches (Kader, 2014; Lakshminarayan, Potdar, & Reddy, 2012 and Jiao, Voseles, Collins, & Onwuegbuzie, 2011). The academic procrastination in academic work may incorporate different academic matters, for example, final exam preparation, semester exam preparation, administrative works related to educational institutes, attendance in classes, assignments etc. Such matters may cause a few upsetting academic practices such as the one revealed in the present study i.e. low academic performance of the students.

Other finding of the present study revealed that there were significant gender differences in problematic-mobile-phone use among college students and female college students scored high on problematic-mobile-phone use than male students. The results were supported by the study of Beranuy, Oberst, Carbonell & Chamarro, (2009) who explored that there was a significant gender difference in maladaptive use of mobile phone.

The other finding of the present study revealed that there were significant differences in Problematic-mobile-phone use and academic performance among college students who study in different educational systems i.e. semester and annual system. Our findings revealed that academic performance of the students studying in semester system was high. The results are consistent with study of Yousaf and Hashim (2012) who explored the difference in annual and semester systems. The results showed that semester system provides better grading criteria, students obtain better marks, good job opportunities, thorough understanding of the concept in semester system. Thus, the study

highlighted the role of educational system in academic performance of the college students.

Conclusion

The results of the present study showed a significant negative relationship between problematic-mobile-phone use and academic performance of the college students and significant negative relationship between academic procrastination and academic performance of the college students. The findings of the study highlight the adverse effects of mobile phone use among students as it is related to academic procrastination and low grades. So, it recommends the college administration and higher education authorities to make policies regarding mobile phone use among students during classes, laboratories and other places where learning occurs. It will encourage the teachers, college administrators and the students too, to find out the ways in which mobile phones can be used to enhance the academic performance rather than worsening it. Findings of the study support for developing interventions for reducing academic procrastination among college students to help them enhance their academic performance. The present study also recommends students to put some limitations on frequent use of smart phone and quit such activities which cause a decline in their academic performance.

References

- Ahmed, I., Qazi, T. F., & Perji, K. A. (2011). Mobile phone to youngsters: Necessity or addiction. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(32), 12512-12519.
- Beranuy, M., Oberst, U., Carbonell, X., & Chamarro, A. (2009). Problematic internet and mobile phone use and clinical symptoms in college students: The role of emotional intelligence. *Computers in Human Behavior* 25, 1182–1187.
- Billieux, J. (2012). Problematic mobile phone use: A literature review and a pathways model. *Current Psychiatry Review*, 8(4), doi: 10.2174/157340012803520522
- Choliz, M. (2010). Mobile phone addiction: A point of issue. *Addiction*, 105(2), 373-374. doi: 10.1111/j.1360-0443.2009.02854. x.
- Chu, A. H. C., & Choi, J. N. (2005). Rethinking procrastination: Positive effects of “active” procrastination behavior on attitude and performance. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 145(3), 245- 264.
- Eerde, W. (2003). A Meta-Analytically Derived Nomological Network of Procrastination. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35, 1401-1418.
- Ezoe, S., Toda, M., Yoshimura, K., Naritomi, A., Den, R., & Morimoto, K. (2009). Relationships of personality and lifestyle with mobile phone dependence among female nursing students. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(2), 231-238.

- Jiao, Q. G., Voseles, D. A. D., Collins, K. M. T., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2011). Academic procrastination and the performance of graduate-level cooperative groups in research methods courses. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 11(1), 119 – 138. Retrieved from: <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ915928.pdf>.
- Jumoke, S., Oloruntoba, S., & Blessing, O. (2015). Analysis of mobile phone impact on student academic performance in tertiary institution. *International Journal of Emerging Technology and Advanced Engineering*, 5(1), 361-367. Retrieved from: http://www.ijetae.com/files/Volume5 Issue1/IJETAE_0115_57.pdf.
- Kader, A.A. (2014). *Academic Procrastination and Student Achievement in an Introductory Economics Course*. Retrieved from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2404767>.
- Knaus, W. J. (2000). Procrastination, blame, and change. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 15, 153-166.
- Lakshminarayan, N., Potdar, S., & Reddy, S.G. (2012). Relationship between procrastination and academic performance among a group of undergraduate dental students in India. *Journal of Dental Education*, 77(4), 524-528. Retrieved from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23066141>.
- Lay, C.H. (1986). At last, my research article on procrastination. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 20, 474-495.
- Lepp, A., Barkley, E., & Karpinski, A. C. (2013). The relationship between cell phone use, academic performance, anxiety and satisfaction with life. *Computers in Human Behavior* 31, 343–350.
- Lepp, A., Barkley, J. E., & Karpinski, A. C. (2015). The relationship between cell phone use and academic performance in a sample of U.S. college students. *Sage Publications*, 28, 1-9. doi: 10.1177/2158244015573169.
- Massimini, M., & Peterson, M. (2009). Information and communication technology: Effects on U.S. College students. *Cyberpsychology: Research on Cyberspace*, 3(1), 1-15. Retrieved from: <http://www.cyberpsychology.eu/view.php?cisloclanku=2009061503>.
- Menayes, J. J. (2014). The relationship between mobile social media use and academic performance in university students. *New Media and Mass Communication*, 25, 23-29. Retrieved from: www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/NMMC/article/download/.../13388.
- Milgram, N., Mey-Tal, G., & Levison, Y. (1998). Procrastination, generalized or specific, in college students and their parents. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 297-316.

- Nurullah, A. S. (2009). The cell phone as an agent of social change. *Rocky Mountain Communication Review*, 6(1), 19–25. Retrieved from: www.academia.edu/190295/The_Cell_Phone_as_an_Agent_of_Social_Change.
- Pungello, E.P., Kuprsmit, J.B., Burchinal, M.R., & Patterson, C. J. (1996). Environmental risk factors and children achievement from middle childhood to early adolescence. *Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 32(3), 755-767.
- Schraw, G., Wadkins, T., & Olafson, L. (2007). Doing the things we do: A grounded theory of academic procrastination. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99, 12-25.
- Shahid, S. M. (2008). Measurement and evaluation: An introduction. In: U. S. Khattak, (Editor), *Educational measurement and evaluation*, 1–59.
- Solomon, L. J., & Rothblum, E.D. (1984). Academic procrastination: Frequency and cognitive behavioral correlates. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 31(4), 504-510.
- Steel, P. (2007). The nature of procrastination: A meta-analytic and theoretical review of quintessential self-regulatory failure. *Psycho-logical Bulletin*, 133, 65-94.
- Tan, C.X., Ang, R.P., Yeo, L.S., Wong, I.Y.F., Huan, V.S., & Chong, W.H. (2008). Correlates of academic procrastination and students' grade goals. *Curr Psychol*, 27, 135–144, doi: 10.1007/s12144-008-9028-8.
- Wani, G. (2013). Academic Achievements of Kashmiri, Dogri and Ladakhi Adolescent Girls. *Researcher*, 5(10), 46-49. Retrieved from: http://www.sciencepub.net/researcher/research0510/006_20305research0510_46_49.pdf.
- Yousaf, A., & Hashim, M. (2012). A case study of annual and semester systems of examination on government college of management sciences, Peshawar, Pakistan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(9), 53-73.

Concept Maps as a Tool for Classroom Teaching and Assessment: Perceptions of University Teachers

Shamsa Aziz*

Munaza Mahmood**

Syeda Madiha Wajid***

Abstract

Nowadays all countries aim to reach efficient education system. In the current scenario, problems of education system can only be controlled by qualified people. So, for the fruitful learning, teaching approaches, procedures, practices and tools should transfer knowledge in a way that can be inspected from different dimensions enlightening a lot of points of view, situations, and depiction of idea creation. In this way, it can be stated that one of the most important teaching and learning tool that promote meaningful learning is concept maps. The Concept mapping as a tool has gained a lot of recognition and acknowledgement in science education, both in the practice and in the literature as well. But how concept mapping is seen in the teaching profession is the aim of this research and how much beneficial and effective concept maps are in teaching learning process. Interviews were conducted from teachers. Results of the study involving 10 teachers of international Islamic university revealed that nowadays concept map is an efficient teaching tool in the classrooms used by teacher and its effectiveness can be measured through prevailing learning environment, increased student participation and understanding level of students. It also shows the advantages and some perceived difficulties associated with concept maps. The research was descriptive and focused on the understanding and specifics of experiences. Results of study led to the conclusion that at higher level the university teachers need to be aware of new and interesting teaching tools as concept map which can leave positive effects on students learning and may be used frequently in the classrooms for providing better understanding.

Keywords: Concept map, Teaching tool, Classroom teaching, Assessment

Introduction

The learning process of the students can be enriched by a number of teaching-learning strategies which have been designed by outlining the role and characteristics of

* Associate Professor, Department of Education, International Islamic University Islamabad (Corresponding Author)

** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, International Islamic University Islamabad

*** MS Scholar, Department of Education, International Islamic University Islamabad

teachers, students and contents. Presently in Pakistan, classroom environment is mostly controlled by the teacher and the students are passive learners (Iqbal, 2011).

National Curriculum of 2006 emphasizes and stresses upon the standard shift to constructivism from the behaviorism to increase conceptual learning in science and to generate such attitude towards the learning of science. Thus, such teaching-learning strategies are the demand of curriculum that can involve pupils in building of their own knowledge and considers the students as the focus of learning activity, whereas the teachers as organizers in the classroom. Concept mapping approach comes under constructivism approach as described in David Ausubel's Assimilation theory of cognitive learning that focuses on increasing significant learning by students. This approach uses a shared environment in which students work independently and in groups as well to help each other in the process of learning (Oakley, 2004b).

Novak (2002) stated that Concept mapping refers to a visual illustration of important ideas or thoughts in the form of graphics or in pictorial form. It also let the learner to identify the relationships among isolated concepts in making an organized knowledge structure. Thus, conceptualization allows the learner to understand the global concept instead of isolated facts by promoting in-depth learning above the rote memorization.

Canas (2003) describes Concept mapping as a procedure of making out sense. It infers taking a list of concepts, that is selected by labels and then organizing it in a graphical illustration in which linking phrases and sets of concepts form propositions. Hence, the key of building a concept map is based upon the set of concepts.

Today concept mapping is generally and successfully useful in many fields of education, recently there has been a lot of investigation done on concept mapping in science education but considerable accomplishment has been achieved by the solicitation of concept mapping in the teaching learning procedure to assimilate fresh concepts into the current scheme of information. Benefits of concept mapping in teaching and learning of fresh information is that it also delivers a trail into better-quality assessment and accomplishment check. Concept mapping is also cherished when there is a requirement for free-association and knowledge organization.

Usefulness of concept mapping in education is that Concept mapping can be used at any stage of teaching process, it can be used at the start of the lesson where a new concept is about to be introduced or it can be used at the conclusion of the lesson for the sake of revision. It can be applied to the children in kindergarten; it can be used by the students in their universities and also by the professionals in their respective fields. The traditional methods of teaching like lectures and learning from book by rote memorization of evidences, concepts, and philosophies are being used generally in teaching learning process nearly in all subjects at every level of education in Pakistan,

regardless of knowing the merits and demerits of these. Now days researchers, educationists, curriculum planners and all the other people from academia have taken it very seriously, they are thoughtful on how they can improve the quality of science education and all other disciplines as well by the effective use of instructional methods.

Objectives of the Study

The Objectives of research were:

- To explore the perception of teachers about concept mapping in the teaching profession at university level.
- To explore the effectiveness of concept maps in teaching learning process.
- To explore the perceived difficulties associated with concept maps.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study lies in using results to help researchers, teachers, curriculum planners and all the other people from academia about how to increase the quality and excellence of education by integrating concept map as a teaching tool.

Related Literature Review

Effectiveness can be defined as the degree to which an action achieves its aimed goal and purpose. It is the degree of the similarity between specified aims and attainments. The possibility to achieve easy and low-standard goals is always high. So, we cannot state that quality in higher education can only be a query of attainments but it should also include decisions about the defined goals. Effectiveness that measure the quality of the attainment of a precise educational aim or the degree to which a higher education institution can be expected to achieve specific requirements (Harvey, 2017).

For effective teaching the teaching tool or teaching material is the resource for a teacher that he uses to deliver his lecture. A teacher needs so many tools to make the student learn. The purpose of all these material resources is to deliver the knowledge to the students or learners and also to encourage and engage the student with knowledge in diverse ways to enhance learning. So, concept map is one tool which can help in effective teaching and learning.

Concept map

Novak, Gowin, and Kahle (1984) defined that the Concept mapping is planned to direct association between the concepts in form of schemes. Concept map is the uniformity in objects or events designated by a specific label. Concept maps are shaped with the wider more comprehensive concepts at the uppermost level of the hierarchy linking words with former concepts. Concept maps have their foundation in the learning program called constructivism.

Concept Maps in Education

If concept maps are correctly created it is a very strong way for students to achieve higher levels of cognitive performance. It is not just a tool for learning, but a perfect tool for the evaluation of educators to measure their growth and evaluating learning of students. As students create concept maps, they create ideas using their own words and help to identify incorrect ideas and concepts. Educators are able to see what students do not understand, providing an accurate, objective way to evaluate areas in which students do not yet grip concepts fully.

Concept Map as a Teaching Tool

Lee at all (2012) stated that the usage of concept maps as a teaching approach was first developed by Novak in the early 1980's. It was resultant from Ausubel's learning theory which puts focus on the impact of students' previous knowledge on significant learning.

Safdar (2010) describes that if teachers learn how to generate concept maps and use them for preparation and measuring lessons they will be able to communicate students better how to create concept maps to establish their opinions and philosophies in the classrooms.

In specialized education the method of concept mapping is used typically for teaching and for assessment. We could not find the use of concept mapping for free-associating or information organization in the occupations so it does not mean the implementation is not there in the classrooms. Concerning concept mapping in specialized education the focus was on learning and the use of concept mapping as a knowledge tool. Concept mapping as a method was involved in lots of ways, instructional stages and activity practices. Furthermore, to use as a learning tool in professional education it is also commonly used as an assessment device. Concept maps are significantly used for assessments through which teacher can self-assess themselves.

Novak (1991) stated that Concept maps are repeatedly used as learning and study instrument in the sciences. Concept maps as a learning instrument used in the areas of biology, physics, engineering, nursing and algebra. Concept maps are also being used as a device to train pre-service and current working teachers. Because they involve little amount of written text and concept maps may be typically effective apparatuses for students with low verbal abilities.

Making concept maps at the conclusion of a unit or lesson is a more actual learning plan than using them to display concepts at the start of a lesson for student's long-lasting retention of the material (Nesbit & Adesope, 2006). Concept map should complete minimum three rounds of revision so that students can attain practice. They are more effective summary creation learning plans, such as making lists or frameworks and

to comprehend the associations between important concepts, may be likewise considered real.

Use of Concept maps in Teaching and Learning

Concept maps can be used for:

- Information construction
- Learning
- assessing students in shaping of their knowledge
- Evaluating students learning
- Recording understanding
- Problem resolving
- Application of knowledge
- Integration of knowledge
- Instruction

Concept maps are useful tools to help students learn about their knowledge organization and the process of knowledge building. Concept maps also help the student to learn manifold learning. Concept mapping necessitates the learner to inculcate at cognitive domain of bloom. Concept Maps have been used to check students' previous information and to keep stream line the student's progress of knowledge in entire development for matching and doing comparisons of students at numerous stages of knowledge.

Other uses of concept maps

Empirically based publications shown that concept maps have been used in quantitative and qualitative studies; in qualitative approaches used throughout all stages of the research process while in quantitative approaches used for data analysis. Concept maps can be used to construct experiences individually and in groups in data collection and analysis in qualitative research. Concepts maps can be used to collect, reduce, organize, and interpret data. Concept maps graphically demonstrated the concepts and connections in areas such as critical thinking and online learning.

Jackson and Trochim (2002) write about the use of concept maps as an alternative approach for the examination of open-ended survey responses. It gives a snapshot of perception and allow for the refining additional data collection processes.

Maxwell (2013) shows how to use concept maps to explain a conceptual framework Concept maps can help see unforeseen links, or to identify gaps in the theory and to determine themes.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Concept Maps

Advantages

The key benefit of this method is giving an influential depiction instrument to show compound relations between various concepts. Furthermore, he stated that problematic concepts can be explained and can be organized in a logical order. This helps teachers to convey a clear general picture of the topics and their relationships to their students. Usage of concept maps can strengthen students' understanding level and to learn more easily and effectively.

Concept maps helps in testing learning and pinpoint fallacies. The usage of concept maps can also be helpful for teachers in measuring the development of teaching. Concept mapping may be used to enhance problem-resolving phases of making additional solutions and ranges in the teaching learning process. Learning is also benefited from the interaction growing possessions of concept mapping evaluation. Students' achievement can be checked or surveyed by the technique of concept mapping, as the concept maps can also be used as assessment and evaluation tools in the classroom (Stoica, Moraru & Miron, 2011).

Some of the advantages described by Jackson (2002) are:

- Concept mapping signifies ideas or views from a large group of members in an easy-to-understand setup.
- It creates data that can be interpreted qualitatively or quantitatively.
- It pinpoints complex relationships with the help of graphic format.
- It is participant motivated.
- It is simple to implement and understand.
- Concept mapping uses an organized process that can be imitated easily.
- It encourages active participation.
- It can be done using computer software or using paper.

Disadvantages

- In the lack of an organized approach for creating concept maps, this approach can become confusing and difficult to read.
- Concept mapping includes only a high-level representation so it does not easily allow for the addition of detailed information.
- In concept mapping, it may be difficult to identify all the relationships between the concepts or ideas.
- Interpretation of the concept map data may require a knowledgeable organizer.

Methodology

Sample

The study was based on data collected from teachers of international Islamic university Islamabad. The participants of the study were from two departments of faculty of social sciences 5 from Education department and 5 from Economics department.

Data Collection Tool

Semi Structured Interviews were conducted to collect data for this study. The purpose was to check the usage of concept maps and how much beneficial and effective concept maps are in teaching learning process at higher level.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed by generating themes after transcribing the data. The common recurrent and emergent themes were usage, effectiveness of concept maps advantages and disadvantages of concept maps.

Findings

Findings revealed that teachers mostly use concept maps in the classrooms according to the requirement of the topic. One of the respondents describes that making concept map is fun and enjoyable teaching tool in the classrooms and generally used at higher level according to the requirement of the topic. Whereas other respondents explained that concept maps are usually preferred to use wherever it fits into the topic.

Most often concept maps are used in the classrooms elaborated by a respondent especially while teaching following courses:

- Teaching of general science (pedagogy course)
- Teaching of English (pedagogy course)
- Science (content course)
- Philosophy of education (core course)

Concept maps can be used in other subject or any discipline because it depends upon the topic because it is the best tool to describe lengthy chapters in shortest form.

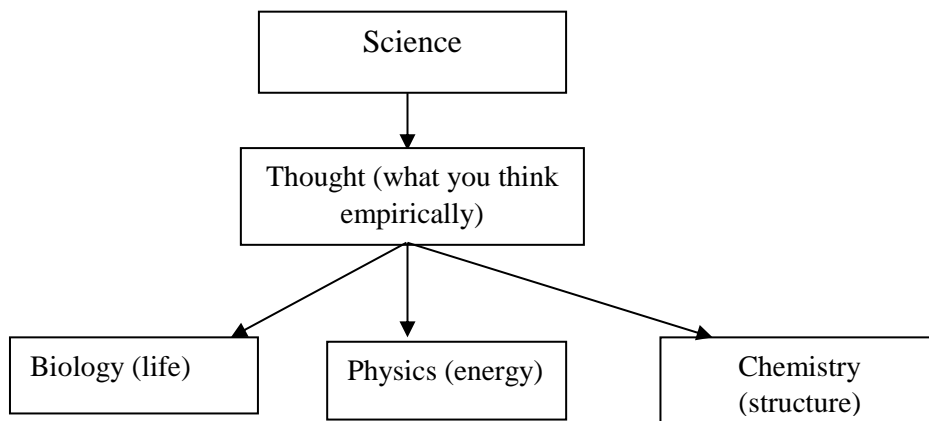
Two respondents explain the comfort level of using concept maps as they are easy to construct for giving graphical representation of the relationships or hierarchies; whereas one of them reported that Concept maps are used in Teaching of General Science as there are many concepts and topics which needs classification and organization so concept maps are helpful tool.

According to two respondents concept maps can be used in any topic because it helps the teacher to explain the content of the lecture easily. Visualization and images helps the student to enrich their information. Concept maps are better teaching material than words.

Furthermore, two respondents explain that using concept maps generates significant connections between the key idea and other related information. They can be used in the form of flowcharts. So, it has been found that Comfort level of using concept maps gives sound teaching experience for delivering the instructions in the classrooms.

As reported by one respondent that concept mapping allows the learner to identify relationships between compound concepts while increasing a consistent knowledge construction. Concept mapping while delivering the lecture promotes deep learning rather than rote memorization of the concepts in the classrooms. It helps learners to understand global concept rather than isolated facts. Presenting the topic in very systematic and hierarchical manner. it also helps in capturing the attention and thus maintaining readiness of students throughout the lesson and also supports brain storming phase of lesson delivery.

But two respondents describe that delivering the topic by concept map also helps students in the integration of new ideas out of old ones. However, two respondents also explain that the delivery of any concept by using maps is to give clear picture of the processes and relationships. It gives learners pictorial form which makes their learning easy and the use of concept maps in delivering the topic is to give more understanding of the topic. For example, science is a disciplined initiative that shapes and organizes information in way of testable clarifications and forecasts about the world. This description is understood by few students but if it is explained like the given figure

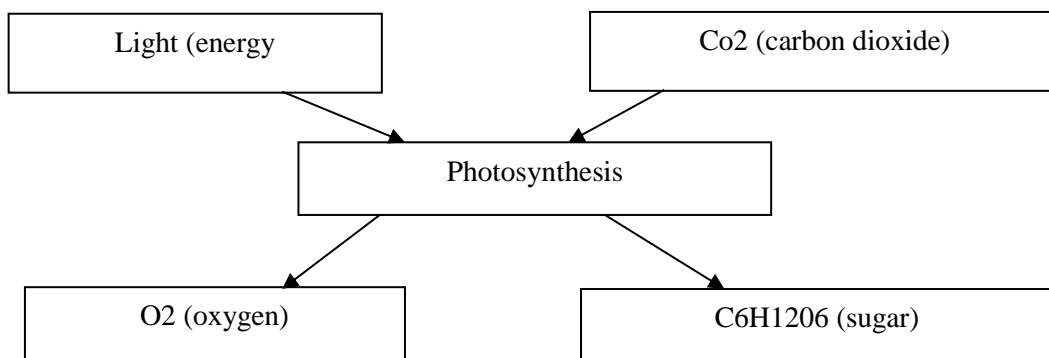


Science is thought what you think empirically. Biology is thought about life. Physics is about energy that how energy is converted from one form to another form. Chemistry is all about structures. So, by these students can easily understand the concept

of science as a subject that with how many branches it is dealing and there are three types of thoughts if we perceive science as a thought.

As far as we are concerned with concept map than it provides sequence while delivering the topic. Organization and grouping of topics provides clear picture to the learners. Dynamic feature of concept is flexibility while presenting the topic in the form of flowchart or in pictorial way and graphical outlet.

One of the respondents found the concept maps an efficient method or tool nowadays. The use of concept maps increasing day by day because it is easy way to explain. Trying to explain something that you have seen is difficult. So, if tried to explain it with diagrams and mind maps it is very easy. For example, the process of photo synthesis involves lots of procedure and process. So, students get the main idea using concept maps and can be explained like this way.



Other respondents were agreed that Concept maps are helpful in enhancing the cognitive level of the students and evaluating the understanding level of learners. Because the use of concept map is interesting it gives a whole picture in one single diagram and gives pictorial and visual demonstration of concepts. Concept maps very easy and effective because it reduces writing too much text on board but only a single picture can be drawn and verbal explanation may be provided.

Assessment is the course of collecting and deliberating information from manifold and varied sources so that to improve a deeper understanding of what pupils know, comprehend, and can fix with their information as a result of their instructive experiences in the classrooms. Two of respondents reported that assessment in education is extensive, variability of procedures and devices used to evaluate and assess the students. Asking students to draw concept maps can help teacher to assess the cognitive level of students and learners. Inductive and deductive concepts, similarities and

differences, advantages and disadvantages of any concept can be assessed through concept maps.

Brainstorming, previous knowledge testing can be done through concepts maps. Recapping the lesson or revising can also be done through it. Whereas one of the respondents put emphasis on using concept maps for assessment purpose because it is the easiest way of teaching. The teacher doesn't have to do all work or doesn't have to waste his/her stamina on minor matters. He /she can explain the whole situation just by few diagrams and arrows. If they are well arranged it can be used in any type of assessment.

According to one participant the most efficient method of teaching is the concept maps. It helps you to deliver the thoughts not just information. Its effectiveness depends on the person who is making the mind or concept map. For example, if you are trying to teach the students about some science project or information you can deliver all the information but it is not understood by students because their mind caliber is not on the same level of teacher. The teacher has to go through all the information and have done practices so it is easy to elaborate what you have seen.

Whereas one other participant explains that effectiveness of concept maps that it can be measured through increased student's participation in the classroom activities. Similarly, their readiness attention and improved performance in quiz, midterms, final exams, presentations and assignments are predictors of effectiveness of concept maps in teaching learning process. It can also be measured by evaluating the prevailing learning environment of class.

By viewing the objectives of the lesson that are being achieved than it would be easy to measure the effectiveness of concept map as explained by other participants. But two of participants while explaining effectiveness shared that it can be measured by the level of understanding of the learner using through various traditional and alternative assessment techniques. Effectiveness of concept maps relies on the evaluation and assessment.

Benefits and advantages of using concept maps cannot be denied. Concept mapping can be useful in many situations when it comes to understanding level of students, learning, memorizing, relationships, connections, main ideas and concepts, graphical understanding, organizing information, as a revision tool, easy to use, in student motivation, in developing meaning, in logical thinking. In developing hierarchical structures, works as visual learning aid, helpful in learning terms and definitions, and constructivism is huge benefit which leads to creativity.

It has been found by views of all the respondents that concept maps enhance comprehension and understanding level and helpful in checking prior knowledge and for reviewing the lesson. Linking theoretical concepts to practical experiences concept mapping is a useful device. Complex terminologies can be better explained as well as

quick learning takes place. Memorizing can be enhanced. Main ideas can be built effectively.

According to scientific research as reported by one of the participant that visual information is better to remember than other methods. He highlighted some advantages which are as follows:

- Associations and relationship between dependent and independent variable.
- It can be used as a revision tool because it has images rather than huge paragraphs.
- It has great impact on student's minds because they don't have to remember the whole lecture so lots of students are motivated by concept maps.
- It promotes logical thinking. Logical thinking through related justifications especially in analytical reasoning can be effectively implied through concept mapping e.g. research based concepts.

Interestingly two respondents quoted that:

“A picture has a worth of thousand words “

“It is not easy to forget something that you have seen with your eyes”

There are also some perceived difficulties associated with concept maps that were elaborated by three participants given as follows:

- Teachers are not well aware and well trained to draw concept maps. They don't know the importance and effectiveness of making concept maps. Awareness about nature and various formats of concept mapping is not clear among academia.
- Concept map in different subject is not common and some teachers are reluctant to use in their classrooms due to time constraints and resource unavailability.
- Inappropriate method or diagrams that are not meaningful makes no sense.
- There are many types of mapping mostly teacher's perceived difficulties which type of mapping should be used for the particular topic.

Discussion and Conclusion

Since 1990, concept maps have been used in many ways as a research topic in science stream. Kilic, & Cakmak (2013) have been proved under the validity, reliability and practicality of concept map as a method of teaching. The analysis and researches of more than 300 scientific articles about concept mapping shows that in professional education this method is more used in the subject fields which are directly connected to natural or exact sciences. The main idea of using the method is as teaching and learning tool, often combined with assessment tool. In most articles the faculty and students feedback are positive and the authors suggest the method of concept mapping for further use in classroom.

The result of this study is consistent with the views of Ausubel (1960) specifically the importance of pre-learning, the linking of new ideas to previous knowledge. And also with the findings of Kinchin (2000), Lewis (1987) that the Ausubel's teaching strategies found to enhance significantly the conceptual understanding of the students.

Data collected through interviews shows that concept maps are effective and mostly used tool in the classrooms in any discipline either Teaching of English, Teaching of Science, Philosophy of Education and in any content area. It provides comfort in delivering the topic using multiple types of mapping for multiple topics mostly in science. It provides sound experience to the teachers in transmitting knowledge to the learners. Concept maps plays a significant role for assessing students' performance. Teachers most often use concept maps for evaluating the students' performance to test that do students have main idea about the concept taught to them. Concept maps consumes less time of teachers so it has been found that most teachers often like to use concept maps for delivering the instructions. The study also sheds light on the effectiveness of concept maps and it has been found that nowadays concept map is an efficient teaching tool in the classrooms used by teacher and its effectiveness can be measured through prevailing learning environment, increased student participation and understanding level of students. The study also shows the advantages and some perceived difficulties associated with concept maps; everything in this world has some pros and cons depending upon the circumstances around so as far as concerned with concept maps they can be difficult to use because at all levels not only higher but primary & secondary the teachers are not aware of the benefits associated with concept maps they are stick to the traditional teaching tools. Construction sometimes can be challenging for complex topics but the benefits of concept maps cannot be denied.

The above discussion led to the conclusion that the university teachers need to be aware of new and interesting teaching tools as concept map, if teachers use this tool in the classrooms than it can leave positive effects on students' learning. It will help teachers to modify their instructions in easiest possible way and can enhance the students' learning.

Recommendations

1. There is a need of building up awareness about concept maps and its usage in the classrooms at higher level.
2. By keeping in view, the professional development of teachers they may have knowledge and skills to use such tools in the classrooms.
3. Teachers may be trained about how effectively they can deliver instructions to the students in the classrooms and can help in improving students learning by using concept map.

4. Teachers may use concept map as instructional strategy when the subject matter of a unit is hierarchical and basically conceptual and that this strategy be used for one unit at a time to lessen the cognitive load.

References

- Ausubel, D.P. (1960). The use of advance organizers in the learning and retention of meaningful verbal material. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 51, 267-272.
- Canas, A. J. (2003). *A Summary of Literature Pertaining to the Use of Concept Mapping Techniques and Technologies for Education and Performance Support: Technical Report*. Pensacola, FL: Institute for Human and Machine Cognition.
- Harvey, L. (2017). *Analytic Quality Glossary, Quality Research*. Retrieved from international. Retrieved from <http://www.qualityresearchinternational.com/glossary/>.
- Iqbal, H.M. (2011). *Education in Pakistan: Developmental milestones*. Lahore: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.
- Jackson, K., & Trochim, W. (2002). Concept mapping as an alternative approach for the analysis of open-ended survey responses. *Academy of management*, Vol: 5, issue: 4.
- Kinchin, I.M. (2000). Using concept maps to reveal understanding: A two-tier analysis. *School Science Review*, 81(296), 41-46.
- Kilic, M., & Cakmak, M. (2013). Concept maps as a tool for meaningful learning and teaching in chemistry education. *International journal on new trends in education and their implications*, Vol: 4, issue; 4, article: 14.
- Lee, W., Chiang, C.H., Liao, I.C., Lee, M.L., Chen, S.L., & Liang, T. (2012). The longitudinal effect of concept map teaching on critical thinking of nursing students. *Journal of professional nursing*, 1(1).
- Lewis, K.G. (1987). *Taming the Pedagogical Monster: A Handbook for Large Class Instructors* (2nd Ed.). Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Center for Teaching Effectiveness.
- Maxwell, J.A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Nesbit, J.C., & Adesope, O.O. (2006). Learning with concept and knowledge maps: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 76(3), 413-448.
- Novak, J., Gowin, D., & Kahle, J. (1984). *Learning how to learn*. Cambridge University press. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139173469>
- Novak, J.D. (1991). Clarify with concept maps. *The Science Teacher*, 58(7):45-49

- Novak, J.D. (2002). Meaningful learning: The essential factor for conceptual change in limited or appropriate propositional hierarchies leading to empowerment of learners. *Science Education*, 86(4), 548-571.
- Oakley, L. (2004b). Cognitive development (Vol. Routledge modular psychology series). London: Routledge. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.derby.ac.uk/login?url=http://www.dawsonera.com/depp/reader/protected/external/AbstractView/S9780203482834>
- Safdar, M. (2010). A comparative study of Ausubelian and Traditional methods of teaching physics at secondary school level in Pakistan. *Journal of Research & Method in Education*, Vol: 3, issue: 2.
- Stoica, I., Moraru, S., & Miron, C. (2011). Concept maps, A must for the modern teaching-learning process., *Romanian Reports in Physics*, 63(2).

Weaknesses in Evaluation of Teaching Practice in the Formal and Non-Formal Teacher Education Institutions

Fouzia Younus*

R. A. Farooq**

Rabia Tabassum***

Abstract

This research study was performed to explore the weaknesses in existing evaluation techniques of teaching practice of formal and non-formal teacher education institutions. The main objective was to find out the issues of evaluation of teaching practice and to recommend the ways for improvement of both the systems; in Punjab. For the sample of study, three formal while one non-formal including four regional campuses were selected. The questionnaire was used to get the responses of teaching practice supervisors. Two hundred teaching practice supervisors were selected randomly in which 100 from formal institutions and 100 were selected from non-formal institutions. The problems and weaknesses of evaluation of teaching practice were found out by open ended items in the questionnaires which were analyzed by using ENVIVO. Majority of respondents said that duration of teaching practices is less and not sufficient. Few respondents expressed that prospective teachers are not being evaluated properly. Lack of qualified, experienced and expert supervisor is another major weakness in the current teaching practices in formal and non-formal system. Majority of teaching practice supervisors of formal system supposed that teaching practice supervisor involved the cooperating teacher in the evaluation while supervisors of non-formal system didn't. Major Suggestions were that time period of teaching practice should be increased up to 3 months; financial support (i.e. scholarship) should be provided. It was recommended that evaluation of teaching practice must be internal as well as external by experts. There is a need of continuous methods of evaluation of teaching practice for both institutions.

Keywords: Teaching practice, Teaching practice supervisors, Evaluation

* Ph. D. Scholar, Northern University, Nowshera

** Dean Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences, Northern University, Nowshera

*** HOD Department of Education, Northern University, Nowshera

Introduction

The quality of education is linked with the quality of instruction in the classrooms. Teacher is the most important factor in implementation of all educational reforms in the masses. The academic qualifications, knowledge of the subject matter, competence and skills of teaching and the commitment of the teacher have effective impact on the teaching-learning process. Recognizing the deteriorating quality of education at various levels, efforts need to be intensified to accord adequate priority to the effectiveness of teacher education programs in the country. The basic purpose of pre-service education is to prepare prospective teachers to meet challenges that they have to face in future in the classroom. Keeping in view the nature of job, status and future responsibilities, teacher is to carryout pre-service training programme comprising of three components:

- i. Academic Preparation
- ii. Pedagogical Skills
- iii. Teaching practice (Arends, 1994).

According to Smith and Lev-Ari. (2005), the teaching practice plays important role in reducing gap between theory and practice, it also provides the context for prospective teachers to develop their personal teaching competencies

The evaluation of teaching practice for the purpose of certification is a demanding and challenging issue. Prospective teachers are unavoidably graded according to the criteria held by supervisor or particular institutions and the criteria are not made explicit all the times (Ali, 2005).

Teaching practice supervisors are normally given evaluation schedule according to which prospective teachers are to be evaluated on a five-point range: i.e. 5 to 0 or A to F, from outstanding to poor. Most of the supervisors when they are evaluating their lessons will expect from the prospective teachers:

- i. Punctuality of prospective teacher.
- ii. A well-written lesson plan and precisely presented.
- iii. Dress code and behavior, they must show an amusing personality exclusive of being overconfident and shy.
- iv. Versatility in teaching and instructional methods.
- v. Mastery of subject matter for accurate answering of unforeseen questions.

Evaluation of teaching practice has always been a challenging task for education institutions. There was a dire need to explore the strengths and weaknesses in assessing the teaching practice component of teacher education programmes of both formal and non-formal education system. Therefore, this study was aimed to investigate the weaknesses in evaluation methods of teaching practice of both the

systems i.e. formal and non-formal systems prevailing in the country and also suggests the ways for its improvement.

Objectives

1. To find out the issues of evaluation of teaching practice of formal and non-formal teacher education systems.
2. To recommend the ways to improve the component of evaluation of teaching practice for both.

Literature Review

Teaching practice time spent in schools is recommended as the central pillar & integral part of education programs. It allows prospective teachers to provide a scaffold of support, mentoring & learning that progressively builds the desired knowledge, skills and attitudes. The percentage of total marks and teaching practice ranges between 90:10 and 70:30. So it is clear that weight age of teaching practice in terms of percentage marks in relation to total marks of teacher education program have been decreasing with the passage of time all over the teacher education institutions in Pakistan (Murtaza, 2005).

According to Taneja (2000), there are different terminologies used for teaching practice that are field study, internship, infield experience, teaching practicum, field based trainings and practice teaching.

It is a pre-service professional training for interested persons, aspiring to become teachers with a credible vision for sustainable human development (Oyekan, 2000).

The teaching practice plays a foremost role to bridge theory and practice. It also offers the field environment to develop the personal and teaching competencies in the prospective teachers (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005).

Laurentian University (2011) and university of Newcastle (2010) addressed that teacher education programmes aims to provide opportunities for prospective teachers to employ knowledge, information, and theories that they gained during their course work in the real classroom setting. In additions, teaching practice experience enables them to achieve the combination between the theoretical and the practical knowledge.

Morgan, Perry, and Reilly (2004) stated that evaluation or feedback of prospective teachers in the teaching practice is used as a means to improve accountability for effective practices and for improving teaching practice. It also provides documentation for accountability and promotion procedures. The most commonly used methods of evaluation are:

- Using formative or summative evaluation.
- Obtaining student feedback.
- Seeking input from other stakeholders.

- Developing evaluation tools.
- Analyzing the evaluation data.
- Reporting the evaluation outcomes.
- Using information from evaluative process to improve assessment practices.

The following studies conducted in Pakistan and other countries indicated the importance of teaching practice in teacher education programmes. These research studies focused on the issues and the problems of evaluation of prospective teachers during teaching practice, and also suggested and recommended for its improvement to enhance the quality of education and teaching.

Akbar (2001) conducted a research entitled “A study of practice teaching of prospective teachers of secondary schools”. The study was aimed to examine the rules and regulations for practice teaching to know the practices of supervision of practice teaching and to highlight the problems faced by administration, teachers & students of teacher training institutions & practicing schools during practice teaching. The major findings of the study revealed that there was a little variation in the practices of practice teaching in all the teacher training institutions in Punjab. It was also found that some imported elements of practice teaching i.e. demonstration lesson, criticism lesson, participation of cooperating teachers and active involvement of supervisors is missing.

Ali (2005) conducted a research study entitled “Comparative study of teaching practice in formal and non-formal systems and development of a model”. Analysis of data exposed that teaching practice in both systems of teacher evaluation program was considered to be least important. Therefore, it is need of time to give more focus and importance to teaching practice for improving the teacher education programmes.

Gujjar et al. (2011) researched on the topic “An evaluation of teaching practice: practicum”. The main findings of the study were that: the demonstration lessons are not given to the prospective teachers, time period of teaching practice is inadequate, and the evaluation component is unsatisfactory. It was suggested that demonstration lessons may be given before sending them in schools; the length of teaching practice may be greater than before.

According to Saifi, Sherzaman, Shafqat, and Zaman (2013) investigation, if school were to provide weekly conferences, regular triad meeting, and daily meeting with cooperative teachers and supervised classroom teaching, it will have great impact on academic and professional skills of the prospective teachers.

According to Mapfumo, and Chitsiko, (2009). “Teaching practice is an integrated learning that is defined as a time period in which students worked together to receive particular in-service instruction and guidance to apply the studied theory into practice”.

Teaching practice is a positive experience that causes prospective teachers to increase reflection on how to refresh their teaching. Teaching practice also increases self-efficacy among prospective teachers. On the other hand, teaching practice is also the most stressful part of the teacher education program. In teaching practice, most prospective teachers are not able to develop teaching skills depending on various situations. (Gujjar, Ramzan, & Bajwa, 2011).

Method and Procedure

Sample

From the population, the sample was drawn by convenient random sampling. Two hundred supervisors were randomly selected from the sample universities, One hundred from formal and one hundred from non-formal system. Punjab University Lahore, University of Education and Fatima Jinnah Women University Rawalpindi were selected as Formal Teacher Education Institutions and AIOU was selected as Non-Formal Teacher Education Institution.

Research Instrument

The questionnaire was prepared by considering the objectives of the research study and related literature in consultation with the supervisor. The problems and weaknesses of evaluation of teaching practice were found out by open ended items in the questionnaires which were analyzed by using ENVIVO and it was improved with the professional input of ten experts in the field of educational research and teaching practice. Expert's view was collected for the judgmental validity of the instruments. For content and construct validity, the scale was administered to prospective teachers and supervisors for pilot testing.

Data Collection

After pilot study data was gathered through the validated questionnaires. The researcher personally travelled through the target areas of Islamabad, Lahore, Multan and Attock, visited the formal and non-formal institutions which were selected as a sample and distributed herself the questionnaires with the letter of supervisor.

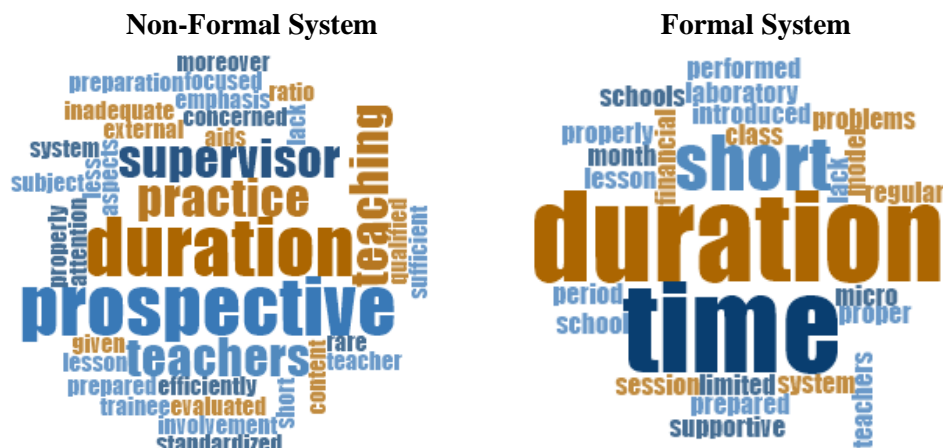
Analysis of Data

As the questionnaire teacher educators have open ended items. These open-ended items responses were analyzed by using ENVIVO and the results were shown diagrammatically indicating the weaknesses of evaluation of teaching practice and ways to improve them.

Results

Non-Formal and Formal Supervisors' Responses

Major weaknesses in existing teaching practice1



The above diagrams show the major weaknesses that currently existing in teaching practices in formal and non-formal system. Majority of respondents expressed that prospective teachers are not being evaluated properly. Lack of qualified, experienced and expert supervisor is another major weakness in the current teaching practices in formal and non-formal system. The list of major weaknesses that were prominent by respondents is given below.

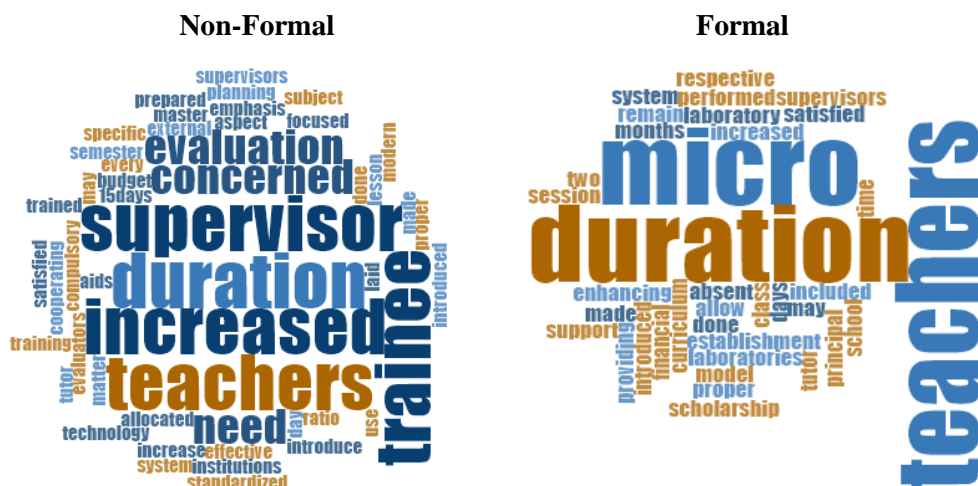
Non-formal System Major Weaknesses

- Improper lesson planning (43%)
- Ratio of supervisor and prospective teacher is inadequate (55%)
- Emphasis on concerned subject content is rare (69%)
- Lack of qualified supervisor. (32%)
- Duration of teaching practice is less. (95%)
- Prospective teachers should be given more attention on preparation of A.V aids. (71%)
- Prospective teachers are not evaluated properly. (64%)
- There is no external system involvement in evaluation. (41%)
- Evaluation method is not standardized. (23%)
- All aspects of evaluation were not focused. (42%)

Formal System Major Weaknesses

- Lack of laboratory school. (46%)
- Practicing schools are not supportive. (75%)
- Duration of teaching practice is less. (92%)
- Financial problems of prospective teachers. (34%)
- Element of micro-teaching was missing. (49%)
- The cooperating teachers are not regular as they should be. (46%)

Suggestions to overcome existing shortcomings in teaching practice



The above diagrams show the suggestions to overcome existing shortcomings in teaching practices in formal and non-formal system. Majority of respondents said that supervisor role is very important in the teaching practice, so the institutes should hire qualified, experienced and expert supervisor. Major suggestion that were prominent by respondents is given below.

Major Suggestions Non-Formal System

- Use of modern technology should be compulsory during lesson planning and teaching. (47%)
- Concerned institutions should be allocated specific budget for teaching practice. (64%)
- Supervisors should be trained. (52%)
- A.V aids must be prepared and used by the prospective teachers. (74%)
- Training of supervisor & cooperating teachers is need of the day. (55%)

- Duration of teaching practice must be increased or it must be 15 days in each semester. (91%)
- Some external evaluators should be involved. (31%)
- Standardized system of evaluation must be introduced. (15%)
- Each aspect required for effective teaching must be focused in evaluation of teaching practice. (36%)

Major Suggestions of Formal System

- Duration of teaching practice should be increased to up to 3 months. (79%)
- Micro teaching should be included in curriculum. (18%)
- Establishment of laboratory schools. (56%)
- Financial support (i.e. scholarship) should be provided. (77%)
- Proper model class system should be introduced. (60%)
- The respective principal and cooperating teachers should not allow the prospective teachers to remain absent for more than two days during teaching practice. (41%)

Discussion

Teaching practice plays a vital role for in developing personal ability, teaching ability in prospective teachers' and also bridges the gap between "theory and practice". Throughout the teaching practice, the prospective teachers are supervised by the cooperating school principal, class teachers and their supervisor. During teaching practice prospective teachers have the opportunities to involve and participate in schools curricular and co-curricular activities. Through this experience they learn new knowledge, facts and also linked their experience with theories (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2006).

Evaluation of teaching practice is quite challenging as well as time consuming task. In this particular study, it was evident from the results that both the systems i.e. the formal and non-formal teacher education system needs improvement in evaluation of prospective teachers during teaching practice. Time period of teaching practice for both the systems may be increased. The cooperating schools must be selected with the consent of prospective teachers. There must be some incentives for the heads of schools like certificates of appreciation or some financial support.

Evaluation must be both i.e. internal by the teaching practice supervisor or head of the school and also external by some expert teacher educators. It will help to main the objectivity. Moreover, the criteria of evaluation should be discussed with the prospective teachers, so that they may be clear that what aspects of their personality and profession will be evaluated. Continuous assessment of this component will make it more effective and productive.

Conclusions

The major conclusions drawn were as under:

Supervisors of both the system viewed that time period of teaching practice was inadequate to train the prospective teachers. School for teaching practice was not selected with the consent of prospective supervisors. The evaluation criterion of teaching practice was not the single base of supervisor internal evaluation. Supervisors of formal system intended that evaluation criterion of teaching practice was on the basis of recommendations made by supervisors and also some other experts while supervisors of non-formal rejected it. Supervisors of both formal and non-formal universities opined that they were provided with evaluation criteria of teaching practice. Supervisors of formal universities informed this criterion to prospective teachers while supervisors of non-formal universities did not inform about the criteria to prospective teachers. Supervisors of both the system were not satisfied with the evaluation criteria.

Majority of supervisors of formal universities maintained the record of evaluation of prospective teachers on daily basis while majority of supervisor of non-formal universities maintained the record on weekly basis.

Majority of both formal and non-formal universities supervisors held that they maintained the record of evaluation of prospective teachers on weekly basis.

Recommendations

The recommendations made were as under:

Supervisors of both institutions opined that the length of their teaching practice was inadequate. It is therefore recommended that it should be more than two months. Presently in both formal and non-formal universities prospective teachers are required to undertake one-month teaching practice during one year or two-year course of study. Beside course work the teaching practice should be given equal time. In this way they will be able to become good teacher after their training.

Intentions of respondents of non-formal universities showed that they were not satisfied with the quality of existing teaching practice. It is therefore, recommended that it may be improved by giving due consideration to all elements of teaching practice. The major elements include duration of teaching practice, teaching of different allied subjects and opportunities to prospective teacher to use different methods of teaching in a real classroom setting.

Respondents of both formal and non-formal universities concluded that cooperating teachers and heads of practicing schools did not show interest in evaluation of teaching practice. It is therefore, recommended that cooperating teacher and heads of teaching practice schools should be involved in evaluation process of prospective

teachers. The concerned authorities of the university should be authorized to take their part.

References

- Akbar, R.A. (2002). *A study of Teaching Practice of Prospective Secondary School Teachers and Development of Teaching Practice Model*, Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi.
- Ali, M. (2005). *Comparative Study of Teaching Practice in Formal and Non-Formal System and development of a Model*, Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi. (Unpublished PhD thesis).
- Bhargava. Anupama (2009). Teaching practice for prospective teachers of B.Ed. Programme, Issues, Predicaments and Suggestions. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*.
- Gay, L.R., & Airasian, P. (2003). *Educational Research: Competencies for analysis and application*. New Jersey: Merrill.
- Gujjar, A. A. (2009). *Teaching Practice: Concept, Stages, Objectives & Suggestions*. Available online at <http://www.eslteachersboard.com/cgi-bin/articles/index.pl?noframes;page=4;read=3490>.
- Iqbal. P. (2014). *Qualify Test & Interview PPSC*. Lahore: Majeed Book Depot.
- Kennedy, J. (2006). *A study of Learning Environment in the Extended Teaching practice of a Pre-Service Teacher Education Course at a Catholic University*. School of Graduate study. Australian Catholic University. (Unpublished Dissertation).
- McBurney & Geraldine (2005). *Improving your teaching practice: A guide to better teaching practice*. Australia. Thomson social science press.
- Ministry of Education (2003). *Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO) Handbook*. Retrieved from www.google.com
- Nomikou, M. (2008). *The Impact of Non-Formal Education on Young People and Society: AEGEE- Europe*, Belgium: Rue Nestor de Tiers 15, 1030 chaarbeek/Brussels.
- Saeed, M. (2002). Impact evaluation of 5-day teaching skills development course for primary school teachers in Punjab. *Journal of Elementary Education*, 12(1), 36-44.
- Smith, K., & Lev-Ari, L. (2005). The place of the teaching practice in pre-service teacher education: The voice of the students. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 33(3), 289-302.
- Teaching Practice (2016). In Collin online *dictionary*. Available online at <http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/teaching-practice>.

Impact of Distributed Leadership and Psychological Empowerment on Organizational Learning Culture

Iqra Bashir*

Muhammad Akram**

Huma Lodhi***

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to measure the impact of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment on organizational learning culture through teachers' perspectives. Distributed leadership is a practice in which the leadership responsibilities are shared within those with related skills and expertise. Psychological Empowerment involves motivational reasoning formed by environment conducive to active involvement in the work roles. Distributed Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ) was developed by the researchers, while Psychological Empowerment Scale (PES) and Urdu version of Dimensions of Organizational Learning Culture (DLOQ) were adopted to address the purpose of the study. Using multistage sampling technique, 613 teachers from forty secondary schools were selected as the sample of study. The reliability coefficients of the three scales ranged from .75 to .88. Exploratory factor analysis of the distributed leadership questionnaire yielded four factors of the construct. Initially, Pearson correlation was found among all factors grouped in each construct. Simple linear regression analysis reveals that Dimensions of Distributed leadership (Shared responsibility, Leadership practices, Decision making, and Professional development) as well as Psychological empowerment (Meaning, Competence, Self-determination and Impact) significantly impact learning organization culture. Multiple regression analysis, further demonstrates that 7 of 8 factors of Distributed Leadership and Psychological Empowerment constructs significantly combine to impact learning culture of high schools. The R^2 value shows that almost 67% of the observed variance in learning culture in the schools can be explained by 7 factors of the distributed leadership and psychological empowerment constructs.

Keywords: Distributed leadership, Psychological empowerment, Learning culture, Professional development, Competence

* Research Scholar, University of Education, Lahore, iqrabashir73@gmail.com

** Assistant Professor, Division of Education, University of Education, Lahore, E mail: makram@ue.edu.pk (Corresponding Author).

*** Assistant Professor, Division of Education, University of Education, Lahore, E mail: Huma.lodhi@gmail.com

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to measure the impact of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment on organizational learning culture. Distributed leadership involves sharing leadership practices among the faculty who can demonstrate skills expertise in the areas they are interested (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). In school context, distributed leadership is meant for head teachers that instead of assuming greater responsibilities, they focus on producing mechanism where employees demonstrate collective responsibility, and share learning culture (Harris, 2008). Spillane et al. (2004) argued that distributed leadership involves combined efforts of multiple leaders, in formal as well as informal positions, to maximize instructional success, leading to continued student success (Spillane, 2005). McLaughlin and Talbert (2006) stated that an effective head teacher controls the steps of learning and encourages the teachers to developing leadership capacities among them and perform effectively.

Elmore (2000) argued that a leader is not always the center of all educational activities in an institution; rather he or she involves everyone in assuming leadership roles so that a combined effort can produce effective results. A similar view of distributed leadership was presented by Gronn (2000) and Mayrowetz (2008) who suggested that this leadership is a collective phenomenon to maximize employee's interaction and building their capacity to lead schools. Mayrowetz further recommends that distributed leadership promotes the idea that by employing various individuals in leadership roles, a collective capacity of the organization would emerge which can lead toward successful completion of instructional activities. Thus, the idea of distributing leadership roles among employees expands the boundaries of leadership from one person to everyone to create a common culture of expectations around the use of individual skills and abilities.

The other independent variable of this study is psychological empowerment which is defined as a set of motivational strategies designed under an environment conducive to learning and where employees can demonstrate active participation in their job roles (Spreitzer, 1995). When people are psychologically empowered, there will be a change in attitude, cognition, and behavior, which most leads to a positive change in value orientation, increased patriotic actions, and improved Self-esteem (Hall, 2008; Koberg, Boss, Senjem & Goodman, 1999), self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), self-consciousness (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989) and better psychological well-being (Oladipo, 2008).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued that psychological empowerment is a construct which involves different concepts and varied understanding. They stated that psychological empowerment involves four cognitive considerations which lead to increased intrinsic motivation in employees; they are *meaning*, *competence*, *self-determination*, and *impact*. So, once the people feel they are empowered, they demonstrate higher level of self-efficacy, greater motivations, and higher level of job

satisfaction. Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) found that empowering people towards exercising more skills creates higher level of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and increased performance among the employees. Similar findings have also been reported by various other authors such as Kraimer, Seibert, and Liden, (1999) Spreitzer, (1995) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990).

The dependent variable of study is learning culture of an organization. In this study we take school as an organization. Learning culture refers to an organization where employees find plenty of opportunities to create, acquire, and transfer their knowledge as well as modify their behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights (Garvin, 1993).

Organizations often expect that learning and knowledge creation take place continuously for individuals and that they will share what they know in ways that promote learning in groups and throughout the organization. Leadership is one of the most significant dimensions of a learning culture. Leadership within the school setting can no longer be left to one individual. In order to improve the effectiveness of schools, administrative leaders need to establish leadership teams that work collaboratively to implement the complex demands and roles associated with school reform (Akram, Watkins, & Sajid, 2013). Marsick and Watkins (2003) stated learning culture is established on myriad components such as leadership, the process of learning, system connections, and inquiry and dialogue between the employees. This provides evidence of increased organizational commitment and performance.

Based on these variables, the researchers were interested in measuring whether the distributed leadership and psychological empowerment of school teachers impact learning culture of the schools. It is significant to measure the impact of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment on learning culture of schools as the research tells that by improving the learning culture of organizations we can increase productivity of the employees (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Since distributed leadership has previously shown impact on student achievement (Hallinger & Heck 1998; Gordon, 2005), organizational productivity (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998), leadership (Copland, 2003; Gronn, 2003; Spillane et al., 2004), collaboration (Gray, 1989) and empowerment (Rappaport, 1987), and psychological empowerment has impacted employee performance (Spreitzer, 1997), and organizational commitment (Sylviz, Nabila, Azwa, & Ambad, 2012), it is significant to measure the impact of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment factors on the dimensions of learning organizational culture. In Pakistan, the previous literature lacks in providing evidence of the distributed leadership and psychological empowerment on learning culture. This research study is an effort to fill this gap.

Review of the Related Literature

Distributed leadership (DL) is a conceptual understanding of how leadership takes place among the people and in framework of organization. Distributed leadership

is a practice that illustrates that leadership responsibilities are shared among subordinates in accordance with their tasks. In schools, head teachers play the role of distributed leaders through shared learning culture rather than carrying full responsibilities on their own (Harris, 2003). Distributed leadership refers to interaction between the leader, supporters and circumstances (Spillane, 2005). Spillane et al. (2004) are of the view that distributed leadership is meant for multiple individuals, working in formal and informal leadership positions, to organize instructional inventions. School improvement and their success or failure depends on the practice of distributed leadership in school community. Distributed leadership is grounded on the interaction of head teachers and school (Hallinger, 2007).

Learning outcomes increase when a head teacher involves teachers in decision making and developing leadership in the school. Every person is not expert to make decisions but their involvement in this process is necessary. Teachers are encouraged to participate in school activities and satisfied to work in the school (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). Much has been written on distributed leadership during the last two decades. The literature around the globe tells that distributed leadership has significantly impacted various constructs in school settings. Gordon (2005), for example, investigated effect of distributed leadership on student achievement by employing 1257 educational practitioners in Connecticut State, USA. The study found a significant difference between the leadership dimensions in high and low performing schools.

Obadara (2013) conducted a study involving 200 public secondary school teachers to find out the relationship between distributed leadership and school improvement. The findings revealed significant relationships between distributed leadership and school goal achievement, teachers' professional development, effective teaching and learning, and promotion of school climate. Another study conducted in Malaysia found out the relationship between distributed leadership practices of head teachers and their level of motivation in primary public schools (Wahab, Hamid, Zainal & Rafik, 2013). Others found distributed leadership significant influenced school performance (Shakir, Issa, & Mustafa, 2011) and teachers' organizational commitment (Ali & Yangaiya (2015).

In Pakistani schools, distributed leadership is exercised in various forms. Though informally, the Head of the school, in many cases, assigns duties to a senior teacher to work as deputy headmaster/headmistress and assume various responsibilities of the head such as school supervision, classroom observation, timetable issues, co-curricular activities, and so on. Further, Head teacher assigns examination responsibility to another teacher; still head sections are other individuals who look into the matters of the teachers and students of the pertinent sections. By assigning leadership roles to various faculty members, head teacher involves them into decision-making regarding various important aspects of the school.

In a nutshell, distributed leadership includes the activities of multiple individuals to accumulate instructional improvements. Collaborative culture is developed in school when a head teacher involves teachers in planning process, decision making and encourages them to participate in achievement of goals (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). Mayrowetz (2008) stated that distributed leadership is the core component to build human capability and to increase school improvement because multiple individuals are involved in distributed leadership who are best aware of their tasks and the problems faced by school.

Psychological empowerment is multidimensional construct and involves a set of motivational intellects of individuals and imitating individual's association in work related tasks (Spreitzer, 1995). Psychological empowerment is defined as a work environment and individual's involvement in their tasks (Spreitzer, 1995). Empowered individuals show assertiveness, reasoning in their actions which is central to devoted actions and satisfaction of individuals desires (Hall, 2008), self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), and self-consciousness (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Various other studies on psychological empowerment found interesting findings about this construct. The studies found that psychological empowerment has been significantly positively correlated with organizational commitment (Sylviz et al., 2012), organizational learning (Ghaffari, Saki & Savari, 2014), monitoring behaviors of the employees (Spreitzer, Janasz & Quinn, 1999) and learning culture (Akram et al., 2013), and job satisfaction (Carless, 2004; Namasivayam, Guchait and Lei (2014). Researchers believe that individuals' actions, perceptions, and performance get changed if they are psychologically empowered and are capable of fulfilling their own desires to perform devoted actions (Hall, 2008; Koberg et al., 1999). Self-efficacy (Conger, & Kanungo, 1988) and self-consciousness (Deci et al., 1989) lead them to a constructive transformation (Oladipo, 2008).

Empowerment is of two types: the relational perception and the psychological perception. Relational empowerment has been referred as highest-lowest handling (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) in addition to systematic (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997). Empowerment takes place when administrators share powers with their followers (Spreitzer, 1997; Wilkinson, 1998). The collaborative perception sustains new practices and authority is distributed to workers. The psychological aspect of empowerment focuses on the employee's opinion (Spreitzer, 1997).

One of the important works on learning culture has been done by Senge (1990) who visions learning culture involves groups of people who continuously focus on improving their capabilities. Senge stated that employees under learning culture expand their level of thinking, develop collective efficacy, and continuously combine their efforts for successful and increased learning. He, further, identified five factors of learning culture that include *Systems thinking*, *Personal mastery*, *Mental models*, *Building shared*

vision, and *Team learning*. These factors are highly compatible with the dimensions of learning organization of Marsick and Watkins (2003).

The literature on distributed leadership and psychological empowerment demonstrates that creating and improving learning culture is required as various studies provide evidence that school culture that is conducive to learning impacts student achievement (Akram et al., 2013; Macneil, Prater & Busch (2009); Hallinger & Heck, 1998). It is important, therefore, that school leaders should establish strong school cultures by getting the relationships between teachers, students, and parents to improve student performance and improve overall performance of the schools. It was equally significant to measure the impact of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment on learning culture of schools as the research tells that by improving the learning culture of organizations we can increase productivity of the employees (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Since distributed leadership has previously shown impact on student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1998), organizational productivity (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998), leadership (Copland, 2003; Spillane et al., 2004), collaboration fosters an ideology of participation and consensus (Gray, 1989) and empowerment (Rappaport, 1987), it is significant to measure the impact of distributed leadership factors on the dimensions of learning organizational culture.

Research Questions

- 1) Is there significant impact of distributed leadership on organizational learning culture?
- 2) Is there significant impact of psychological empowerment on organizational learning culture?
- 3) Do Distributed leadership and psychological empowerment combine to predict learning culture of public schools in Punjab?

Conceptual Framework

Miles and Huberman (1994) defined a conceptual framework as a visual or written product, one that “explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied—the key factors, concepts, or variables—and the presumed relationships among them” (p. 18). In our proposed study, the graphic product demonstrates the factors that are presumed to demonstrate relationships and impact. The figure shows that the factors of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment will demonstrate significant relationship with and impact on learning culture of the schools sampled in the study (see Figure 1).

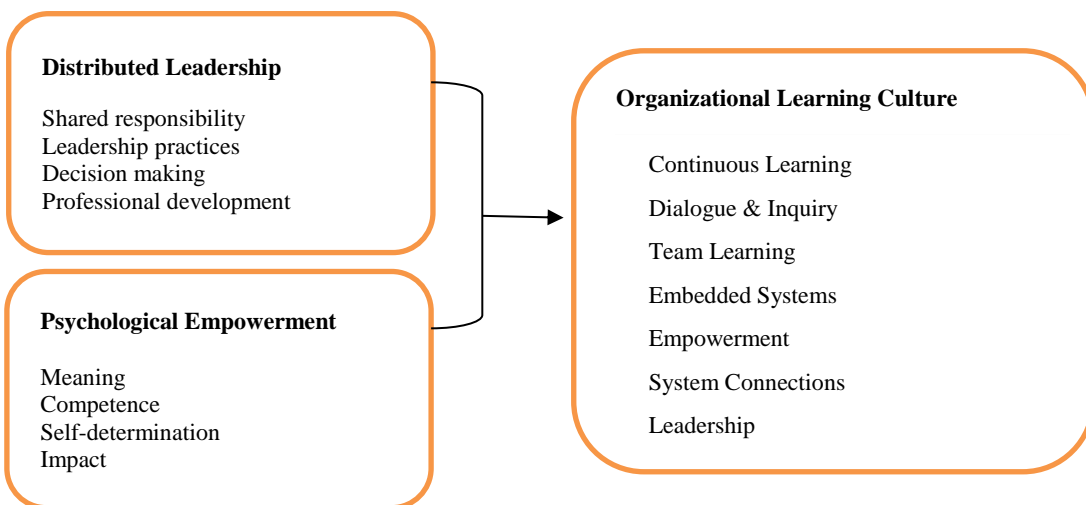


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Method

This quantitative study used a well-connected design and structure to measure the impact of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment on organizational learning. The population, over which the results can be generalized, included all public secondary school teachers in province Punjab, Pakistan. Using the multistage sampling technique, initially, out of 36, 10 % districts (4) were randomly selected. Next, among the four districts, 40 [20 rural and 20 urban (10 boys and 10 girls for rural and urban)] secondary schools were randomly selected as the sample of the study. Next, all male and female rural and urban teachers of 40 selected schools were the sample of the study.

Instrumentation

Three instruments were used in this study. Initially, the *Distributed Leadership Questionnaire* (DLQ) was developed based on work of Gordon (2005). A dimension *Mission, Vision, and Goals* was not fit in Pakistani school context. Another dimension *culture* was not included in the distributed leadership due to avoidance of redundancy as learning culture is a separate variable of this study. So, the researchers developed DLQ according to Pakistani situation and context. The researchers developed the DLQ that comprised 26 items covering four factors: *Shared responsibility, leadership practices, decision making, and professional development*. The content validity of the DLQ was established by seeking guidance of content expert panel that consisted of 5 professors of Educational Leadership area. The panel after their careful review of the items of the questionnaire, they reduced item to 22. Each item was recorded given the agreement or disagreement score on five-point Likert Scale responses. The reliability of the

questionnaire based on 30 questionnaires collected as pilot testing was found good ($\alpha=0.82$).

The questionnaire for Psychological Empowerment Scale (Sprietzer, 1996) was adopted for this study. The Psychological Empowerment Scale comprises 13 questions covering the factors such as *Meaning, Competence, Self-determination* and *Impact*. Psychological empowerment is defined as a set of motivational cognitions shaped by a work environment and reflecting an individual's active orientation to his or her work role (Sprietzer, 1995). Building on the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988), Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued that four cognitive assessments represent a comprehensive task-specific evaluation and interpretation that determines intrinsic task motivation, hence, psychological empowerment. These four assessments are meaning, competence, choice, and impact. The questionnaire demonstrates five levels of the scales such as strongly agree, agree, to some extent, disagree, and strongly disagree. The highest score on the psychological scale will demonstrate highest agreement with the empowerment and the vice versa. The reliability of the questionnaire found in the literature was good ($\alpha=0.75$).

The Urdu version of the Dimensions of the Learning Organization Questionnaire (Akram et al., 2013) was used to measure the learning environment of their organizations. The Urdu version was actually translated version of the original DLOQ developed by Watkins and Marsick (1993) who illustrated seven dimensions namely (1) continuous learning, (2) dialogue and inquiry, (3), team learning, (4) embedded systems, (5) empowerment, (6) systems connections, and (7) provide leadership. This questionnaire comprises 43 items related to learning culture, and has already been validation and found reliable ($\alpha=.88$) (Akram et al., 2013).

Data Collection

The data were collected from the secondary school teachers. The reason of collecting data from the teachers was that teachers were better able to perceive and demonstrate their perception on distributed leadership, psychological empowerment, and learning organizational culture. The researchers distributed 650 questionnaires to the teachers of the sampled schools and received 613 (303 male and 310 female) Questionnaires in complete form.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed on the basis of comparisons of factors of Distributed leadership, Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Learning Culture. Factor wise items given in questionnaire were separated and comparison was made. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was run to evaluate the appropriateness of the data. The EFA examined the 20 items using the principal component abstraction method with varimax rotation. Interrelations of 20 items were calculated and studied resulting matrix of Interrelations Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi^2=2.9$, $df=190$, $p<0.00$. The eigenvalues

greater than 1 showed that there were 4 factors that represented 54.05 % of the variance which is considered good. The overall reliability of the questionnaire was high ($\alpha=.87$). The Cronbach alpha reliabilities of the scales were assessed as shared responsibilities (.76), Leadership practices (.69), Decision making (.70), and professional development (.71). Psychological empowerment Scale and DLOQ were also found to be highly reliable (.83 and .86) respectively. Further analyses were run after getting reliabilities of the subscales of these constructs which ranged from .69 to .82.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Distributed leadership, Psychological Empowerment, and Learning Culture (n=613)

Factors	Min	Max	Mean	S. D.
Distributed Leadership				
Shared Responsibilities	3.00	15.00	12.49	1.66
Leadership Practices	7.00	20.00	16.52	2.13
Decision-making	9.00	20.00	16.87	1.73
Professional Development	6.00	15.00	12.76	1.45
Psychological Empowerment				
Meaning	5.00	15.00	13.13	1.26
Competence	9.00	15.00	12.96	1.13
Self Determination	9.00	15.00	13.02	1.01
Impact	9.00	20.00	17.07	1.39
Dimensions of Learning Culture				
Continuous Learning (CL)	21.00	49.00	40.85	4.62
Dialogue & Inquiry (DI)	16.00	42.00	35.60	3.67
Team Learning (TL)	16.00	42.00	35.03	3.97
Embedded Systems (ES)	17.00	42.00	35.24	3.80
Empowerment (E)	17.00	42.00	35.16	3.83
System Connections (SC)	16.00	42.00	34.54	4.12
Leadership (L)	18.00	42.00	34.80	3.82

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the data. Of the four dimensions of distributed leadership, the decision-making dimension ranked highest (M. =16.87, S.D. =1.73), followed by leadership practices (M. =16.52, S.D. =2.13). Of the four dimensions of psychological empowerment, impact had the highest mean (M. =17.07, S.D. =1.39), which shows that teachers believed that they have impact on what occurs in their schools

and that they have an impact on the activities surrounding them. The Meaning dimension ranked second ($M. = 13.13$, $S.D. = 1.26$), this result could indicate that teachers in schools felt proud of and happy with their work and believed that their work environment enabled them to perform their jobs in meaningful ways. Of the seven dimensions of Learning organization culture (DLOQ), Continuous Learning had the highest mean ($M. = 40.85$, $S.D. = 4.62$). The Dialogue Inquiry dimension ranked second ($M. = 35.60$, $S.D. = 3.67$).

Correlations among the dimensions of distributed leadership were calculated using Pearson' r values. Significant moderate positive relationships were found between all dimensions of the distributed leadership construct, ranging from highest ($r=.40$) between processional development and shared responsibilities (.40), and lowest between decision making and professional development ($r=.30$). For psychological empowerment, *meaning*, *competence*, *self-determination*, and *impact* were significantly correlated. *Self-determination* showed highest significant relationship with *impact* (.57), followed by the relationship between *competence* and *impact* (.44). The lowest correlation was found between *meaning* and *impact* factors. All scales of DLOQ including Continuous learning, Dialogue Inquiry, Team learning, Embedded System, Empowerment, System Connections, Leadership were significantly correlated. The highest correlation was found between embedded systems and system connection (.75), followed by the relationship between *empowerment* and *leadership* (.67). Continuous learning and team learning showed lowest positive significant relationship (.38).

Further, the researchers were interested in measuring the relationships between the three major variables of the study i.e. distributed leadership, psychological empowerment, and learning culture. The results are given in Table 2.

Table 2

Pearson correlation analysis (N=613).

	CL	DI	TL	ES	E	SC	L
<i>Distributed Leadership Factors</i>							
Shared Responsibility	.25*	.27*	.45*	.31*	.51*	.44*	.37*
Leadership practices	.44*	.51*	.36*	.44*	.40*	.45*	.31*
Decision making	.41*	.57*	.24*	.48*	.39*	.41*	.34*
Professional Development	.35*	.31*	.27*	.25*	.45*	.21*	.32*
<i>Psychological Empowerment Factors</i>							
Meaning	.20*	.13*	.15*	.16*	.33*	.15*	.22*
Competence	.17*	.14*	.14*	.19*	.22*	.21*	.23*
Self determination	.13*	.21*	.18*	.16*	.14*	.15*	.18*
Impact	.15*	.29*	.30*	.37*	.23*	.24*	.17*

* $P < 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Table 2 describes the correlation analysis of Dimensions of learning organization culture to distributed leadership. Table 2 shows that all dimensions of distributed leadership significantly correlated with the dimensions of learning organization. The highest correlation was found between decision making (factor of DL) and embedded learning (dimension of DLOQ) as $r=.48$, followed by the relationship between shared responsibility (factor of DL) and team learning (dimension of DLOQ) as $r=.45$. Impact (factor of PE) and team learning (dimension of DLOQ) showed significant positive but weak correlation ($r=.30$); other factors of PE showed even weaker but significant positive relationships with all the dimensions of DLOQ.

Table 3

Factor-wise regression analysis of distributed leadership to predict learning culture

<i>Distributed Leadership Factors</i>	Parameter Estimate (b)	Standardized Estimate (Beta)	t	Sig.
Shared Responsibilities	2.37	.18	6.79	.000*
Leadership Practices	1.94	.19	6.99	.000*
Decision Making	2.83	.22	8.58	.000*
Professional development	1.27	.08	3.10	.002*

* $P<.001$

Table 3 shows that each dimension of distributed leadership significantly predicted learning culture of schools. Shared responsibilities significantly predicted learning culture as $F(1,611)=178.99$, $p=.000$ with 23% of variance, Leadership practices as $F(1,611)=246.612$, $p=.000$ with 29 of variance, Decision making as $F(1,611)=225.533$, $p=.000$ with 27% of variance, and, Professional development as $F(1,611)=138.85$, $p=.000$, with 16% of variance in learning culture of schools. In overall, distributed leadership significantly predicted 51% of variance in school learning culture, $F(4,608)=157.116$, $p=.000$.

Table 4

Regression analysis of psychological empowerment to predict learning culture

<i>Psychological Empowerment Factors</i>	Parameter Estimate (b)	Standardized Estimate (Beta)	t	Sig.
Meaning	1.23	.07	2.72	.007*
Competence	-.09	-.04	-1.71	.088
Self determination	-1.42	-.06	-2.27	.023*
Impact	2.70	.17	5.85	.000*

* $P<.001$

Table 4 shows that 3 of 4 dimensions of psychological empowerment significantly predicted learning culture of schools. The meaning factor explained 6% of variance as Shared $F(1,611) = 39.210$, $p = .000$; self-determination explained 3% of variance as $F(1,611) = 19.692$, $p = .023$, and impact explained 7% of variance in learning culture of schools, $F(1,611) = 46.529$, $p = .000$. In overall, psychological empowerment significantly predicted 11% of variance in learning culture of school, $F(4,608) = 18.897$, $p = .000$.

Table 5

Multiple Regression Analysis Model to Predict Learning Organization Culture

Factors	Parameter Estimate (b)	Standardized Estimate (Beta)	t	p
Distributed leadership	2.30	.77	31.06	.000*
Psychological empowerment	.55	.90	3.60	.000*

* $P < .001$

The overall model in Table 5 shows that distributed leadership and psychological empowerment significantly predicted learning culture of schools, $R = .80$, $F(2,610) = 572.75$, $p = .000$. The r^2 value showed that 65% of observed variance of learning organization culture could be predicted through distributed leadership and psychological empowerment. The results indicated that distributed leadership and psychological empowerment had significant impact on dimensions of learning organization culture. In overall, the results of the study provided evidence that the objectives of the study were achieved.

Results and Discussion

The study investigates Impact of distributed leadership (DLQ) and psychological empowerment (PEQ) on learning organization culture (DLOQ). The study found:

Finding 1

Dimensions of Distributed leadership (School culture, Shared responsibility, Leadership practices, Decision making and Professional development) significantly impacted school learning culture. The results support the findings of the study of Gordon (2005 and Obadara (2013). Another comparison of this study can be made with the study of Jacobs (2010) who found moderate, positive relationship between distributed leadership and the affective assurance of educators. Teachers showed a greater commitment to their schools then leadership was shared among all stakeholders, especially teachers ($r = .043$ to 0.52 , $p < .001$). Leithwood (2006) determined that a principal who actually distributes leadership roles among teachers engages them in establishing professional development activities, redesigning the school, and affecting school culture. Harris (2008) stated that leaders increase interactions with their

colleagues and focus on building teams. The findings of this study also conform the results of the study conducted by Woods, Harris (2004) who stated that teams and networking help increase collaboration among the employees and the leader.

Finding 2

Dimensions of Psychological empowerment (Meaning, Competence, Self-determination and Impact) significantly impact learning organization culture. These results are consistent with prior findings of Joo and Shim (2010) and Sylviz et al. (2012). The results of the current study are reliable with the previous research which shows that Dimensions of psychological empowerment shows significant positive relationship with learning organization culture. The results of our study are also compatible with the results of another study conducted by Safari, Haghighi, Rastegar, and Jamshidi (2011) who found that the factors of psychological empowerment such as self-efficacy, self-determination, impact and meaningfulness had the most power to predict the organizational learning respectively. These findings provide evidences that organizational learning can be enhanced by psychological empowerment.

Finding 3

Regression analysis shows that factors of distributed leadership and psychological empowerment significantly impacted learning culture of schools. Majority of the factors of Distributed Leadership and Psychological Empowerment (7 out of 8) significantly impacted learning culture of schools. The R^2 value of .67% of observed variance showed that dimensions of learning organization culture could be explained through distributed leadership and psychological empowerment. Competence and self-determination did not significantly contribute to dimensions of learning organization culture.

The results are consistent with previous of Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden (1999) who found that only self-determination and impact has positive relationship with organizational learning culture. On the other hand, impact of type of work (management and non-management) in relationship between psychological empowerment as well as organizational commitment has been measured by Cunningham, Hyman, and Baldry (1996). The findings of the study revealed that, psychological empowerment among the management staff has increased their commitment towards organization. Ghaffari, Saki, and Savari (2014) and Baek-Kyoo and Shim (2010) found similar results in Iran and Korea.

Recommendations

- The study found distributed leadership impacted learning culture of high schools. Given that, the researchers recommend that head teachers should distribute their leadership roles and involve teachers in their decision making; it will empower

their teachers who might impact learning culture of the schools as well as student achievement positively.

- The study also found that psychological empowerment impacted learning culture. Based on this finding, the researchers recommend that teachers as well as the head teachers should be made aware of the psychological empowerment construct and its factors. By empowering teachers might contribute to improve learning culture.
- Further studies might be conducted to compare psychological empowerment and distributed leadership practices in male and female, rural and urban schools to more precise picture of their practices.

References

- Akram, M., Watkins, K. E., & Sajid, A. S. (2013). Comparing the learning culture of high and low performing high schools in Pakistan. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal*, 4(2), 2022-2028.
- Ali, H. M., & Yangaiya, S. A. (2015). Distributed Leadership and empowerment Influence on Teachers Organizational Commitment. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 4(1), 73-84.
- Avolio, B. J., Zhu, Koh, W., & Bhatia, P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(8), 951-68.
- Baek-Kyoo, J., & Shim, J. H. (2010). Psychological empowerment and organizational commitment: the moderating effect of organizational learning culture. *Human Resource Development International*, 13(4), 425-441.
- Carless, S. A. (2004). Does psychological empowerment mediate the relationship between psychological climate and job satisfaction? *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 18(4), 405-425.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(3), 471-482.
- Copland, M. A. (2003). Leadership of inquiry: building and sustaining capacity for school improvement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 25(4), 375-395.
- Cunningham, I., Hyman, J., & Baldry, C. (1996). Empowerment: the power to do what? *Industrial Relations Journal*, 27(2), 143-154.
- Deci, E. L., Connell. J. P. & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(4), 580-590.

- DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (1998). *Professional learning communities at work: Best practices for enhancing student achievement*. Bloomington, IN: National Educational Services.
- Elmore, R. (2000). *Building a new structure for school leadership*. Washington, DC: The Albert Shankar Institute.
- Garvin, D. A. (1993). Building a learning organization. *Harvard Business Review*, 73(4), 78–91.
- Ghaffari, H., Saki, S., & Savari, M. (2014). Investigating relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational learning among the staff of education organization Karaj province. *European Journal of Zoological Research*, 3(1), 37-41.
- Gordon, Z.V. (2005). *The effect of distributed leadership on student achievement* (Doctoral dissertation). Central Connecticut State University. Retrieved from <http://content.library.ccsu.edu/cdm/ref/collection/ccsutheses/id/1106>
- Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: finding common ground for multiparty problems*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Gronn, P. (2003). Leadership: Who needs it? *School Leadership and Management*, 23(3), 267-290.
- Hall, M. (2008). The effect of comprehensive performance measurement systems on role clarity, psychological empowerment and managerial performance. *Accounting, Organizations, and Society*, 33(2008), 141-163.
- Hallinger, P. (2007). *Research on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership: Retrospect and Prospect*. Australian Council for Educational Research. Mahidol University.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (1998). Exploring the principal's contribution to school effectiveness: 1980-1995. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 9(8), 157-191.
- Harris, A. (2008). Distributed leadership according to the evidence. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(2), 172-188.
- Harris, A. (2004). Distributed leadership for school improvement: Leading or misleading. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 32(1), 11-24.
- Harris, A., & Lambert, L. (2003). *Building leadership capacity for school improvement*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

- Joo, B. K., & Shim, J. H. (2010). Psychological empowerment and organizational commitment: the moderating effect of organizational learning culture. *Human Resource Development International*, 13(4), 425-441.
- Koberg, C. S., Boss, R. W., Senjem, J. C., & Goodman, G. E. (1999). Antecedents and outcomes of empowerment. *Group & Organization Management*, 24(1), 71-91.
- Kraimer, M. L., Seibert, S. E., & Liden, R. C. (1999). Psychological empowerment as a multidimensional construct: A test of construct validity. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 59(1), 127-42.
- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (1998). *Distributed leadership and student engagement in school*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.
- Lunenburg, F., & Ornstein, A. (2004). *Educational administration: Concepts and practice* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thompson Learning Inc.
- MacNeil, A. J., Prater, D. L., & Busch, S. (2009). The effects of school culture and climate on student achievement. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 12(1), 73-84.
- Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. E. (2003). Demonstrating the value of an organization's learning culture: The dimensions of learning organizations questionnaire. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 5(2), 132-151.
- Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. E. (2003). Demonstrating the value of an organization's learning culture: the dimensions of the learning organization questionnaire. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 5(2), 132-151.
- Mayrowetz, D. (2008). Making sense of distributed leadership: exploring the multiple usages of the concept in the field. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(3), 424-435.
- McLaughlin, M. W., & Talbert, J. E. (2006). *Building school-based teacher learning communities: Professional strategies to improve student achievement*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Sage.
- Namasivayam, K., Guchait, P., & Lei, P. (2014). The influence of leader empowering behaviors and employee psychological empowerment on customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(1), 69-84.

- Nelson, D. L., & Simmons, B. L. (2003). *Health psychology and work stress: A more positive approach*. In J.C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology*, 97–119. Washington: American Psychological Association.
- Obadara, O. E. (2013). Relationship between distributed leadership and sustainable school improvement. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 5(1), 69-74.
- Oladipo, (2008). Psychological empowerment and development. *Edo Journal of Counseling*, 2(1), 119-126.
- Quinn, R. E., & Spreitzer, G. M. (1997). The road to empowerment: seven questions every leader should consider. *Organizational Dynamics*, 26(2), 37-49.
- Rappaport, J. (1987). Terms of empowerment/exemplars of prevention: Toward a theory for Community Psychology. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 15(2), 121–148.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. Doubleday, New York, NY.
- Shakir, F. J., Issa, J. H., & Mustafa, P. O. (2011). Perceptions towards distributed leadership in school improvement. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(10), 256-264.
- Spillane, J. P. (2005). Distributed leadership. *The educational Forum*, 69(2), 143-150.
- Spillane, J., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2001). *Towards a theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective*, Institute for policy research working article, Chicago, IL: Northwestern University.
- Spillane, J., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2004). Towards a theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 36(1), 3-34.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), 1442-1465.
- Spreitzer, G. M., De Janasz, S. C., & Quinn, R. E. (1999). Empowered to lead: The role of psychological empowerment in leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 511-526.
- Spreitzer, G. M., Kizilos, M. A., & Nason, S. W. (1997). A dimensional analysis of the relationship between psychological empowerment and effectiveness, satisfaction, and strain. *Journal of Management*, 23(5), 679-704.

- Spreitzer, G.M. (1996). Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(2), 483-504.
- Spreitzer, G.M. (1997). Toward a common ground in defining empowerment. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 10, 31-62.
- Sylviz, Nabila, Azwa, & Ambad. (2012), Psychological empowerment: The influence on organizational commitment among employees in the construction sector. *The Journal of Global Business Management Volume*, 8(2), 73-81.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An Interpretive model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(4), 666-681.
- Wahab, J. A., Hamid, A. H. A., Zainal, S., & Rafik, M. F. M. (2013). The relationship between headteachers' distributed leadership practices and teachers' motivation in national primary schools. *Asian Social Science*, 9(16), 161-174.
- Watkins, K. E., & Marsick, V. J. (1993). *Sculpting the learning organization: Lessons in the art and science of systemic change*. Jossey-Bass Inc., 350. Sansome Street, San Francisco, CA 94104-1310.
- Wilkinson, A. (1998). Empowerment: Theory and practice. *Personnel Review*, 27(1), 40-56.

Relationship between Attitudes of Prospective Teachers and their Academic Achievements in Teacher Educational Programs in Baluchistan, Pakistan

Khadija Karim*

Alia Ayub**

Khalid Khurshid***

Mohammad Akram****

Abstract

The positive attitude of the teacher serves the noble profession of teaching properly in accurate condition, is the pinpoint of good teachers. It improves the knowledge, teaching competencies, skills and abilities of the prospective teachers and instils qualities like vigorous, fruitful, desirable professional and positive attitudes in them. This study was conducted to find out the relationship between attitudes of the prospective teachers towards teaching profession and their academic achievement and explore the impact of prospective teachers' positive attitudes towards teaching profession on their academic achievement. This study was conducted in those institutes where prospective teachers were pursuing their professional degrees of education. Questionnaire was distributed among 180 prospective teachers including boys and girls, for ascertaining the attitudes of prospective teachers, enrolled either in ADE or B.Ed. (Hons.) programs, while the academic achievement scores of the respondents were obtained from their examination results. On the basis of the data analysis, the major findings of the study were that, the prospective teachers were of the view that teaching profession is highly admired, noble and reverent job and it required high skills and competencies in the area of mentorship. They believe that teaching is not appropriate for every person without having the knowledge and skills of this profession. This finding clearly indicated that prospective teachers realize that teaching, should be the job and profession of those who possess the necessary knowledge and skills related to the profession.

Keywords: Attitude, Prospective teachers, Academic achievement, Teacher education, Balochistan

* Lecturer, Education Department, SBKWU, Quetta

** Assistant Professor, Education Department, SBKWU, Quetta

*** Associate Professor, Chairperson Education Department, BZU, Multan (Corresponding Author)

**** Ph.D. Scholar, Hamdard University, Karachi

Introduction

The term 'attitude' has been defined in various ways, such as, attitude is derived from the Latin root which means small set of concepts involving preferences (Cunningham, 2010). It is said to be the mental readiness for any act in the perspective of social psychology. It states the observable attitudes and believes of human beings. It tells what the thinking of each human being is, how they respond and what they do. It can be said that attitude is the propensity of to reply to an object and condition, whether favorable and unfavorable. According to Britt (1958), it is a set of responses which is related with the mental state. Allport (1999) a reacting in a specific way of consistent towards certain things, people or conceptions. Attitude is the state of mind which determines how an individual interacts with the world around him (Fishbein 1967).

Attitude is a mental characteristic. It is simply defined that the attitude is a feeling for as well against something. Furthermore, Allport (1935) provided some insight when he says that the popularity of the attitude concept is not difficult to explain. It has come into favor, first of all, because it is not the property of any one psychological school of thought. In continuation of different studies Cunnighan (2010) commented that it is a concept which escapes the ancient controversy concerning the relative influence of heredity and environment. Eagly & Chaiken (1998) provide an excellent review about the attitude and its impact upon achievement of students during their studies at different level. Also, it worth noted that is overlapped when consider its relation achievement and performance in their course of study (Petty & Wegener (1998a). Another research area beyond the scope of this chapter is the extensive work on intergroup attitudes and stereotypes (Brewer & Brown 1998, Fiske 1998).

Characteristics of Attitude

Analysis of the above definitions shows that attitude has certain characteristics.

- a) Attitudes are not inherited but they are learnt.
- b) The word attitude involved various aspects of personality as interests, appreciation and social conduct.
- c) Attitude is a feeling towards an object, person, task, idea, activity or situation.
- d) It is a result of experience and interaction.
- e) Attitudes are effective and they vary in intensity.

If the teacher has the qualities such as motivation, energetic and zeal than the teaching learning process takes place appropriately and also become beneficial for the students. The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship between the attitudes of prospective teachers and their academic achievement, enrolled in ADE /B.Ed. (Hons.) Program in Baluchistan.

Literature Review

A vigorous change is needed to transform classical teacher education program to the broader concept for the professional development of teachers. A prominent base is required to shape the personalities of student-teachers. This is the teacher education program which shape and boost up the expertise for efficient future teachers (UNESCO, 2004). The importance of teaching is increasing day by day. It has been said that the content and curriculum is made very well by every institution but the main thing is how well the information are delivered. For this purpose, the trained teacher is required, and it cannot be done without their support. (Sünbül, 2001, p. 224). The quality of teacher education and the quality of teaching is dependent on each other. More advanced professional teachers will be produced if the standard of teacher education institutions remains high. But there is a lack of such trainings and skills (Manchala, 2007). There are different cultures and societies which demand for good education and training of teachers because as the time passes new and advanced methods of teaching and teachers role are identified (Şimşek, 2012).

Attitudes are designed by straight practice as well as by implied learning and may imitate personality (Zimbardo & Lieppe, 1991).

Hosgorur, K. and Dundar (2002) found a positive relation between class levels and attitude, when class levels and attitude increases, pre-service teacher's attitudes towards the teaching profession also increases. A significant difference occurs in the way parents, teachers and students perceive the teaching profession. Parents perceive the teaching profession negatively while student and teacher perceive about the occupation of teaching positively (Lawal, 2012). Prospective teachers have a simple view towards teaching profession (Whitebeck, 2000).

Relationship between attitudes and academic achievements

GCPI (1981) studied relationship of academic achievement with attitude towards teaching among teacher-trainees. All the ninety teacher-trainees enrolled in the L. Course (general) of the government and Central Pedagogical Institute, Allahabad, during the 1980-81 sessions, constituted the sample. The Ahluwalia Teacher Attitude Inventory was employed for findings the attitude of the teacher - trainees towards teaching. Their academic achievement was taken from the entrance records in the L.T. Course. Product movement correlation was computed between the academic achievement score and the score for the attitude towards teaching. The findings of the study found no relationship among the teacher-trainees attitude and academic achievement. Gupta (1977) found that successful teaching has no relationship with academic achievements, but significantly related to areas such as professional attitude, social, and emotional adjustment, health and home. At secondary level there are various elements that affect the competency of future teachers. These factors are their learning ability such as the power of brain or intelligence, the academic successes and their perception regarding the profession of teaching

(Cornelious, 2000) there is relation between the successes in teaching and student-teacher positive perception about teaching. (Devi, 2005)

Vasanthi and Anandi (1997) conducted their study on 417 prospective teachers at Madras city. It was found that attitude, intelligence and self- concept towards teaching of the female prospective teachers were significantly related to teaching effectiveness. It showed the highest correlation with teaching effectiveness as compare to achievements, motivation and intelligence of prospective teachers, the attitudes of prospective teachers are not related to the performance of the future teachers. The gender factors affect the pre-service teacher's attitude towards teaching profession. It was revealed that female pre-service teachers who are in Turkish Education Department are more successful than male prospective teachers with respect to their attitudes and academic success (Akkaya, 2009). Most of the students has a good feeling for teaching profession as the practicum attracts them and they get good experience during practice of teaching at school. Attitude is one of the important elements which impact directly on students to select the profession of teaching. (Stokes 2007) There is a direct connection in students' results and teacher's performance (Ding, 2006). The teacher's personality, good behavior, their desires and interest towards their jobs are the factors which influence the performance of their students greatly (Smith, 1990). The attitude of pre-service teacher towards teaching profession is affected by the courses offered during this program. The results showed that after applying these courses the attitude of student teachers was found positive (Akblut and Karakus, 2011). This is the teacher education program which makes students teachers able to change their attitude towards teaching (Sahayarani and Stanly, 2014).

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to ascertain the attitude of prospective Teachers (B. ED /A.DE Students) towards teaching profession as the teacher behavior and personality traits can inspire, motivate and make the students able to live their life happily. A teacher with a positive attitude towards teaching is considered effective and becomes popular figure among students. Therefore, it is very important to study the attitudes of the prospective-teachers who will teaching future, towards teaching profession and further to ascertain its relationship with their academic achievements.

Objectives

1. To find out the relationship between attitudes of the prospective teachers towards teaching profession and their academic achievement.
2. To explore the impact of prospective teachers' positive attitudes towards teaching profession, on their academic achievement.
3. To suggest the strategies for creating positive attitudes in prospective teachers.

Research Questions

Following research questions were formulated to achieve the above stated objectives:

1. What is the relationship between the attitudes of prospective teachers (ADE/B. ED Students) towards their academic achievement?
2. How the prospective teachers' positive attitudes towards teaching profession can impact their academic achievement?
3. How positive attitudes can be indoctrinated in the prospective teachers towards teaching profession?

Significance of the Study

As the many researches has been led to inspected the attitudes of prospective teachers toward teaching profession, but unfortunately no specific research has been conducted in Quetta District of Baluchistan, especially no study has been conducted to study the attitudes of prospective teachers towards teaching profession and their relationship with their academic achievements. This study is an attempt to fill research gap in this specific area.

The main significance of this study is to make deeper understanding of prospective teachers' attitude towards teaching profession. Knowledge gained through this investigation can guide or help the ministry of education/policy makers to make policies or bring amendments in existing policies. This study could help the teacher educators, decision makers at all universities and elementary colleges where the A.DE and B.Ed. programs are offered, decisionmakers, teacher educators and ministry of education, because we are following the same traditional patterns and curriculum so there is a great need to review the curriculum, different teaching methods and strategies trainings and add new techniques according to the demands and needs of the society. This research study will unveil the relationship between attitudes and academic achievement and thus make the students (future teachers) capable of making knowing the impact and possible relationship between them and the implications involved in arriving at valuable decisions regarding selection of teaching as a profession.

Methodology

The study aimed to identify the feelings and opinions (attitude as a whole) of prospective teachers towards teaching profession and the main objectives of the study to ascertain to what extant attitude is related with grades or CGPA of students. Along with this, to what are the attitudes of the prospective teachers to the teaching profession. In finding the responses to these questions, this study was conducted in those institutes where prospective teachers were pursuing their professional degrees of education. Research was quantitative in nature, used survey method through a questionnaire All the items were piloted for the purpose of validation of the instrument and determination of

its reliability using Cronbach Alpha which appears to be .78 for the whole instrument. The alpha coefficient of .78 indicates that the instrument meets the acceptable level of reliability coefficient. After the pilot testing, minor changes in wordings of the statements were made and few of the items were rephrased to bring clarity in them, the actual survey was conducted. Data was analyzed through Descriptive and Inferential Analysis. The descriptive analysis includes the mean scores, frequency counts, percentages and standard deviations to describe analyze and interpret the data while the Inferential Analysis included the correlation coefficients to determine the relationship between attitudes and academic achievements to find the answers to the research questions in that order.

Population

In process of sampling the first task on the part of researcher is to define the population of interest. In what group, is the researcher interested? Exactly, and to whom does he or she want the results of the study to apply? The population in other words, is the group of interest to the researcher, the group to whom the researcher would like to generalize the results of the study. In educational research, the population of interest is usually a group of persons (students, teachers and other individuals) who possess certain characteristics. In some cases, however, the population may be defined as a group of classrooms, schools, or even facilities. So, all the students (prospective teachers) of Sardar Bahadur khan women's university Quetta, university of Baluchistan, Elementary (boys and girls) colleges of Pishin, Sibi and Quetta were the target population for the study.

Sample

A sample in a research study is the group on which information is obtained. In this study the Stratified sampling technique was used in selection of Institutions. Population has been divided in two Strata, University and colleges including male and female prospective teachers. A Stratified random sampling is a process in which certain subgroups, or strata, are selected for the sample in the same proportion as they exist in the population. After the stratification, a simple random sampling technique was used within each stratum to select respondents/Subjects of the study. Because a simple random sampling is one in which each and every member of the population has an equal and independent chance of being selected. The simple random sampling technique ensures the representativeness of the population which the results of the study are going to be generalized. Using simple random sampling method, a total 180 respondents in proportion to the strata was selected to obtain a sample representative of the population of interest

Reliability and Validity

Data have been collected by the researcher through a stratified sample through a questionnaire. It was piloted with a small number of respondents of the population before

administering on a large scale. Before administering the instrument to the actual respondents, all the items were piloted in order to validate the questions for data collection, and reliability coefficients for the instrument was obtained employing Cronbach Alpha technique which was .78 for the whole instrument that shows that the instrument does have reasonable reliability and validity.

Results

On the basis of the information provided by the respondents, the data were analyzed. The major findings of the study were reported in form of tables and other statistical tools (descriptive and inferential statistics), and the correlation between prospective teachers' attitude and their academic

Table 1

Frequency and percentage of the students' enrolment in the institutions

Institutions	Frequency	Percentage
University Students	33	19
College Students	147	81
Total	180	100

Above table indicates that the majority (81%) of the respondents (N=147) were enrolled in Elementary Colleges (boys and girls) pursuing ADE degree, while 19 % of the students were enrolled in the universities pursuing B.Ed. (Hons.) degree

Table 2

Frequency and percentage of the respondents' CGPA (grades)

GPA	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 1.9	24	13.4
2 – 2.9	112	62.2
3 – 3.9	44	24.4

Table 4.4 indicates the CGPA of the respondents which shows that majority of the respondents 112 (62.2%) have their CGPA between 2.00 to 2.9. while 44 (24.4%) of the respondents have CGPA between 3.00-3.9, whereas only a small number (N=24) of respondents (13.4%) having a CGPA between 1-1.9.

Table 3

Overall mean score and standard deviation of the feelings of the perspective teachers

	Mean score	Standard Deviation
Feelings	3.92	.38

Table 4.3 highlights the overall means score and standard deviation of the feelings of the perspective teachers. The mean score 3.92 (SD=.38) is the aggregate of different feelings associated with selecting teaching as a profession. The aggregate mean

score pron to agreement with the feelings of the respondents which is a main variable of the study.

The aggregate effect supports the researcher claims that having specific feelings attached with someone might be a good teacher and he or she may teach well in the schools. Along with this, having the same feelings one should be a teacher in the coming future.

Table 4

Mean score and standard deviation of the opinions of the perspective teachers towards teaching

	Mean score	Standard Deviation
Opinions	3.88	.38

Table 4.4 highlights the overall mean score and standard deviation of the opinions of the perspective teachers. The mean score 3.88 (SD=.38) is the aggregate of different opinions associated with selecting teaching as a profession. The aggregate mean scores prone to agreement with the opinions of the respondents which is a main variable of the study. The aggregate agreement with different opinions support the claim that prospective teachers would hold positive attitude toward teaching profession and the mean score provided in the above table does support the notion that teaching profession is considered and preferred by most of the respondents positively. It also provides a base for the prospective teachers that having positive opinions may lead them to a job where they themselves would financially benefited but at the same time they would be in a position to support the community in disseminating knowledge through engaging in teaching and learning process.

The finding also reflects that prospective teachers considered teaching field as one of the most prestigious, noblest and highly productive profession.

Table 5

Correlation between grades of the perspective teachers and their (attitude) feelings and opinions

Variables	N	M	SD	Sig.(2-tailed)	Grades	Opinions	Feeling	Overall(attitude)
Grades	180	3.03	.64	.000**		-.306*	-.263*	.321*
Opinions	180	3.9	.38					
Feelings	180	3.8	.38			.649*		
Overall		78.98	13.08					

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

**p = ≤ .001

The table 4.5 above highlights the main features of correlation among different variables. There is negative relationship between grades ($M=3.03$, $SD=0.64$) and opinions ($M=3.9$, $SD=0.38$), $r = -.31$, $p \leq .001$, $n=180$. There is negative relationship between grades ($M=3.03$, $SD=0.64$) and feelings ($M=3.8$, $SD=0.38$), $r = -.263$, $p \leq .001$, $n=180$. There is positive relationship between grades ($M=3.03$, $SD=0.64$) and overall attitude ($M=78.98$, $SD= 13.08$), $r = .321$, $p \leq .001$, $n=180$.

The findings of the study regarding relationship between grades and overall attitude suggest that correlation exist between one's grades/ scores and his/her attitude toward the teaching profession but the strength of the correlation is not very strong. It means that attitude of a person toward teaching profession either positive or negative does not affect very much the grades or CGPA of the students.

Table 6

Frequency and percentage of the respondents' views regarding the importance and impact of academic achievement in selection of a career

	To a great Extent		To some extent		To no/little extent		Not at all	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
How your academic achievements influence you to consider careers other than teaching?	55	30.5	80	44.5	20	11.6	25	13.4

Above table is highlighting the main features of open ended question 'How your academic achievement influences you to consider careers other than teaching?' A number of 55 (30.5%) respondents agree that academic achievement to a great extent influences their decision to select a profession other than teaching; in other words, the respondents were of the view that selection of a profession is based on the academic achievement, while (44.5%) of the respondents opined that academic achievement to some extent influenced the choice of career selection. Whereas 25 % of the respondents were of the view that the selection of a career or profession was not affected by the academic achievement meaning that they select their profession was not on the based on their academic achievement.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to find out the attitude of the prospective teachers towards teaching profession and to determine if there was any relationship between academic achievement of the prospective teachers and their attitude. On the basis of the data analysis, the major findings of the study are that, the prospective teachers were of the view that teaching profession is highly admired, noble and reverent job and it required high skills and competencies in the area of mentorship. Prospective teachers believe that

teaching is not appropriate for every person without having the knowledge and skills of this profession. This finding clearly indicated that prospective teachers realize that teaching could be the job of everyone but it should be the job and profession of those who possess the necessary knowledge and skills related to the profession. As far as the decision to choose a career is concerned, the prospective teachers believed high academic achievements could be leading factor in deciding to which career they might be going to select. They were of the view that that high academic achievement does uplift their confidence to select teaching as a best career. The findings also suggested that prospective teachers chose to adopt teaching as a profession is based on the feeling that teaching job provides long holidays, is best way of serving the society and having a family by many of perspective teachers. Finding of this study are also in line with the findings of the earlier research conducted by Zhao (2011); Meece et al (2006) reported similar findings in their studies.

Nevertheless, the academic achievement was found to be one of the most important aspects for the prospective teachers (B. ED /A.DE Students) in the selection of their career. The findings of the study regarding relationship between grades and overall attitude (feelings and opinions) suggested that correlation exists between one's grade and his/her attitude but the strength of the correlation is very small. It means that grades of the students either high or low do not more affect to a great extent the attitudes of a person towards teaching profession. Furthermore, all the levels, whether high, average, low (CGPA) of prospective teachers were having similar attitudes towards teaching profession. The findings of the present study showed that the magnitude of significance in relationship between overall attitude (feelings and opinions) of prospective teachers towards teaching and academic achievements is small.

Recommendations

Teacher education programs flourish the attitude of the prospective teachers

Teacher education programs can enrich the attitude of the prospective teachers towards teaching profession because such institutions (teacher education programs) are not only helpful in providing a well-qualified teacher to the society but also enrich and flourish the attitude of the prospective teachers towards the profession of teaching. According to Yadav (1992) that training is one of the effective significant influences on the maturity and self-concept of the prospective teachers toward profession of teaching.

Demanding an immediate action from education sector in Baluchistan

Teaching is not only a profession of Prophets but it is one of the noblest and prestigious jobs along with others. In the scenario of Baluchistan, there are almost sixty thousand teachers who are performing their duties in different schools at different levels. One of the major issues of education sector in Baluchistan is the teachers' attitude toward teaching. There is a lot of zeal among teachers towards their profession but the number of such teacher is minimum. Majority of the teachers avoid to be there remain absent

from school to perform their duties. They have failed discharge the noble cause of delivering and transferring knowledge to their students. Undoubtedly students of today are the citizen of tomorrow that makes the state and society. As a result, the situation in Baluchistan is deteriorating day by day. It is well known that adopting teaching as a career is the last option for many graduates and they remain reluctant to join teaching as a profession. This situation calls for attention of stake holders and has remained the most important point for discussion. This state of affairs is demanding an immediate action that how to convince our graduates to join teaching and make the teaching profession as their future career. It requires an investigation to determine as to why the graduates feel reluctance in becoming teachers.

Role and performance of school

The development of Pakistan mendacities in school from where teacher plays important role in this regard. A true teacher is benefactor and server of all. He/ she is the one who does and gives best performance and efforts to their students along loyalty, devotion and commitment. In oriental society the teacher is considered as a preacher who preaches moral and other secular subjects together on their part, which equipped with necessary knowledge, skills and capabilities that ensures to produce quality teachers.

Provide Incentives to the Teachers

The low wages are one of the factors that most of people refrain in people from joining teaching profession. So, it is clear that authorities and government have to provide a good salary package and other financial incentives so that talented human resource is attracted to join teaching profession. Otherwise we may run the risk of losing talented and qualified human resource not to join the profession of teaching.

References

- Akbulut, O. E., & Karakus, F. (2011). The investigation of secondary school science and Mathematics pre-service teachers' attitude towards teaching profession. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 6(6), 489-496.
- Akkaya, F. (2009). Pre-service teachers attitude towards teaching profession. *Inonu University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 9(6), 27-42.
- Allport, G. (1999). *Pattern and growth in personality*. New York: Holt Publication.
- Britt, S. H. (1958). *Social psychology of modern life*. New York: Rinehart and Co. Inc.
- Cornelius, (2000). Teacher competence associated with intelligence, attitude towards teaching profession and academic achievement of teacher trainees (Unpublished M.Phil. Thesis). University of Kerala.
- Cunningham, S. F., Gilbert, D., Hackman, R., Heberlein, A., Jost, J., McCoy, J., Ziv, T. (2010). Why does the study of attitudes have this status? What made the first social psychologists decide, even as they were still marking the boundaries of

their new country, that evaluations along the good-bad continuum should. *Handbook of Social Psychology, Volume One, 1*, 353.

- Devi, & Usha, V.K. (2005). A study of role conflict, job satisfaction and select presage variables discriminating between successful and less successful secondary school women teachers of Kerala (Doctoral Thesis), University of Calicut.
- Ding, C., & Sherman, H. (2006). Teaching Effectiveness and Student Achievement; Examining the relationship. (EJ 781882). *Educational Research Quarterly*, 29(4), 40-51.
- Eagly, A.H., & Chaiken, S. (1998). Attitude structure and function. *See Gilbert, 1*, 269–322.
- Fishbein, M. (1967). *Readings in Attitude: Theory and Measurement*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- GCPI, (1981), relationship of Academic Achievement with attitude towards teaching among teacher –trainees.
- Gupta, R.C. (1976). Prediction of teacher effectiveness through personality tests. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Banras Hindu University.
- Hosgorur, V. Kilic, O. & Dundar, H. Kirikale University classroom teaching program, Students 'attitudes towards the teaching profession. Marmara University Faculty of Education, Science Journal.1993; 8 (16): 91-100.
- Lawal, B. O. Analysis of parents, Teachers, and students' perception of Teaching Profession in Southwest Nigeria. *Asian social Science*.2012; 8 (1):119-124.
- Manchala, C. (2007). Achievements of B.Ed. Students. Discovery Publications House. Darya Ganj New Delhi, India. PP, 146-147.
- Meece, Judith.L et al. (2006). *Gender and motivation. Journal of School Psychology*. University of North Carolina-CH, United States. 44 (2006) 351–373
- Petty RE, Wegener DT. 1998a. Attitude change: multiple roles for persuasion variables. *See Gilbert et al 1998*, 1:323–90
- Sahayarani J, Stanly SL (2014). Attitude towards teaching professional of B.Ed. trainees in Pondicherry. *Indian J. Appl. Res.* 4(11):158 – 159
- Şimşek, Cengiz. (2012). *Attitudes of Teacher Candidates Studying at Technical Education on Ability to Take the Role of a Teacher*. Fatih University, Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Sciences, Istanbul-Turkey: The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, volume 11 Issue 2.
- Smith, B. O. (1971). *Research in teacher education*, Englewood Cliffs: NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc
- Stokes, Anthony. (2007). *Factors Influencing the Decisions of University Students to Become High School Teachers. Issues in Educational Research, Vol 17*.127-145.

- Sünbül, A. M. (2001). Bir meslek olarak öğretmenlik [Teaching as a profession]. (Ed: Ö. Demirel-Z. Kaya) *Öğretmenlik Mesleğine Giriş*. Ankara: Pegem Publishing.
- UNESCO. (2004). Strengthening Teacher Education in Pakistan through the Development of a Strategic Framework for Policy Dialogue, Professional Development, Coordination and National Standards for Teacher Certification and Accreditation. Islamabad, Pakistan.
- Vashishta, K.K. and Anandi (1997). A study of predictive efficiency of admission criteria for B.Ed. students. *Journal of Education and Psychology*. 3.
- Whitbeck, D.A. (2000). Born to be a teacher: what am I doing in a college of education? *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 15(1), 129-36.
- Wood, W. (2000). Attitude change: Persuasion and social influence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 51(1), 539–570.
- Yadav, R. (1992). *Impact of Teacher Training on Certain Personality Characteristics of B.Ed. Trainees*, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Agra: Agra university
- Zhao, K. (2011). *Motivations to Become Teachers in Canada: Perceptions from Internationally Educated Teachers*. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education (IJCDSE)*, Special Issue.
- Zimbardo, P. G. & Leippe, M. (1991). *The psychology of attitude change and social influence*. New York: McGraw Hall.

TO THE READER

The Educational Research Journal is an HEC recognized Journal. It is published twice a year in June and December. The primary aim of the journal is to encourage and co-ordinate research in all the areas of education. Authors are desired to submit files to jeriub1994@gmail.com and send two copies of their paper, not previously published or submitted elsewhere according to the following guidelines.

1. Reports of original educational research, reviews of recent research in all educational areas or discussion articles on research topics will be preferred.
2. The article should be in English.
3. The article should begin with a brief summary, and should not normally exceed 5000 words.
4. The intrinsic interest of the article, conciseness and clarity are important considerations.
5. Technical jargon should be avoided, and where possible statistical data should be summarized in the text, although tables may be included if clearly presented.
6. Authors are encouraged to describe their findings intelligible to the non-expert readers.
7. References should be in the following pattern: -
 - [i] Author's name (Surname, Initials)
 - [ii] Edition No. (if any)
 - [iii] Publishing Year
 - [iv] Book's name
 - [v] Publishing place (e.g. country)
 - [vi] Publishing company
 - [vii] Page No. (if any)

Authors receive one complimentary copy of the journal. Inquiries comments and suggestions are welcomed and should be addressed to:

The Chairman
Editorial Board,
Department of Education,
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan.
(jериub1994@gmail.com)

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol. 20 No. 2

2017

ISSN 1027-9776 (Print)

ISSN 2309-8554 (Online)

Published By:

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

PAKISTAN

2017

All Rights Reserved



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

The Chairman

Editorial Board

Department of Education,

The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

(jeriub1994@gmail.com)