ISSN 1027-9776

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol. 09 No. 2 2006

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN

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Vol.09 No. 2 2006

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

FOREIGN

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

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JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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Juvenile Delinquency among Nigerian University Students: Implication for Counselling

Dr.E. O. Egbochuku [*]
Dr.Oyaziwo Aluede [**]

Abstract

The enormous occurrence of chaotic and sometimes criminal behaviour by not only the adult population but also the youth of this country in recent times has since begun to give cause of concern particularly to guidance counsellors and other behaviour therapists. This study investigated some aspects of juvenile delinquency in Nigeria, using a sample of 821 undergraduates of the University of Benin, Benin city, Nigeria. The findings of this study included that contrary to wide spread belief, children from the more affluent (middle class) homes were almost as implicated in delinquent acts as their counterparts from poor home backgrounds. Male children were by far more involved in such acts than their female counterparts. The study also found that the incidence of disruptive delinquent behaviours is currently increasing rather than decreasing. Counselling intervention such as counselling for value orientation that is expected to fill the missing ingredient in the overall educational enterprise was advocated.

Introduction

Delinquency, a legal term for criminal behaviour carried out by a juvenile, is often the result of escalating problematic behaviour. Children often test the limits and boundaries set by their parents and other authority figures. Among adolescents, some rebelliousness and experimentation is common. However, a few children consistently participate in problematic behaviours that negatively affect their parents and the community at large. Parents may define disruptive and delinquent behaviour as disobedience, fighting with siblings, destroying or damaging property, stealing money from their counterparts or threatening parents with violence. Staff members of Nigerian universities often regard delinquent behaviour as that which interrupts or disturbs classroom learning or that behaviour, which violates the school code of

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conduct and threatens the safety of schools and students. Startling manifestations of indiscipline and allied vices by the adult population in Nigeria have been repeatedly observed and reported (Adesina, 1975; Akinboye, 1983; Igborgbor, 1988; Makinde, 1978; Nwana, 1971). The malaise and carefree lifestyle of the adult population seems to have spilled over and infested the youth. Juvenile delinquencies among adolescents and children are therefore commonplace. While delinquency is not limited to Nigeria, the rapid upsurge of such behaviours in recent times is bound to cause genuine concern. As the mass media and various research studies have confirmed this position (Hollins, Browne & Palmer, 2002; Jacobson & Crockett, 2000).

Therefore, there seems to be an urgent need to arrest this unpleasant state of affairs on the campuses; and as a step in this direction, the present study investigated the prevalence and some causes of juvenile delinquency among Nigerian university students. In so doing, the following questions were raised: At what age, is delinquent behaviour in students most prevalent? Which of the sexes are most manifest of the delinquent acts? What is the level of education usually attained by the average delinquent? What are the causal factors in delinquent behaviour among students? What is the effect of success or failure in schoolwork on the incidence of delinquency? What is the relative frequency with which some of the more common delinquent offences (such as drug abuse, alcoholism, rioting, and truancy, teenage pregnancies, assault, rape, prostitution, armed robbery) are committed? What social background do delinquents come from? And w hat is the current status of delinquency in Nigerian universities?

Method of Study

Participants

A total of eight hundred and twenty one (821) undergraduate students of the University of Benin, Nigeria of the Faculty of Education at the University of Benin, Benin city, Nigeria participated. A preliminary survey indicated that all the respondents were in the adolescent age range and would therefore be able to give valid responses on adolescent problems

Measures

A questionnaire titled "Adolescent Delinquency in Nigeria" was employed for data collection in this study. This instrument consisted of five sections. Section A sought demographic data. Specifically, information sought in this section included the following: The modal age of Nigerian delinquents; the educational level of the delinquents, the gender with greater involvement, their social background (whether they are usually from poor or affluent homes). In addition, section B sought information regarding whether the current research participants perceived delinquency as increasing or declining in Nigeria. Section C was designed to elicit information about the major causes of delinquency among Nigerian youths. Factors like unemployment, lack of parental supervision of their children, lust for material wealth, etc, were examined here. Section D focussed on the details of academic performance and overall academic history of the delinquents. It investigated whether delinquents are usually people with serious academic problems, people without any interest in going to school, school dropouts, talented students or repeaters of school classes. Section E examined the various dynamics of delinquent behaviours. All the items in sections B,C, and D were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

The questionnaire used for this study was content validated by four professors in the Department of Educational Psychology and Curriculum Studies of the University of Benin. The selection of these academic staff is based essentially on their resounding knowledge and accomplishment in the area of adolescent issues. These experts vetted and certified the items in the questionnaire before the current researches drew up the final version of the instrument that was used in collecting the data analysed for the current study. The reliability of the instrument was ascertained by administering the questionnaire on a sample of twenty students who were not participating in the study, and repeated on the same sample one week later, the reliability yielded a correlation co-efficient of 0.86.

Procedures

The current researchers assisted by the course lecturers to each cohort personally administered the instrument. This was done when they assembled for lectures on a compulsory course on 'Developmental Psychology', in which all were expected to be present. Names of the

students were not required. This strategy was to ensure frank responses, and participation was entirely voluntary for the students.

Results and Discussions

1. **At what age, is delinquent behaviour in students most prevalent?**

The study reveals that delinquency was found to be much more prevalent for 16- 21 age group than any other age group. Specifically, the survey revealed that 248 respondents (30.2%) maintained that delinquency is greatest at 12-16 years of age, while 532 (64.8%) see delinquency as most pronounced at 16-21 years of age.

2. **Which of the sexes is most manifest in the delinquent acts?**

The survey reveals that there seems an obvious gender difference in the manifestation of delinquent behaviours. 738 respondents (89.9%) see male children as predominating in delinquent acts while 77 respondents (9.4%) consider the females more delinquent. A small minority of six respondents (0.7%) held the view that both males and females are equally delinquent and that gender is not an important variable. The greater male participation in delinquent acts was explained on the grounds that males see themselves as more daring and adventurous. In addition to the fact that they are allowed greater liberty at home, the females on the other hand, are more passive and their needs tend to be better provided for by their parents, than those of the males in an effort to curb social misconduct by the girls since they are considered more vulnerable. This finding thus confirms the earlier known assertions that male students predominate in delinquent acts

3. **What is the level of education usually attained by the average delinquent?**

From the responses regarding the educational level of delinquents, revealed that the greater incidence of delinquency occurs among people who have had some exposure of formal schooling. Specifically, people who have received primary education including dropouts and those who have attended secondary schools accounted for 182 (22%) and 582 (71%) respectively. Illiterates (those who have never enrolled in any formal school system) were said to form only 2.4%. The least offenders were people with higher with higher than secondary school education. For example, holders of G.C.E (A/L) or its equivalence were rated as accounting for only 2.7% of the delinquents. In addition, holders of B.A./

B.Ed degrees or equivalent were said to account for 1.5% of the delinquents; while holders of higher degrees were only mentioned in 0.2% of cases. This distribution sounds quite reasonable, as it tends to tally with the ages of 12-16, and 16-21, which have earlier been seen as most implicated in juvenile offences. This finding contradicts the general expectation that delinquents would predominantly be those who have never enrolled in any formal school system and have never been exposed to any value orientation training, as being currently taught in Nigerian school systems. One had anticipated that those who have not had ant formal training in the school system will be more violent and less law-abiding compared to their peers who have been exposed to value orientation training and the virtues of good conduct.

4. What are the causal factors in delinquent behaviour among students?

The answer to this question is provided in table I below:

Table-1

Frequency distribution and percentages for responses on general causal factors

	Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	The introduction of UPE scheme	44 (5.3)	77 (9.4)	74 (9.0)	348 (42.4)	278 (33.9)
2	Unemployment at various levels	324 (39.5)	345 (42.0)	53 (6.5)	80 (9.7)	19 (2.3)
3	The scandalous lifestyle of the adult population	251 (30.6)	374 (45.6)	88 (10.7)	82 (10.0)	26 (3.2)
4	Massive exposure of youths to imported western films/TV programmes and magazines showing violence, alcoholism, etc.	359 (43.7)	318 (38.7)	56 (6.8)	70 (8.5)	18 (2.2)

5	The breakdown of traditional social control techniques like the extended family system.	167 (20.3)	361 (44.0)	99 (12.1)	144 (17.5)	50 (6.1)
6	Disregard for the authority of parents, teachers and elder people.	335 (40.8)	394 (48.0)	40 (4.9)	39 (4.8)	13 (1.6)
7	Lack of supervision of children's activities because nowadays both fathers and mothers leave home for work.	368 (44.8)	326 (39.7)	39 (4.8)	73 (8.9)	15 (1.8)
8	Elimination of religious/moral instructions in the school since the government take-over of schools.	179 (21.8)	317 (38.6)	107 (13.0)	182 (22.2)	36 (4.4)
9	Criminal attitudes acquired during the Nigerian civil war	109 (13.3)	162 (19.7)	159 (19.4)	267 (32.5)	124 (15.1)
10	Unlimited lust for material wealth.	372 (45.3)	303 (36.9)	63 (7.7)	64 (7.8)	19 (2.3)

The respondents were asked to rate each of the following ten factors on a Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" in terms of whether they consider each factor as contributing to delinquency or not. Since large-scale delinquency was rather a recent experience, it is theorised that this might have arisen from certain contemporary issues within the Nigerian psychosocial environment. For example, the introduction of the Universal Primary Education scheme (which makes education free and compulsory at the primary school for all Nigerian children who are school age) on a nation-wide basis, escalating

unemployment, seemingly liberalised pornography, the question of substitute parents (maids and nannies) to cater for children and infants while their parents go to work, the elimination of moral instruction as a school subject, and of course the experiences of the Nigerian civil war with all the social hazards and trauma are major upheavals which have become part and parcel of Nigeria's recent history. It was therefore thought that they might have contributed to the current wave of maladjusted behaviours.

5. What is the effect of success or failure in schoolwork on the incidence of delinquency?

The answer to this question is provided in table II below:

Table-2

Frequency distribution and percentages for responses on effects of academic record on delinquency

	Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a)	People with serious academic problems have tendency towards delinquent acts	199 (24.3)	372 (45.3)	120 (14.6)	98 (11.9	32 (3.9)
b)	People who have no interest in school subjects have tendency towards delinquent acts	149 (18.1)	384 (46.8)	143 (17.4)	199 (14.5)	26 (3.2)
c)	People who have repeated some classes have tendency towards delinquent acts	156 (19.0)	273 (33.3)	193 (23.5)	162 (19.7)	37 (4.5)
d)	People who have actually dropped out from school have tendency towards delinquent acts	102 (12.4)	343 (41.8)	216 (26.3)	143 (17.4)	17 (2.1)
e)	People who are very talented and bright in school have tendency towards delinquent acts.	376 (45.8)	340 (41.4)	57 (6.9)	36 (4.4)	12 (1.5)
f)	People who are very talented and bright in school have tendency towards delinquent acts	9 (1.1)	17 (2.1)	69 (8.4)	165 (20.1)	561 (68.3)

As evident in Table-2 above, opinions regarding the effect of school achievement level, willingness to attend school, and other school related factors were sought. In general, it was found that academically bright students have less inclination towards delinquency than their less successful counterparts and that those repeaters of school classes and actual school dropouts are more prone to delinquency than talented students

6. What is the relative frequency with which some of the more common delinquent offences (such as drug abuse, alcoholism, rioting, and truancy, teenage pregnancies, assault, rape, prostitution, armed robbery) are committed?

The answer to this question is provided in Table III below:

Table -3

Prevalence of various delinquent offences among Nigerian youth

	Items	Most Frequent	Very Frequent	Frequent	Least Frequent	Does not happen at all
1.	Drug abuse/smoking Indian hemp/cigarette	453 (55.3)	220 (26.8)	138 (16.8)	9 (1.10)	0 (0.0)
2.	Drinking alcohol (beer, palm-wine, whiskey, dry gin)	365 (44.4)	302 (36.8)	120 (14.6)	31 (3.8)	3 (0.4)
3.	Rioting/mass demonstrations	96 (11.7)	162 (19.7)	354 (43.1)	203 (24.7)	6 (0.7)
4.	Truancy/lateness to school	143 (17.4)	209 (25.5)	344 (41.9)	121 (14.7)	4 (0.5)
5.	Cheating in examinations/tests	200 (24.3)	267 (32.5)	354 (30.9)	94 (11.4)	6 (0.7)
6.	Telling lies	373 (45.4)	223 (27.2)	171 (20.8)	49 (6.0)	5 (0.6)
7.	Destruction of school property/vandalism	117 14.4)	192 (23.4)	323 (39.3)	183 (22.3)	5 (0.6)
8.	Certified cases of teenage pregnancy	130 (15.8)	247 (30.1)	301 (36.7)	137 (16.7)	6 (0.7)
9.	Impersonation/forgery	119 (14.5)	180 (21.9)	333 (40.6)	185 (22.5)	4 (0.5)
10.	Defrauding/cheating	185 (22.5)	237 (28.9)	299 (36.4)	94 (11.4)	6 (0.7)
11.	Assault/insult	200 (24.3)	229 (27.9)	289 (35.2)	101 (12.3)	2 (0.2)
12.	Possession of pornographic publications/magazines	202 (24.6)	218 (26.6)	240 (29.2)	138 (16.8)	23 (2.8)
13.	Homosexuality	49 (6.0)	72 (8.8)	132 (16.1)	425 (51.8)	143 (17.4)
14.	Fornication	302 (36.8)	274 (33.4)	198 (24.1)	46 (5.6)	1 (0.1)
15.	Abortion	246 (30.0)	311 (37.9)	218 (26.6)	44 (5.4)	2 (0.2)
16.	Committing rape	95 (11.6)	158 (19.2)	300 (36.5)	256 (31.2)	12 (1.5)
17.	Prostitution	288 (35.1)	283 (34.5)	197 (24.0)	50 (6.1)	3 (0.4)
18.	Falsify school reports sent to parents	139 (16.9)	210 (25.6)	347 (42.3)	122 (14.9)	3 (0.4)

19.	Leaving school without permission	260 (31.7)	273 (33.3)	228 (32.0)	56 (9.3)	4 (0.5)
20.	Bullying/maltreating junior students	206 (25.1)	273 (33.3)	263 (32.0)	76 (9.3)	3 (0.4)
21.	Running away from home	135 (16.4)	206 (25.1)	309 (37.6)	170 (20.7)	1 (0.1)
22.	Robbery/armed robbery	273 (33.3)	196 (23.9)	180 (21.9)	169 (20.6)	3 (0.4)

This section examined various types of delinquent behaviours and attempted to assess how widespread each of them was considered to by each of the respondents as precipitating their delinquent behaviours. The table above also shows the rating obtained for 22 such offences. The incidence of delinquent acts as depicted in this study seems alarming. An assertion tat can be made from the findings of this study is that delinquent acts though undesirable, have become permanent features in the lives of our contemporary youth. It might be revealing and instructive to highlight some few cases. The figures for "most frequent" and "very frequent" for offences like drug abuse, teenage pregnancy, pornography, fornication, abortion, prostitution, cheating in examinations and robbery are startling. The great danger about some of these offences is that they invariably pave way for further delinquencies. For example, drug abuse, alcohol consumption, and sex offences could sometimes be starting points for more complicated future crimes. For instance, a drug addict could kill and maim his victim in an attempt to raise money to secure more drugs when the supply is depleted.

Certain category of offences that used to be rare in the Nigerian environment such as pornography, forgery and impersonation and homosexuality have now gained substantial ground. Decision to go on rampage, destruction of school or public property by students and assault on teachers and adults as a way of demonstrating disapproval over unpopular polices have lamentably become widespread and fashionable practices. This study also shows that various forms of sex offences like fornication, abortion, rape, and prostitution have become rampant among youths.

7. What social background do delinquents come from?

Based on this survey, it was found that the bulk of the respondents N=604 (73.5%) felt that delinquency is not very directly related to social status, and that in Nigeria, children from rich and poor settings are rather equally involved in delinquency. Also, 131 respondents (15.9%) blamed

delinquency on youth from rich homes while 86 (10.5%) attributed it mainly to deprived children from poor families. This finding is in contrast with the popular theory that has often maintained that poor children are more prone to delinquency than their richer colleagues. Even though this study did make much provision for any distinction between rich and poor children, this could be rationalized if the full range of delinquent offences covered by this study is considered. The range seems to embody offences prevalent in both deprived and affluent environments. For example, children from rich homes, due to their privileged positions and opportunities opened to them, are more involved in white collar crimes like bribery and corruption, or the so-called victimless crimes like homosexuality and fornication than their less fortunate counterparts (Oloruntimehin, 1984). The lower class children on the other hand engage more in offences like theft, rape, prostitution, vandalism, destruction of property and other violent offences. One may not be too surprised at this response, as the on-going probe of affluent Nigerians who enriched themselves unjustly and indiscriminately may have dictated this response pattern.

8. What is the current status of delinquency in Nigerian universities?
On the question of the current status of delinquency, that is, whether delinquency is increasing or decreasing within the Nigerian environment, the respondents unequivocally confirmed an upward trend. Eight hundred and seven (98.3%) maintain that this undesirable behaviour is definitely increasing, while only 14 (1.7%) felt that it is declining. The view expressed by the overwhelming majority here deserves to be taken seriously by both the general public and guidance counsellors. In addition to other implications, it tends to suggest strongly that there is large-scale misplacement of moral values and the need for behavioural modification and value re-orientation in Nigeria.

Implications for Counselling

It seems from the general trends in this study that Nigerian adolescents have begun to explore and practice every aspect of delinquent behavior. The study also detected and highlighted some causes such as failure in school work, dropping out from school, lust for material wealth, effect of western films which are often violent, disregard for authority and insufficient moral instruction in schools. There is an obvious need to arrest the current state of affairs in order to avoid greater social anarchy

in future. The crux of the problem appears to lie in the gradual erosion and the eventual loss of time-honored norms and values, which hitherto successfully moderated people's behavior and preserved order within the society.

In the distant past, parents and the entire extended family felt they had something seriously at stake in moulding the character of their children. They considered badly behaved children as a social stigma on the very name and integrity of their families and therefore struggled relentlessly to inculcate the right ethical values and principles of life into their children. Nowadays, the attitude is quite different. Parents prefer to engage in fierce struggles for material possession and devote little time to their children's supervision and guidance; hence children grow up lacking moral values and adequate socialisation. This state of affairs seems to breed delinquency in all its ramifications. The family as a social institution and the most fundamental and basic cell of society is therefore failing in its primary duty of child rearing due to misplaced priority. One of the cardinal developmental tasks of adolescence, according to Havighurst (1952) is the acquisition of mastery of the norms and values of one's society. If this task is satisfactorily achieved, then the young person will develop guiding principles to regulate his own behaviour. Delinquency appears to have escalated in recent times in Nigeria because social norms, standard values, and ethical principles have been relegated to the background. The tendency is to succeed by all means, fair or foul, and in the process protocol and etiquette are ignored.

Successive governments in Nigeria have independently observed this unwholesome trend and variously devised and popularised slogans such as 'national ethical reorientation', 'war against indiscipline', and bodies like the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC) and the Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC) that will try to draw attention to the importance of probity and moral rectitude. It however seems that each of these attempts has only met with little or no impact and made minimal impact on the citizenry.

If genuine efforts to resolve the current social impasse are not to be ineffective and counterproductive, the services of professional counsellors have to be fully recognised and enlisted in affecting behaviour modification for the youths. In view of the severe shortfall in

the number of trained counsellors at present Uba's (1990) proposal that teachers be co-opted to serve as Para-counsellors deserves to be taken seriously and implemented. It is the view of these writers that counselling for value orientation will provide one essential missing ingredient in our overall educational enterprises as presently operated especially at the primary and secondary school levels. This should through the involvement of youths in open discussions on moral issues. In the process, conceptual errors and inconsistencies in their argument will be pointed out and ratified. With proper value orientation, impulses towards delinquent riotous and indecent behaviour would be suppressed and thwarted by considerations of more lofty personal and national ideas.

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Female Education at Secondary School Level in the Province of Sindh; Pakistan

Dr. Saleha Parveen*

Abstract

The aim of writing this article is to critically analyze the development and current status of female education at secondary school level in the province of Sindh. Education produces knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes. It is essential for poverty reduction, citizenship and for sustained economic growth, and secondary education in the period of education in which the emphasis tends to shift from mastery of basic tools of learning, expression and understanding to the use and extension of the tools in exploring areas of thought and living. It is an important period of education for young people but unfortunately in Pakistan educational system continuous to face formidable challenges in addressing a series deficiency in its system particularly at secondary school level. As for as female education at this stage is concern, it also confront so many problems and hurdles. According to SEMIS census 2003-04 report the participation rate of girls at secondary school level in Sindh is only 16%, it means 84% girls are out of school. Such a low participation rate indicates extreme neglect of secondary education of the female in Sindh. Therefore in this article the author not only critically examines the present position of female e4ducation and its problems but also give recommendations for improvement.

1.1 Introduction

In Pakistan, educational attainment shows poor results. Particularly the educational status of Pakistani women is among one of the lowest in the world. According to the 1998 census of Pakistan (table–1), the literacy rate for the population of people aged 10 years and above is 43.9%. However, there are distinct gender and rural/ urban differences in the literacy rate. Women have a literacy rate of 32%, as against 55% for men. Similarly, the literacy rate for the urban population only is 63%,

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whereas the literacy rate for the rural population is 33.6%. Moreover, this rural/ urban difference is more apparent in the case of women than men. The literacy rate for urban men is 70% and for rural men is 46%. However, the literacy rate for urban women is 55% and for rural women is 20%. In Sindh, the literacy rate of male population is 54.5% as compared to female only 35% where as literacy rate of urban women is 56.6% as against rural women i.e. only 12.2%.

Table -1

Showing literacy rate (10 Years and above) by gender and areas, in Pakistan and Sindh – 1998

Census Year	Urban			Rural			Total		
	Women	Men	Both Sexes	Women	Men	Both Sexes	Women	Men	Both Sexes
PAKISTAN									
1998	55.1	70.0	63.1	20.1	46.4	33.6	32.0	54.8	43.9
SINDH									
1998	56.6	69.7	63.7	12.2	37.9	25.7	34.8	54.5	45.3

Source: Census report, 1998

During the last over 150 years, female education has remained comparatively a neglected sector. In spite of best efforts since the establishment of Pakistan in 1947, female education has lagged much behind. According to Human development report, 2005 of United Nations Development Program (UNDP), in the Human development index (HDI), the rank of Pakistan is 135th among 177 countries indicating low life expectancy at birth, low educational attainment and low income. The report also indicates the adult literacy rate of age (15 years and above) as 35.2% of female as compared to 61.7% of male. In the same report the Gender – related development index (GDI) rank of Pakistan is 107th among 177 countries. This explains as to how the Human development gap has been further aggravated by substantial gender disparities.

A study conducted by Irfan Ghouri published in "Daily Times" on Dec. 30, 2006 reveals that:

> Only 19% of all females in Pakistan have acquired education up to metric, 8% up to intermediate, 5% up to bachelors and 1.4% up to M.A / M.Sc, while only 3.74% of Pakistani women are employed. The rate of educational attainment was far lower for girls than for boys, showing a visible gender gap. The report indicated that girl's participation was lower than that of boys at all level of education. It is said the roots of female education problems probably lay at the primary level. Lack of girls' involvement in primary level education also kept them away from higher education, it said, adding that gender disparity in education was more pronounced among girls from poor families. The study said that the lack of facilities at schools was also among the reasons that accounted for a low level of girls' involvement in education. According to the report, these socio-cultural conditions limit girls' decisions making power, keep the level of awareness about their rights low and limit their aspirations. (Irfan Ghauri, 2006)

Keeping in view all these facts this research was taken in hand not only to determine the existing status of female education in Sindh but also to investigate causes of poor educational standards. This study presents a quantitative and also qualitative analysis of female education in the province of Sindh in particular and in Pakistan in general. A well-coordinated attempt has been made by the author to collect reliable and authentic data so that a clear picture and vision of female education could be presented. It also suggests necessary remedies and measures for its improvement.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

This study is specifically designed to,

1. Critically analyze the current status of female education at secondary school level in Sindh.
2. Identify problems of female education and their causes.
3. Give recommendations for the improvement of the situation.

1.3 Review of related literature

Female education in Pakistan, like the overall system of education is the legacy of the British rule. Before this colonial rule, although there were indigenous educational institutions prevailing and there was a network of indigenous school system all over the country but there was no provision of education for females. They were deprived of all educational facilities except with some provision of religious education and house hold affairs in homes and Muhallas. There were no traditions and customs of sending girls to school. As mentioned by Nurullah and Naik(1951) "Native custom excludes females from the advantage of education. Schools strictly speaking are confined to the education of boys". "Female education was practically non-existent", point out Nurullah and Naik. They further remarked that:

> Of the total female population, 16, 792 are between 14 and 5 years of age, that is, are of the age at which the mind is capable of receiving in an increasing degree the benefit of instruction in letters. The state of instruction amongst this unfortunate class cannot be said to be low, for with a very few individual exceptions there is no instruction at all. Absolute and hopeless ignorance is in general their lot. The notion of providing the means of instruction for female children never enters into the minds of parents; and girls are equally deprived of that imperfect domestic instruction which is some times given to boys.

The history of a formal system of education in India starts when in 1813 according to the charter of East India Company; the responsibility of the education of the masses was taken over by the government. It was decided that out of the profit of the East India Company, not less than, amount of Rs. one lac annually will be spent on the literacy and educational activities of the Indian people. It was just a modest beginning on the part of the government to introduce a national system of education.

However, from 1813 to 1854 nothing significant was done in the field of education. It was in fact the Charls Wood Educational Dispatch of 1854,

which recommend a system of education including female education by establishing separate educational institutions for them. From 1854 to 1947, till the creation of Pakistan, female education developed very slowly and at the time of independence in 1947, according to the report of Federal Bureau of Statistics, (50 years of Pakistan in statistics, volume II) which states that at the time of independence there were only 82 female secondary schools (18%) with 800female teachers (11%) and 8000 girls enrollment (13%) of the total in Pakistan. At present there are 457 girls' secondary schools with 11219 female teachers and 209145 girls enrollment at secondary level in Sindh. This shows that there is a quantitative development of female education but if we critically analyze the situation it proves that there is a no\ little qualitative improvement at this stage of education.

In 2004-05 State Bank of Pakistan announced annual report and discussed the current situation of education in detail. The report states that:

> Unfortunately, Pakistan's track record in literacy and education has not been satisfactory. The education system in the country is characterized by high illiteracy rate; low gross and net enrolment at all level of education; high dropout rates from schools; a wide disparity at gender and regional levels; and a poor quality of education. (Annual report of State Bank of Pakistan 2004-05)

The report further maintains that:

> According to PIHS (2001-02) and National Reconstruction Bureau (NRB) Baseline Survey 2002, the poor performance of primary and secondary enrollment as well as high dropout rate in Pakistan was primarily attributed to the high cost of education; parental disapproval, especially in case of females, due to social and cultural norms; low quality of education, shortages of trained and qualified teachers, dissatisfaction with government schools and lack of proper physical infrastructure. (Annual report of State Bank of Pakistan 2004-05)

In this connection, Economic Survey 2005 states that "Gender disparity in literacy and enrollment is one of the key concerns of the Government. Pakistan's overall record in promoting and delivering gender equality has been weak". (Economic Survey, 2005)

The survey further argues that:

> Reducing gender gap in education at all level will ensure equality of opportunity and economic participation for females. Gender disparity in literacy is lower in urban areas where it is 16 percent, as compared to 29 percent in rural areas in 2004-05. In fact there has been no progress in reducing the gender gap either between the urban and rural areas or between genders in both areas. There are several explanations for this persistent gap in literacy. A recent World Bank Country Gender Assessment Report 2005 highlights the two most important constraining factors that impede female access to education. Distance from school and physical costs of attending schools for girls affects their enrollment. (Economic Survey 2005)

Pakistan is a developing country. More than half of its population (About 51%) consists of female, but the total participation rate of women in education is hardly 17%. No national development, in the real sense, is possible unless the whole population is educated. The problems of female education in Pakistan are so enormous that the government alone cannot cope up with these problems. This requires well-coordinated efforts on the part of government, community, NGO and in fact the whole nation.

1.4 Methodology

This study was descriptive survey type in nature, related to quantitative and qualitative aspects of female education. According to the nature of this study the most suitable research tool used for gathering data was questionnaire because, "A questionnaire is much more efficient in that it

requires less time, is less expensive and permits collection of data from a much larger sample." (Gay.L.R, 1996)

Questionnaire can be group-administered, self-administered, mailed, long, short, open-ended or closed-style questions. As far as this study is concerned a questionnaire consisting of the following ten sections was constructed in the light of information collected through review of related literature on female education.

Section- I	General information about school
Section-II	Enrollment
Section- III	teaching staff
Section- IV	Physical facilities
Section- V	Co-curricular activities
Section- VI	School discipline
Section- VII	Community participation
Section- VIII	School curriculum
Section- IX	Finance
Section- X	Problems of Female Education.

The main purpose of constructing the questionnaire was to collect information about the current status of female education at secondary level.

After constructing the questionnaire it was pre-tested to determine its validity, reliability and practicability Then after pre-testing questionnaire having both open ended and close-ended questions on various aspects of female education was administered in the girls' secondary schools of district Dadu, Hyderabad,, Mirpurkhas, Nawabshah, Khairpur, Sanghar and Sukkur.It was also decided that instead of making random selection of schools, data should be collected from all the schools of the selected districts of Sindh province. The lists of the schools along with their addresses were obtained from the District Education Office of the concerned districts. At the time of administering the questionnaire there were only 160 girls secondary schools in 07 selected districts from which 99 were in rural areas and 61 were in urban areas. The questionnaires were mailed / administered to 160 girls secondary schools (Rural / Urban) in the selected districts. Out of which 145 questionnaires (91%) approximately were returned. After collecting data it was tabulated for

the purpose of making necessary analysis and finding of results. The main tools of research used in this study was questionnaire, therefore respondents from each question / statement of the questionnaire have been given the total sample size and over all percentage return. The analysis of the result has been presented by indicating the percentage of responses that selected each alternative for each question. The average percentage also specified.

1.5 Findings and Discussions

1. It was found that in the districts selected as a sample of study, there were only 160 schools (99 in rural and 61 in urban areas), from which 85 rural and 60 urban schools were responded. The rate of return response was 91%. The decade 1980 – 89 was the best as far as the opening of new schools is concerned. During this period 48 new schools were established. It is also found that in rural areas all the schools were of government property while in urban areas out of 60 schools 07 were nationalized and remaining schools were of government property.

2. Total number of girls enrollment in the year 2003-04, was 15550 in 85 rural schools and 20300 in 60 urban schools. The daily average attendance in these schools was 45% in rural and 75% in urban setting. The participation rate of girls was found to be 17%, which is very dismal and presents a bleak picture of female education. Even after more then 50 years of our independence and much emphasis on female education we could raise its participation rate up to 17% only.

3. In 85 rural and 60 urban schools, total number of teaching staff was 1059 and 1707 respectively. It shows that is a shortage of teaching staff especially in rural schools. Majority of these teachers were trained. In both rural and urban schools teachers were facing many problems. Out of these problems shortage of Audio-Visual aids, un-conducive atmosphere and traditional type curricula are most important. It was mentioned that there are so many reasons for the shortage of female teaching staff at secondary school level 23.82% principals indicate the reason "low status of teacher in society", 22.16% ticked the reason "insufficient and unattractive salary package", 19.61% specify

the reason "general non-availability of qualified female's teachers", 8.87% give the reason "posting in distant and far flung rural areas", 8.83% pointed out that shortage of teachers training institutions is one of the reason, 7.60% indicate the reason "lack of incentives / opportunities especially of female teachers working in rural areas". 5.88% principals also complained that the reason behind the shortage of female teachers is due to the fact that the training institutions are far away and beyond their reach. 3.68% respondents said that strict / unbalance recruitment rules and political pressure also one of the reasons.

4. the most significant finding relates to the infrastructure of the physical facilities. 30% rural and 25% urban schools are deprived of the availability of pure water. They, being in a sorry state of affairs, are found having dirty washrooms, in sufficient accommodation, damaged furniture, shortage of classrooms, laboratories and equipments. It is really a matter of pity that in some of the schools in rural areas there are no proper washrooms. Therefore these schools have rightly demanded for the provision of basic amenities to them for an optimum, smooth and conducive teaching learning process.

5. As far as organizing of co-curricular activities is concerned the rural schools are far lagged behind. Only 25 (29.14%) schools out of 85 have the provision of sports and games while 64.70% schools celebrate national days and only 5.88% schools organize annual day function. 35.29% rural schools have the provision of girls guide, in these schools there is no provision of educational visits, physical and civil defense training. The situation in urban schools is much better and improved. As responded by the urban schools all the activities except excursions, educational tours and trips to places of interest, are organized. Other co-curricular activities organized in both rural and urban schools are naat, debate and speech competitions, and cultural shows.

6. As revealed by the schools, they are facing many problems of school discipline. 31% rural and 14% urban schools pointed out the reason, "lack of interest on the part of students", 18% rural and 12% urban respondents indicate that teachers absenteeism

and unwillingness to attend their duties creates indiscipline, 14% rural and 17% urban schools said that involvement of teachers in school politics also create obstacles in school discipline. Some schools (6% rural and 4% urban) declare that the autocratic and dictator – type attitude of principals is the main cause of school indiscipline.

7. In both rural and urban areas, it was found that (100%) schools have students' management committee (SMC). They are regularly holding the meetings of SMC / PTM and parents are also invited to attend these meetings but their attitude is not very positive as majority of the parents do not attend these meetings.

8. A significant majority of respondents (88% rural and 92% urban) were of the opinion that there is no need of separate curriculum for girls, but they all emphasized for the introduction of vocational subjects as well as the subject of Home Management at secondary and higher secondary level. In addition a chapter on the rights and responsibilities of females should also be introduced in the course of Islamyat so that students especially females may be aware of their legitimate rights. Principals of both rural and urban schools also pointed out that during the implementation of curriculum; they faced so many problems including lack of trained teachers (36.43%), shortage of text books (5.44%) and audio visual aids (55.64%).

9. The respondents from both rural (20%) and urban (15%) were of the opinion that present curricula, on different places, appear to promote some sort of gender biases. Man is being presented as symbol of courage, honor and superior to woman in all walks of life. Woman is being portrayed only as domestic animal meant for performing work at home only and nothing to do in the out side world. This attitude, the respondents argued, needs to be changed and woman should also be praised for the work she is doing out side home. Women now days are working in almost every walk of life shoulder to shoulder with men and therefore they should be given equal status and standing with men without any prejudices. There is a need to bring change in the text books,

where necessary and women role not only in making better home but also as a dynamic individual ready to face all the problems of daily life and to do all types of work which is generally expected of men should be emphasized.

10. As far as the government polices and plans are concerned, it was only the report of the commission on national education 1959 which discussed the matters relating to female education in a separate chapter and thus gave female education a special consideration. None of the subsequent educational polices announced after 1960 ever-considered female education as a separate subject. Although these polices mention few proposals for the development of female education which were either rejected or half-heartedly implemented. It is a fact that most of polices, plans, schemes and deliberations confined only to paper work.

11. It is clearly indicted from the analysis of data that in public sector schools there was no tuition fees. Only Rs 114/= was charged by the students as funds. At higher secondary level Rs 480/= was charged as tuition fees and Rs 340/= as funds. It was also found that at secondary and higher secondary level no scholarships / free ships offered to the students.

12. Both the principals of rural and urban schools indicated that there were so many reasons for the low participation rate of females at secondary level, the most important of these was the poverty (24% rural, 27% urban) followed by lack of cooperation from family members (18%rural, 23% urban), large family size (05% rural, 05% urban), security / purdha (06% rural, 06% urban), transportation (12% rural, 11% urban), shortage of girls secondary schools (15% rural, 10% urban), schools situated far away from home (15% rural, 0% urban), and non-availability of proper jobs at local level after completing secondary education (06% rural, 17% urban). They also expressed their views about the main problems faced by the schools like non-cooperation of parents, lack of financial resources, shortage of female teaching staff, and physical facilities as well as traditional type of curriculum.

13. It was found that in both rural and urban schools the main problems are shortage of physical facilities (24.02%) followed by shortage of female teaching staff (21.76%), non co-operation of parents (20.34%), lack of financial resources (17.15%) and traditional type curricula (16.17%).

1.6 Critique

Female education has been a controversial and difficult subject since the very day it was introduced in sub-continent as a part of our existing system of education. For the last fifty years many efforts have been made to improve it and raise the social status of women. With a view to ascertain as to how far these efforts have been successful and their impact on female education, this study was carried out .As far as the development of female education is concerned it is a matter of satisfaction, of course partially, that conditions are better then what were in the early 50's. There has been a significant increase in number of schools, student's enrolment, teaching staff and physical facilities. However, when these facilities and developments are compared with the increase in population and particularly, out of school girls, low participation rate of about 17%, an increasing high drop out rate, this physical expansion appears to be quite dismal. On the other hand, qualitatively speaking, the standard of female education is at the lower ebb. With few exceptions in urban areas the rest of female schools in rural areas are deprived of, in most of the cases, even the basic facilities. It was really very unfortunate and even shameful to note that there are schools, which even do not have proper washrooms for the girls' students. The dropout rate of girls' students is high; lack of properly qualified teachers, teachers absenteeism, traditional out dated curricula, no proper teaching methodologies, lack of audio- visual aids are some of the main problems with which our girls schools are faced with.

There are number of social, cultural and historical reasons behind this worse situation of female education. Most important of these reasons include a centuries old traditional, narrow and rigid attitude, a lethargic view of the people coupled with a clear and definite vision and policy about female education on the part of the government.

It is also a pity to note that there has not been any viable program of the improvement of female education as far as the government is concerned. With the exception of the Report of the Commission on National Education 1959, which contributed a full chapter on female education, no other education policy in Pakistan has ever made an effort to chalk out a program for the development of female education. Neither any separate plan on the part of government was made toward the betterment of the education of female. Although there have been intentions both on the part of government as well as different NGO's, but practically little has been done. All these intentions appear to be not more than mere paper work.

The study was also focused on finding out whether there should be a separate curricula or scheme of studies for girls. The different women working in various organizations were asked to suggest a new curriculum or scheme of studies for the females but almost all of them answered in negative. However, they all opined that except the subject of Home Economics / Home Management and allied subject matter, there should be one and common curricula for both the boys and girls. In fact this is true also because if women have to compete with men in every walk of life, they must learn the same things which male learn. Knowledge is indivisible and cannot be divided into separate compartments for male and female.

On the issue of gender biases and disparities / discrimination there are certain places where we find that in school text books such biases are existent but on the whole there are no such things. Of course in a manly-dominated society such tendencies are prevailing but with the passage of time these are also being discarded and rejected.

In the final analysis and in the light of findings of this study it was concluded that the task of the improvement of female education is gigantic and it requires our continued efforts with determination to solve the problems related to it. Unless as a nation we improve our system of education in general and female education in particular, the dream of an educated, strong and prosperous Pakistan will remain unfulfilled.

1.7 Recommendations

Following are the recommendations for the improvement of female education at secondary level in Sindh.

1. Appointment of right people at right places and the removal of all sorts of corruption from the educational institutions and the education department.
2. Half of the educational budget should be spent on the development and improvement of female education, because it is a fact that today's expenditures on female education makes our tomorrow bright and secure..
3. The government should encourage private sector as well as NGO's to play their positive role in the improvement of female education at secondary level in Sindh.
4. Establishment of more female secondary schools as well as teachers training institutions within an easy reach of females.
5. Providing all types of physical / educational facilities that facilitate females to get education up to higher level.
6. Special attention should be given to the provision of scholarships for needy and poor girl students at secondary level.
7. Development of awareness programs for the parents specially those who belong to rural areas about education of their girls at secondary and higher level.
8. It is essential that there should be a provision of free transportation and availability of low cost textbooks for girl students in both rural and urban areas by the government..
9. It is also observed that sufficient numbers of female teachers for teaching at secondary level are not available in rural areas because of so many problems; female teachers are not willing to go and work in rural areas. Therefore, it is suggested that all facilities, special allowances and incentives should be provided to those female teachers who want to go and work in rural areas.
10. Review and revision of traditional and stereotype curriculum is must because it only provides bookish knowledge and neglect real life experiences. It is necessary that the curriculum of secondary and higher

secondary education (IX – XII) should be more practical, more interesting, nearer to life experiences and should also have a provision of professional or vocational training and special subjects should be included in curriculum at secondary and higher secondary stage (IX – XII) like home management or home-caring for the girls. The combination of different and varied subjects may develop a sound balance in the personalities of our girls and they would be able to play their role for the betterment of their life at home as well as for the society.

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Assessing the Quality of Infrastructure in Private Sector of Higher Education in Pakistan

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Abstract

The major purpose of this paper was to assess the quality of infrastructure in private sector of higher education in Pakistan by adopting descriptive method of research. The study was conducted at national level, the population of the study constituted 270 administrators, 6180 teachers and 61108 students in existing 54 private universities and degree awarding institutions of Pakistan. Method of cluster sampling was used to select the study sample of 840 people, which was carried out in two stages. At the first stage, 12 clusters of universities were randomly chosen out of the total population of private universities. At the second stage, 60 administrators, I80 teachers and 600 students were selected through random sampling procedure with five administrators, 15 teachers and 50 students from each selected cluster. Three questionnaires (one each for administrators, teachers and students), developed and refined through pre-testing, were used as measuring instruments to collect data. It was found in the study that all respondents expressed slightly negative opinion about the appropriateness of instructional facilities, relevance of the equipment to present and future needs of students and society and sufficiency of books/periodical available in the library.

Introduction

The issue of quality in universities of Pakistan is the slogan of the day. Quality is totally neglected in private sector universities and the emphasis is upon quantitative expansion. The requirement for quality has become a major concern in higher education. This is because meeting society's needs and expectations towards higher education depends ultimately on the quality of its staff, programmes and students, as well as its infrastructure and academic environment. Niazi (2006) stated that the infrastructure play an important role in teaching learning process.

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Institutions having better infrastructure may attract both teachers and students. Govt. of Pakistan (1993) focused on the broadening of the resource base for financing education through increased allocation and encouraging private sector's participation in provision of educational facilities at all levels.

The quality of education and research assumes the existences of an adequate physical infrastructure that matches needs. It also assumes that such infrastructure is maintained and managed in the best possible way in the institutions and not mainly for the convenience of the managers. The quality of infrastructure will depend in the future on the attention paid by higher education establishments to the development of the new . distance learning and the virtual university. Besides the quantity and quality of infrastructure, attention must be drawn to the quality of the living environment in the higher institutions and to the quality of the external environment. (UNESCO 1998)

Isani and Virk (20()3) illustrated that a carefully planned strategy has to be developed for investing in laboratory field equipment and computers as a priority. Thus, there is strong justification for providing resources for the purchase of laboratory/field equipment. Deficiency of laboratory and field equipment is also a major constrain to imparting meaningful practical training to the students. The libraries should be properly equipped and hook banks established with multiple copies of expensive textbooks,

Mirza (1994) argued that students who pay for higher education must be entitled to necessary facilities of labs, libraries, equipment and other services, which enrich an educational experience. The provision of educational facilities, therefore, is the responsibility of the institutions.

The major factors are the lack of resources, shortage of laboratory and field equipment and failure to realize the importance of higher education. Inadequate funding for student support services, libraries, journals, books, ill-equipped laboratories and lack of repair facilities for equipment and non-qualified staff are considered to be crucial factors in the low quality of education. No doubt, it provides broader access to higher education but it results in low quality education. In the given

budget allocation, it is not possible to provide the pre-requisites for quality education such as good libraries, laboratories.

Kizalbash (1998) states that, in Pakistan, Private institution that has a little endowment and few donations, has unfortunately either to charge high tuition fees or to keep its expenses down and lacked physical facilities.Verman (1992), but only a few of the university-affiliated colleges and institutes are well equipped to conduct the courses for MBA. Their infrastructure, facilities, faculty resources, libraries, research and other activities are not adequate to run the management courses. Coffman (1997) states that the growth of private higher education has had some positive impacts. Private universities generally pay much higher salaries, and the best ones offer quality libraries and research facilities.

Virk (1998) was of the view that higher education in Pakistan needs urgent reforms as it is not presently contributing effectively to economic growth of the country. Yet inadequately equipped libraries and laboratories and a shortage of qualified teachers continue to hinder the progress of higher education toward achieve. Castro and Levy (2000) describe that private institutions rarely assume or claim to assume academic elite roles complete with doctoral education, basic research, large laboratories and libraries, or mostly full-time academic staffs. This provides an opening for critics to belittle these institutions as not "true universities," not fulfilling university roles.

Perveen (2001) Concluded that the faculty member of privately managed institutions are generally satisfied with the instructional and physical facilities. It was also analyzed that private universities have sufficient books in their libraries. Gaston and Nguyen (1997), analyzing the concept of quality in business education with data of 388 respondents from universities. He identified seven factors which influence students' evaluations of quality: reputation, administrative personnel, faculty, curriculum, responsiveness, physical evidence and access to facilities.

An overview of the facts mentioned above reveals that the problem is that of the availability of infrastructure. Not only ample funds for the establishment of quality institutions are required, but there is also a need

to provide infrastructure in all the fields especially in the field of science and technology.

Therefore, the present study was undertaken this study would prove helpful to eliminate the prevailing shortcomings and enable the decision makers and planners to think in the right direction. This study would helpful in evaluating the functioning and performance of the private sector in higher education so as to facilitate the policy makers, planners, educational authorities, decision makers and the various agencies involved in the education for further planning and management and the development of private sector in higher education in the country.

Statement of the Problem

The major purpose of the study was to assessing the quality of infrastructure in private sector higher education in Pakistan.

Research Methodology

All administrators, teachers and students of privately managed universities and degree awarding institutions in Pakistan constituted the population from which samples were drawn for the study. Method of cluster sampling was used in order to select the study sample of 840 people which was carried out in two stages. At the first stage, 12 clusters of universities were randomly chosen out of the total population of the 54 private universities. At the second stage, 60 administrators, 180 teachers and 600 students were selected through random sampling procedure with five administrators, 15 teachers and 50 students from each selected cluster. The researcher prepared three separate questionnaires based upon five point likert scale. Three questionnaires - one each for administrators, teachers and students were developed as instruments for data collection. The research refined the questionnaires through pre-testing after the pre-testing of the questionnaires researcher start the data collection from the target universities. After the data collection the responses obtained through the above-mentioned research instruments were scored before statistical analysis and interpretation.

The data collected were analyzed by using computer software SPSS version 11.0. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed to find the mean difference on the scores of three questionnaires between three groups. In order to interpret the findings obtained as a result of

ANOVA, the mean scores below 2.5 on five point likert scale were considered as negative opinion and those above 2.5 were termed as positive opinion. The negative and positive opinions were further graded as slightly below ±3.5, fairly ±3.5 and above and highly above ±4.0.

Results

Table-1

Significance of difference between mean opinion scores of administrators, teachers and students about the availability of internet facility in the institutions.

Category	N	Mean	SD	F-value
Administrator	50	4.56	0.93	5.61**
Teachers	180	4.18	1.07	
Students	600	4.04	1.14	
Total	830	4.10	1.12	

**p<.01

The above table states that there is statistically significant difference between means scores of administrators, teachers and students about the availability of internet facility in the institutions at .01 level. The attitude of administrators, teachers and students was highly positive about availably of internet facilities in the institutions.

Table- 2

Significance of difference between mean opinion scores of administrators, teachers and students regarding the appropriateness of instructional facilities.

Category	N	Mean	SD	F-value
Administrator	50	4.00	1.44	34.376**
Teachers	180	2.63	1.35	
Students	600	2.31	1.43	
Total	830	2.48	1.47	

**p<.01

The above table illustrates that there is statistically significant difference between means scores of administrators, teachers and students regarding the appropriateness of instructional facilities at .01 level. The attitude of

administrators was more positive as compared to teachers and students whose views were slightly negative.

Table- 3

Significance of difference between mean opinion scores of administrators, teachers and students about the relevance of equipment to present and future needs of students and society

Category	N	Mean	SD	F-value
Administrator	50	4.22	1.33	20.615**
Teachers	180	2.74	1.53	
Students	600	2.76	1.59	
Total	830	2.84	1.60	

**p<.01

The above table states that there is statistically significant difference between means scores of administrators, teachers and students about the relevance of equipment to present and future needs of students and society at .01 level. The attitude of administrators was highly positive whereas that of teachers and students was slightly negative.

Table -4

Significance of difference between mean opinion scores of administrators, teachers and students about the sufficiency of books /periodicals that are available in the library.

Category	N	Mean	SD	F-value
Administrator	50	4.12	1.30	38.605**
Teachers	180	2.24	1.07	
Students	600	2.50	1.43	
Total	830	2.54	1.41	

**p<.01

The above table illustrates that there is statistically significant difference between means scores of administrators, teachers and students about the sufficiency of books /periodicals that are available in the library at .01 levels. The attitude of administrators was found to be highly positive as

compared to teachers and students. Teachers viewed the sufficiency of books /periodicals in the library most negatively.

Discussion

In the present study, it was found that all administrators responded more positively as compared to teachers and students about the quality of infrastructure in private universities. On the contrary, teachers and students expressed negative reactions on almost all facets of infrastructure. Responses of administrators, teachers and students were thus found to be conflicting. Administrators supported the system perhaps because they designed and implemented the policies of their institutions. It seems evident that they were less likely to accept failure. On the other hand, students are keen and sharp observers of the system being tested and implemented upon them who were being charged heavy fees. Therefore, their opinion may be considered as more balanced, fair, realistic and closer to the ground realities. It was revealed in the study that all the respondents were found to have positive opinion about provision of internal facilities. This finding is in the line with Niazi (2006) who reported availability of Internet facilities in private universities. Students were provided the opportunities of using and availing the facilities of Internet and multimedia. This point also supported Tan (1995) who opined that very few private tertiary institutions maintained a high level of instruction. All respondents, on the contrary, expressed slightly negative opinion about the suitability of instructional facilities and consideration of present and future societal needs. lt was found in the study that most of the private universities were failed to provide facilities needed to impart quality instructions. The conditions of laboratories were not tried to keep up to the mark and required standard. These institutions were lagging well behind to keep up the pace with advancement in science and technology. They showed supreme disregard and indifference toward installing new equipment in laboratories and furnishing libraries with latest books containing latest knowledge. This supported CHED (2000) who was of the view that private universities have neglected the facilities for libraries, laboratories, and research and have not kept up with scientific and technological advances. Verman (1992) held the same viewpoint that private universities had not adequate infrastructure facilities. These findings were against Perveen(2001) who held that private universities had sufficient books in their libraries

Conclusion

The study revealed that all respondents were found to have positive opinion about the availability of internet facilities in the institutions. It was found in the study that all respondents expressed slightly negative opinion about the appropriateness of instructional facilities, relevance of the equipment to present and future needs of students and society and sufficiency of books/periodical available in the library. It was also found in the study that majority of administrators were of the views that the appropriateness of instructional facilities, relevance of the equipment to present and future needs of students and society and sufficiency of books/periodical available in the library. But teachers and students contrasted these statements.

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Concept of University in the Age of Globalization

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Abstract

This article explores the various concepts of the 21st century University with a view to examine the application of these to the future university. An overview of the situation of the university education in Pakistan has been made. The distinctive features of the existing university model have been identified. In the light of the major prevailing concepts of the future university an attempt was made to identify the appropriate model for the university education in Pakistan.

University in Global perspective

The first decade of 21st century has played a major role in promoting borderless education in the Globalize world (Davies, 2000). The notion of students as consumers has emerged as an important feature of the 20th Century University. As a result the quality of teaching learning process was mainly attached to the satisfaction of their clients i.e., students and business organizations. Now the students' opinion is being considered as an important indicator of the institutional performance.

At the same time the major emphasis of the employment market is on information technology skills as the combination of information technology with skilled academic governance and universal role of the university has made possible the reach to the win-win situation (Lowe, 2002, Sadlak, 2000). The development of university strategy, areas of potential strengths and weaknesses and a style of developing a strategic analysis, organizational issues, human resource issues, issues of infra structure, matters related to quality assurance and revolution in teaching and learning paradigm demand a shift in the concept of university (Davies, 2001).

In 21st century global awareness has emerged as a dire need of every society (Runter, 2001, Yang, 2004). During the last couple of years the global trade organizations have become one of the major funding agencies of the universities. In return the universities have to do research

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work for the funding agencies. So the survival of the today's institutions of higher learning is mainly associated with the international repute earned through research rather than their status at home for the quality of teaching (OECD, 2004).

> The principal driving force for this transformation of universities is the development of knowledge societies and economies, all the pervasiveness of information technologies, globalization and the debate on the public private nature of higher education (Ginkel, 2003, P. 83).

At the same time, their role in the development of nations cannot be denied. So these institutions simultaneously have to operate in local, regional, national and international contexts and need to acknowledge political realities, community expectations and their own espoused values (Moses, 2003). They are expected to serve as engines for local and regional development and form elites, usually local elites (Kuklinski, 2001). The current wave of learning is going to transform university education through communicative action open discourse, by concentrating on values, feelings, fears and hopes enables a trusting basis for critical and problem and solution discussions. This communicative action through open discourse between universities, governments and business could lead to increasing transnational openness (Williams, 2000). These challenges demand to devise a system of higher education whose outcomes will be social inclusion and social cohesion rather than exclusivity and competitiveness (Lowe, 2002).

University System in Pakistan

The concept of the modern university, together with the scientific ideas and techniques, came to the Indian subcontinent in the wake of the English conquest. After the banishment of the last Moughal emperor, Bahadur Shah Zafar, in 1857, the English introduced modern education as they consolidated their rule. The only university within Pakistan at the time of independence in 1947 was the University of the Punjab, Lahore, which had been established by the British in 1882 (Hoodbhoy, 1998). Initially it was both teaching as well as examining body (Mehmood, 1998).

The University of Sindh is the second oldest university in Pakistan constituted under an Act in 1947 first published in Sindh government Gazette, Karachi, on 3rd April 1947. The year 1947-1948 was the first year of the actual functioning of the University of Sindh. The University functioned merely as an examining body since 1951. It was in the year 1951-52 that the first teaching department namely, Department of Education, which was subsequently raised to the status of an Institute, was started in view of the great dearth of trained teachers in the country (Handbook of Universities, 1987).

After independence, higher education received greater attention, though the pace of development was slow in the early decades due to some unavoidable circumstances. The later decades marked the rapid growth in the number of universities. (Ibrahim, 1999) As per HEC website information, in 2007, the number stands on 117 universities and degree awarding institutions in both public and private sector. At present there are 51 public sector universities functioning in the country. The universities in Pakistan are either general universities or professional universities. According to the report of the Task Force on The Improvement of Higher Education in Pakistan (2002), 20 general universities were working in Pakistan under public sector in 2002.

The general universities have a dual academic function to perform, namely their (undergraduate and graduate) teaching and research and the academic supervision and holding of examinations for the affiliated and constituent colleges. The university itself has teaching departments under different faculties, institutes; there are also study centers and centers of excellence working in these universities to impart education to the cutting edge. Both English and Urdu are used as instructional media and students are free to attempt their examination papers in either of the two languages (Ahmed, 1992). However, there are fewer exceptions to this generalization forwarded by Ahmed (1992); some departments and institutes have imposed compulsion in regard of medium of instruction and examination.

The Task Force report (2002) has mentioned that 85 percent of those students in universities are enrolled in public sector institutions. The enrollment ratio of students in Arts and Science is 70:30. It was estimated that Pakistan presently has a population of 18 million in the

age group of 17-23 years. Out of this segment of population 2.6% are enrolled in institutions of higher education (UNESCO, 1996). According to Pakistan Statistical Year Book 2003, the total estimated enrollment of public sector universities during the academic session 2000-2001 was 126193.The number of female students was 37065. During the academic year 2001, 6048 teachers were serving the public sector universities of Pakistan. Among these 1315 were females (Govt. of Pakistan, 2003). Thus the public sector universities are mainly responsible for controlling the quality of higher education for a very large proportion of the students (Task Force Report, 2002).

According to the various documents that viewed the functioning of the universities in Pakistan, less than 2 per cent of its GNP is spent on education. A serious corollary of overstraining of educational facilities and of the lowering of standards is the growing indiscipline among students and the spread of violence on the campuses; student activism on campuses, a legacy from the days of the Pakistan movement, active interest of political parties in the students, instability of the political process in the country and easy availability of arms and ammunition have given it a diabolical turn (Ahmed, 1992).

University system in Pakistan is seriously ill, and even on the scale of expectations for other Third World universities (India, Iran, Bangladesh, etc), the situation is quite abnormal; student indiscipline is out of control, shooting and campus murder cause the exams to be frequently pushed off to new dates. Scientific research is carried out in very few university departments in the country, and serious discussions of philosophic, social, or political issues are rare. Awan (1994) criticizes the functioning of Pakistani universities in the following words:

> Like the traditional religious institutions of learning, modern universities in Pakistan have primarily performed a conservative role of transmitting the existing stock of knowledge through rot. The output of university scholars in terms of standards scholarly work remains low. Pakistani universities have also not provided with a stimulating environment for intellectual fermentation and debate.

The American intelligence agency CIA has reported that people at universities in Pakistan have no interest in research (Michel, 1986). At our universities there is a greater stress on teaching and it is research as such which is neglected (Kalim, 1978). All Pakistani universities annually award almost 25 Ph.D.degrees in the field of science while Indian universities produce 2500 PhDs every year. *The number of universities, which have been awarding Ph.D. in social sciences and humanities, is only 13 or 28 percent. The number of Ph.D. degrees obtained in last ten years (1992-2002) in social sciences and humanities is only 536. A further break up of these figures shows that about two third of the degrees that is 346 PhDs are in humanities majority being in languages and only less than half that is 191 or 36 percent are in all social sciences put together.* Universities are increasingly being considered 'non- productive' at policy-making levels.

The Sharif Commission report (1959) is considered very comprehensive document in the educational history of Pakistan. The Commission observed that for long period during the year our universities virtually cease to function. University work is too often a per functionary routine. The 1970 Education Policy noted that the aspect of university life pertaining to the advancement of knowledge is singularly weak in Pakistan and seriously affects the quality of education available in our colleges and universities. Education Policy 1998-2010 noted that only a few institutions of the country have post graduate study and research programmes that measure up to international standards. In social sciences and humanities the condition is far from satisfactory. The University Grants Commission Study Group on the improvement of education and research in universities (1975), Khawaja (1994) and Aslam (1999) has found that the standard of teaching and research of universities in Pakistan is under deterioration.

The former Secretary UGC Pakistan has mentioned that the Pakistani universities have not even started to pick up instruction and research in prospective disciplines on which the future industrial and economic growth of the country can develop. No single research journal is published regularly on education in the country (Shabab, 1995). Ahmed (2000), the former Vice Chancellor of the University of Karachi has remarked that to make a fundamental change in the learning culture of educational institutions of higher learning, to be able to reach those who

are not part of education cycle, and to make education socially, vocationally and professionally relevant, quality in the education system is the key factor.

The Public Service Commission reports marked the quality of the university graduates in Pakistan from time to time. Performance of the candidates who appeared in CSS examination 1999 was evaluated with respect to the universities from where they qualified. The analysis indicates that 84% of the candidates who appeared were qualified from general universities. At the stage of final selection the ratio of the candidates qualified from University of the Punjab was 33%, followed by University of Peshawar 11% and Quaid-e-Azam University 9% (Federal Public Service Commission Report, 2000). It was becoming difficult for the Commission to find adequate number of suitable candidates for some highly technical/professional jobs despite larger number of candidates every year. During the year 2000, '69' such posts were reported dropped due to non-availability of candidates. The Commission has also observed during the interviews that the candidates with first class Master's degrees in different disciplines lacked even the basic and essential knowledge of their specialization (Federal Public Service Commission Report, 2001).

Pakistan is a developing country of 150 million people (Government of Pakistan, 2005). In the annual Index of economic freedom conducted by Heritage Foundation and the Wall Street Journal, it has been included among 10 of the 155 countries whose performance in the higher education field has worsened during 2004. It is now bracketed with Ethiopia, Uganda, Haiti, Bangladesh, Morocco, Qatar, Cuba and Tunisia (The daily Dawn, Feb., 8, 2005).

Higher education system in Pakistan is now confronted by a myriad of problems, which affects its quality. While it is acknowledged that the low competence level of faculty, decreasing standard of students' intake and lack of up to date curricula are the reasons most often cited for this dissatisfaction.

The World University ranking published in the Time Higher Education Supplement (Nov. 5, 2004) indicates that none of the university in Pakistan meets international standard. Majority (70%) of university

teachers are not academically up to the mark (Rehman, 2005a). They are more concerned with money and promotions than research, teaching or bringing their knowledge to bear on the myriad issues facing our society.Among students there is a lack of interest in minuscule intellectual or creative activity (The daily Dawn, Jan., 3, 2005). The report of the Task Force on the Improvement of Higher Education in Pakistan (2002) has concluded that the institutions of higher learning in Pakistan are at minimal state of operation.

As per HEC website information, in Pakistan the higher education facilities are available to 2.6% of the relevant age group. According to Rehman (2005), it has been planned to double these facilities within the next five years. For this purpose, the government is putting decent amount of money into this particular field. The higher education budget has already been increased by 12 times of the previous allocation and the planning for further increase is also in progress (Rehman, 2005a). As per HEC website information at present, 60 public sector universities are working in the country. Moreover, 57 universities and degree-awarding institutions of private sector are also preparing youth for different walks of life. Several new universities have been set up and many postgraduate colleges have also been given degree-awarding status in the recent years.

The staff development plans have been launched for university teachers. Under these plans, thousands of scholars are being awarded both indigenous and foreign scholarships. In addition to that, Post Doc research facilities are also made available for the university teachers. The services of some well-reputed scholars and professors working abroad are also being hired for public sector universities in the country with the expectation that both the teachers and the students will share their expertise in the fields of teaching and research. A competitive, handsome salary package has been introduced for university teachers. Now a university professor can get as much salary as Rs 1,34, 000 (Rehman, 2005a). The HEC is supporting universities to establish staff exchange links with the well-reputed international universities. In-service training courses are also in progress for university teachers. There is a considerable increase in the funding for research. The government is generously funding research projects of social and national significance. During academic year 2004-05, over 500 research proposals were received out of which 129 were selected for financial assistance to

maximum of Rs 2 million each (The daily Dawn, Jan., 7,2005). An ample amount has been allocated for the supply of academic resources to the universities. The HEC has purchased rights for the online access to 1700 significant international research journals. Universities are authorized to use these sources of literature (Rehman, 2005b). A mega project is in operation to provide Internet facilities to the universities. The institutions of higher learning are being inter-linked electronically with both national and international universities. As per HEC website information, 59 universities have been so far connected through fiber and radio links. More emphasis is laid on providing IT facilities to the universities.

Future Perspective of University

Looking at the present position, has proposed an innovative model for university organization. This model is based upon problem areas rather than the traditional departmental structure. It seems evident that the future universities will become 'clicks and mortar' institutions, structured more like virtual universities', expanding their market reach and operating more like business (Latchem and Hanna, 2001). Poole (2000) has reported that the Association of Common Wealth Universities envisages four possible scenarios for the future university:

1. The invaders triumph. Higher education will become a global big business dominated by a few players.
2. The Trojan horse. Universities will seek outside international partners, offering services such as international degrees.
3. Community champions. A wide range of educational services will widely be available through community hubs.
4. Explorers' international. Educational service providers will be a university business/ hybrid.

The emergence of a number of pan-global open learning systems, for the coming years, not necessarily funded from the public purse, but led by entrepreneurs with a vision of global developments, a desire to reduce unhealthy disparities among people and nations and a willingness to strive for mutual respect, trust, and benefit. Chapman (1999) forecasted that within 20 coming years all universities will be universal or nearly so, entered and re-entered at multipoint in people's lives, international in focus and delivery and robust in their quality standards. None will receive anything like the current levels taxpayer support. Some will be

high cost, high price, and high status providers. Some will deliver a few unique or particularly outstanding programmes globally. Others will organize their programmes to meet rising students expectations of convenience-focused delivery and reduce input costs per graduate to be price competitive. Yet others will develop strategic partnerships to share up weakness in their programmes and services. All will need to shed time honored assumptions and practices. None will be able to ignore the external imperatives, not even those currently at the top of the pyramid.

There may be three scenarios for the academic work place in 2030. One scenario is the sub academics in a brokage which buys and sells academic products using actualized contract home working hands that might once have been regular academics. Another product the late twentieth century academic as the mentor, more of a counselor and guidance officer than a course teacher, creatively serving clusters of a hundred or two hundred students across what ever courses they are taking, much as some supervisors of mature and mid career research students operate across disciplinary boundaries today. The third characterization is as meaning maker - tomorrow's elders. This, she suggests, is an emerging role that will continue to grow throughout the twenty first century.

As per information of the research group of Netherlands website, the salient features of the 21st century University are:

a- The massive introduction of interactive-information processing and communication technologies will play an important role in the human relations and communication systems of university.
b- The university will be transformed from a passive, static, closed knowledge reproducing organization into an active, dynamic, open knowledge producing work place.
c- The social-psychological need for dialogue, face-to-face contact and place bound regional common identity will be reflected in the physical plan.
d- The plasticity of space will offer the opportunities for random contacts between members of diverse specialized disciplines, and introduce recombination, mutation of ideas and value learning in between.
e- The plan will contain the hierarchy between the collective and private use without interrupting the proposed interaction.

f- The new life style of the university will be involving higher mix, mobility and flexibility of work, leisure and culture.

Findings

An ideal picture of the 21st Century University can be drawn in the light of the foregoing concepts. Looking at the rapidly changing situation of the globe the concept of the research group of Netherland website seems more comprehensive and appropriate as it deals with the major aspects of the social life in future. As far as the other models specially distance mode of learning are concerned, the learners may loose their peers that seem to be a powerful source of cooperative learning. In a problem based model the complete shift from departmental structure to problem-based organization will have to be made in order to retain the university position on the cutting edge of creativity that also seems more or less impracticable. The scenarios of the future university as given by the Association of the Common Wealth Universities may transform the university education into a private business that will limit higher education to the privilege class. Keeping in view the future situation of the university education in Pakistan the concept of the website of the Netherland group also seems appropriate for the university education of the country.

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Differences in the Achievement Goals of the Students Studying in Annual and Semester Systems

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Abstract

The present study aimed at exploring the differences in the Achievement Goals of students studying in Annual and Semester Educational Systems. A sample of 800 students (400 from Annual System and 400 from semester system) with age range between 20 – 25 years was approached at different departments of Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan. Achievement Goals Scale (Elliot & McGregor, 2001) was administered to the sample. Statistical analysis showed that the students of annual system prefer mastery goals while the students of semester system prefer the performance goals. Results further suggested that the students of annual system have the mastery-avoidance goals and performance-approach goals and the students of semester system have the mastery-approach goals and performance-avoidance goals. Gender differences have also been found in the present study.

Introduction

A key to learning motivation is learner awareness of the "degree to which learning tasks stimulate and/or are related to student interests, level of student control and choice that is encouraged, necessary skill development that is fostered, and resource and social support that is provided. McCombs adds that motivation becomes a sensitive issue-in situations where "learners (a) are asked to learn something that does not particularly interest them; (b) have little or no control or choice; (c) lack the personal skills or resources needed to be successful; or (d) lack adequate external supports and resources (McCombs & Marzano, 1990).

Murray (1983) describe the need for achievement as" the desire to accomplish something difficult, to master, manipulate or organized, to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard, to excel one's self[1] investigators divide achievement motivation into three relative motives, a desire to work hard and do a good job, a desire to obtain sense of mastery over difficult tasks, and desire to complete against and better than others.

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Achievement is not only determined by how we account for performances after the fact, but also by the goals we set for ourselves at the outset. Researchers refer to these aspirations as achievement goals (Ames, 1992; Archer, 1994; Dweck, 1986; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Urban, 1997). Achievement goals provide targets that individuals aspire to in achievement situations. For example, one person might be motivated to win the salesperson-of-the-month award. Another person might set a goal of playing a difficult piece of music on the piano.

Although terminology and classification schemes vary, most investigators divide achievement goals into two broad categories: mastery goals and performance goals (Ames & Archer, l988). Mastery goals are concerned with developing competence. . Students motivated by a strong mastery goal will work hard to learn the subject matter in a course. Satisfaction comes from feeling they understand the material and a sense of proficiency. Performance goals are concerned with demonstrating accomplishments to others. Students motivated by strong performance goals want to obtain a high grade, possibly the highest grade in the class. Satisfaction comes from receiving the recognition that accompanies the achievement. In the typical classroom, we can usually find two students who work equally hard preparing for tests and completing assignments, and who achieve similar grades, yet who are motivated by very different goals. One achieving student wants to learn the material and relishes the sensation of overcoming challenges to obtain a sense of competence. The other determines what is needed for a good grade and arranges his or her study time to get the desired grade.

But people aren't just motivated to succeed in an achievement situation. Occasionally, they are more concerned about not failing. Thus, psychologists sometimes find it useful to draw a distinction between approach goals and avoidance goals (Elliot & McGregor, 2001) mastery and performance into approach and avoidance categories, we create a 2 by 2 model of achievement goals. Within this framework, students trying to learn difficult material (mastery goal) can be motivated either by a desire to achieve a sense of mastery (approach) or by a wish to not feel incompetent (avoidance). Similarly, Students who rely on performance goals might be motivated to gain recognition for their accomplishments or to avoid the embarrassment of a poor performance.Because achievement motivation has important implications in education, business, and many other areas of our lives, psychologists have asked whether some achievement goals are more effective than others. Is it

better for students to focus on learning the material or obtaining a good grade? Can teachers alter assignments and grading policies or should business managers change the way they evaluate and reward employees to improve learning and productivity? Although both mastery and performance goals motivate people to achieve, investigators often find differences between people who seek competence and those who focus on recognition.

Most of the research on this question has compared the effects of mastery and performance goals (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Urdan, 1997). Psychologists find that students using mastery goals often choose more challenging tasks and are more interested in their classes than students who rely on performance goals. When given the choice between two assignments, mastery-oriented students are likely to select the one they are more curious about, whereas students relying on performance goals ask which will lead to a better grade. A student interested in learning the material is unlikely to ask, "Will this be on the test?" (Urban, 1997)

People motivated by mastery goals are likely to retain the information and skills they learn longer than those driven by performance goals (Elliot & Mc-Gregor, 1999). A piano student whose goal is to master a difficult concerto is likely to remember the piece longer than the student who simply wants to sound good at the recital. Similarly, people motivated by mastery goals often continue their interest in the material after the recognition for achievement is gone (Rawsthorne & Elliot, 1999). The student who reads Charles Dickens with the goal of obtaining a deeper appreciation for fine literature is more likely to read good books during the summer than the student who reads Dickens only to do well on the exam.

This is not to say reliance on performance goals is all bad. Both mastery and performance goals can lead to achievement and it is possible to aspire to both a sense of mastery and recognition for accomplishments (Ames & Archer, 1988; Harackiewicz, et. al, 1997). Moreover, there is some evidence that a combination of mastery and performance goals can be particularly effective (Barren & Harackiewicz, 2001; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1998). Whether mastery or performance goals are preferable probably depends on the kind of task and what the individual hopes to get out of it.

It is evident from the review of literature that achievement goals provide targets that individuals aspire to in achievement situations. There are two

types of achievement goals, mastery and performance goals. Some students have the ability that they have the mastery goals and some students achieve performance goals. In both types of systems some students have both types of goals. Those students who have mastery goals they want to learn or try more complicated things. They are included in the mastery approach. But there are also some students who do not want to learn difficult things, they think that they cannot learn it they avoid it, these people are included in the mastery avoidance. Those students who achieve success than those who are more motivated to achieve success for this purpose they do work hard to get satisfaction because achievement motivation has important implications in education and other aspects of life. They get satisfaction with the success. Mastery students choose mastery goals and this thing is mostly found in the students of annual system because they take everything in a stingy manner and choose mastery goals in which they take challenging tasks than the semester system students. But semester system students choose performance goals because performance goals are only concerned with demonstrating accomplishments to others (Barren & Harackiewicz, 2001).

Those students who have mastery goals, are more likely to retain the information and learn more skills longer than those students who choose performance goals. People motivated by mastery goals often continue their interest in the material after the reorganization for achievement is gone. This is not all that the performance goal is all bad. Both mastery and performance goals can lead to achievement. The combination of mastery and performance goals can be particularly effective (Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1998).

Most achievement goal theorists conceptualize both performance and mastery goals as the "approach" forms of motivation. Existing classical achievement motivation theorists claimed that activities are emphasized and oriented toward attaining success or avoiding failure, while the achievement goal theorists focused on their approach aspect. More recently, an integrated achievement goal conceptualization was proposed that includes both modern performance and mastery theories with the standard approach and avoidance features. In this basis for motivation, the performance goal is separated into an independent approach component and avoidance component, and three achievement orientations are conceived: a mastery goal focused on the development of

competence and task mastery, a performance-approach goal directed toward the attainment of favorable judgments of competence, and a performance-avoidance goal centered on avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. The mastery and performance-approach goals are characterized as self-regulating to promote potential positive outcomes and processes to absorb an individual in their task or to create excitement leading to a mastery pattern of achievement results. Performance-avoidance goals, however, are characterized as promoting negative circumstances. This avoidance orientation creates anxiety, task distraction, and a pattern of helpless achievement outcomes. Intrinsic motivation, which is the enjoyment of and interest in an activity for its own sake, plays a role in achievement outcomes as well. Performance-avoidance goals undermined intrinsic motivation while both mastery and performance-approach goals helped to increase it (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Other investigators find that men and women differ in the way they define success (Gaeddert, 1985). Men in our society are more likely to see success in terms of external standards and are extrinsically motivated, such as gaining prestige or recognition for accomplishments. In contrast, women are more likely to rely on internal definitions of success, and intrinsically motivated such as whether they accomplished what they set out to do. It implies that both men and women seek accomplishment in their goals but the difference lie in a sense that men see success in tangible rewards while women rely on intangible success. It may be because of differences in gender-role socialization men and women may differ on the kinds of achievement they value and where achievement falls among their personal goals. Thus, when comparing men and women in achievement settings, psychologists must be careful that they shouldn't automatically apply standards of success based only on traditional male achievement definitions.

Keeping in mind the importance of the achievement goals, the present study aims to find out the differences in achievement goals in students studying in annual and semester system. Most especially the present research has been planed to check either student have mastery goals or performance goal. To achieve these objectives it was hypothesized that students of semester system will show more performance goals while the students of annual system will have the mastery goals. It was also

hypothesized that men and women will have the different preferences when set their achievement goals.

Method

Participants

The sample was consisted of 800 students; 400 from Annual System (200 males and 200 females) and 400 from semester system (200 males and 200 females) with age range between 20 – 25 years. Sample was randomly selected from the different departments of Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan.

Instrument

The following instrument was used to achieve the objectives of present study.

Achievement Goal *Scale*

Achievement Goals scale (AGS) developed by Elliot and MC Gregor (2001) is 7- point self report scales designed to measure the types of Achievement Goals. It is a 12 Item scale. The scale provides a score for each of the following four kinds of achievement goals. Add the following answer values to obtain the score.

Mastery_ Approach goal (item 3, 7 and 11)
Mastery – Avoidance goals (item 2, 6 and 10)
Performance – Approach goals (item 1, 5 and 9)
Performance – Avoidance goals (item 4, 8 and 12)

Procedure

All the participants were selected randomly from the different departments of Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan. AGS was administered to the students of Annual and Semester system. They were guided how to respond the questionnaire and the purpose of the study was told to them. After the completion of data collection, the whole information was statistically analyzed.

Results

Using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), *t*-test was used to investigate the significance of differences in the achievement Goals between scores of students of annual and semester systems

Table- 1

Differences in the Scores of Students of Annual and Semester System on the Mastery and Performance Achievement Goals (N =800)

Scales	Annual System (*N*=400)		Semester System (*N*=400)			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Mastery Goals	18.09	6.30	16.05	4.46	1.12	0.04*
Performance Goals	14.95	4.72	17.01	5.75	1.26	0.03*

df. = 798, *$p < 0.05$

Table 1 indicates the significant differences between the students of semester system and annual system in terms of their mastery and achievement goals. Results suggest that annual system students show mastery goals while the students of semester system prefer the performance goals.

Table- 2

Differences in the Scores of Students of Annual and Semester System on the subscales of AGS (N =800)

Scales	Annual System (*N*=400)		Semester System (*N*=400)			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Mastery_ Approach Goals	13.05	4.10	10.09	2.56	1.32	0.04*
Mastery – Avoidance Goals	18.14	2.39	14.81	4.52	2.35	0.004**
Performance – Approach Goals	11.01	5.72	15.95	6.75	1.26	0.038*
Performance – Avoidance Goals	14.04	4.55	16.81	3.37	1.42	0.026*

df. = 798, **$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$

Results depicted in Table 2 shows the statistically significant differences in the types of achievement goals adopted by the students. Findings indicated that the students of annual system have the mastery- approach and avoidance goals and while the students of semester system have the performance--approach goals and performance-avoidance goals.

Table- 3

Gender Differences in the Scores of Students on the subscales of AGS (N =800)

Scales	Males (*N*=400)		Females (*N*=400)			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*P*
Mastery_ Approach Goals	12.05	3.30	17.03	5.46	1.12	0.04*
Mastery – Avoidance Goals	14.11	2.39	17.31	5.42	2.35	0.03*
Performance – Approach Goals	15.95	11.72	11.01	6.75	1.26	0.03*
Performance – Avoidance Goals	16.81	14.55	13.04	3.37	1.42	0.02*

df. = 798, *$p < 0.05$

As for as the results are concerned regarding gender differences, Table 3 shows the statistically significant differences in achievement goals. Findings indicated that the female students prefer the mastery-approach goals and mastery-avoidance goals as compared to the male students, while the male students are more oriented toward performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals as compared to the female students.

Discussion

The achievement motive consists of two major components or desires: the desire to excel and the desire to avoid failure. Individuals who desire to excel may think of outperforming others or mastering a task. Hence, a new conceptualization of motivation has emerged. The new

conceptualization treats performance and mastery goals as approach forms of motivation (Ames, 1992; Elliot & Church, 1997).

Achievements Goals provide targets that individual aspire to in achievement situations. The present study provides valuable information about the achievement goals in students. As investigators divide achievement goals into two broad categories; mastery and performance goals, the objective of the study was to explore the students describe their achievement goals and to investigate the achievement orientations among mastery and performance goals for students (Ames & Archer, l988).

The main aim of this study was to identify the students motivated by strong mastery and performance (approach and avoidance) goals. Mastery approach goals focus on the desire to master a task and the development of competence .whereas mastery avoidance goals focus on to not feel incompetent. Performance approach goals reflect a competitive orientation that focuses on being judged favorably relative to other people whereas performance avoidance goals center on avoiding negative judgments (Ames & Archer, l988).

The first hypothesis of the study, which sates that students of annual system will show more mastery goals while the students of semester system will show performance goals, has been supported by the findings of present research. As mastery goals are concerned with developing competence, the students of annual system motivated by a strong mastery goal work hard to learn the subject matter in a course. Satisfaction comes from feeling they understand the material and a sense of proficiency. As performance goals are concerned with demonstrating accomplishments to others, students of semester system motivated by strong performance goals want to obtain a high grade, possibly the highest grade in the class. Satisfaction comes from receiving the recognition that accompanies the achievement.It was also noticed that the students of annual system are oriented toward mastery-approach goals as compared to the students of semester system. It means they are motivated to gain competency in their work. Some students of annual system have the mastery-avoidance goals as well. It implies that they have a wish to not feel incompetent. Students of annual system work only for the sake of negative feelings of to be failure.

They just want their self-esteem high and work hard to get it. It means they are motivated to gain recognition for their accomplishments.

This may have been noticed that much of the early work on need for Achievement was conducted with men participants. There are reasons for this. When this research was initiated in the 1950s, relatively few women entered the business world and even fewer had opportunities to advance into high managerial positions. Because the investigators were concerned with entrepreneurs, it was reasonable to limit their studies to men. Obviously, things have changed quite a bit since then. As career aspirations and opportunities for women changed, researchers found a comparable increase in need for Achievement among women college students (Veroff, et al, 1980). As with men, a high need for Achievement predicts success in the business world for women. In one study, need for Achievement scores taken from female college students predicted job choice and job characteristics 14 years later (Jenkins, 1987).

Although need for Achievement predicts success in the business world for both genders, research suggests that many other variables come into play when comparing the achievement behavior of men and women. For example, some researchers find that men and women differ in the values that they assign to achievement tasks (Eccles, 1985). That is, because of differences in gender-role socialization men and women may differ on the kinds of achievement they value and where achievement falls among their personal goals. In some cases, women value achievement but may put the welfare of other people ahead of their own accomplishments. We see examples of this in women who sometimes make sacrifices for their family rather than pursue career goals. Thus, rather than ask why women don't always act like men in achievement settings, a better question might be why men and women sometimes make different choices in such settings (Eccles, 1985). Gender differences have been found for performance and mastery (Approach-Avoidance) goals. It implies that female students work hard to gain full command in their subject matter while male students work hard only to gain recognition for their accomplishments.

Conclusion

Students of annual system showed mastery goals while the students of semester system prefer the performance goals.

1. The students of annual system have the mastery-approach and avoidance goals and the students of semester system have the performance-approach and avoidance goals.

2. Gender differences have also been found in the present study.

Limitations *& Suggestions*

This investigation had some limitations. Therefore it relied on a convenience sample taken from the Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan, the findings therefore can not be generalized specially to the other institutes that have totally different social background. The study may well be replicated in other institutes and in other settings, exploring some more variables which could be associated with achievement goals e.g. education level, age, rural vs urban, and socio economic class.

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Capacity Building of District Education Officers in Educational Planning, Implementation and Community Participation

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Abstract

UNESCO in collaboration with the Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM) has initiated a pilot project titled "Capacity Building of District Education Officers in Educational Planning, Implementation and Community Participation". Main objectives of the project were to enable the trainees to meet new challenges, effective planning and implementing EFA initiatives in their jurisdiction, and mobilize local communities for their active participation in educational decision making.The prime concern of the present article is to evaluate the project in terms of capacity building of the district education officers in educational planning, implementation, and community participation. The Executive District Officers (EDOs), District Education Officers (DEOs), Deputy District Education Officers (DDEOs) and Heads of the Secondary Schools within 10 sampled districts of four provinces of Pakistan constituted population for this study. 25master trainers and 80 trainees trained under this project from Punjab, Sindh and NWFP were drawn as sample. To what extent the project has been successful in the capacity building of district education officers in educational planning, implementation and community participation was the main research question of the study? Data were collected through the in person administration of questionnaires to district education officers trained under the project and the master trainers of AEPAM, Islamabad and PITEs of the country

Introduction

Pakistan is striving hard to achieving Education for All (EFA) goals by 2015, but the present pace of achievements in this regards is not satisfactory. The present Government has prepared a National Plan of Action (2001-2015) for EFA. The country is facing a lot of problems in gaining momentum to achieve its targets within the stipulated time

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period. Lack of involvement of community in decision making, ineffective management and inadequate capacity of utilization of resources available for education at district level are considered some of the reasons for low implementation rate in the country. In this context recent reforms regarding educational decision making has been decentralized from the provincial level to district level.

UNESCO in collaboration with the Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM) has initiated a pilot project titled "Capacity Building of District Education Officers in Educational Planning, Implementation and Community Participation". The Project aims to train district and sub-district level educational administrators, planners and local supervisors in their related jobs and assignments.

Objectives of the Project

According to the project proposal (Revised version 2006) the main objectives of the project were to:

i. Enable the trainees to meet new challenges, effectively plan and implement EFA initiatives in their jurisdictions and mobilize local communities for their active participation in educational decision making.
ii. Contribute in improving efficiency and output of the district level officials, and facilitate in increasing access and quality of education.

Institutional Framework and Strategy

Before Devolution of authority during 2001, provinces had the mandate for planning, financing and administration of education. Many of these tasks have been decentralized to district government under devolution plan. At the federal level, AEPAM is only national level training institution offering training courses on various aspects of planning, implementation and monitoring of educational programmes in the country. At provincial level Provincial Institutes of Teacher Education (PITEs) and a number of teacher training colleges are providing pre-service and in-service training to school teachers. During 2004-05, UNESCO worked with the PITEs for organizing capacity building workshops for district level managers and school principals. Training of educational planners and administrators was a new idea for PITEs. However, these institutions made a good progress to undertake this

challenge. There are about 125 districts in Pakistan and an estimated 1500 to 2000 educational managers of various grades and levels are working in these districts. Area approach was adopted by the project. It implies that trainees should represent all provinces of the country. UNESCO in consultation with the Ministry of Education, provincial governments and other stakeholders selected 10 districts for this project.

Project Coordination

The project was planned and executed in collaboration with the following:

i. UNESCO Office Islamabad.
ii. Policy and Planning Wing, Ministry of Education, Islamabad.
iii. Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM), Ministry of Education, Islamabad.
iv. Educational Planning and Management (EPM) Department, Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU), Islamabad.
v. Project Wing, Ministry of Education, Islamabad.
vi. Curriculum Wing, Ministry of Education, Islamabad.
vii. Federal College of Education, Islamabad.
viii. Pakistan National Commission for UNESCO.
ix. Provincial Departments of Education and Literacy.
x. Provincial Institutes of Teacher Education (PITEs).

AEPAM was the principal implementation partner at federal level and PITEs assumed the responsibility of providing training to educational managers in their related provinces. UNESCO International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP) shared their experiences in the material development, organization of workshops and training of educational personnel, especially the trainer masters. EPM department AIOU contributed to develop training modules for the trainers and trainees.

Target Beneficiaries

Table1 depicts the categories of the district education personnel were the target beneficiaries of the project:

Table 1

Target Beneficiaries of the Project

Sr. No.	**Position**	**Number**
i.	Executive District Officers (Education)	25
ii.	District Education Officers	50
iii.	Deputy DEOs/Assistant DEOs	155
iv.	Master Trainers	30
	Total	**260**

The devolution exercise was being undertaken in the country, which was traditionally centralized regarding educational decision making, right from its creation from British India. The centuries old setup specially that involving bureaucratic machinery was being revamped by decentralization of educational decision making from province to district level by the present military government in 2000. All these factors called for a scrutiny of the whole exercise in order to find out problems, draw lessons and offer corrective policy recommendations.

Monitoring of the Project

The following mechanism was adopted for continuous and regular monitoring of the project:

Project Steering/Advisory Committee

The main functions of the Steering Committee were to evolve recommendations for the training, curriculum and extend support and guidance for the implementation of the project. For this purpose a committee was constituted of the following:

i. Joint Educational Adviser (JEA) Policy and Planning Wing, Ministry of Education, Islamabad.
Chairperson
ii. Director General AEPAM Ministry of Education
Member

iii. Director, Directorate of Staff Development Lahore
Member
iv. Directors PITEs, Punjab, Sindh, NWFP, and Balochistan
Members
v. Pakistan National Commission for UNESCO
Member
vi. UNESCO Islamabad
Member
vii. Project Coordinator
Secretary

Field Visits

It was the responsibility of the UNESCO staff to undertake field visits to monitor the project activities by meeting concerned implementation partners and visiting training sites. They were assigned the duty to ensure the proper functioning of training courses organized by the stakeholders in their related provinces.

Evaluation Studies

Two evaluation studies were envisaged to ascertain reliable information about the pace and impact of the project implementation. First was the mid-term (Formative) and the second was the Final (Summative Evaluation). Findings of the Formative were to be used for improvement of the implementation strategy and to overcome deficiencies, if any. The final or Summative evaluation was designed to assess the impact of the project after completion of the project.

Statement of the Problems

In Pakistan education is mainly the responsibility of provinces. Some of the educational institutions are also run by the Federal Government. Despite concerted efforts by different governments, the country is still facing problems in providing education at school level for its ever growing population and needs of the society. The present military regime has introduced devolution of power plan to decentralize the education from provincial to district level. Under this plan all educational decisions were to be made at local level. It was expected that problems regarding provision of quality education, effective management, allocation and effective utilization of resources will be overcome. Due to lack of skills of district educational management in the field of planning,

implementation and rationale decision making in education have hampered efficient and effective management of education at district level in the country. Thus there was an urgent need to overcome these problems of district education officers. In this context, UNESCO in collaboration with AEPAM has initiated a pilot project titled "Capacity Building of District Education Officers in Educational Planning, Implementation and Community Participation". The Project aims to train district and sub-district level educational administrators, planners and local supervisors in their related jobs and assignments.

Present study was designed to assess the impact of the project in achieving its targets launched by AEPAM, Ministry of Education, Islamabad sponsored by UNESCO Office Islamabad.

Objectives of the Paper

The main objectives of the study were to:

i. evaluate the project in terms of capacity building of the targeted educational personnel.
ii. assess the level of covering the objectives of the project by contents of the course materials.
iii. appreciate the availability of AV aids and their utilization during the training.
iv. explore the extent of participation of the community in the project
v. make recommendations for further improvement of the project for capacity building of district educational officers.

Research questions, Design and Method

The design contains a description of the data required for the study, and instruments used for data collection from the respondents. The design of the data collection method is such as the information that is necessary to understand the responses of individuals involved in the study regarding the capacity building of educational personnel in educational planning, implementation and community participation in Pakistan. The research design of the study can be divided into two parts. The first part is based on the review of the literature on decentralization and devolution of

power plan in Pakistan. This review provided us with a deeper insight into various issues related to the devolution of power in Pakistan. The second part of the research design deals with the procedure adopted to collect data from the respondents with in the target areas. Following research questions were addressed in the study.

Main Research Question

To what extent the project has been successful in developing capacity building of district education officers in educational planning, implementation and community participation?

Sub-Questions

Following sub-questions were addressed leading to answer the main research question:

i. Were adequate academic facilities provided during the training courses?
ii. Were adequate physical facilities provided in the training courses?
iii. Were relevant AV aids available and fully utilized during the training?
iv. Did the monitoring teams visit the training venues regularly?
v. Were objectives of the training materials fully achieved during the training?
vi. Were master trainers fully trained and used proper teaching techniques?
vii. Did the training provided to trainees correspond to needs of their jobs?
viii. Did the trainees learn new concepts of educational planning and implementation in the training courses?
ix. Did the training provide an in-depth vision in the trainees trained under this project?
x. Were the trainees given chance to share their experiences and problems during the training courses?
xi. What problem areas, if any, the trainees faced after completion of the tainting courses?

Primary Data

The primary data for empirical work was collected through questionnaires. The primary sources were personnel directly involved in important functions like policy making, planning, implementation, and administration of education at district level in Pakistan. Respondents include E.D.Os, D.E.Os, Dy. D.E.Os, Asst. D.E.Os, and Heads of secondary schools of the 10 selected districts from all the provinces of Pakistan. In addition to this another sample was drawn from the Master Trainers involved in the training of trainees under the project. A survey was conducted to collect data from samples drawn from the population. The researcher collected data from 80 trainees and 25 Master Trainers respectively from four provinces of the country.

Secondary Data

Regarding the secondary data we extensively reviewed the literature on decentralization of powers and the devolution power plan in Pakistan. The secondary data mainly came from the analysis of official reports and documents (published/unpublished) by the government of Pakistan. Other secondary sources used critically examined were studies and reports, published and unpublished, by various international agencies, and by eminent scholars in this field were critically examined.

Research Instruments

Two separate questionnaires were developed one for district educational officers trained under the project and the other for the master trainers. There were two sections of each questionnaire. First part is related to personal information of the respondents and the second part focuses on provision of physical and academic facilities in the training courses, academic performance of master trainers, availability and use of AV aids and related equipments, conduct of training courses, and monitoring system etc

Rationale for Research Instruments

Questionnaire is a set of questions logically arranged in order to collect data from respondents. This tool was used to collect primary data from respondents because they were all educated enough to understand questions in the printed form. The other reasons for using questionnaires were the following:

i. Questionnaires as a tool for data collection is more appropriate than other methods when the respondents are more in number and widely dispersed.
ii. The use of questionnaires for the collection of data is relatively cheaper compared to other methods.
iii. Questionnaires can easily be coded and analyzed.
iv. Questionnaires are also convenient for respondents, because they can fill in questionnaires when they want and at the speed they want to go.
v. Maximum data can be collected through questionnaires in a short period of time, for example, data can be collected from group(s) at a time.

Improvement of the Tools

Before administering of the tools for data collection these were discussed with the senior academicians having expertise in the field of education. They were former and present faculty of Educational Planning and Management (EPM) faculty of Education AIOU, Islamabad. The questionnaires were refined in the light of the feedback from the educational experts.

Population

As discussed earlier in chapter 1, all E.D.Os, D.E.Os, Deputy D.E.Os, Asst. D.E.Os and Heads of the secondary schools within the 10 sampled districts out of four provinces of Pakistan constituted population for this study. The number of population was 230 district educational officers and 30 Master Trainers.

Sample

According to the agreement researcher was supposed to draw a sample of 10 trainees and 4 master trainers from each province. However, for making the sample more representative and authentic for generalization of results, researcher selected 80 trainees and 25 master trainers from Punjab, Sindh, NWFP and Balochistan. This was done during the training courses they were attending. Master trainers were included Punjab, Sindh and NWFP. In the case of Balochistan efforts were made to include maximum number of trainees and trainer masters in the sample. However a sample of 5 master trainers and 10 trainees could be drawn for the study from Balochistan. The details of the sample are

presented in table 3.1.

Table 2

Breakup of the Sample for the Article by Provinces

Provi nce	Master Trainers	Trainees
Punjab	07	31
Sindh	04	26
NWFP	09	13
Balochistan	05	10
Total	**25**	**80**

Procedure for Data Collection

Data were collected through the distribution of questionnaires to district educational officers trained under the project and the master trainers of AEPAM, Islamabad and PITEs of the country. Data were collected from the respondents of Punjab, Sindh, and NWFP in person. However, the data were collected through personal contacts and mail from the respondents of Balochistan. It was due to high security risk and floody weather conditions in Balochistan during the period the survey was conducted for data collection.

The data collected from the respondents was analyzed and interpreted using the SPSS package at Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad. The analysis and interpretation of the data is presented in section 4 of the study. Before proceeding to the details of method adopted for collection of the data from respondents it seems to be logical to describe the population and samples for this study:

Findings

Summary of the findings based on the comparison of results from analysis of the data collected from the trainees and master trainers involved in the study is presented below:

1. It has been observed that about 94 percent trainees were from 36 to 60 years age group and 91.5 percent having teaching experience ranging from 11 to 30 years and above. It is also noted that a large majority (83 percent) of trainees had administrative experience from 1 to 20 years.

2. A significantly large majority (93.8 percent) of respondents had Master degree at their credit, whereas about 73 percent were holding Med degree.

3. 37.5 percent trainees included in the sample were female which reflects the tendency of the women lot towards teaching profession in Pakistan

4. Despite the fact that majority of respondents was aged and experienced, only 57.5 percent had received such training before the training imparted under the present project100 percent trainees and about 96 percent master trainers had received invitation letters for their respective training courses on time.

5. Results from trainees and master trainers' survey revealed that audio-visional aids and related equipment were available and properly utilized by MTs during the training. Results from trainees' survey indicated that 86 percent trainees and 97.5 percent MTs were provided study materials during the training.

6. 100 percent master trainers and about 94 percent trainees agreed that they were provided with proper seating facility during the training courses.

7. 92 percent master trainers and 100 percent trainees agreed that rooms were well lit during training hours.

8. 100 percent master trainers and about 89 percent trainees agreed that regular monitoring visits were paid by the UNESCO staff.

9. 96 percent master trainers and similarly 71.25 percent trainees agreed that monitoring teams asked about the problems faced by them during the training.

10. 88 percent master trainers and about 81 percent trainees agreed that MTs were well versed with subjects. It implies that the selection of master trainers was carefully made keeping their expertise in view.

11. Results from trainees' and master trainers' survey indicated that 86 percent trainees and 96 percent master trainers agreed that MTs focused their respective topics during the training.

12. Results from the survey identified that 100 percent master trainers and about 86 percent trainees agreed that MTs substantially helped the trainees in doing exercises during the training.

13. The survey indicated that 76 percent master trainers and 80 percent trainees agreed that MTs covered respective course contents during their sessions.

14. Results of the survey indicated that 96 percent master trainers and 72.50 percent trainees agreed that resource persons used appropriate teaching techniques making their sessions more useful.

15. 92 percent master trainers and 86 percent trainees agreed that the training met professional needs of trainees. Results of the survey indicated that almost same percentage of master trainers and trainees (i.e.88 percent) agreed that trainees were served ample opportunities to share their experiences during the training.

16. The survey confirmed, 84 percent master trainers and about 86 percent trainees agreed that objectives of the training were properly introduced to the trainees.

17. 92 percent master trainers and 87 percent trainees agreed that contents of the course materials comprehensively covered the objectives of the training.

Conclusions

The given conclusions are drawn from findings of the article:

1. The District Education Officers trained under the project were experienced, and were academically and professionally sound. However, it is interesting to note that only 57 percent had received training prior to the current training which implies that they had not been provided with opportunities of such training before.

2. The percentage (37.5) of female participation in the present study is quite encouraging which is higher than "overall active participation of females in economic activities at national level, i.e.15.93 percent". (Pakistan Economic Survey 2005-06; p.193), as referred earlier under finding 3, that teaching profession is priority option for females in Pakistan

3. The invitation letters were mailed in time to MTs and trainees through their related organizations.

4. Adequate arrangements for training courses were made at AEPAM and PITEs by providing the requisite facilities inclusive of appropriate rooms, seating arrangements, AV aids and related equipment. All these facilities were also properly utilized during the training.

5. Master Trainers were trained and prepared for the training. They employed effective teaching techniques and helped the trainees in doing practical exercises during the sessions. They debated emerging contemporary concepts of educational planning and management with the trainees in detail.

6. Trainees were inspired to share their experiences through comparison of the new and old systems of education in

Pakistan. This exercise served the trainees an insight to differentiate the two systems of educational planning and management in the country.

7. The content of the study materials provided during the training were effective to materialize objectives of the training.

8. Regular monitoring visits were made by the members of stakeholders to share and resolve problems faced during the training.

9. Precisely the trainees were satisfied with the training they received under the project, "Capacity Building of District Education Officers in Educational Planning, implementation and Community Participation". The success of the project very much depends on the effective application and adoption of the knowledge, skill and technique they learnt, in their working practices. This would be a subsequent phenomenon to be studied and assessed later.

Observations of Respondents

The respondents offered substantial suggestions to improve and enrich the design of the training in terms of content and conduct of training courses in future. According to them the following areas need more emphasis:-

1. Educational Planning, Management and Leadership skills.
2. Orientation of new financial and administrative rules and regulations.
3. Accommodation may be provided within the premises of PITEs where training is organized
4. Increase in duration of training.

5. Extended practicing exercises to be blended in the training. sessions.
6. Computer training needs to be an essential component for district education officers because a majority of them was computer illiterate.
7. Recent subject material on public relations be added in training modules.
8. Training in projection techniques and project formulation i.e. development of Planning Commission Proformas, especially PC1 - PC 4.
9. School related managerial problems.

Recommendations

The article leads to the given recommendations primarily based on observations made by the respondents, critical review of modules, and result of data analysis:

1. Activity oriented methodology shall be useful in improving the planning and management skills of the trainees. For the purpose expertise from AEPAM, Department of Educational Planning and Management AIOU and Planning Commission Islamabad may be involved.

2. Duration of the training be extended up to two weeks.

3. To make the training effective trainees be given assignments related to managerial problems faced by the district education officers in their working situations.

4. Recommended that trainees be provided accommodation within the premises of training institutions especially in PITEs to save the time and facilitate the training process.

5. Self Assessment Questions (SAQs) be added in all modules.

6. Modules provided to trainees are sketchy. Self explanatory modules be developed and provided to trainees to enable them to benefit from them at their working places later.

7. Updated financial and administrative rules and regulations, hard or soft copies be included in the training materials.

8. It has been observed that a significant majority of trainees were not trained in using computer in educational planning. A comprehensive training on the use of computer in educational planning and management may be arranged for district education officers in collaboration with Bureau of Computer Islamabad.

9. As the trainees commented adversely on the lecture based teaching the MTs need to use activity oriented teaching methodology.

10 A comparative study may be conducted to assess the level of impact of the training by comparing the job performance of the "Experimental Group" (educational officers who received training under the project) with the "Controlled Group" (those who did not receive such training). For this purpose follow up studies about the district educational officers who received training under the project may also be carried.

11 In summary the present project is rated as a success. 80 percent of the district education officers representing the population were less than 55 years and a majority of them did not receive such training. Thus it is safely recommended that the project may be launched all over

Pakistan to benefit all district education officers at national level.

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Use of Video in Farmers Training

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Abstract

Increasing agricultural productivity is a priority task for most developing nations. Limited resources and mounting population pressures make it essential to concentrate in the years and decades ahead on increasing agricultural production. Training has been identified as the most critical input in this endeavor. Farmers need to be trained at suitable intervals to keep pace with ever-advancing technologies in their interest areas, viz. crops, live stocks, fisheries, etc. Effort has been made in this paper to highlight the use of video in farmers' training.

Introduction

Philip Foster, et. al. (2001, pp.37 – 38) has given two views. One assumes farmers to be "essentially rational economic men who will take advantage of opportunities to better themselves economically. In this view farmers respond to clear and dependable evidence of new market opportunities by measuring or diversifying production. The second point contends that farmers must first be reoriented in their outlook on life so that they become development minded." However, training of farmers is necessary for national development.

The history of farmers' training in the country speaks of the casual manner in which training as a field of endeavor has been treated in the past. It was in 1960, when a Village Aid program was started by the Government of Pakistan to provide training and education to the rural population. The farmers were provided with the training in techniques of harvesting their crops i.e. seeds quality, using of fertilizers and pesticides.

Looking at the large rural population and their need for continuous training the existing infrastructure of training seems to be inadequate. There is very little scope of expanding it radically in the near future.

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Thus, there is an urgent need to consider various approaches to help multiply the training capability of these institutions without losing quality. Some non-government organizations and the Allama Iqbal Open University started farmers training program through its non formal approach, Integrated Functional Education (IFE) program was launched in the years 1975 to 1980. Later on, FEPRA (Functional Educational Program for Rural Areas was launched in 1980. The program proved to be successful. The technique was used through audio cassettes with the help of group leader who clarified the important aspects of the information provided in the audio cassettes.

It is in this context that use of video, a new communication technology, can be considered for increasing effectiveness of farmers' training. Video enhances training by visualizing verbal message with notion and color and standardizes information. When used properly, video adds another dimension to training sessions by providing farmers with a visual picture of new techniques (Alison. 1986). Video with its unique feature of quality audio-visual recording, instant playback and ease in handling is quite amenable to training and education. There is growing interest in the use of video for information delivery and training under reorganized agricultural extension efforts in the country. The first generation of extension workers using video for training and information communication, are already in the field, having undergone quick 'nuts and bolts' training in software production at selected state Agricultural Universities particularly Faisalabad and Jamshoro. Personal interactions with some of them revealed that most frequent use of video in training has been the screening of borrowed films mostly as a supplementary activity in order to fill gap or provide diversion. The success of training depends much on the way in which the new medium is tied with the overall training objective. It is true that rural training has not been benefited by advances in instructional technologies. Hence, a systematic approach in production and utilization of video along with other support materials is seldom evident. There is a paucity of information and skill in instructional use of video for the rural clientele.

Use of Video in the Global Perspectives

In Tanzania, the majority of rural population is farmers so the Government of Tanzania placed main emphasis on rural development particularly on farmer training. So the training of farmers was started in

1969 in rural training centers (RTCs). The training was given in the subjects of general agriculture, farm management, agriculture and politics, dairy cattle animal husbandry, draught animals, crop husbandry, tractor driving soil conservation, soils and manures, the use of fertilizers, elements of environment hygiene and nutrition, rural development, marketing and the use of oxen and newly introduced tools. The facility proved to be successful. (Philip Foster, et, at. 2001, pp. 271–72) Like Senegal, the Rural Expansion Centers (CER) also providing such training to the adult farmers. The program is still running by CER successfully. (David Boud, et al. (1985, p.311).

In India, the Farmers Functional literacy program (FFLP) was started to impart relevant education including functional literacy to farmers in the high yielding variety areas. Its main aim was to achieve self-sufficiency in food through increased production and improved scientific knowledge and techniques of farm practices. (Rajani, R. Shirur, 1995, p.68). Various countries like Korea, Colombia, Kenya, Sri Lanka and Jamaica started programs to provide farm families with ancillary skills for home improvement and better farming, and for earning extra income through sideline activities (ILO, 1969, p.272).

Video - A New Training Tool

Video is a shiny new tool that can display pictures on television-type screen with playback facility. Proliferation *of* new electronic technologies has made it more compact, convenient and useful for educators. It is possible to demonstrate processes even complex and hard-to-see ones, through manipulation of time, space and motion. Thus, now it is easier than ever to show processes and operations with desired visual effect. Visual recording allows one to observe phenomena (even rare. out of season or dangerous ones) again and again. It is thus obvious that video can be a better choice if motion is critical to the lesson and demonstration of psychomotor skills required to manipulate objects and perform physical activities. In many cases where immediate visual feedback is essential to display learners' physical and verbal performance, video has an edge over other media. The standardized text arranged in sequence can be easily assessed and improved with use of video. Thus video can be used to teach recognition, rules and also principles as psychomotor skills. It is very useful for creating attitudes and emotions by using various techniques and effects.

Farmers' training is a challenging area of adult education requiring deeper understanding of the farmers' world of learning, choice of appropriate technologies and training intervention. Diversity in socio-psychological and personal background of learners creates difficulties for the training designers/ developers. While contents have to be tailored according to the needs of respective groups, communication support also needs to be considered accordingly. Moreover, paucity of experts and magnitude of the task demands thinking through the strategies of multiplying training efforts. This is where video-based training can be utilized. Since most of the lessons are to be repeated every year according to seasonal requirements, standardized text saves additional planning and presentation. Video-based training can be presented with or without a trainer. It may be used with the aid of trained farmers for teaching peer groups. Several other combinations may be thought of which will be discussed separately in an appropriate section later.

Video Lessons

Video lessons to become an integral part of training must be designed around the existing level and background of the learners. The socio-cultural context of the rural farmers presents unique learning situations, quite different from the world of trainers or technical experts (mostly urban-trained in sophisticated language, alien terms and used to class-room approach of teaching). It must be a challenging task to design lessons rooted in local rural context, native (or understandable language, appropriate pace, visually appealing and logically organized to emphasize critical concepts.) F.A-0. (1987, p.172) reported that production of video programs to train rural peasants in Mexico was done after a thorough analysis of the project area in close cooperation with local population and in accordance with local development plans. This becomes the basis for development of scripts and field recording. They found relevance of programs to local-felt needs as a much more decisive factor than audiovisual quality of the program to be effective for the farmers. Once a training video was prepared, it was used experimentally for a period of time to test it among the intended audience. Another video-based rural training project in Peru as highlighted by Anderson, R (1996. p.23), also emphasized on researching information and training needs of farmers before deciding which materials to produce. It tried to be sensitive to their cultural values and perceptions when planning and

producing the materials by involving farmers at all stages of planning and production. Thus, initial field investigations and consultations with farmers are necessary to determine the themes which can be best treated through video.

Traditional knowledge and practice of the farmers must be understood and analyzed well. Attitudes, beliefs, language, social norms, cultural factors and learning behavior should be studied. Notes should specially be taken about language, pace of commentary, types of visuals, and nature of reinforcement appropriate to the learners. The systematic and step-by-step, work *as* mentioned under will ensure compatibility of the video lesson with the target audience. Identification of target audience, their educational needs and socio-cultural context includes:

- A definition of production objective
- Choice of content and methods to meet the objectives
- Recording in the field
- Test prototype and modify
- Produce final program

Even though, precise norms of producing video for instructional use in rural setting are not available, trainers and educators *have* found that instructional video should not compete with commercial television (Heinick, et al. 1990). Schleger (1985) pointed that instructional video films need not be entertaining to teach skills. Are you showing it simply, Clearly and Slowly? Are you being thorough enough? Are you providing three passes at the information: once in introduction, again in body and finally in the summary? Torrence (1985) reported that training through video is most effective when it is part of a sequence of well-planned and structured learning activities focused on a recognized problem. On the basis of several studies he reported that instruction in perceptual motor skills should be presented as they are seen through the eyes of the learner. Do not tell them, show them. Excessive artwork affects learning negatively. Learning is impaired when characters are unrealistic. Use of realistic models, sub-titles and reasonable use of repetitions improves learning through video.

Taking cues from the above findings it may be concluded that training through video must emphasize on utility as perceived by the learners than audio-visual quality as judged in commercial productions. However,

one must ensure minimum audibility and visibility levels without distractions. Realistic scenes of local people in local dialect can create favorable response with farmers. In some experiences with video, successful results of the neighboring farmers, real life recording by local inhabitants, and use of local commentators have been found to be effective in generating interests of the farmers. Duration too is very important; short programs of 10-20 minutes or at the most 30 minutes, should be enough. In view of human absorption capability and attention span, lengthy programs, should be broken into pans. In a program, the main body of information should start within the first minute or soon after. A catchy dramatic opening can help catching attention. Field recordings, identifiable visuals, local farmers can create interest. The program must have sequence, fluency, simplicity, and explicitness. Diversion from the main theme should be minimum. A proper closure is essential to review *the* lesson and reinforce the central message.

Utilization Strategy

How should video be used? Whether it is sufficient as a single medium or in combination with other media? Will there be discussion before, during or after the training? Should video be played once for full length or stopped in between and replayed? If one reviews the current usage, it will be revealed that there is hardly any plan in the mind of trainers/extension educators. The question of questions is how to use video in the overall plan of training? There can be many different approaches to use video depending upon the type of material, whether tailor-made for the training or adapted. However, the activities before, during and after video lesson will affect learning.

Before Video is Played

a. **Preview**: It is not always possible to view a video program prior to use, but a trainer can usually read about the program in a trainer's guide. Be sure that the material is the same as desired (rehearse and decide what strategy to use.)
b. **Prepare the Environment**: Before farmers can learn from any media presentation, they first have to be able to see it and hear it. Provide proper lighting, seating and volume control.
c. **Prepare the Audience**: Researches in educational psychology as well as practical experiences of teachers demonstrate that the learning is greatly enhanced when learners are prepared for the

learning. To start the 'warm-up' before video lesson, create mindset by reviewing previous study or prior knowledge. It has to make clear to the trainees as to how the video program is going to fit into their universe. Create a feeling of 'need to know'. Define key concepts and stimulate curiosity by asking questions. Thus preparation has to be made well in advance for effective training. Specially designed notes, worksheets or illustrated materials may be distributed. If large amounts of new information are to be attained, give trainees some advance organizers' memory books on which they can hang the new ideas. Be sure to preview any new vocabulary needed.

During the Play

Present the material: A well-designed video presentation will call for frequent learners' participation. Be positive and respond well to the video program because the attitude of trainer towards the material affects learners' learning from the media.

A trainer should position himself so that he can observe farmers' reactions. He should watch for clues indicating difficulties or boredom. Individual reactions would be watched for its possible use in the follow-up discussions. If needed stop the video and discuss.

After the Play

The reinforcement is very important and its importance increases if active participation was not explicitly built into the video program. Farmers should be encouraged to generalize new knowledge and transfer it to real life applications. This can be done by discussions, question-answer sessions, panel discussions etc. Finally, trainees may practice it in field conditions if season and facilities permit. If trainees are not able to apply the skill they again watch the original program or fellow trainee practicing it. Experts' feedback on the trainees can be shown through video to the farmers for more or less complete perfection in that skill.

Evaluation & Feed-back

Evaluation and feedback should become part and parcel of video-based training. Continuous feedback on different aspects of the program should be collected along with actions taken by the farmers after the training.

Video-Based Training Package

Because video is not a consumer able medium and even its software can be preserved, refused and duplicated without much difficulty, it is better to prepare video-based training package which will make the learning process easier and more effective. The Video-based package incorporating the instructional technology approach will not only facilitate training for the trainers, but effective learning for the farmers also. The video based training package will consist of the following as stated by Thomas and Thomas, 1984, p.112).

***a*. Trainer's guide**: A guide provides the plan and materials trainers will need to be more efficient. It also facilitates working for those who are less experienced in imparting training. Guide provides the rules and guidelines to organize a program and also provides answers to the probable questions; it encourages the trainers to find local examples and exercises to add to the learning experience

***b*. Video content carrier**: Since it is difficult for the trainer to be a perfect teacher, we need supplementing materials and since most of the farmers are illiterate, the content is developed using a visual and symbolic flow that gradually steps up technical complexity. The visualized information and examples carried by video are broken into sub-lessons. The video portion of each sub-lesson should usually be of six minutes in duration.

***c*. Learners exercise manual**: Visual and verbal preview and review of each sub-lesson is provided in a manual. This not only provides learners with material they can take home. It also eliminates the need for taking notes and passing out papers. The manual contains a segment for each sub-lesson. Each segment contains preview questions, major visuals used, summary of the verbal content, discussion questions (to clarify major objectives or procedures) and exercises to be worked on paper or simulators. It also includes supplementary materials and exercises as well as reference and progress.

If all these elements are developed, validated, produced and packaged, the objective of the video based training can be achieved successfully.

This has been proven over and over and has worked in almost every environment with almost any motivated leader.

Organizational and Institutional Framework

One may rightly argue that farmers training centers may not possess the financial resources to purchase the equipment sufficient for integrating video component within, their curricula. While this problem may be sorted out by occasionally hiring equipment and getting desired programs produced, there are more serious issues, viz. the trainers of the farmers are not oriented to the science and art of andragogy. It will be too much to expect them to be skilled in production and utilization of video lessons. However, a beginning seems to be in the offing. The Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Government of India as stated by Ravi Shankar, et al.(1989), has started training courses on video production and utilization for agricultural extension workers. Given the current situation of interest (though superficial-born out of novelty) expressed by many farmers' training institutions by purchasing video cameras, VCRs in some places, and rarely editing systems. It does not look like a distant dream to use video in farmers' training. It is possible to form a network amongst them with the help of Agricultural Universities for production and distribution of video lessons. It is worth-noting that some Agricultural Universities already possess communication centers well equipped with video production infrastructure and the other ones are in the process of being established. Now it is the question of training the trainers/ users of video, which require more intensive effort and collaborative endeavor. However, even *the* available infrastructure for video production training in the country can cater to many true in service needs of extension personnel.

The observability of video is one of the strengths. Television is a glamorous and reductive medium and will therefore attract the attention of other teachers, students and administrators. If the complexity and the relative disadvantage of high costs are kept to a minimum or hidden, then Video will be a visibly attractive method of farmers training. (Garrison, 1998, p.74)

Conclusion

Farmers' training as an educational enterprise has remained neglected and untouched, to a great extent, by the advances in educational technologies. Proliferation of new communication technology like video provides opportunities for enhancing effectiveness as well as multiplying effects of farmers' training. Integrating video in farmers' training requires understanding of the learning environment, learners' needs and background, trainers' capability and organizational and institutional framework. Video being a new medium, precise norms of production for instructional use with rural learners are not available. Taking cues from experiences abroad and researches in business training, some suggestions have been spelled out for the trainers. Much depends on the overall training package and utilization of video in actual training. The farmers training institutions are not ready right now to systematize the entire efforts on the push of a button, but some preliminary signals of readiness are evident. Farmers' training is a critical input towards agricultural development. Investment made on this front will go a long way towards precious human resource development.

However, in developing strategy for effective communication program to foster the achievement of developmental objectives, attention needs to be paid to the: (a) political climate which may foster or repress or groups, and the (b) need for flexibility in accommodating national goals to local social cultural economic conditions and resources and local channels of communication.

Richard O. Niehoff (1976, p.146) suggested that some differences in the use of media need to be taken into account in designing programs to increase agricultural production, foster family planning, nutrition, or other development programs, the above illustrative principles and strategies will generally apply to these different developmental objectives.

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JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol.09 No.2 2006

Published By:
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN
2008

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