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

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## **Student life and tribulations in the Midlands**

W A Gulam\*

J. Ahmed\*\*

V. Wilkinson\*\*\*

### **Abstract**

*This paper examines the disaffection of students and the subsequent non-completion of Learning Skills Council (LSC) funded courses within a Midlands region of England. It explores the views of a socially and racially mixed cohort of male and female students and their reasons for opting out of educational programmes. Drawing on the research and on what the students said, the authors suggest some strategies to reduce student disaffection and the premature abandonment of study programmes.*

### **Introduction**

In the United Kingdom the educational phase that exists between the compulsory school education stage (from 5-16) and the educational provision that is located in universities is dominated and controlled by the LSC. The LSC was established in late 2000 as a state funded quasi governmental educational agency. There had been a somewhat belated national realization that, of all the 30 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) member states (barring Greece, Mexico and Turkey), the UK had and has fewer people aged 17 or over in full or part time education or training. Studies showed that some 9% of the total 16- 19 aged cohort were divorced from education and / or training after the school leaving age of 16 (Kingston, 2/11/04). The Labour Government in 2000 pledged itself to a national platform and enhanced programme of “education, education, education”. One plank of this pledge was the objective of ensuring that all 16 year olds would continue with education and / or training past the statutory school leaving age.

The remit given to the LSC via its controlling National Council and its 47 regional based councils was to be a corrective to this situation. The

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LSC was to be a broad ranging and dominating organization. It was charged by the Secretary of State for education with a comprehensive brief for integrating the planning and funding for all post- compulsory learning below higher (university provided) education. (LSC, 2001.p4)

Essentially, the LSC was to be the controller and funding body with oversight for all activity and educational provision, academic and vocational, in this critical interface arena between compulsory schools provision and university education. Its role was to be secured by virtue of governmental life and buttressed by a financial monopoly for all post 16 and pre university educational provision.

Specifically the five key objectives the LSC was tasked with and funded to achieve were to

- raise national educational participation and the achievement of young people between the ages of 16-19
- raise demands for learning by adults and equalize opportunities for learning by developing better access to learning
- engage employers in the national drive to improve skills for employment and hence to enhance national competitiveness
- raise the quality of education and training and its delivery post school and pre university
- Improve national effectiveness and efficiency through education and training.

This broad ranging and comprehensive remit that took in schools, apprenticeships (vocational and on -job based training) and educational and careers guidance was underwritten financially with substantial funding drawn from the national Exchequer. In 2003-4 the LSC had at its disposal £8.09 billion and next year (2004-5) the funding rose to just over £9 billion.

In tandem with many other contemporary organizations, the national council of the LSC underpinned its remit and associated tasks with the mandatory mission statement:

Our mission is to raise participation and attainment through high quality education and training which puts learners first.(LSC.2001.p5)

At a regional / local level this learner oriented mission statement and sentiment was transmuted into the commitment to Putting individual learners at the heart of the system (LSC.2001. p16)

### **The investigation**

Given the LSC objectives and their attendant and praiseworthy commitment to the importance of, and due to, learners, a localised study was undertaken in 2003-4 in one LSC region. The objective was to investigate why, given this vision and public commitment certain student groups, admittedly within a localised area tend to leave college learning and further education early (LSC. 4/2004.p2)

The LSC region in question is located some 60 miles north east of London. It has an overall population of some 268,000 (personal correspondence to authors). Of this figure 35% are categorised as being of black/ other minority ethnic origins. The region has urban, semi rural and rural characteristics and usage. Economic and occupational patterns are a mix of light and service industries, commerce / banking and (limited) cash crop agriculture and dairy farming.

The targeted cohort were those 17 year old students in the region who had left their LSC funded educational / training courses before completing the programme. Word of mouth feedback from a preliminary trawl of a range of sources had suggested a relatively high level of disaffection and dissatisfaction with the LSC programmes and attendant processes. This qualitative study attempted to directly solicit from those who had dropped out a fuller rationale for their actions.

### **Methodology**

As we knew from prior experience of work with groups on sensitive issues, researching disaffection and “failure” amongst adolescents posed numerous challenges. To overcome or at least partially allay some of these pitfalls a tried and tested operational philosophy and technique was used. Key elements of this methodology involved

- obtaining a prior knowledge of the local communities, complemented by engaging key players from the communities themselves in the actual research process as a critical step to gain access to, and the trust of, the targeted cadre



- By attempting to create an insider position and by using “insiders” from the communities, hopefully to generate more empathetic and trusting contacts with the subjects (the dissatisfied ex-students)

The researchers tried to establish a “favorable positional location” with the targeted population as it was felt that field work, response rates and data of a more confidential / meaningful nature would then be better and more easily gained.

The next step was to apply several multi- disciplinary strategies in order to obtain an understanding of the population and their rationale and responses. These tools and techniques included: planned and organized case studies; focus groups; and using opportunistic face to face interviews or telephone surveys with individuals met at the focus groups that the researchers identified as willing to contribute further.

The stages of the fieldwork followed what we felt to be a logical sequence of

- creating a favorable position in the targeted area with the communities concerned so that a trust developed with local gate-keepers , youth clubs, community centers and ethnically based meeting points (N=20)
- with the help and brokerage of these key gate-keepers, identifying an overall population of local 17 year old recent drop-outs from LSC provision
- identifying a sample (N=30%) from this overall population
- with local insiders, contacting the sample to obtain their agreement and , importantly, their commitment, to the proposed study
- interviewing each individual in the sample on a 1:1 basis ( by phone or in person)
- researchers working with local insiders to host a series of focus groups in community based environments that were perceived of as non threatening locations
- eliciting follow up responses from individuals identified from within the focus groups if they showed willing to co-operate further with the study
- interviewing these volunteers from the focus groups in greater depth by means of unstructured discussions

Soon after initial contact was made with local key gatekeepers and fairly on in the actual fieldwork, it became apparent that it was increasingly difficult organizing meetings or generating free flowing dialogue of any substance within racially mixed groups / settings. There was apparent antipathy between the indigenous white 17 year old cadre and the 17 year olds with family backgrounds in the Indian Sub- Continent or the Caribbean. The many reasons for this will become clear.

This antipathy necessitated a rethink and adaptation to our proposed fieldwork process. It was determined that the initial process should be somewhat modified by keeping the overall structure but running parallel focus groups and interview groups determined by ethnicity. This amended pathway of running separate but similar processes for the white and the black / Asian cadre was given a short dummy run with some participants from both cohorts ( N=9). The separation produced an easier atmosphere, more amenable responses and more information / dialogue interaction with participants. Given this outcome it became the adopted and amended working practice.

### **Sample population**

Given this epiphany and the subsequent adaptation, the fieldwork then took place. The 42 white 17 year old finally selected were drawn from lists provided by the local gatekeepers who had canvassed for participants on our behalf. We selected every third name on the lists and ended up with 70% male and 30% female white 17 year olds from urban (67%); semi-urban (21%) and semi –rural (12%) locations.

The black /Asian group numbered 50 17 year olds similarly drawn from lists provided by the same local gatekeepers and the same random selection was used. The group was 68% male and 32% female. The ethnic composition was African and Caribbean 14%; Bangladeshi 26%; Indian 12%; Pakistani 48% and they came from a mix of urban (81%) and semi- rural (12%) locations.

### **Field work**

This took place in various community based locations over some four months in 2004. All those in the white cohort (N=42) were interviewed on a 1:1 basis using a semi-structured interview schedule and then

invited to attend either single sex or open focus groups. The hope was that such focus groups would generate free flowing discussion so that individual responses could be weighed and cross referenced with larger group dialogue. The focus groups were meant to act as both a prompt for further revelations with dialogue prompted by group interaction and, also, as a mode of verification of what had been transmitted in the earlier 1:1 sessions.

Many of the original 42 agreed to the suggested follow up stage (N=29) and five focus group meetings were held. Three of them were for males only and facilitated by male researchers. The other two meetings were open gender groups facilitated by one man and one woman researcher. Attendees here comprised 69% males and 31% females.

Of the black /Asian cohort all 50 individuals were interviewed on a 1:1 basis using the same semi structured interview schedule as used for the white group and these ex-students were also invited to focus group meetings. Most individuals in this cohort responded positively (N=42). Seven focus group meetings were subsequently held including:- two female only groups facilitated by female researchers; three male only groups led by male researchers and two open gender groups led by one female and one male researcher. Attendees at the meetings comprised 69% male and 31% female. Ethnically the attendees were 12% African / African – Caribbean; 26% Bangladeshi; 9% Indian and 53% Pakistani.

#### **Findings for the white population**

This cohort appeared to fall into two distinct sub-sets. One was a “locally bound” set largely drawn from urban areas and mainly resident in social or state subsidized housing. Within the set there was a high incidence of single parent house-holds. The ex-students experiences of LSC funded educational courses had mainly been of work orientated vocational programmes (building courses; mechanical courses; beauty therapy; hairdressing). This group had a specific that defined them: a specific focus on life bound by and expressed by a localized geography and national insularity. For instance, the group would openly express their hostility and aggression to “outsiders” –the immigrants and to other “blacks and Pakis”. The others are more disparate and we can call them the urbane set. They were drawn from all three locations of urban, semi-urban and rural. Their experience of LSC educational courses was

mainly of the more traditional academic programmes that would eventually have led to university entry. This white group projected a more essentially liberal outlook and was more politically adroit / correct in their pronouncement and behavior. One interesting characteristic that they had in common was how many of them were ferried by parents to and from their respective colleges.

The factors determining course drop out for the whole white cohort (N=42) can be divided into two strands:

- factors common to both sub sets
- factors specific to one sub set

Key common factors as explained by the respondents themselves included:

- having been allowed to register for inappropriate programmes and facing the resulting excessive demands of the programme: “I was totally out of my depth”; “ I did not realize what was needed”
- the perception that the treatment from and the pedagogic interaction with teaching staff did not recognize their recent adult status: “ you feel that you are back in school- they shout at you in class”; “ you are still treated as a kid”
- less than optima relationships with teaching staff: “ they don’t seem to know how to treat students as human beings”; “ they are arrogant”
- the pedagogic approach of some teaching staff were perceived as over emphasizing didactic methods: “ some would just write on the board and expect you to copy it all down”; “ one teacher just walked out and left us to finish by using the book”
- poor or inadequate programme processes: “one teacher was off ill for a week. Work just stopped even though we had just a week left to finish essential work for the course”; “ the teacher did not seem to know how to get the materials we needed”
- poor teaching facilities: “ its like they cram 35 people in a room and let them manage. The room can hold perhaps 16-17 but not 35”; “ the room was too small to do any practical work really”
- poor timetabling practices: “ you only have two classes in a day but one is at 9am and the next is at 3 in the afternoon”; “ you waste a day as there is only just one class”

- racial tensions, hostility and self imposed segregation of ethnic groups: “ I want to choose a place without any Asians there”; “ there is always trouble caused by the Asians”

Factors specifically raised by the “locally bound” group included:

- vocational and practical based classes that were too cramped: “ the place was far too small to do any practical exercise”; “ we are really crammed in rooms”
- perceived staff elitism and conflict between students and teaching staff: “ they piss you around because they feel above you”; “ they are all really arrogant”
- the financial burden placed on students and respective families while completing the educational programme: “ we can’t afford to carry on. The factor is money and that is it”; “ I am always broke despite the grant”

( A recent government initiative of Educational Maintenance Allowances – the EMA - provided students who had reached the age of 16 between the dates 9/2003 and 8/2004 with a sliding scale grant of £10 -£30 per week if their families income was less than £30000 a year. But most of the ex-students felt the EMA was totally inadequate: “we can’t do the course if we can’t afford to get to college. There is a £3 return fare by bus per day and then you have to buy your food at £2 a day”)

- the burden of taking on paid work as well as attending classes : “ this puts extra pressure on you and tires you out”; “ I work at night and this makes class lessons and practical work hard”
- the pressure of “immigrants” who disrupt classes: “as they have no intention of doing any class work”; “ they are threatening”
- their peer groups antagonism and hostility to education and qualifications: “ my mates think I am stupid to come here”; “ my mates would not even come into college”
- a social commitment to peer groups who were interested in material gain and consumption rather than education: “ “ at work I could be earning money and enjoying myself in the clubs”; “ I can’t buy the gear I want like the stuff my mates wear on the nights out”

- racially motivated disputes or violence: “ there is always trouble between the Pakis and us”; “ it was a case of being beaten up or leaving”

The urbane group raised other specific factors:

- the oppressive demands of academic courses: “ I never really realized how many hours I would need to put in”; “it’s much harder than I thought”
- no prior understanding of what courses might demand: “I am doing stuff I never did before and find this hard”; “ it is all new work and too demanding”
- poor / incorrect choice of courses: “ I was wrongly encouraged to take this course on by my parents and teachers”; “ my parents wanted me to do this course”
- the length of a course: “ this is for three years and I can’t see the need for such a long time”; “ we really waste time here and the course could be far shorter”

#### **The black / Asian cohort**

The factors determining course drop out for this group were less differentiated than for the white groups. Whatever their varied ethnic origins the impact of race appeared to be a key element in the decisions they made. Many (N=41) within this cohort were to give voice to this generic issue in one form or another. Consequently it is critical that their own perceptions and feelings are rehearsed. The main points they made were these:

- white teaching staff gave disproportionately more time and attention to white students: “ teachers want to help them more to make sure that they pass”; “ they don’t care about us really”
- White staff held stereotypical views and low expectations of black and Asian students: “it’s not really kids that are racist anymore. It’s mostly like coming from the teachers”; “ they don’t like or understand us “
- staff who displayed overt and dysfunctional attitudes: “ the teachers kept ignoring me”; “ I was kicked out of class and it wasn’t my fault”
- learning venues and social processes were said to be inappropriate ( for Muslim students): “ there is too much free

mixing here between the sexes”; “ this allowing boys and women to group and sit together is against our religion”

- white staff who showed little empathy with black or Asian students: “ some of the teachers are not approachable and treat you strange”; I fell behind in the work and no one understood or would help me”
- the black and Asian teaching staff who gave little support: “ they are worser (sic) and more stuck up”; “ they try to be whiter than the white people and accepted by the white staff”
- racial antipathy on the part of white students and a subsequent fear of racial conflict: “ there is always a chance of fights with them”; “ all the white people are together and all the Asian people are always together. There is very little mixing”
- There appeared to be a culture of Asian machismo: “ I will smash the teacher’s car up soon”; I will not take any rubbish from them and be made to back down from them”.

Other, less racially driven factors raised by the group included:

- programmes that did not appear to enhance job prospects: “ this course is not real”; “ it won’t prepare my for a job”
- registration on inappropriate courses: “ I did not know that this course would be so boring”; “ I am not really interested in this at all”
- inappropriate pre course guidance: “ no one told me how hard it was to study on this course”; “ my teachers at secondary school didn’t say much about what to do next after school”
- staff attitudes and perceived neglect of students: “I fell behind and no one noticed”; “ they all have their own favorites in class”
- the debilitating legacy of earlier education: “ my English is not so good so I can’t follow what the teacher said”; “I did not get good grades at school so this writing is hard”
- gender differentiated family pressures: “ I will marry a man soon so why continue here”; “ it’s like as if your female cousins have not gone to college so why do you have to do it”
- financial pressures: “ I don’t like study and really need the money”; “ I want to work and earn to help my family”
- parental confusion and lack of support on education matters: “ they don’t really know how to advise you if it is ok or not”; “

they didn't do it themselves so they can't tell you what is good for you"

### **Summary**

This small scale qualitative study of educational provision in a Midlands region has taken for its focus the declared intent and vision of a dominant, perhaps even the monopolist education provider - the LSC – to put the individual student at the heart of its processes. It has attempted to juxtapose this vision with the views and perceptions of those who have engaged with the organization's processes and have dropped out. The reasons for this are varied but suggest, overall, a dissonance between the vision promulgated and the experiences and satisfaction levels of students.

This overall and apparent dysfunctional state of affairs is worrying at both micro and macro levels. Especially cause for concern is what the black and Asian ex-students said and some recent findings accentuate the need to pay attention to the issues they raised. As the latest UK census (2001) revealed:

- more than 5% (N=300000) of the UK's 16 year olds leave statutory education with no qualifications at all (*Hackett*)
- blacks are "twice as likely to be in prison than on a university campus if male" (*Appleyard & White.*)
- Muslims (N=1.6m in the UK) who have the youngest age profile in the UK also have the "highest unemployment rate at 14% and the lowest level of educational qualifications of any UK faith group" (*Carvel*).

Despite the governmental commitment to ensure that all 16 year olds continue in education, our qualitative study found a high level of individual dissatisfaction with the way that the LSC provision operated in one specific region. This dissatisfaction and disaffection was evident, giving the lie to the stated vision and mission committing the LSC to raising educational participation and engagement by:

Putting individual learners at the heart of the system (LSC, 2001.p16)

If such a commitment still allowed such notable levels of individual disaffection the vision should surely be revisited. There is a need to take on board what has been said by these disaffected ex- students and to



make efforts to implement the fine statements. However, this is not what is likely to happen – rather the reverse seems to be more likely.

Recently the LSC carried out a complete strategic national reappraisal of its operations. Instead of according merit to the student's views, the chair of the LSC opted for a directly contradictory approach and claimed:

We have tended to be too focused on the needs and aspirations of the learners. We need now to ensure the needs of the private and public employers are addressed.(Kingston. 12/10/2004).

### **Conclusions**

From what we have learnt during the course of this exercise, our conclusions are diametrically opposed and opposite to those recently asserted by the chair of the LSC. We believe that there is much to be gained by listening to students and keeping them at the epicentre of any educational process. Consequently, based on these experiences, we suggest a strategy for improving retention that centres on the student and includes:

- reviewing the curricular and presentational formats of existing courses
- reviewing location and facilities to ensure appropriate teaching and learning environments
- revisiting and developing the pedagogic styles of the teaching staff
- establishing meaningful student committees to ensure feedback to the organisation providing educational programmes
- enhancing personal support for students , both financial and academic
- systematically researching and monitoring student achievements thereby enabling and informing on- going remediation if and when necessary
- identifying he key dynamics relating to race , class and linguistic issues and providing support and training to the institution and individual teachers
- ensuring good guidance and advice is available for students at key junctures in their education such as the transition from school to college and from college to university
- working with parents to ensure they appreciate what courses may entail and what benefits may accrue from their children's prolonged study

- using external agencies, both social and business/industrial such as youth clubs; community groups; business/ industrial liaison officers to project and support the message and merit of continued study and development
- using community networks and strategies particularly mentors and role models to help prevent non completion by developing a supportive community culture

In contrast to the new emphasis to be developed by the LSC what we suggest might more effectively combat disaffection and drop-out from education is a student centered approach that is built on feedback from the students themselves. This is not a new idea – we have just flagged the centrality of student to the educational process. Novelty, if it exists at all, may perhaps be sought in our contention that a holistic approach is needed to combat disaffection and drop-out. Based on our study we stress the need for all key stakeholders, both inside and outside the “system” to attempt a collaborative and unified front to secure progress. We term this a “geo-local educational compact”. At its best this would entail:

- identification of and preparatory dialogue between regional governmental agencies / educational institutions / community based forums and students
- establishment of a covenant / written compact between these key stakeholders whereby an agreement is reached to act in a collaborative and supportive manner on a given issue
- commitment to regular meetings, sharing of information and collaborative working
- Commitment to scrutinize any future individual organizational development in regard to the potential knock –on effects for partners.

Realistically though, certain preconditions need to exist for such a geo-local educational compact ever to take flight. One vital precondition is that the initial impetus comes from a controlling or dominant stakeholder who has the resource, funding base and political will to kick start the enterprise. The LSC could be such a body within this context. Sadly, given the recent pronouncement by the chair of the LSC and enhanced by the statement of the LSC’s own National Director of Learning:

There are five main themes. The first is how can college's best make their responsiveness to the needs of the employer

(Neville)

We can only conclude that a holistic and student centered approach is unlikely to be implemented.

More likely, in light of our Midlands study, the sad story will continue – a story of student disaffection, dissatisfaction and drop out in post school education in the UK.

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## **Democratic Education: Theory and Practice**

Dr. Uzma Quraishi\*

### **Abstract**

*This study aimed to investigate the state of democratic education at the primary and secondary level in schools. It therefore, explores different definitions of democratic education and contends the case for such kind of education in the context of Pakistan. Democratic education in its various implications is discussed.*

### **Introduction**

The world, as we know and see it, is going through an important period of great change and transition with regard to the process of democratisation (Harber, 1995; Osler and Starkey, 1996; Nussbaum, 1997). Peaceful resolution of conflicts and minimisation of political exploitation (Crick and Heater, 1977; Tapper and Salter, 1981). This study started from the supposition that real education, here translated and understood as democratic education, can broaden the sympathies and attitude of human beings and make them productive members of a corporate society. It appears from historical perspectives that the claim of some human beings to assert them and exert superiority over other human beings as members of the same society is not always based on universal legitimacy in terms of actual merit. It is instead based on the ascriptive nature of the system, arising from the status differences in lifestyles and in the opportunities available to the people to explore their own potential. For example, in Pakistan a social, economic and political system exists in which a small number of people control it's social, political and economic life (Noman, 1990).

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Whenever there are political, cultural or economic crises in society there is almost universal agreement that education is part, if not all of the solution, assuming the provision of an appropriate type of education would resolve major issues. Educational priorities may differ in different societies. Some would prefer economic, some political and others cultural improvement or rather change through education. These preferences in education would affect what different societies view as this “right type of education”.

This aspires to understand the development of the “sociological imagination” as propounded by Mills. He defines it as:

a quality of mind that will help [people] to use information and to develop reason in order to achieve a lucid summation of what is going on in the world and of what may be happening within themselves... the sociological imagination enables us to grasp history and biography and relations between the two within society (Mills, 1970, pp. 11-12)

Mills’ view that throughout one’s life one remains involved in the process of exploration, learning and discovery is important for educators who consider education more than what goes on in the classroom. In this process of understanding and adjustment of self with one’s environment one learns to interact directly and sometimes indirectly with all that is included in this experience.

The reason perhaps for this was the fact that politics is considered to be outside young children’s understanding (Stevens, 1982). However, I believe that not only can children understand complex concepts such as politics but also they have the ability to develop and acquire political skills that can enable them to maintain a peaceful culture for future generations.

As the prevailing political as well as educational system does not appear to address social injustice and/or problems which affect democracy and human rights in general in Pakistan, it is largely politics which has effects on and influences social life all over the world. For example, in

Pakistan all aspects of Pakistani society, whether economic, social, cultural or aesthetic, are affected by the political culture that pervades it. Conversely, it is the lack of political awareness that helps those in power to exploit all sectors of the society.

### **Parameters of Research**

This study set out to understand and define democratic education and its implications in a given environment at the primary and secondary levels of school for improving a society.

The main inspiration for this research was to initiate and generate debate around the need for democratic education in order to tackle socio-political issues, such as human rights, especially in an underdeveloped country like Pakistan.

### **Research Assumptions**

- (i) Authoritarian teaching and cultures in schools do not allow criticism, which is essential for democracy, because without criticism politicians are not accountable; without accountability the society is not democratic.
- (ii) Social justice in terms of equity and gender equality is one of the most important aspects of democratization of school culture.
- (iii) Democratic education is an important instrument to generate new ideas while remaining conscious of the past. It enhances both individual and collective understanding and thus encourages effective learning (social and political learning)

This exploration of democracy will, therefore, entail an examination of the contradictions, conflicts and consensus around those key themes.

### **Aims and Objectives**

Inherent in the purpose of the study are the following aims and objectives.

1. To conceptualize the role of democratic education and political education in a school context.
2. To highlight gender-sensitive curriculum with reference to political and democratic education.
3. To investigate educational practice in Pakistan highlighting the significance of democratic education.

### **Key research questions**

The above aims and objectives of the research and literature review generated the following research questions from which further sub-questions were developed out of the literature review. Four key questions provide the framework:

**(i) How and why do democratic education is essential in a country like Pakistan**

**(ii) What is democratic education and what are their salient features which are particularly useful for Pakistan? B(Sub Questions)**

What is democratic education by the main actors in schools? What are inclusive the decision-making processes in schools? How power and authority should be mediated among the main actors in the educational system that is teachers, pupils, school administration, parents /the community, public representatives and Ministry officials)? What are the underlying rules that govern the organization, management, curriculum and pedagogy in schools with reference to democratic education? How should these rules reflect the notion of human rights according to the United Nation's Declaration of Human Rights, 1948, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989?

### **Definition of Democratic Education**

Democratic education is characterized by the experience and knowledge of a number of values and behavioral patterns. The most outstanding value is democracy itself, with its three main components of social, political and economic democracy. Furthermore, the concept of democracy is governed by core values such as participation, social justice and human rights emphasized through effective communication and proper mechanisms for democratic education.

### **Democratic Values and Democratic Education**

Democratic values are further elaborated with regard to democratic education under the following headings:

#### **Justice**

The foremost value that governs democracy is justice. One fundamental idea of justice is about fairness, that individuals must be treated fairly in the distribution of power and resources.

### **Equality**

Equality is about equal opportunity and equal access to resources, in the political, social, cultural and economic spheres. It runs through the whole concept of democracy. It is also about equity (fairness) as discussed earlier.

### **Freedom**

The basic idea of freedom is enshrined in the concept of human rights. There are two types of freedom, individual and collective. Individual freedom refers to the right and ability of a person to pursue his or her ambitions in order to live a life of respect, dignity and security.

### ***The Common Good***

This value concerns the peaceful resolution of conflicts. It therefore deals with public and private responsibilities of an individual and groups towards one another in relation to their rights, i.e. mutual respect and recognition of each other's rights.

### **Diversity**

Another of the main values underlying democracy is respect for cultural and social diversity. In the previous section the emphasis was laid on achieving consensus over issues that affect the whole society, socially, politically and economically.

### **Creativity**

The basis of creativity is that each individual is in some way original and creative; that is the essence of individuality (Fisher, 1995). Meyer-Bisch (1995) extends its meaning concerning democratic education. He considers 'exemplariness' a concrete form of respect for creativity:

### **Truth**

Democracy necessitates open discussion and analysis of political and social realities. One of the perceived dangers of exposing children to complex realities is of the psychological and intellectual burden on young minds. It has been argued that democratic education can be implemented in a school through improved school structures and overall culture (Harber, 1992, Meyer-Bisch, 1995)



From the discussion so far it has emerged that democratic education is an important part of democratic education.

### **The Study**

This study aims to provide useful information with regard to democratic education. To understand such possibilities requires a study of the contemporary political culture and the extent to which it influences education; the social issues of gender equality, human rights and human dignity will also be explored within relevant parameters. Thus the study has particularly focused on how micro politics permeates the organization, management, pedagogy and curriculum within classroom in particular and schools in general.

This study hopes to make a significant contribution in the field of educational research with regard to democratic education, especially in developing countries. In such countries there is a wide gap concerning democratic education (Kumar, 1994). at the primary level (Ross; 1984), but this study hopes to make a case for the effective and appropriate role of democratic education for more informed citizenry, of which democratic education is a significant component. Moreover, this study hopes to make a contribution to the field of qualitative educational research, as pointed out by Smith (1996) educational research in Pakistan is preoccupied with numbers and scientific modes of research; qualitative research therefore, is yet to receive recognition.

### **Type of Study**

The main focus of the study was to investigate how pupils develop notions of democracy within a school culture; once this is clear, educators can develop socially sensitive curricula, teaching methodology and school culture that not only achieves academic skills but also social, political and cultural skills that can help students become more viable as citizens and have a fair and democratic mind set to pursue professional field best suited to them.

### **Method**

This was a qualitative research. Individual interview and focus group interviews with teachers, school administrators and students were the primary source of data collection. In addition to these instruments field

notes and direct observations were additional sources of data collection to substantiate the findings and emergent frameworks.

In all eight schools (four public and four private) were engaged in the study, involving 36 in-depth interviews with selected school administrators (N=8), Teachers (N=20) and Students (focus group interviews= 8). Once the preliminary analysis was completed it was share with the respondents to remove any bias from the analysis.

Focus group interview were conducted with senior class 9-10 students who had been through the system and could bring up students perceptions of democratic education. In order to allow individual differences and diverse experiences to be shared through semi structured focus group interview sessions.

### **Analysis**

This is mainly a theoretical paper in which some informal discussions with teachers and administrators were also conducted to further develop the concept. The analysis stage included looking into various concepts of democratic education and then comparing those with the views of practitioners.

Once preliminary analysis had been completed it was shared with selected respondents to remove any bias and further search for additional interpretations than just confirmation of a single meaning and/or remove bias. Moreover, literature was revisited to identify and confirm emergent patterns. Respondents were focused on the underlining values of democratic education (discussed earlier) and were asked to give their perceptions of democratic education as a practice and spell out some practical indicators of such practice.

### **Findings and Emergent Themes**

A number of themes emerged from the analysis were primarily grounded, however, literature was revisited to confirm these. Four dominant theses are discussed and presented here.

### **Democratic Management and Organization**

Democratic school management and organisation demands equal and full participation of all members in a school, where power is equitably shared and decision-making processes involve all members of the school, as well as parents and community to achieve common goals. It is essentially

a participatory government (Davies, 1989; Ahmed 2002; Elgstrom, and Hyden, 2002; Koliba, 2000; Shah, 1999). It translates as shared power between all individuals in a school that is between teachers and pupils and between pupils among themselves to achieve transparently laid down educational goals. This also includes agreed assessment standards and academic targets of the age group concerned. The following are emergent themes in this regard:

**Flexible Learning**

Flexible schools are at the core of democratic (Meighan and Toogood, 1992; Harber and Davies 1997; Meighan, 1995, 1997 Harber and Davies, 1997).

**Discipline**

The concept of discipline within democratic education is that of an agreed set of rules and principles that are open to negotiation and change. This is non-threatening to a school administration that is receptive to the process of democratisation (Koliba, 2000).

**Resources**

Resources refer to the facilities such as material and equipment used, as well as finances. Flexibility of resources in terms of using different learning projects means that there could be alternatives outside if these are not easily available in the school. For example resources available at home or work places could be utilised, which include television, video, magazines, home computers and radio.

**Just and equitable organisation**

The concept of just and equitable organisation mainly emerges out of the belief that all members are equal and respectable with a balance of rights and responsibilities. This also includes the belief that pupils are capable of working independently without strict supervision and also pupils are capable of selecting and electing teaching staff appropriate for their learning.

**Fair Assessment**

The most significant aspect of fair assessment is that each individual is considered unique; accordingly, individual learning and assessment styles are required.

### **Discussion and Conclusion**

Democratic education in both its process, and values is essential in schools in all context. It promotes equitable and just society which is need for the betterment of humankind. Theoretical analysis reveals that democratic education has positive implications for educational practice in Pakistan, because it involves not only a set of values but proper inclusive channels and processes, which can easily be implemented in diverse contexts with the domain of education. More research around practices and attitudes towards democratisation of educational practice and implications of democratic education should be conducted to further explore more sustainable practice of democratic education in a country like Pakistan.

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**Undergraduate Students Motivations and Obstacles to Volunteer:  
Perceptions of the Hashemite University Students, Jordan**

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Suha M. Al-Hassan\*\*

**Abstract**

*The aim of this study was to investigate volunteerism within young people specially university undergraduate students in order to understand motivations and obstacles of voluntary work. The study answered three questions: What motivate undergraduate students to participate in voluntary work? What are/were the obstacles facing/faced volunteers? And what prevent undergraduate students from participating in voluntary work? The population of this study consisted of the Hashemite University undergraduate students. Two hundred and fifty students participated in this study. The study revealed several motives and obstacles for (not) volunteering. The study ended up by providing some implications for those dealing with volunteers.*

**Introduction**

Voluntary work has become a basic block in building any society and it reflects the awareness and realization of citizens to their role in society. Volunteerism is a humanitarian practice that is always connected with loving people, charity, and good work within any society but it is different in form, intensity, motives, and directions.

According to Asyran (2001) voluntary work is a planned humanitarian effort that is stem from the personal desire and motive and does not aim at achieving any monetary reward but only to gain the feeling of belonging to the society and taking some responsibilities that contribute to meeting social needs or serving an issue that faces society. Despite the extreme importance of voluntary work in building societies and building abilities and skills of citizens, a very few individuals participate in

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voluntary work. This leads to questioning the reasons behind this low level participation. Yasseen (2001) mentioned several obstacles that prevent youth from voluntary work. These include: economic conditions and scarce resources for voluntary organization, cultural factors; such as lowering the work that young men do and discrimination between man and women, weakness of awareness of voluntary work and its benefits, weakness of presenting the programs and activities of organizations. Mass media should practice a bigger role in calling citizens to play a role in voluntary work and introduce the activities that organization is doing. Many developing countries are still unable to take advantage of energies and capabilities possessed by their citizens, particularly young ones.

### **Research Questions**

The majority of Jordanian (59.1%) is within the age range 15-64 but, unfortunately, the participation of young people in voluntary work is still very low. This study attempts at investigating volunteerism within young people specially university undergraduate students in order to understand motivations and obstacles of voluntary work. More specifically, this study will answer the following questions:

- What motivate undergraduate students to participate in voluntary work?
- What are/were the obstacles facing/faced volunteers?
- What prevent undergraduate students from participating in voluntary work?

### **Previous studies**

In a study published by the National Volunteers and Philanthropy Center (NVPC, 2004) in Singapore, 15% of Singaporean indicated that they have volunteered in 2004 compared with 41% in the USA, and 51% in the United Kingdom. The study also showed that volunteer participation rate is highest among 15-24 age group and volunteer participation rate is highest among students. Most volunteers volunteered in religious organizations (34%), followed by educational, and health organizations and least volunteered in arts/culture organizations. The NVPC report showed that most people volunteered in order to help the less fortunate (61% of them) followed by personal interest and to meet and know more people. Those who didn't volunteer in Singapore ranked "no time" as the main reason for not volunteering followed by age/health problems, and physical inability.



In his study of 28 women organizations in Jordan, Almahameed (2001), found that young women tend to participate more in voluntary work, also women who live in the capital city, those who are rich, educated, and married volunteer more than poor, single, and widowed women. The study showed that their motivation was to satisfy their religious, psychological, and social needs, and do something useful in their leisure time. A recent report published by the U.S Department of Labor (US. DL) (2005) on volunteering in the United States, showed that the proportion of population who volunteered was 28.8%. One-fourth of men and about one-third of women did volunteer work. By age, the study showed that persons age 35-44 were the most likely to volunteer (34.5%). Married persons volunteered at a higher rate. The main organization-the organization for which the volunteer worked the most hours was either religious or educational/youth service related organization. Reasons for not volunteering were lack of time, followed by health or medical problems, and family responsibilities (US DL, 2005). Another report, showed that volunteerism among Americans increases by 12% from 2002 to 2005 (Caroline, 2006). This increase was most among people age 55 to 64 and 14% more people age 16-24 volunteered in 2005. In money value, according to 2001 American volunteers donated an estimated 239 billion worth of time (Independent Sector, 2001).

According to the Swiss Federal Statistics Office (SwissInfo), four out of ten people in Switzerland work as volunteers or have done so in the past. Translated into money terms, such work is valued at \$16 billion a year (SwissInfo, 2004). This is an indication that voluntary work makes an enormous contribution to the well-being of Swiss society.

In a study conducted by the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service at the University of Texas at Austin in 2003 showed that 74% of undergraduate students performed volunteer service during the 2001-2002 academic year. Women counted for 55% of volunteers, and men for 45%. Students performed volunteer work in a wide variety of organizations both on and off campus. Twenty eight percent of students volunteered with education and tutoring organizations followed by 23.2% volunteered with religious organizations. Students listed several reasons for volunteering including compassion towards those in need was ranked as a very or somewhat important reason to volunteer by

94% of the undergraduates and 80% of students believed that volunteering is part of one's civic duty. Tomlinson and Wilson (1997) showed that "not enough time" was the main reason that three out of five people say they do not volunteer for any charitable organization. Physical or emotional disabilities were the second most frequent. Volunteering seems to defy most people's assumptions about what drives human action especially as it often involves work that is trying, unpaid and time consuming (Clary and Snyder, 1991). A key debate in the literature is whether volunteering can be defined as "truly" altruistic behavior. It has been argued that altruism is only one of several reasons that explain why people volunteer.

A study of volunteers in Australia found that altruism was the most frequently mentioned motive, followed by social interaction, personal growth and skills for paid work ( Vellekoop-Baldock, 1990) Finkelstein, Penner, and Brannick (2005) stated that functional theories claim that one volunteers in order to satisfy one or more needs or motives and that different individuals can participate in the same volunteer work for very different reasons. Clary and Snyder (1991) identified six motives for volunteering: Values (to express values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others; Understanding (to acquire new learning experiences and/or exercise skills that might otherwise go unused); Social (to strengthen social relationships); Career (to gain career-related experience); Protective (to reduce negative feelings about oneself or address personal problems); and Enhancement (to grow and develop psychologically). Following these classifications, a United States study found that the most important functions served by volunteering were Values, followed by Enhancement, Social and Understanding motivations. The least important motivations were found to be Protective and Career motivations (Clary, Snyder, and Stukas (1996).

### **Methods of the Study**

This is a qualitative study. The population of this study consists of the Hashemite University undergraduate students. In order to obtain as much randomness as possible in the sample, students enrolled in university elective courses were targeted for this study.

Three hundred and sixty students enrolled in two general courses were asked to answer 4 open ended questions. Two hundred and fifty students

replied to the questions. A hundred and eighty five female students and 65 male students participated in this study, most of them were 19 years old (38.8%). A hundred and thirty five students were freshmen, and 31 students were seniors (12.4 %). Students were first asked if they have done voluntary work. If they answered yes then they were asked to talk about their motives, and the obstacles they faced during their work. If they answered no, then they were asked to talk about what prevented them from participating in a voluntary work. The majority of students (51.2%) live in the capital Amman followed by 34.4% live in Zarka. Finally, 211 students attended public high school and 34 attended private high schools.

### **Results and Discussion**

The study showed that 98 students have participated or still participating in voluntary work compared with 152 students who never did any voluntary work. The results are organized around the research questions: motivations, obstacles, and reasons for never participating in voluntary work

### **Motivations**

Students mentioned several reasons for participating in voluntary work. These reasons can be clustered into four categories: religious, social, humanitarian, and personal (see Table 1).

**Table-1**  
Reasons for participating in voluntary work, as mentioned by the Hashemite University students

<b>Religious</b>	<b>Humanitarian</b>	<b>Social</b>	<b>Personal</b>
Serving God	To help poor and needy people.	To contribute in building the society, be an effective and good citizen	Loving children
Obeying God who encourage people to help each other	The feeling that we live in one world and everyone is helping each other	Loving country and feeling of belonging	Fun of doing something that is good for others

For the Help low To help seniors and To gain skills  
 reward in income people make them feel they  
 life exist  
 hereafter. Loving and not feel  
 humanity marginalized.

Islam Feeling  
 encourages compassionate  
 people to towards some  
 help others students and so  
 decided to help  
 them with free  
 tutoring

**Social**

Facing sarcasm  
 sometimes.

Not many people  
 believe in  
 voluntary work.

The way society  
 perceives  
 volunteers.

Discouragement  
 of family and  
 friends

Some people  
 believed that  
 cleaning  
 campaigns are

**Resources**

The need for several  
 transportation

Long working hours

Not enough time

Lack of info about the  
 background of the  
 persons with whom I  
 worked

**Planning**

Mismanagement and  
 lack of coordination  
 and lack of  
 cooperation of some  
 organization/governm  
 ent departments

The difficulty in  
 getting into the place

Making balance  
 between study and  
 voluntary work  
 especially during

useless

exams

Some people felt embarrassed because I was helping them while I wanted them to feel like their daughter.

### **Obstacles**

Students who participated in voluntary work faced several obstacles while doing that. These were clustered into social, resources, and planning ones (see table 2).

### **Reasons for not participating**

Those who never volunteered mentioned several reasons for that (Table 3). These reasons were grouped into: social/family, personal, and organizational reasons.

**Table- 3**

Reasons for never participating in voluntary work, as mentioned by the Hashemite University students

<b>Social/Family</b>	<b>Personal</b>	<b>Organizational</b>
Being a female.	There are no motivations or any benefits to do voluntary work	Never been asked to volunteer.
People in charge rejected those who wear (jelbab)		I don't know what is the meaning of volunteerism
If I have time I would better do it at my family farm and my father believe voluntary work is a waste of time	Not enough time No work meets my talents and hobbies.	There is no need for volunteers in my place and so no motivation.

Frankly, when I was in school I had the desire but usually the teacher selected those who come from high class and the most beautiful girls	Nothing but I don't believe in its value. I do not like helping others.	No advertisement I haven't seen any opportunity
Because of the way my colleagues may perceive me while doing the work	I feel there are other people who love to do that and I feel this is humiliation for me	I haven't seen any opportunity
Because I am girl and because of the social norms and customs	Nothing prevented me but the kind of work is not something of my interest	I never find the kind of voluntary work I am looking for
The way I was raised: not encouraging family, short sighted, never paid my attention to such work only to focus on my study	I hate to socialize with local community. Shyness prevents me and feel my personality is weak	I have no idea what volunteerism is
	I consider voluntary work worthless and waste of time	There is no person who can organize and advise students
	No one in society deserve my time to be served	

As can be seen in the tables above, there are several motives, and obstacles for not volunteering. The motives behind volunteering of the participants fit Clary and Snyder's (1991) classification. One can see that students volunteered for Values (e.g., helping poor and needy people);

Social (building society, helping senior citizens); Career (to gain skills); Protective (not to feel marginalized, for the rewards in the life hereafter). While Enhancement and Understanding were not clearly motives in this study. Students mentioned several religious reasons for volunteering. To somehow, this contradicts Wilson's (2000) claims that volunteering in a religious context becomes more popular as people age and religiosity becomes a more powerful influence on volunteering.

Reasons for not volunteering are mainly social/family. It is very clear that families do not encourage their sons and daughters to volunteer. This is partially due to the ignorance of families and/or to the image of volunteers in society (i.e. what volunteers are doing is waste of time and useless). Part of social obstacles is gender related as shown in table 3. Sometimes a religious female and low social and economic class one was denied the right to volunteer.

It is clear that lack of knowledge about volunteering is a major reason mentioned by participants. This is due to the insufficient role played by organizations, societies, and public and private departments that need volunteers. These institutions are not doing enough to reach to young people who have the potential and desire to volunteer. Lack of time was another main reason listed by student for not participating and this coincides with other studies pursued in Singapore and the United States and mentioned at the beginning of this study.

As social factors are main reasons for not volunteering, they are also obstacles facing those who are currently volunteering or those who volunteered. It is believed that discouragement of families and perceptions of society are two reasons for not volunteering for long periods or for several times.

Damico, Damico, and Conway (1998) found that those who volunteer during high school develop more pro-social attitudes and are more likely to volunteer in college and later in their adult life. Therefore, it is very important to instill the value of volunteerism in young people since people who start volunteering as youths tend to maintain that ethic of service as they age into adulthood. Using Zappala's (2000) classification of types of volunteering this study found that formal volunteering

(volunteering through no profit organization) or informal (e.g. volunteering for neighbors and friends) both were practiced by students.

### **Implications**

Based on the results of the study and the suggestions offered by the participants, it is recommended that in order to improve the image of volunteers and encourage them to engage in voluntary work the following should be done:

- Organize awareness campaigns to explain to young people the importance of voluntary work and encourage them to pursue it. This can be done by advertisement, brochures, bulletin boards, organized workshops, lectures, presentations, etc.
- Universities can offer a general elective course on volunteerism and community service and civil society.
- Top university administrators and faculty members can play a very positive role by volunteering, thus be a role model for students.
- Work has to be done in changing the social norms and the way it perceives volunteers and voluntary work.

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## **Teachers in Change-Climate: Addressing Training Needs**

Bahir Adem Abdulahi\*

### **Abstract**

*In the response to the curriculum and strategy change in the primary grade 1-4, which its implementation faced the teachers with some problems and challenges, Harari Regional State, Ethiopia, for better implementation of the change in its region, prepared and delivered training to the primary school teachers to equip them with required knowledge and skills so as to close the gap that was created because of the change. This paper explores the way the training needs were identified and the type of training that was given to teachers. For this the data used were obtained from the training document, and other related materials, from the teachers and trainers who participated in the raining program as well as from experts and department heads of Education Bureau. The researcher discovered that in the training program there was problem with sampling, in framing the target and their sub groups, failure in using some its findings, lack of monitoring and evaluation system in the training program. The study concluded that the need identification was not successful and the training failed to achieve the desired objectives as it was intended at the stage of the training inception. It is recommended that further training to be given with appropriate and effective approach.*

### **1. Introduction**

When Ethiopia introduced decentralization in the education system, the new primary\_grade 1-4 curriculum emerged with noticeable move from established practice. The emphasis given by Education and Training Policy (ETP) to this level of education system was change from passive learning to more active (more learner focused approach) and from linear to self-contained class teaching approach which are directly related to integrating the curriculum and learner centred approach.

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That is, the teachers are expected to teach in one class all the subjects, except some, integrating them and using learner-centred approach. For the teacher who used to teach one subject for long, the method and subject knowledge would not be easy to them as they are new to them because.

Azim (cited in Lewin & Stuart, 1993, p.98) new features of teaching-learning may not be given much emphasis in the old curriculum and, changes in structure and curriculum, or method affects, particularly, teachers in many ways. As teachers are the most important factors that can play major role in the education system, and qualifying them for each educational level to fit the education system is significantly decisive.

As the teachers are expected to put the reforms into practice, it is clear that the successful implementation of these changes directly or indirectly challenges the efficiency and competence of the existing teachers under consideration. Moreover, as Huston et al. (1972, p.130) people, in this case the teachers, tend to continue with old behaviour in which they have been accustomed. Hence, for successful implementation of new curriculum there must be made change in the roles, tasks, and perception of the teachers to adjust their knowledge and skills for teaching-learning activities to accommodate these new features. Thus, the introduction of this educational reform needs to develop a new program and strategies that results in improving and employing new instructional approaches. To put differently, the new curriculum calls for provision of training, introduction of new approaches and building the knowledge and skills of teachers.

ETP (MOE, 1994, p.33) and Education Sector Development Program I&II (ESDP) MOE(2002) placed high emphasises to train the existing teachers so as to strengthen school efficiency, improve the quality of education and to realize smooth implementation of the new curriculum. Harari Regional State is one of the nine regional states in Ethiopia which is responsible for localizing and implementing primary education policies and strategies in its regional context. As the national strategy stated, for the realization the successful implementation of the change, the regional education bureau developed different programs and initiated various short term trainings to the existing teachers, particularly to those who were deployed to implement the new primary school curriculum

with its new features in the region as it had been done in Malaysia (Azmi cited in Lewin & Stuart, 1993, p.97-105) during the curriculum reform as well as in one of the Ethiopian region, Amhara. One of the major training so far carried out in the region, after about seven years of implementation of the change, is the refresher training that was given to 330 primary school teachers and their principals, in 2000. This training was new in its kind and process, relatively it was long duration and costly than ever given supportive training in the region. However, even though this training was given to the teachers, the Regional Education Bureau (REB) is still provides, with high expenses, short term supportive trainings that are related to the curriculum change. Moreover, this training program has not been assessed so far and this paper is intended to assess the responsiveness of this refresher training to the demands of the new primary grade 1-4 curriculums. And also to come out with some suggestions to be considered in the future training program of the region. The guiding questions used to be answered: were the felt training needs well identified? Was the training given out relevant and responsive to the demand of the new curriculum and strategy? Was there follow-up in the training program? For these literature is reviewed on training in change circumstances.

## **2. Methodology**

For this study, relevant documents were reviewed and for quantitative data. questionnaire were used to 237 teachers who received and 7 who delivered the training under consideration, while two experts and two department heads from REB who are pertinent to the issue were interviewed.

## **3. Analysis and Discussion**

When we are concerned with training issues in general, one of the fundamental questions is what to be trained? That has to be answered properly prior to the delivery of training. Different organization, individuals or groups and tasks requires different training and knowledge to undertake their particular performance properly.

Trainings, Beath (2000, p.229-230), have clear purpose and values that aimed to meet specifically defined particular needs so that it adds values and influence their performance. Thus for what to be trained identifying training needs is one of the essential aspects of the training program and training analysis concerned with defining these needs.

In effective need identification of training the targets groups should be well defined, the number of the people to be used as sources should be reasonable, Lewin & Stuart (1993, p.122). Koul (2003,p.111-122) has pointed out that to undertake study, proper information need to be gathered from well defined population of study in which each sub groups with in the population, if there are, should be clearly specified and should be well framed with out ambiguity as to whether a given unit belongs to the particular population. If the samples are selected clearly representing the entire population proportionally to its subgroups as possible, it enable us to get the whole of information about the population from which the sample is to be drawn.

In order various subgroups to be equally represented in samples, it is necessary to employ a technique of sample selection in which various groups are proportionally representative of the population , Gay and Airasain (cited in Charles and Carig ,20032,p.151).In these regards, the REB conducted need assessment on the primary schools teachers of the region and it was documented. The assessment of this document by the researcher reveals that the population of the study was 555 of primary grade 1-4 teachers together with their head and vice principals. This population was comprises three categories one those use conventional national language as media of instruction while the remaining two subgroups were using newly introduced two local languages as media of instruction.

According to the document analysis, the sample size used for the study was 204, of which 30 were head and vices. Out of the remaining 174 teachers in the sample, only 71 of them were primary grade 1-4 teachers who are the primary target of the training while the rest 103 of them were from primary grade 5-8.This indicates that the actual sample size used for the study by REB found to be only 71 (12.8% of the population) while the remaining 133 don't belong to the population of study, as the training was aimed directly to the primary grade 1-4 teachers. In addition to this, regardless of the three subgroups categories, the samples were randomly selected with out paying attention to their proportional distribution across the subgroups. That is the sample was not properly distributed or stratified.

For more information those who received the training were asked to respond whether they participated or not in need identification. Out of 237 respondents only 35 % of them (about 82) replied that they were participated in identifying needs. The difference observed in the figure from these two sources is due to the fact that during the training some of the trainees were not from primary grade 1-4 as the result the number of agreed respondent exceed slightly to that of document which indicated 71.

Thus the majority of the respondents agree with the evidence observed in the documents analysis. That is, the no of primary grade 1-4 teachers who participated in the need identification was small compared to the size of target group/ population which refutes the view of Koul (2003), Goel (1995) and Truelove (2000) that reasonable no of target groups should have been involved in the identifying need. Also this contrary to the opinion of Charles and Carig (2003, p.150) that samples should be carefully selected so that they can better reflect the distribution of trait variables with in population.

Moreover, concerning to the sample size, the above finding ignores idea of Garrett (cited in koul, 2003, p.113) sample size of less than 25% and for Charles and Mertler (2003, p.154) using sample of 10-20% of population for descriptive research study is fault that can put our findings in doubt as there will be no sufficient reason to belief such a small group of units to be adequately represent its population.

For identification of training needs records and documents are potential powerful sources of information in obtaining present and future needs. Some of documents that can contribute in analysing training needs are: mission statements, objectives, description, skill inventory and performance of the job. In addition to these, the view and opinion of those who involved in day-to-day activities have to be seriously considered as key area in the need misidentification, Truelove (2000, p.51-58).

As Rose Homer in Goel (1995), the first step to design and to direct a training program is to determine specific skills and abilities by analysing the present or future performance in the job this follows by assessing the abilities possessed by employees in relation to the occupation .from these two steps information to be obtained determine the training needs of individuals or groups can be identified.

On the other hand, the REB document clearly states the fact that the need assessment was mainly devoted in identifying the problems and challenges that the teachers were facing in teaching-learning process of delivering primary grade 1-4 lessons. Also it aimed at identifying subjects and the contents that might be required to be incorporated in the training program. To do these, the source used for the study by the REB were teachers and principals, whereas supervisors and relevant documents such as policy, syllabuses and other documents were not used as sources of information in determining and identifying the gap that might exist between the requirement of the new curriculum and the competence of teachers under consideration. This approach does not agree with the teaching of Truelove (2000) which says that the examination of records and documents are very useful source of information about possible training needs in the organization.

Further more the document analysis shows that the technique used for identifying need was only a questionnaire which was designed to collect information on training needs of primary grade 1-4 teachers. In addition, we have observed in the documents that the samples used were mixed with different categories that require different approach, training and handling. In other words, such as the principals and some primary grade 5-6 teachers were included and made to respond to the some questionnaire as primary grade 1-4 teachers regardless of their respective role in the implementation of the curriculum in schools.

This method and approach of course overlooks the fact that successful and well planned analysis of training need various data collecting techniques such as questionnaire, observation, interview a, feedbacks from supervisors and experts, Lewin and Stuart (1993) and Truelove (2000).

According to the Goel (1995, p.187), the gap between the existing behaviour and requirement of the new task should be bridged by training and the identified need is justification for starting design training. This implies that clearly grasping identified training need by decision makers and designers is essential as it serves as base to define objectives for training. While preparation of training material is one of the decision phases of developing training which comes after identifying needs, prioritizing and defining the objectives of training. Thus next step after identifying needs is translating them into training objective as they

provide starting point in which direction to go. In this aspect the REB's training proposal clearly indicates that the training was intended to be given based on the identified needs, which goes with the cited literature of this paper, that the identified needs and the analysis should serve as base to shape and limit training objectives.

During need identification, by REB, the teachers clearly indicated the area in which they needed training. These include: awareness on the basic concepts of the new policy and strategies of education, new teaching method, documentation and preparation of examination, basic concept of research, extra-curriculum, and training on some subjects and contents to be selected from what they were supposed to teach.

That is the information obtained from the need assessment uncovers the fact that primary grade 1-4 subjects and their contents and the methods of teaching approach were not easy for the teachers. As the result, they are facing some difficulties on methodology and in teaching the subjects and contents which they were expected to teach. Despite this fact, the objectives stated in REB's document for the training were to widen out look of the teachers, to stimulate teachers reading interest, introduce learner centre approach, experience sharing among the teachers, introduce new methods and approaches, improve utilization of teaching aids, to familiarize them with child right and teaching., HREB (1998,p.37-38).

The above information is good evidence for what is stated as objective of the training in the training proposal did not address thoroughly those training need implications. Thus, this rejects the view the identifying needs should help to shape and limit the objectives and direction of the training Truelove (2000, p.114-152), these objectives in turn serve as our rational in selecting methods and contents for the training. This is probably because the designers ignored the identifying need and reflected their personal feeling which is one of the observed problems in training. Hence, this finding negates the view of Fullan (cited in Lewin &Stuart, 1992, p.122) what ever is the prime concern of the organizer and the key personnel needs should be assessed and be taken into account in planning training as perceived needs.



The other problem that was observed by the researcher during the document analysis was mismatch between prepared training materials and the intended materials to be prepared for the training. Firstly, even though the training materials were planned to be in manual form, the prepared course materials were not in manual form at all, rather they are found to be content oriented courses materials. Secondly, which is a serious problem, the contents of the training materials seems reduplication of the old teacher training institution training materials, with reduction of some contents and parts regardless of stated training objectives. But two local languages were added to the training as new program to the teachers who were using one of them as medium of instruction. This finding is against to Aggarwal (2001) that the purpose of in service training program is not a more repetition of pre-service courses, but it is to break new grounds in contents, organization and teaching and evaluation. To find supporting evidence to this document analysis finding, both teachers who received the training and trainers who involved in the delivery of the training were asked to indicate the level of relationship of the previously (old) used material to train would be teachers and the materials that has been used for the training under discussion. Out of the trainers who were used both the old and the training materials, only very few trainer respondents that accounts 14.2% considered the relationship of the two training materials as low. While out of respondents, who were trained by both the old and this training materials, about 58% of them maintained contrary view on the relationship of the two training materials, such difference between the two category respondents can be partly explained by the fact that because of the time passage and other limitation trainees may not be able to recognize or recall in detail the old training materials' contents.

Thus, together with documents' analysis findings and responses of respondents, the training materials contents' were found to be as modified old training materials that were designed to train would be teachers which has been obsolete curriculum. This finding ignores the fact that stated by Truelove (2000) that defined training objective is starting point for designing and for selecting training contents and training methods. It is also consistence with idea of many training designers start-off with a ready-built model in their heads and just fill in the blank with specific content.

The problems that were observed so far in this discussion, failure to figure out the needs and not using the perceived needs, agree with some of observed training program problems as stated by Armstrong (1977,p.418).

Finally, the given out training was not based on the stated “identified need” or on what stated as training objectives. This is likely opposes the views of Pepper in Bolton (2001, p.123-124) & Azeb (cited in IER (1998, p.303)), that relevant training sought, must be focused on the type of role and responsibilities that the teachers are supposed to play and shoulder as well as introduction of new standards, rules and practices, policies and new procedures are some key areas where training will be needed. The REB’s document also indicates that the total number of the training target primary grade 1-4 teachers was 555.while the number of the teachers who received the training was 330 of which some of them were primary grade 5-6 teachers and 30 school principals. Thus almost near to the 50% of the target primary grade 1-4 teachers were made to receive the training and the training failed to reach the remaining large number of target teachers.

Analysing ongoing training enable us to get feedbacks that can help to take timely remedial action in the training program. In addition to this, after giving training it is necessary to give support to the teachers while they are applying and practicing the knowledge and the skills they acquired from the training program. In this regards no documented evidence is available on the aspects of follow up and evaluation of the training at all. Also out of 237 respondents, 89.5% of them indicate that they did not have any supportive or supervision service after they had received the training, but insignificant percent 10.5% of them responded against to this response.

Further more, in the interview made with two experts and two department heads, they disclosed that there was no follow-up and supervision service from REB to the trainees as well as the training program was not formally evaluated so far. This is contrary to the view of Aggarwal (2001) and Lewin & Stuart (1993) that for training to be effective and successful it requires proper follow-up, like supervision. Thus, it is possible to say that the training program ignored follow up activities and the necessary support that can contribute and help

teachers, who received this training, in applying what they gain from the training.. It is evident, then, that the training program shrugged off not only the positive effect of follow up but also evaluation. The respondent teachers how received the training under discussion were also asked whether they need or not a farther training which related to their work. Surprisingly, a very large number of (more than 90%) of respondents disclosed that they need training to do their teaching in a better way. Thus, this response together with our so far findings, the training was failed to bridge satisfactorily the gap in knowledge and skills that was created because of the curriculum change. This is may be a good indication for the existence of some kinds of training need by the primary grade 1-4 teachers.

#### **4. Conclusion**

The findings of the discussion indicates that the training assessment carried out by the REB overlooked or ignored the policy and document consultation as fully as possible. It used poor sampling and inadequate technique. Thus, it is possible to conclude that the need identification process was failed to explain in depth and state fully the felt training needs of the primary grade 1-4 teachers.

What was articulated as objective for preparation of training was not compatible with claimed “identified felt training needs”. Surprisingly, regardless of this mismatch, the prepared training materials and that had been used for the entire training program were found different. Hence with its multi failures in developing the training, the training program failed to respond fully to the aspects of the new primary grade 1-4 curriculum and strategies. Monitoring and evaluation ensures timely control and correction when there are unnecessary steps and procedures, wrong utilization of findings and available sources of information. However, in the training program there were failures in steps as well as in using potential sources which are good evidence for the absence of monitoring mechanism in the program.

As the training failed to achieve its intended target objective fully and for the fact that the training also failed to reach the remaining large proportion of target teachers who did not receive the training as their colleagues together with the fact that even trained ones still demanding some kind of training. It is safe to conclude that there is demand by

current large proportion of the primary grade 1-4 teachers for some kinds of short term training to be addressed

### **5. Recommendation.**

1. If there is variation among a school teachers in receiving a particular training or approaches in teaching learning activities, there will be performance difference between who received the training and not. Beyond this, it is inevitable that trained ones may face some resistance in practicing what they acquired from the training when they are working with their colleagues who failed to receive the same training. Thus for smooth and successful practice and to have better out come from the trainings to be given in the future, REB should design a strategy to provide training uniformly at list to the majorities, if not to the all target groups.
2. Concerning to the current training need, particularly that of the teachers who were denied to receive the training under discussion, it is better if the regional educational bureau or any interested group undertake training need assessment to identify the current training needs of each those who received the training under discussion and not.
3. Drawing a lesson from the past, in order to resolve the problem of the teachers and to make future training effective in achieving its objective successfully, training need should be identified and used scientifically.
4. Finally it is recommended that, as resources are generally scarce and there should be wise and effective use of them as well as to have successful training program, the bureau should place a close monitoring and evaluation on its future training programs.

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## **Role of Reflection in Facilitating Teachers for Gender Sensitive Political Literacy Instruction**

Sadaf Furqan \*

### **Abstract**

*This paper is written around the study that was initiated to analyze the challenges that students especially girls face in being developed as leaders in the political sphere. It was carried out to understand how a teacher educator could facilitate gender sensitive political literacy instruction in schools through action research. Reflection is embedded at every stage in Action Research. Reflection helps teachers in shifting the focus from what they teach to what students learn. The research process involved exploring, understanding and reflecting on teachers' current perceptions and practices of gender sensitive political literacy instruction. Later, teachers were facilitated to teach for gender sensitive political literacy and lesson plans were developed and taught collaboratively in primary and secondary classes. Reflective dialogue was held after each lesson that teachers taught in the classroom. Findings revealed that teachers do not perceive any need for girls to be educated for political knowledge and skills and even if they acquire some knowledge it can be best utilized by keeping their husbands and children informed about current affairs. The classroom practices also revealed discriminated teacher-student interaction where boys dominated classroom discourse of teachers, gender blind teaching and learning materials, authoritative school culture and gendered perceptions of roles and responsibilities of men and women held by society.*

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### **Introduction**

In the General Elections of 2002, only 25% of the voting population went to cast their votes. The figures are even lower for female voting population, as only 7.8% appeared at the polling stations. The statistics illustrates the apathy of the population of Pakistan towards politics particularly elections and voting. The Constitution of Pakistan (1973) assures male and female citizens' equal right to vote and hold public offices. However, application of this assertion has proved to be challenging throughout the political history of Pakistan. In 2002, 60 women were elected on the especially reserved seats in the National Legislature for woman, and thirteen women were elected on the non-reserved open seats however, it has been feared that even when women are elected, it is unlikely that they will be able to exercise any political power because of lack of training and exposure to political skills.

The low quantity and quality of female representation in political affairs also reflects the complex socio-cultural scenario of Pakistan. Women participation is limited to the private sphere of life which mostly refers to the reproductive and care-giving roles. However, men also lack the knowledge and skills to become active participants in the civil society. This raises serious questions about the quality of political education in Pakistan. Literature suggests that political education in many countries including Pakistan is not considered important for school students (Dean, 2005), as they are thought to be cognitively immature to be provided with knowledge and skills of political literacy (Maitles & Deuchar, 2006). Even in the West, when students complete their schooling, they are not exposed to any political ideas and thus are unable to handle complex situations, debates, discussions on political issues (Maitles, 1999). However, Connell, Greenstein, Stevens (as cited in Davies, Gorard and McGuin, 2005) claimed that 'when young children are exposed to images about society they can make sense of them' (p.353) and hence need to be offered the opportunity to enhance their political knowledge and skills.

In Pakistan, Citizenship education is the aim of Social Studies education. Citizenship education is about equipping children with the knowledge skills, and attitudes to become active, responsible citizens, enabling them to make a difference in the society (Claire & Holden, 2006; Crick, 1988;



Kershaw, 1981; Maitles & Deuchar, 2006). Political literacy is a vital dimension of citizenship education. Through political literacy, students even at primary levels are made aware of where and how decisions are made in the society; they gain familiarity of the range of political ideas, language and forms of argument, and awareness of their rights and responsibilities (Maitles & Deuchar, 2006). Along with this the concepts of power, freedom, equality, democracy, sovereignty, participation and representation constitute the knowledge aspect of political literacy. Skills such as discussion, debate, argument, and advocacy are cultivated in boys and girls along with the values of human dignity, equality, and respect for others through political literacy.

It is generally believed that girls have less political understanding than boys and are less interested in political affairs (Claire & Holden, 2006; Hahn, 1998). Schools play an important role in promoting the belief that girls are not suitable for political education through textbooks, teaching and learning experiences and student-teacher interactions. Studies conducted in Pakistan have reported that teaching and learning experiences create a context that offers better learning opportunities for boys as compared to girls (Dean, 2005; Halai, 2006; Mattu & Hussain, 2004). Where the majority of literature reports unsuitable classroom experiences of girls (Beaman, Wheldall & Kemp, 2006; Sadkar & Sadkar, 1993; Myhill & Jones, 2006; Younger, Warrington & Williams, 1999) many researchers have found boys to be having negative learning experiences in the classroom (Connell, 1996; Garrahy, 2001). Hence, the need is to create equitable learning experiences for boys and girls, where political literacy can be achieved by all students.

Teachers have the major responsibility to equip students with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to become informed, responsible and active citizens. In this regard, Leung (2006) has reported the characteristics of teachers, who can facilitate boys and girls in becoming politically literate such as: open mindedness, being knowledgeable, whole heartedness, willing to care and participate in societal issues, willingness to care for students and courage. Presence of these characteristics is also essential to engage in reflection. Reflection was first proposed by Dewey in 1933 as an integral part of continuous teacher development. Teachers need to reflect on their day to day teaching and learning practices to enhance students' learning and understanding.

Many see reflection as an end to the teaching and learning activity but others see it as way of enabling teachers to make sound judgments of their own teaching and learning practices for the purpose of taking actions to improve them (Zeichner and Liston, 1987). However, many scholars have argued the individualistic nature of reflection proposed by Dewey (1933). Gerard (1995), referred to reflection as a meaningful social activity through which teachers engage in their own capacity building by deliberating and learning from each other. Teachers collaborate by asking questions from one another and helping each other to gain new insights about context, perceptions, situations and values. This notion of collaboration gives way to reflective dialogue. Through reflective dialogue teachers engage in sharing of ideas, asking questions, making suggestions for improvement, and responding to each other's reflections.

This study focused on facilitating teachers in developing political literacy in both boys and girls. The research question was: How can Social Studies teachers be facilitated for gender sensitive political literacy instruction? To help answer the main question a number of subsidiary questions were used however, this paper will focus on one: What teacher education strategies could be helpful in facilitating teachers for developing gender sensitive teaching for making students politically literate? A number of strategies were used though this paper will focus on reflection as a teacher education strategy.

### **Research Design**

Two primary and secondary school social studies teachers Ghazal and Naghma (pseudonym) were purposefully selected for the research study. Both the teachers teach in a private English medium school catering to middle income class families.

Action research was selected for the study. Koshy (2005), defines action research as “an enquiry undertaken with rigor and understanding so as to constantly refine practice, the emerging evidence-based outcomes will then contribute to the researching practitioner continuing professional development” (2005, p.1). Reflection was embedded at every stage of the action research process in the study.

### **Reflecting on the existing practices**

Classroom observations and interviews were used for fact finding. The observations focused on the seating arrangement, teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction, and teachers' instructional strategies. Semi-structured interviews were used because it allowed the researcher to be flexible to further probe the participants to raise their own concerns and issues.

The script tapes of the classroom observations and transcribed interviews were shared with the teachers. They were provided with reflective questions such as: How did they interact with girls and boys? Did boys and girls get equal classroom participation opportunity? Did the instructional strategy they used facilitate in developing political literacy in girls and boys? The questions helped teachers to reflect on their teaching practices and enabled them to some extent to see that most of the times they did not provide equal opportunities for classroom participation. They also observed that whatever chances girls got during teaching and learning it was limited to smiling, nodding or giving one word answers. The transcribed interviews assisted them to reflect on their perceptions on providing opportunities to boys and girls for developing the skills and attitudes for political literacy. Teachers reflected on their own perceptions that they do not regard girls suitable for political literacy because they have to get married and serve the families. They also perceived that even if girls get any knowledge about politics it will be useful to inform their husbands and children in future about current affairs. The reflective questions were discussed in more detail in a reflective dialogue. Initially, it was difficult for the teachers to challenge their own perceptions and classroom teaching practices however, the researcher with the help of using more probing questions assisted them. Two reflective dialogue sessions were held with the teachers where ideas were shared, questions were asked and each responded to other's reflections.

The researcher maintained a reflective journal throughout the study, where the feelings, questions, queries, anxieties and understanding of the situation were mentioned. Koshy (2005) suggests that the reflective process involved in writing the journal contributes to the professional development of the researcher.

### **Facilitating for developing political literacy in boys and girls**

The reflections on the existing teaching practices led teachers to inquire more on their teaching and they shared the need for improving their practice. However, the researcher felt that first teachers needed to develop the understanding of gender sensitive political literacy instruction. An educative session was held to develop teachers' understanding of gender issues. However, as gender beliefs are strongly held due to religious, social and cultural practices it became difficult to alter their perceptions. Realizing this reflective dialogue was held where the teachers reflected on their own lives along with the researcher to become conscious of the presence of gender. Reflecting and analyzing their own experiences from childhood helped them to see the presence of gender in the larger society which became the basis for identifying gender issues in their own classrooms. Later, teachers were facilitated to develop an understanding of political literacy and how some of its skills can be developed in students such as discussion. Simultaneously, teachers were also provided with some guiding questions to facilitate teachers in the process of writing reflections and maintaining a reflective journal.

Lessons were co-planned with the teachers to be taught in the classroom. Teachers were also facilitated to develop lesson plans on their own. Teachers analyzed their own lesson plans with the assistance of the researcher to detect gender bias to and include gender sensitive teaching strategies. As the teachers decided to use discussion skills using gender sensitive teaching strategies, lessons were demonstrated by the researcher. Teachers observed the lessons, reflected on the instructional strategy and later developed lesson plans to use for discussion in the classroom. Teachers' reflections also helped the researcher to understand the situation and revise the plan.

Finally, teachers practiced using discussion in gender sensitive ways in their classrooms. This helped the researcher to evaluate the educative process as gender sensitive instruction is a complex skill and demands complicated behavior and attitude changes, it was anticipated that the outcomes may not be obvious in the first few classroom lessons. Also, the real use of the skill takes longer to translate into classroom practice. However, observations at this stage helped to reflect on the issues and challenges faced by the teachers and subsequently assisted in planning for the next stage. Reflective dialogues were held after each lesson. These dialogues focused on teachers' experiences of how their lessons

went and what challenges did they encounter while teaching a newly learned strategy for gender fair teaching.

#### **Findings and Discussion**

Key findings of the study indicate that reflection and reflective dialogues could be introduced in schools in Pakistan. This is evident in the manner the participants of the study responded positively to reflective dialogues. The reflections were regarded by teachers as an important learning collaborative learning tool with did not only impact on their classroom practice but also in their perceptions. Teachers were able to cite instances where their classroom teaching practice improved as they tried to provide equal participation opportunity to girls and boys to develop political literacy.

#### **Role of Reflection in Shifting Teachers' Perceptions of Gender Sensitive Political Literacy**

Reflecting on the notion of gender sensitive political literacy helped the teachers to analyze their own gendered life experiences and restricted participation in the public sphere being females. This happened as the researcher together with the teachers reflected on their childhood experiences. However, initially the teachers resisted in recognizing gender issues due to their beliefs and perceptions, which helped in changing the teacher educator's assumptions that teachers would accept whatever is told to them. Their resistance led to review the literature to facilitate teachers in understanding the difference between 'sex and gender' or in other terms 'nature and nurture'. The strategy worked to some extent, as teachers were able to see the different values, expectations and responsibilities that were attached to them being women since childhood and this had implications for their active participation in the public and the political sphere of the society. This helped the teachers to see the possibilities of gender issues prevailing in the society with strong influence on its educational institutions such as schools as from, "I teach equally to boys and girls" they moved to "Yes, now I can see that I do not teach equally to boys and girls and unconsciously favor boys" (Naghma, field notes, March 9, 2007).

#### **Role of Reflection in Shifting Teachers' Practice of Gender Sensitive Political Literacy**

Teachers' past experiences and knowledge of politics were valued and used to enhance understanding of political literacy. However, Naghma

reflected that students particularly boys can misuse political knowledge and skills by getting engaged in violent protests and strikes. Her fear stands true as due to the lack of exposure to the skills of political literacy such as, discussion, advocacy and debate, students are only left to follow the path of strikes, violent protest and destruction of public and private properties which negatively effect their participation in the political sphere. However, after a number of reflective dialogues a shift in her perceptions was noticeable, as she gained awareness about political literacy, where the emphasis is on development of skills such as discussion which students can use to challenge the status quo and bring improvement in the society rather than getting engaged in violent actions.

The teachers reflected on the limitation of using textbook as the only resource and tried to come up with ways of enriching them through consulting reference books and using innovative teaching strategies such as discussion. Their effort in enriching the content indicated that teachers required and appreciated reflection as an important professional development strategy which emerges they themselves can engage in with others.

Reflective dialogues helped teachers to discussing their previous session, lesson plans and responded to each other's questions. This helped in utilizing their strength of collaboration in assisting each other during lesson planning and observing to bring improvement in classroom practices.

During the reflective sessions after each educative session, guiding questions were used to help the teachers to reflect on their teaching and express feelings about gender sensitive strategies for developing students' political literacy. The questions focused on issues such as, "What did you learn today? Why do you think this learning of yours is important for you? How this learning can help you in your classroom? What do you think should be done to make the interaction (between the researcher and the teachers) effective? Which part of the session do you think was not fruitful for you?" This exercise helped in bringing teachers' ideas and thoughts at the forefront and examining them to form new ideas for improvement in the classroom.

**Implications for using reflective dialogue as teacher education strategy:**

Teachers were able to use reflective dialogue to improve their gender sensitive political literacy instruction which helped them to develop a positive attitude towards reflective dialogue. This suggests that reflection can be used as an effective teacher education strategy in Pakistan and teacher education programmes can adopt a reflective approach. It also becomes imperative that in-service teacher education programmes should be introduced where reflective approach should be promoted and where time should be allocated to hold reflective dialogues for teachers.

**Conclusion**

Building and enhancing knowledge of reflection as an effective teacher education by engaging in reflective dialogue with two teachers, providing them time for reflection and reading the literature proved to be helpful. As Dadds (2001) asserts that learning is a social experience, which is fostered through the exchange, critique, exploration, and formulation of new ideas. It is learned that to develop into an effective teacher educator, becoming a learner first is important, as a result, constant reflection on actions is fundamental. This is not achieved only because of the teacher educator efforts; rather, the input of the research participants was extremely valuable in shaping teacher education experiences.

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### **Madrasah Education in Pakistan: Issues & Its Effects on Education System of Pakistan**

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#### **Abstract**

*This is an analytical paper that deals with an in-depth study of the Madrasa Education system in Pakistan. Madrasa Education System is of great importance as a lot of our young kids are getting Education by that system. Madrasas were once considered purely religious institutions, but the students of Madrasas have different point of view, where as those if general Education System have completely different vision, which leads to problems of adjustment in society. Instead of having bad feeling for each other, some uniform patterns can be introduced in both systems. To streamline Madrasa Education system on an agreeable and common way of thinking, an in-depth study of that system is required. This paper, therefore throws light on the objective syllabus and system of Education people who belong to Madrasa. This paper gives a clear picture to the readers and Educationist about Madrasa Education System, so that some initiative may be taken to increase the similarity of Madrasa Education System and formal Education System.*

#### **Introduction:**

Religious Scholars and policy makers are giving more attention on the sensitive Issue of Modernization of Madaris' Education now days as indicated by Jilane (2006). He says that The U.S Policy maker's interest has been increased in the Islamic religious Schools known as

(MADARIS), after the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 and Afghan War. Almost all the western Scholars show keen interest to know what happens in these Madaris that exist in the Middle East (Central and Southeast Asia).

Therefore, reforming the madaris has emerged as a major concern for many. The beginning of the madaris as an institution of learning is an event of centuries ago. One of the first established madrasa, called the Nizamiyah that was built in Baghdad during the eleventh century A.D. Offering food, lodging and a free education, madrasas spread quickly throughout the Muslim world. Due to this reason the curricula differed from place to place, it was always religious in nature because these schools ultimately were planned to prepare future Islamic religious scholars (ULAMA) for their work. In these madaris more emphasis was on classical traditions in Arabic linguistics, teachers' lectures and students learning through rote memorization, as discussed in *International Conference on volunteerism and Universal Primary Education* (2005). During the western colonial rule in nineteenth and early twentieth centuries the secular institutions came to supersede religious schools throughout the Islamic world. In Pakistan, some religious educational institutions are restricted to teach traditional theological subjects. These religious educational institutions or the *deeni madrassahs* that are based mainly on voluntary contributions of finance and labor, and have a significant wide outreach, are located in both urban and rural areas.

However, according to the *CRS Report for Congress* Feb 10, 2005, madaris were revived in the 1970s with the rising interest in religious studies and Islamist politics in countries such as Iran and Pakistan. In the 1980s, with the financial support of United States, madaris were allegedly boosted in Afghanistan and Pakistan. At that time European governments and Saudi Arabia, apparently viewed these schools as recruiting grounds for anti Soviet Mujahedin fighters. The Afghan Islamic clerics and students formed the Taliban pressure group in Afghanistan in the early 1990s (Talib means "student" in Arabic), some of them were former Mujahedin who had studied and trained in madrasa and who advocated a strict form of Islam like as to the Wahhabism practiced in Saudi Arabia.

### **Concept of Madaris In Pakistan**

Madrassahs are Pakistan's religious schools that began as centers of learning for the Islamic scholars and clerics. It can be traced back from thousands of years of Islamic teaching. Madrassahs' tuition fees, rooms and food are provided free. As indicated by an analysis paper on Pakistani madrasas (2001) that the clients of the Madarassahs usually come from the poor families who cannot send their children to formal schools simply because they cannot afford the cost of education. Madrassah's system of education had replaced the public school system. It is widely acknowledged that most madrassas are moderate institutions, providing much needed education including with board and lodgings for poorer students. The Quran is studied intensively. These Madrassahs are usually funded by rich Pakistanis, and some devoted Muslims of the Persian Gulf, the Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. In a madrassah school, the Quran in original Arabic text is the main focus of study. There is no formal learning about numeric, literacy, world history or computers. Neither is there any facility of science laboratories nor a proper library. The students of madrassahs range from 8 years to 35 years old. The young boys spend most of their time in memorization of the Quran in Arabic language, till they get mastery in it which normally takes 6 months to three years. In a normal classroom situation, the teacher sits with the students, reads Arabic and students repeat after him. They learn by rote memory. They also study Islamic history and Islamic jurisprudence.

The main concern of the Madrassahs is to provide Islamic education. These institutions have their own management system without interference from either the provincial or federal governments. However, grants-in-aid are provided to these institutions by the government. During 2000 there were 6761 religious institutions with an enrollment of 934,000, of which 132,000 were female students in 448 institutions (Khan, 2002).

The increase in the number of religious institutes in Pakistan has been extraordinary. Beginning with only 245 institutes at the time of independence, the number had risen to over 6700 by 2000. While the number of institutes doubled in the first two decades after independence, they get more than quadrupled "Between" 1960-80; and

then again doubled over the next decade. Provincial statistics show that the highest number of institutes is located in Punjab.

**Table-1**  
Number of Religious Educational institutes by Provinces

Province	1947	1960	1980	1988	2000
Punjab	121	195	1012	1320	3153
Sindh	21	87	180	291	905
NWFP	59	87	426	678	1281
Balochistan	28	70	135	347	692
AJ&K	4	8	29	76	151
ICT	0	1	22	47	94
Northern Areas	12	16	47	102	185
FATA					300
<b>TOTAL</b>	245	464	2056	2861	6761

Source: Pakistan: Religious Education Institutions- *An overview*; Institutes of Policy Studies: Islamabad: 2002.

With an estimated total enrollment of over 1 million students in 2000, statistics show a remarkable increase of students both boys (111%), and girls (61%), during the decade of the 1990s.

**Table-2**  
Student Enrolment by Level in Religious Institutes

	1988		2000	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls

Nazra	228,317	67,773	510,125	101,040
Hifz	84,953	6,271	190,105	14,125
Tajvidh	42,276	3,443	75,105	7,910
Tehtani	58,027	1,748	108,202	4,106
Moquf-Alaih	15,724	639	28,210	1,504
Dora-e-Hadith	12,260	1,585	22,125	2,720
TOTAL	441,557	81,459	933,872	131,405

Source: Pakistan: Religious Education Institutions- *An overview*; Institutes of Policy Studies: Islamabad: 2002.

Most of the madaris have no formal admission system or academic schedule; however some prominent madaris have made an attempt to institutionalize their admission, grading and promotion procedure. The Religious Madaris of Pakistan are categorized in three levels: First level is the elementary stage known as (ibtetai) where only Quran is learnt by heart, second is the Middle level called (Vustani), in which selected books from Dars-e-Nazami are taught; while the third level is based on intensive study of Islam by teaching the books of Dars-i-Nizami and is known as Fauquani. Besides that, in some madaris where competent Ulema are available, students after their graduation take up post-graduate courses of study in Tafsir, Hadith, or Fiqah.

Though the Madaris are run by the Ulama by their own budgeting or by some local and foreign aid of rich Muslims, yet the government of Pakistan give some grant to such madaris. As far the curriculum of these madaris is concerned, there is absolutely no such type of curriculum which encourages the Aggression or Militancy among the students. The majorities of madaris in Pakistan are busy in traditional Islamic studies and are not involved in any militant activities or even

sectarian fighting. In fact, a large numbers of madaris are concentrating only on their primary mission and they were kept away from politics. *ESR 2001-2005* highlights that after the soviet attack of Afghanistan in 1979, a huge number of students migrated from Afghanistan and get admitted to some madaris which exists on the northern and southern borders of Pakistan. Therefore, they were associated with the Afghan jihad movement against the Soviet Union.

During the Soviet attack almost five million Afghan refugees came into NWFP and Balochistan and at that time 40% of school going children was with them and some of them were orphans and some were very poor. These children were sent to the madaris where Islamic education was provided along with basic skills of reading and writing, on the other hand food and shelter was also provided free of cost to these refugees' children. For the particular purpose of fighting against the Soviets, some madaris were established in the 1980's to 1990's specifically for Afghan children to teach them with militancy besides a portion of religious education as well. There were actually Jihadi camps with a label of madaris to legitimize their operations and search for funds from all over the world.

#### **Change in Madrassahs System**

According to an analysis paper on Pakistani madrasas (2001) it was indicated that in 1980's the madrassahs system was changed as the Zakat (Islamic Religious Tithe) was introduced to encourage more madrassahs schools to be opened. Money was now automatically deducted from bank balances and dispersed at the local level to institutions deemed worthy of support by religious leaders, creating new incentives for opening religious schools. More Madrassahs were formed and the schools also served as refugee center of parentless victims of Afghanistan war. Today there are about 45000 madrassahs schools existing with students ranging from few to several thousands but they teach a more extreme version of Islam than what had been propagated before. They combine a mix of Wahabism (a puritanical version of Islam originating in Saudi Arabia) with Deobandism (a strand from the Indian subcontinent that is anti-Western, claiming that the West is the source of corruption in contemporary Islamic states and thus the laws of state are not legitimate). Madrassahs increased in its number and influence as the Pakistan's formal education system was not so strong. It could not support the people because of the low governmental education budget. Pakistan

spends only 2% of the gross national income on education. The public schools are very defective regarding the facilities, the teachers, and kind of curriculum. They lack teachers, electricity, running water, books and buildings. There was uncontrollable corruption in the government diverting school funds into other things. These things all resulted to the low literacy rate of Pakistan as a whole, which is 53% as per government record but it is not actual position on ground level, it is not good sign that with all possible efforts the literacy rate is not increased as per demand and commitment with the international forum. Due to poor performance and lack of facilities of Government Schools, the rich Pakistanis and elite pulled their children from the public schools and enrolled them in the private schools. The poor people have no other options than the Madrassahs schools, since they cannot afford to send their children to costly private schools.

### **Madrassahs' Curriculum**

Although a few numbers of Madaris teach secular subjects, yet most of them provide curriculum based on religious subjects focusing on rote memorization of Arabic texts to the exclusion of basic skills such as simple math, science, or geography. The graduates of these institutions are unable to multiply, find their country on a map, and are ignorant of basic events in human history such as the moon landing, etc. Beyond instruction in basic religious tenets, some argue that a small group of radicalized madrasas, specifically located near the Afghanistan-Pakistan border, promote a militant form of Islam and teach their Muslim students to fight nonbelievers and stand against what they see as the moral depravity of the West. While some observers have opinion that these school have no concerned with religious scholarship and focused only on teaching violence. A recent study by USAID denotes the relations between madrasas and extremist Islamic groups as "rare but worrisome" and "access to quality education alone cannot discourage all helpless youth from joining terrorist groups." The article '*Strengthening Education in the Muslim World*' reveal another factor that the Madrasa graduate cannot write frequently, in the madrasas the English is totally banned, therefore, the graduate of madrasas are not able to read and write simple English.

### **Madaris Reforms**

Singer, P. W and Olin, J. M. (2001) say that Efforts have been made by

the present government to bring the Madrassah in the mainstream under Education Sector Reforms. The main purpose of mainstreaming Madrassah is to enlarge employment opportunities for their graduates. Pakistan Madrassah Education Boards are established to regulate the Madaris activities.

According to the *Education Sector Reforms 2001-2005*, the story of Madaris is thus integrally associated with the story of Jihad of the 1980's and of the Cold war that created political conditions for this Jihad. Therefore, the answers to the questions being asked these days in the media, scholarly circles or policy circles are of crucial importance. Who established these Madaris's? Why were they created? Such as who provided them with the generous funds? And more importantly, who revived the inactive tradition of Jihad as an armed struggle against the infidels? - are not just in Kabal, Riyadh, Islamabad or Peshawar.

The present regime within the framework of National Education Policy 1998-2010, Education Sector Reforms 2001-2002 to 2005-2006, and the Ten year perspective Plan 2001-2011 has developed a plan for teaching of formal subjects in Deeni Madaris. Reforms envisages introduction of formal education in 8000 Madaris, (Primary education .in 4000, Middle and Secondary in 3000, and intermediate education in 1000 Madaris). Selection of the Madaris will be made in consultation with provincial Governments including AJ&K, FATA, FANA and ICT. Madaris will be mainstreamed through provision of grants, Salaries to teachers, cost of textbooks, teacher training and equipment. Formal subjects English, Math, Social/Pakistan Studies and General Science would be introduced at the primary, Middle, and Secondary levels, while English, Economics, Pakistan Studies and Computer Science will be introduced at the intermediate level. Incentives to Madaris have already been provided to 140 at secondary level and 200 at intermediate level. The Government of Pakistan, from its own budget resources is implementing this plan.

The President of Pakistan addressed to the nation on 12<sup>th</sup> January 2002 and set the objectives to make the Madaris modernized. The objectives are as under:

**OBJECTIVES:**

- To teach formal subjects in 8000 Madaris to bridge the gulf between Madrasah Education and Formal Education system.



- To open the lines of communication with the Ulama who run the Madaris to impart formal education in addition to religious education for spreading of Islamic values at national and international levels.
- To improve and update knowledge of their teachers in formal subjects through workshops at different parts of the country.
- To provide incentives as costs of equipments (computers, printers, apparatus etc) for teaching of Computer Science, costs of textbooks, sports and other facilities to Madaris.
- One-time grant to the Madaris for improvement of their libraries and equip their buildings.

### **Components**

The article 'Madrassa Reforms (Teaching of Formal Subject in Deeni Madaris)' highlights that the following measures have been planned to make the Madaris modernized.

- Grant salaries to 32000 teachers, out of which to 16000 teachers for teaching of the formal subjects at Primary level @ Rs. 3000/- in 4000 Madaris, to 12000 teachers at Secondary level @ Rs. 4000/- in 3000 Madaris and to 4000 teachers of 1000 Madaris at Intermediate level @ Rs. 5000/-for 3 years. The duration of project is 5 years.
- Costs of textbooks, stationary items, sports facilities and one time grant for library facilities and furniture to all Madaris. Computer, printers, computer lab to 1000 Madaris at Intermediate level and vehicles to 5 Wafaqs of Madaris.
- Training to 32000 teachers through workshops of 8-day duration each by the respective Education Departments.
- Evaluation of sample Madaris by Provincial Education Departments and the Federal Government, development of textbooks in the formal subjects for teaching in Madaris by the Ministry of Education.
- Expenditure on Project Implementation Units at provinces/areas and Federal levels.

### **Table-3**

Item wise and Year wise Details of Expenditure (In Millions)

ITEMS	I	II	III	IV	V	Total
1. Salaries	144					
-Primary	192	432		576	432	144
-Middle +	240	384		576	384	192
Secondary		240		240	-	-
-HSSC						720
Subtotal	576	1056	1392	816	336	4176
2. Textbooks	150	120	90	-	-	360
3. Sports Facilities	90	90	60	-	-	240
4. Stationery Items	60	60	40	-	-	160
5. Apparatus AVA Computer Lab.	200	-	-	-	-	200
6. Reference Books & Furniture	440	340	240	-	-	1020
7. Computers & Printers	200	-	-	-	-	200
8. Vehicles to Wafaqs	7.5	-	-	-	-	7.5
9. Teacher training	30	34	80	-	-	144.0

10. Monitoring , Auditing	-	4	5	6	-	15
11. Development of Textbooks etc.	0.8	1.0	1.565	-	-	3.365
12. Operational Staff	2.111	2.111	2.111	2.111	2.111	10.555
13. Honorarium to add. Staff	0.048	0.048	0.048	0.048	0.048	0.24
14. Office utilities	4.196	1.896	1.896	1.896	1.896	11.78
15. PIU Expenditure	7.712	7.712	7.712	7.712	7.712	38.56
Grand Total	1768.367	1716.767	1920.332	833.767	347.767	6587

Source: <http://www.embassyofpakistan.org/pb.7.hp>

I-2002-03

II-2003-04

III-2004-05

IV-2005-06

V-2006-07

### **Effects of Madrassas on the Education System of Pakistan with Emphasis on Literacy**

Pakistan's educational system is considered the least developed as compared to the one of other countries and the literacy rate of Pakistan is recorded to be 53%. According to an article 'Pakistan's Madrassahs: Ensuring a System of Education not Jihad' the very minimal budget that is 2% of its GNP is allotted to education which is not enough. Despite the good provisions the madrassah schools provide to their students, the too narrow curriculum affects the education system.

How does madrassah schools affect literacy rate of Pakistan? From the previous discussions, it was stated that the main focus of Madrassah schools system is to teach religious education with mastery of the Quran in its original language, Arabic. In the system, focus is only on rote memory and no other areas of disciplines are being strengthened or harnessed. After several years of studying hard in Madrassahs schools, the graduates end up as performing religious rites at marriages and burials. Some of them become keepers of the mosques. They have skills only to be imams or assistants at mosques, despite the fact that there are not enough jobs in these areas for them. These graduates of the madrassahs, since they are taught neither English nor Science, become misfit to the Pakistani society and can not participate in the economic and social development of country. In the Zia regime most of the Madaras graduate recruited as a Arabic teacher, Some of them were able to read and write Urdu But most of them were not familiar with English or other subject which are taught in the Public schools. No doubt they are competent in the religious education but can not compete to the international standards of a teacher.

The country needs useful, functionally literate competitive members of society to be able to compete in the global community. But sad to say, these madrassahs schools do not contribute to the rise in literacy rate of our country. It has narrow curriculum as indicated by a Pakistani Journalist Ahmed Rashid that many students develop an intolerant, prejudiced... and narrow-minded view of the world.

### **Affects of Madrassas in the Social and Economic Stability of the Country**

As graduates of madrassahs, young men are sentenced to continuous unemployment. In any country the working force is composed of young men who become the backbone of the country. In the case of Pakistan, the young men who are products of madrassahs do not form the backbone of the society; rather become the liability of the society. They are supposed to be skilled and functional in the society to help uplift the country's economy...while they prove to be unskilled, functionally and economically illiterates. In the absence of healthy and literate population it will be difficult for Pakistan to bring about the real increase in productivity. Graduates of madrassahs also add to the high number of unemployed in the country.

More than 40 years ago, as quoted in an article 'Pakistan's Madrassahs: Ensuring a System of Education not Jihad, Pakistan's most important Islamist Maulana Abul Ala Maududi, warned against an education that focuses solely on religion at the exclusion of outside knowledge by saying that those who choose the theological branch of learning generally keep themselves utterly ignorant..[of secular subjects, thereby remaining] incapable of giving any lead to the people. Therefore it can be said that if the Madrassahs leave millions unequipped for the new century, Pakistan will be sentenced to stay behind by its very own system of education.

### **Suggestions**

#### **How Can These Problems Be Addressed?**

Madrassah schools are very influential and continuously increasing in number. Here are some possible suggestions:

1. Since the curriculum of madrassah's school system is too narrow, the Islamic religious leaders and the government may talk and agree to a point so that religious schools will include other subjects like mathematics, English, history, geography, economics, science and computer in their curriculum in order to have outputs of functional young men, who may have well organized knowledge of Quran and Islam in addition with a well organized skill to face realities of the world.
2. Another possible solution to this can be renewal of the existing public school system. The government should increase educational budgets in order to meet the needs of Pakistanis in terms of having access to quality education.

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## **A Study of Inter-Relationship at Cognitive and Affective Levels of Self Perception and Environmental Perception of Adolescents**

Dr Allah Bakhsh Malik\*

### **Abstract**

*The total self development of adolescents takes place in the framework of their self perception at “real me and “ideal me” levels and their environmental perception at the “family “and “school “perceptual levels. The present study sought to find out the degree of affectivity of cognitively advanced adolescents and the less cognitively advanced adolescents. Two groups were formed on the basis of their performance on two Piagetian Tasks purported to assess the formal operations stage or otherwise. A comparative analysis showed that the formal operational i.e. cognitively more advanced adolescents, showed less discrepancy between their “real me” and “ideal me” estimation of themselves. This gap was less than those of the less cognitively advanced adolescents whose gap between the two pictures of themselves was more than they could cope with. This finding was in conformity with the discrepancy theory advocated by William James. The study also empirically tested the hypothetical theoretical assertion of Piaget that the cognitive and affective domains are parallel and influence each other. The findings of this study have shown the differential development of affective and domains of formal operational and non formal operational and these are not only parallel but are also concomitant.*

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### **Introduction**

The study of self is of great concern to every individual in whatever capacity he may be. An individual tries to know what he is; self-perception is of great importance for self development. James (1890) made a distinction between self as a knower and self as the self known. He used two different terms for self as “I “and” me”. “What am I” is being explored by philosophers, psychologists, social scientists and others, under various nomenclatures namely, human psyche, human ego, personology, consciousness, being and phenomenology. But how do I actually assess myself is the “me” part of self, which is more important. It is this realization of my real self which determines my present achievements and actions and builds a sense of self worth in me. Rogers (1959) has drawn our attention also to the dreams one entertains about the future. He thinks that the direction of development of self is largely determined by what one would like to be in future. Thus both the “real me” and “Ideal me” govern the ship of life of an individual self. Self does not remain closeted up in isolation but yearns for interaction with other selves which form his social environment. The framework for self development, therefore, is built around self perception at the level of real me and ideal me as well as environmental perception at family and school levels which chiefly determine the social environment for the growing individuals especially the adolescents.

Mere cognitive awareness of self does not account for total self developmental process. His sense of belongingness and self – esteem involve feeling of self worth. Both the cognitive and affective aspects of self need careful examining But are these concomitant developments or parallel developments? J.Piaget (1958) had rightly hinted at some kind of inter-relationship between the two but left it at conjectural level and did not substantiate any kind of relationship through research.

### **The Statement of the Problem**

The present study sought to determine the kind of relationship between the development stages of the adolescents at formal and non-formal levels in their cognitive and affective domains.

### **Objectives of Study**

1. To find significance of relationship, if any, between the cognitive and affective domains.



2. To study how formal operationals and non-formal do operational differ in their environmental perception and self perception.

### **Hypotheses**

$$H_0: M_A - M_B = 0 ; H_A: M_A - M_B \neq 0$$

1. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non- formal operational on the combined scores on family perception and school perception which together constitute the environmental perception.
2. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non – formal operational on family perception.
3. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non- formal operational on school perception.
4. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non- formal operational on evaluative factor of family perception.
5. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non-formal operational on activity – potency factor of family perception.
6. There is no significant difference between means scores of formal operational and non-formal operational on evaluative factor of school perception.
7. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non- formal operational on activity – potency factor of school perception.
8. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non-formal operational and on “real me” and “ideal me” discrepant scores of self perception.
9. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non-formal operational on “real me” self perception. Comprising evaluative and activity potency factors.
10. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non-formal operational on evaluative factor of “real me” self perception.

11. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non formal operational on activity potency factor of “real me” self –perception.
12. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non-formal operational on Evaluative factor of “Ideal me” self – perception.
13. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non-formal operational on activity potency factor of “ideal me” self perception.
14. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operational and non-formal operational on evaluative activity potency factors of “ideal me” self perception.

### **Significance of the Study**

There is scant empirical evidence to test or confirm J.Piaget’s theoretical assertion that cognitive and affective developments are not only parallel but also influence each other. Hence it is surmised that present study might make contribution to existing body of empirical knowledge to support the hitherto theoretical assertion in the area.

It might also suggest lines of research in the individual - environment framework on perception of self and environment. Self perception and environmental perception both are of vital importance to the individual’s mental health and his adjustment to the social environment in which he lives.

### **Sample**

The sample for the study was taken from government Pilot Secondary School Wahdat Road Lahore.

The admission register was consulted to obtain subjects of adolescent age within the age range 15 to 15 ½ years (the age level Piaget considers for formal operationals). All of them were asked if they were willing to take part in a research project. Only 80 subjects volunteered but in all only 70 subjects of average age 15 years and 2 months completed the requirements of the research

### **Instruments Used**

- (a) **Cognitive Domain Piagetian Tasks**

In the cognitive domain two Piagetian tasks namely liquid and pendulum tasks were selected from Inhelder and Piaget's book (1958) entitled "The growth of logical thinking from childhood to adolescence". Pendulum task measures inferential thinking and the liquids tasks assesses the hypothetic – deductive thinking. The hall marks of hypothetic - deductive thinking are the ability to take into account all possible combinations of events in a systematic way. This involves combinatorial operations which distinguishes formal operational from non- formal operational. A group of formal operationalists was isolated from the non-formalists. The formalists were considered fit if their combined score on both the Piagetian Tasks was of acceptable limit, already determined by Munawar (1975)

**(b) Affective Domain on Osgood Scale**

Two semantic Differential Scales, were devised for evaluating the affective domain comprising environmental perception and self-perception. One semantic Differential scale was administered for obtaining responses for concepts of "family" and "school". The second Semantic Differential Scale was used for getting responses about concepts of "real me" and "Ideal me."

As stated by Osgood (1958) semantic differential scales are best suited to assess the affective domain. This technique is a sensitive tool to help in the exploration of extremely important areas of psychological concern ie the denotative and the connotative meaning' hidden in the concept. Osgood also reminds us that the formation of concepts involves verbal mediating responses. He also speculates that there could be a semantic space analogous to physical space. Just as objects however diverse can be partly defined in terms of common dimensions of length , breadth and height, the concepts can be defined by the connotations of words in the pictorial of their dimensions ie potency, activity and evaluation.

Two main criteria were kept in mind while determining the selection of pairs of opposing adjectives: their factorial representation (i.e. whether they related strongly to evaluative, potency and activity factors) and adequate coverage of physical cognitive and psycho- social aspects of each concept.

The SD Scales were 7- point scales and adjectives were not placed in the same direction namely positive or negative. Reversals were used for bi-polar adjectives to counteract response bias tendencies. Twenty bi-polar adjectives were prepared for each S.D Scale keeping in view 10:5:5 proportion for evaluation, potency and activity respectively. The potency factor contained five scales representing physical, cognitive and psycho-social aspects in proportion 1:2:2 respectively. Same formula was adopted for activity factor.

### **Validity of Semantic Differential Scales**

Three independent judges were asked to give their verdict as to the adequate coverage of affective domain by concepts relating to self-perception and environmental perception constituted by family and school. The concept of “real me” and “ideal me” were thought to cover the self perception. They were also asked to attest the authentic representation of each pair of opposite adjectives for the three qualitative factors of evaluation, potency and activity. They also gave their assent on quantitative coverage of the second level of semantic space of the concepts namely their physical aspects. The dimensions of physical, cognitive and psycho-social are not indicated by Osgood but in the present study , a deeper analytic look was deemed valuable for making pairs of adjectives more representative and comprehensive to depict the concept

### **Reliability of Semantic Differential Scales**

To find the reliability of the two Scales, one for eliciting self perception and the other environmental perception the same Scales were administered twice often a gap of 10 weeks; for the “family” perception the test-re-test reliability was .86 (N=70) and for “School” perception was .65. For the “real me” perception it was .70 (N=70) and the “ideal me” perception it was .89. All the correlations were reasonably high and are very close to those reported by Osgood and Tannenbaum. (1967) for the semantic differential scales.

### **Factorial Representation for measuring Environmental Perception**

- (a) Evaluative factors containing adjective pairs for environmental perception is represented as under:

dirty – clean; comfortable uncomfortable; academic – un-academic; hardworking - lazy; literate- illiterate; organized - disorganized; effective – ineffective; kind- unkind; saddening- exhilarating, liberal - traditional.

- (b) Activity and potency factors were represented by the adjective pairs tense- relaxed; secure, insecure; loving – imposing; heartening –disheartening; controlling – free reflective – unreflective; eventful – uneventful, calm – noisy. Democratic- autocratic; stimulating – un-stimulating.

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### **Factorial Representation for measuring Self Perception**

- (a) Evaluative factor contained the adjective pairs, ugly – beautiful; dirty- clean; silly – intelligent; good coordinator- bad coordinator; successful – unsuccessful; knowledge seeker – knowledge shirker; restrictive – permissive; kind – unkind; human – inhumane; happy – sad.
- (b) Activity and Potency factor contained the adjective pairs: weak – strong; active – passive; ease – loving – hard working; dull – sharp; productive – unproductive; stupid – promising; lenient – tough; emotionally alive – apathetic; cold – warm; encouraging discouraging.

### **Scoring**

The scoring was done on a 7-point scale. The possible scores ranged from 20 to 140 on each SD Scale

### **Testing of Null Hypotheses**

T-Test was applied to study the significance of difference between the mean scores of formal operational and non formal operational on self-perception and environmental perception. The level of significance for rejection / accordance was placed at .05 levels

### **Statistical Analysis of Hypotheses H<sub>0</sub> 1; H<sub>0</sub> 2; H<sub>0</sub> 3**

It should be pointed out that the higher means on perception represent more positive perception. Lower means indicate less positive image, Formal operational are those who have passed both the cognitive tasks and secured scores between 28-43. Non formal operational are those who have passed either of the two tasks and scored between 0-27., (This

criterion was developed by Munawar Mirza (1975).The means and SD of family perception, school perception and the total of the two which is environmental perception are given in Table I for formal operational and nonformal operational. It also includes the t values and probability. One tailed test was used.

**Table 1**

Means Scores of Formal Operational and Non-formal Operational on Family Perception, School Perception and Environmental Perception.

$$H_0 = M_A - M_B = 0 ; H_A = M_A - M_B \neq 0$$

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Nonformal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H 1	Family	104.74	6.46	98.81	6.49	1.59	
	3.73	< .01					
H 2	School	96.70	13.41	89.89	14.08	3.39	
	2.00	<.05					
H 3	Total / Both	201.44	15.15	187.22	17.97		
	4.03	3.52 <.01					

$$df \quad 68: .01 = 2.65$$

$$df \quad 68: .05 = 2.00$$

The means of the Formal Operational Group and Non formal Operation Group family perception and total of family and school perception ie environmental perception are significantly different at .01 level, whereas the mean of Formal Operational Group on school perception is significantly different at .05 level from Non Formal Operational Group. Therefore first three null hypotheses stand rejected. We can affirm that the formal operational seem to possess better perception of the environment constituted by two elements namely their schools and

families, than the non- operational. The affective level of formal operational is significant by (significantly) different and higher than those of non formal operational

**Analysis of hypotheses H<sub>0</sub> 4; Ho 5**

The means and SD of evaluative and activity potency factors of family perception for Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational are presented in Table 2. It also includes the t values and probability. One tailed test was used.

**Table 2**  
Mean Scores of Formal Operational And Non Formal operational on Evaluative and Activity Potency Factors of Family Perception.

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Non formal Operational N = 27		SE	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H <sub>0</sub> -4	Evaluative 4.07	61.44 4.75	56.15	5.59		1.30	
H <sub>0</sub> -5	Activity Potency .48	43.30 5.17	42.67	5.34		1.30	ns
	Total 3.73	104.74 6.46	98.81	6.49		1.59	

df 68: .01 = 2.65  
df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of the Formal Operational Group are higher on evaluative and activity potency factors of family perception than those of the Non Formal Group.

The means of evaluative factor of family perception and combined evaluative and activity potency factors of Formal Operational Group and Non Formal Operational Group are significantly different at .01 level;

whereas the mean of activity potency factor of family perception of Formal Operational Group is not significantly different from that of Non Formal Operational Group. Therefore it is evident that null hypothesis No 5 studies rejected and it is reasonable to assert that formal operational perceive the evaluative factor of their family environment higher than the non formal operational and are more affectively attached with families and null hypothesis no 4 stands rejected. This highlights the significant value of the evaluative factor in family perception of formal operational and the non- formal operational. They differ in their overall perception of family environment only on account of the evaluative factor of their perception of family environment. Why the two groups held almost identical perceptions about the impact of activity potency factor of family environment needs an explanation. One conjecture might be that both the group hailed from homogeneous families of middle class Govt servants who kept tight control over household life. This hypothesis needs looking into, through an ethnographic research.

**Analysis of hypotheses H<sub>0</sub>-6 ; H<sub>0</sub>-7**

In Table 3 are given the means and SD of evaluative and activity potency factor of school perception for Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational. It also includes the t values and probability. One tailed test was used.

**Table 3**  
Mean Scores of Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational on Evaluative and Activity Potency Factors of School Perception.

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Non formal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H <sub>0</sub> -6	Evaluative	51.63	11.37		47.70	13.45	
	3.11	1.26	ns				
	Activity						
H <sub>0</sub> -7	Potency	45.25	4.61	42.11	5.81		1.32
	2.38	<.01					
	Total	96.70	13.41		89.89	14.08	
	3.39	2.00	< .05				



df 68: .01 = 2.65  
 df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of Formal Operational group on evaluative and activity potency factors of school perception and the total of the two are higher than those of Non formal Group.

The mean of activity potency factor of school perception of Formal Operational Group is significantly different at .01 level from that of Non Formal Operational Group. The mean of combined evaluative and activity potency factors of school perception is significantly different at .05 level from that of Non Formal Operational Group. Therefore it is evident that the overall school perception of formal operational is different and higher that of the non formal operational but they do not show significantly different affectivity with school. The probable reason of it may be their identical perception of belongings to school a feeling of attachment and identity as students of school .The null hypotheses no 7 stands accepted but hypotheses no 6 stands rejected.

**Analysis of H<sub>0</sub> 8 ; H<sub>0</sub> 9**

In Table 4 are given the means and SD of “real me” “Ideal me” and the discrepant scores between the two for Formal Operational. It also includes the values and probability, one tailed test was used.

**Table 4**  
 Mean Scores of Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational on “Real Me”, “Ideal Me” and Discrepant Score.

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Non formal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H-9	Real me	110.95	8.65	101.96		9.15	
	2.2	4.09	<.01				
	Ideal me	118.28	8.02	106.55		8.71	
	2.08	5.64	<.01				
H-8	Discrepant						

Scores	19.09	10.13	27.59	13.44	3.01
	2.82	< .01			

df 68: .01 = 2.65

df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of the Formal Operational Group on “real me and “ideal me” are significantly different from those of Non Formal Operational Group.

The mean of the Formal Operational Group on discrepant scores between “real me” and “ideal me” is significantly lower than that of Non Formal Operational Group. The null hypothesis  $H_0$ , 8 and 9 are therefore rejected and it can be affirmed that the total self perception of Formal operational and non formal operational is significantly different and commensurate with their development in the cognitive domain. Their cognitive and affective domains are at commensurate development levels the higher the cognitive level the higher the affective level and the lower the cognitive level, the lower the affective level. The forma operational show less gap between real me and ideal me and non formal operational show big gap between the real me and the ideal me perception. Their self image is also different at evaluative and potency activity levels of their self perception of real me and ideal me. William James (1892) put forth his theory of discrepancy between the “real me” and “ideal me” He stated: My self worth is a direct function of the difference between what I would like to be and what I think I am. The closer my actual self (I perceive myself) is to my ideal self. (The way I would like to be) the more I will like myself. The present finding is in line with his theory of discrepancy.

**Analysis of  $H_0$  10;  $H_0$  11**

In Table 5 are given the means and SD of evaluative and activity potency factors of “real me “perception of Formal Operational nad Non Formal Operational. It also includes the t values and probability. One tailed test was used.

**Table 5**

Mean Scores of Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational on Evaluate and Activity Potency Factors of “Real Me” Perception.

	Formal	Non formal			
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Variable	Operational N = 43		Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H <sub>0</sub> 10 Evaluative Activity	60.28 1.45	3.46 <.01	4.73		55.26	6.56	
H <sub>0</sub> 11 Potency	50.86 2.63	<.01	5.99		46.70	6.71	1.58
Total	110.95 2.23	4.03 <.01	8.65		101.96	9.32	

df 68: .01 = 2.65  
df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of Formal Operational Group on evaluative and activity potency factor of “real me” and “real me” perception are significantly higher than those of Non Formal Operational Group.

The means on evaluative, activity potency and “real me perception are significantly different at .01 level for Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational. Null hypotheses H-10 and H-11 are therefore rejected There is a definite, significant and higher affective level of cognitive operational than that of the non cognitive operational.

**Analysis of H<sub>0</sub> 12 ; H<sub>0</sub> 13 ; H<sub>0</sub>14**

In Table 6 are given the means and SD of evaluative and activity potency factors of “Ideal me” for Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational. It also includes the t values and probability. One tailed test was used.

**Table 6**  
Mean Scores of Formal Operational and Non Formal Operational on  
Evaluative and Activity Potency Factors of “Ideal Me”

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43	Non formal Operational N = 27	SEM	t	p
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	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H <sub>0</sub> -12	Evaluative 1.43	64.84 4.62		4.12		58.63	6.66
	Activity	<.01					
H <sub>0</sub> -13	Potency 4.44	53.44 <.01	5.83		47.93	4.49	1.24
H <sub>0</sub> -14	Total 2.1	118.28 5.59		8.02		106.55	8.87

df 68: .01 = 2.65

df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of Formal Operational on evaluative, activity potency factors and the total of the two i.e.: ideal me” perception are significantly different at .01 level from those of Non Formal Operational. The hypothesis No 12,13 and 14 stand rejected and we can affirm with a confidence level of 95% that the ideal me perceptions at the evaluative, activity - potency level of Formal operational and non formal operational are differentially developing. The formal operational have higher scores on “ideal me” and these scores are commensurate with their cognitive development. The non-operational do not seem to possess a higher self image and their “ideal me” picture is affected by their cognitively low formal operational level

### **Conclusion**

The research findings point to the fact that the affective level of formal operational is developing differently from the affective level of non-formal operational. The environmental perception and self perception of formal operational are predominantly and positively affective in nature than those of the non formal operational. The Piagetian assertion that the cognitive and affective domains are not only parallel but also influence each stands empirically strengthened by finding of the present study substantiating that affectivity is more positively, concomitantly and differentially related to formal operationalism.

In addition, the self perception level of formal operational is higher in their “real me” and “ideal me” perception than those of non- formal operational. Their discrepancies confirm the discrepancy theory advocated by Willian James (1892) that gap between the “real me and “ideal me” estimation by individuals is less in case of those who possess positive self regard than those who are less confident of themselves and have a poor self- image.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

1. Longitudinal studies from age 15 to 20 years may be undertaken to gain more insight into the relationship of cognitive and affective domains.
2. Studies should be replicated on female sample of different age group and undertaken on the suggested cognitive affective interaction model.
3. The elements of affective domain may be enlarged by including views of significant other’ like mother and father about the individual.
4. The elements of affective domain may also be enlarged by including peer relations.
5. Group from rural may be included to see whether rural; urban difference exists within the cognitive affective framework.
6. Further research may be conducted to see why the non- Formal operational seem to be more favorably conscious of the dynamic aspect of their school environment than the formal operational.
7. Further research may be conducted to see why the formal operational seem to be more favorably responsive to the appreciative aspects of the residential and non-residential students.
8. Residential institutions be taken to see whether the differences exist between school perception of the residential and non-residential students.

### **Recommendations for Teacher**

The present study indicates that formal operational students possess less gap in discrepant scores between ‘real me’ and ideal me’ perception and

that non-formal operational students have a wide gap between real me perception and ideal me perception. In the light of this finding it is suggested that.

- a. The teacher should try to narrow down the wide discrepancy between the real me ideal me' perception by assigning easy tasks to the student and build up their self esteem. The students would realize that they can do in the present whatever is expected of them in future. The teachers can do this by matching the tasks with the capacities of the children.
- b. The teacher need to make the school environment work-oriented demanding action and stressing the dynamic aspect of school environment but at the same time love with the institution and its activities needs to be developed. The students should identify themselves with their school, through feelings of mutual respect and confidence.
- c. The teachers should not lower the self-esteem of children by their practice of nagging nick naming, ridiculing sarcasm and faultfinding.

#### **Recommendations for Parents**

1. The basic psychological need of children is security, belongingness and emotional adjustment within the family. The parents should pay special attention to the child's feeling of acceptance of home environment.
2. The parents should not unnecessarily pester the children by their practices of nagging, idle remarks on their sense of duty and purpose, censure of minor mistakes and indifference, because these practices tend to lower the self esteem of the children.

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