PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

2005

Volume: XXII Issue-I

Research and Evaluation Centre
Allama Iqbal Open University
Islamabad – Pakistan

SUBSCRIPTION

YEARLY	:	Rs.200.00
SINGLE COPY	:	Rs.150.00

FOREIGN

INDIVIDUALS	:	US $ 35.00
LIBRARIES AND INSTITUTIONS	:	US $ 40.00

Composed By	:	S. Athar Hussain
Typeset By	:	Hamid Zahid
Printed By	:	Marshal Printing Press
Published By	:	Allama Iqbal Open University

TO THE READER

Pakistan Journal of Education is dedicated to the learning system rapidly growing in Asia and the world over. The Journal welcomes studies, research and review papers dealing with past, present and future perspectives of education, with a view to awakening further interest in the newly growing discipline and opening new vistas of research.

Authors are advised to send two copies of manuscripts, retaining one with them for reference. The submission of a manuscript will be taken to imply that the material has not been previously published. Work included in the manuscript but done by the author in other places should be clearly acknowledged.

Views expressed in this Journal are those of authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Pakistan Journal of Education.

Articles alongwith diskette may be sent to:

Coordinator,
Pakistan Journal of Education,
Research and Evaluation Centre,
Allama Iqbal Open University,
Sector H-8, Islamabad, Pakistan.

The Journal is published twice a year in Summer and Winter by the Research and Evaluation Centre Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, Pakistan.

EDITORIAL BOARD

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Volume XXII	2005	Issue-I

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL

EDUCATING THE YOUTH

In rapid development of land,
For the growth of human being,
To the cause of flaring future,
Regarding commercial upwardness,
The youth of today,
Has a role to play,
Which can't be nullified!
Shouldn't be dampened!!
May not be ignored!!!

These are the ones –
Who may sail the ships,
Steer our vessels,
Push the carts,
Run the people,
Towards the goal,
Much glamorous, more excellent!

By all counts,
Our youth deserve,
To be shown the *LIGHT*,
Of knowledge and learning,
Of *Science* and *Psychology*
Arts and *IT*,
History and *Anthology*,
Geography and *Sociology*,
Gardening and *Grazing*,
Politics and *Philosophy*,
Of even all the subjects,
Required to be taught,
To youngs of our age!

Imparting education,
Through formal way,
Would need much time,
Even energy and fund!

Time is short and journey much long,
We are to work in haste,
And have to impart,
Many more disciplines –
To abundant youths,
Of present age!

Of this very mess and menace,
The solution lies,
In *Distance Way of Learning* at all
And this forte of you,
Is called AIOU!

Dr. Mahmudur Rahman
Editor

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

SOME PROBLEM AREAS OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN

By
Dr. M. Zafar Iqbal[*]
Sufiana. K.[**]

Abstract

The major focus of this paper is to review some problems of teacher education in Pakistan. Teacher education occupies the most important place in education system of a country. A country gains quality education only if it has gained quality in teacher education. Some alarming problems in teacher education in Pakistan are: short duration of teacher education programs and teaching practice, out dated curriculum, no criteria for the selection of teacher educators and lack of research in the field of teacher education. For achieving quality education, it is essential to gain, first of all, quality education teacher. Quality teacher education can be achieved by taking sound policy measures for the solution of these problems in teacher education.

Introduction

Teacher education, in fact, is at the same time an art, a skill, and a quality, to direct the trainee teachers in teaching-learning process, and to equip them with all necessary skills and knowledge in order to perform their duties in an organized way, which in future they are expected to be assigned. There have been a lot of development in teacher education in Pakistan but still now this most important component of education system of the country suffers a lot of problems in its certain areas. The basic reason of having not achieved quality education in Pakistan is that still now quality education in teacher education has not been achieved. For achieving quality education for new generation it is essential to gain first quality teacher education and this can be achieved by taking sound policy measures for the solution of problems of teacher education.

[*] Professor, Secondary Teacher Education Department, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad.

[**] Ph.D research scholar at National University of Modern Languages Islamabad, Pakistan.

Research Questions

The research study will attempt seek to answers to the following questions

1. What are major problems areas regarding pre-service teacher education/training programs in Pakistan?
2. Is duration of teacher training programs adequate for the preparation of an effective teacher?
3. Is duration of teaching practice for various teacher-training programs are sufficient to practice teaching skills in the field?
4. Does the curriculum for teacher education programs in Pakistan match the needs of the teacher's professional life?
5. Is there any criterion for selection of teacher educators in Pakistan?
6. What steps can be taken to achieve quality teacher education in Pakistan?

Statement of the Problem

The problem under investigation was to review some important problem areas related to teacher education programs in Pakistan and suggest suitable measures for the solution.

Methodology

In order to find the answer of the research questions the researchers adopted the following methodology:

1. The researchers listen the views from persons related to the field of teacher education.
2. They went to the libraries and consulted the related material available in the shape of articles, research papers, educational policies, books and publication and government documents.
3. In order to gain insight into the problem they studied researches of other people conducted in the field.
4. After studying related material the researchers selected some problem areas of teacher education in Pakistan for conducting research study.

Theoretical Framework

Education is universally defined as change of behaviour and thinking. It is a process of development of an individual's potential. Education plays the most important role in the ups and downs of a nation. Acutely education is the key to hope and progress, which unlocks potential of individuals, broadens their world views and shapes there future. It provides the tools for social and economic progress. It empowers nations.

Pakistan is a developing country which needs an influential education system to make smooth and stable progress. Quaid-i-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah said, "Education is a matter of life and death for Pakistan...There is no doubt that the fate of our state will and must depend on the type of education we give to our children" (First Educational Conference 1947.

The teacher is a person who is responsible for imparting education to learners in formal education system and "is considered the most crucial factor in implementing all educational reforms at the gross root level". (Education Policy 1998-2010, Govt. of Pakistan. .It was the important role of a teacher that the Commission on National Education (1959) described in its report "no system of education is better than its teachers". The process in which a teacher is trained or prepared for the performance of duties as a teacher is called "teacher education". Teacher education is fundamental element and is "an integral part of any education system" (Rao, 2002).

Teacher education includes all those functions which are considered essential to polish the personality of an individual, to train him in the most acceptable manners, to create in him courage and enthusiasm to work in any kinds of circumstances, to train him in the art of character building, to enrich his abilities, to make him acquaint with nature and principles of learning, to make him perfect in dealing with human beings, to make him capable of understanding human nature, characteristics and necessities of different stages of age, etc.

Dr. Allah Bakhsh (1987) describes the following objectives for class room teachers that should be incorporated at the planning stage of teacher education:

i) Techniques for class management and control.
ii) Utilization of new educational technology in teaching.
iii) Enhancement of mastery of teaching content.
iv) Acquisition of skill in individualized instructional.
v) Development of skill for teacher-made tests to appraise student progress.
vi) Collaboration to provide wholesome learning/teaching environment in the institution.

In the report of UNESCO (1987), the following critical deficiencies in teacher education:

a) Short duration of teacher programmes.

b) Shortage of audio visual aids and other educational equipment in teacher training institutions.
c) Non-availability of standard textbooks.
d) Deficiencies of supplementary reading material/guidebooks/journals.
e) Lack of coordination among training institutions.
f) Absence of incentives for prospective teachers.

The quality of education is directly related to the quality of instruction in the classrooms. The teacher is considered the most crucial factor in implementing all educational reforms at the grassroots level. It is a fact that the academic qualifications, knowledge of the subject matter, competence and skills of teaching and the commitment of the teacher have effective impact on the teaching-learning process. (Education policy 1998-2010).

In Pakistan, as elsewhere, teacher training suffers due to insufficient training system, multi-grade classrooms, taught by single teacher, over crowding in classes, lack of equipments, short supply of textbooks and lack of proper physical facilities. Obviously it never helped teachers to become creative and to voluntarily come forward to attain excellence in the jobs. (Dr. Sheikh & Mr. Muhammad, 1998)

Table 1
At present, the following institutions offer various training programs in Pakistan

Programs and Institutions	Punjab	Sindh	NWFP	Balochistan	Federal	Total
PTC/CT(G.C.E.Ts)	34	24	18	10	04	90
B.Ed/B.S Ed (Colleges of Education)	08	4	2	1	01	16
M.Ed/M.A (Ed) IERs/ Univ. Depts. of Education	04	2	2	1	-	9
Extension/Staff Development (In-service Education) P.I.F.Es	1	1	1	1	-	4
P.I.T.Es	1	1	1	1	-	4

There are certain areas of teacher education in Pakistan which are mostly criticized. Main categories are the short duration of teacher education for different teacher training programs, and teaching practice, curriculum of teacher education,

criteria for the selection of teacher educators, and lack of adequate research studies in the field of teacher education. Some major problems of each category regarding teacher education in Pakistan scenario are discussed separately below and some suggestions are also offered for their solution.

Duration of Teacher Education Programmes

The main problem area is the duration of teacher training programmes for different level, which in fact is the most crucial issue. On the whole duration of all teacher training programmes is one year in Pakistan (with the exception of BS. Ed having 3 years and Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, which is offering one and half year having three semesters M.Ed program). The duration of teacher training courses in Pakistan is comparatively less than other western and eastern countries where the duration of teacher education programs is from two to five years. Duration and detail of different teacher training programs in Pakistan is stated in the following table:

Table 2
Showing the Duration of Various teacher Education Programs in Pakistan

Programme of Training	Qualification for Admission	Duration	Classes to Teach
PTC[2]	Matric	1 academic Year	I to V
CT [3]	Intermediate	3 academic Years	I to VIII
B.Ed (12+3)[3]	Intermediate	3 academic Years	VI to X
B.Ed [4]	B.A/BSC	1 academic Year	VI to X
M.Ed[5]	B.Ed	1 academic Year	Supervision
M.A Education[6]	B.A/BSC	2 academic years	VI to XII +Supervision

Source: Avalos, Initial Teacher Training South Asian Approaches. (1993).

[2] Primary Teachers Certificate
[3] Certificate in teaching
[4] Bachelor in Education
[5] Master of Education
[6] Master of Arts in Education
[7] It is only for Primary level.

The following table gives a comparative picture of Pakistan with other countries about the duration of teacher education and schooling:

Table 3
Showing Length of Teacher Education Programs in Various Countries

S. No.	Country	Teacher Training (Years)	Minimum Schooling (Years)	Total Years
1.	Egypt	5	9	14
2.	USA	4	12	16
3.	Japan	4	12	16
4.	Iran	4	9	13
5.	Turkey	4	10	14
6.	Germany	3	13	15
7.	Australia	3	12	15
8.	China	3	10	13
9.	India	3	10	13
10.	Somalia	3	12	15
11.	Sri-Lanka	2	12	14
12.	Malaysia	2	11	13
13.	Bahrain	2	11	13
14.	Pakistan	1	10	11

(Source: Siddique, 1997). The above cited tables depict that the duration of teacher education in Pakistan is very short hence extensive innovations are needed to improve the situation.

Duration of Teaching Practice

Teaching practice is an important component of teacher training programs. In Pakistan, duration of teaching practice is also very short. It is not possible to expose all aspects and orientations of education and teaching to trainee teachers within short time. According to educationists, teaching is a skill as well as an art which cannot be learned within a short period and without proper demonstration of that skill from the teacher educator. The teacher educator should practically provide an example of teaching methodology and the techniques to work with different students having individual differences in a class and the tactics to tackle with variety of problems raise in the class at different occasions, etc. Teaching practice, which must be said as heart of the whole training process in teacher education, is not given its due importance by the trainee and the teacher educator. Teaching practice is very significant and enthusiastic for prospective teacher due to working in real and practical situation, success in practice teaching provides

him/her success in completion of training course and also helpful in getting a job as teacher. (Campbell et.al, 1985).

Some essential qualities are caught and even not taught. In actual day-to-day training program we shall see that opportunities will present themselves for the instructor to develop in the class a sense of loyalty, teamwork, and initiative, a sense of duty, cheerfulness and perseverance in the face of difficulties. (Mills, 1990).

The teacher training programs have an imbalance among the courses pertaining to academic knowledge of the subject, content of school curriculum, teaching methods, teaching practices and curricular activities. This is because of the short duration of most of the existing teacher education programs.

Curriculum for Teacher Education

Teacher education curriculum includes theoretical knowledge as well as practical skills for teaching at different levels in schools. Trainee teachers have to get command over theoretical knowledge in order to pass the examination and have to attend some school to teach their targeted lessons within period of about one month in order to complete teaching practice. Curriculum of teacher education emphasizes to a great extent only on theoretical knowledge about pedagogy that are generally not associated with the day to day teaching learning activities of classrooms. Teacher education is not confined only to train a teacher in the job of teaching a subject mater. Its scope is very vast. Dill and et. al (1990) observe that according to research of Brophy. J (1986) good teachers not only know their subject matter but also understand student development and basic principles of good pedagogy.

The quality concerns of teacher education relate to policy formulation and planning, development and management of teacher education programs, provision of adequate infrastructure to training institutions, pre-service and continuous in-service education of teacher educators, regular enrichment of curriculum content, methods, evaluation techniques, teaching aids and other teacher related resources. (Education policy 1998-2010)

The policy further states that the quality of textbooks in teacher education is poor. The learning materials neither relate to real educational environment nor inspire and motivate the prospective teachers for further studies. There is no mechanism to make teacher's guides and supplementary materials available for working teachers. Dr. Shah observes that curricula of teacher education institutions should be under constant review and evaluate in order to improve and

modernize them in the light of past experiences and new developments in teacher education.

Lack of Adequate Research Studies

There is a lack of comprehensive research studies in the field of teacher education, especially in finding out the new teaching methods and techniques for the advancement of knowledge and skills of teacher trainees at teacher education institutions. Research conducted so far in this field is concerned mostly not with teaching of trainee teachers rather with problems of trifles.

Untrained or poorly trained teachers adversely affect the quality of education. There is a need for focused and well researched evidence of what is happening on the ground in a locality as a result of the reconstruction process in order to base further aid funding and government interventions on a realistic understanding of remote or difficult communities. Attempts to set up a network of teachers, including teachers from religious institutions, using new methods of training and carefully evaluating the results within the total context of the social development sector in the area would furnish such evidence. It would also give insight into potential growth points both for working with the ulama and madaris and also into creating a coherent and effective educational system at local level. (Online reference)

According to Riana (1995), lack of productive research in teacher education is due to the following reasons:

1. Comparatively low social class origins.
2. Teacher educators' community values.
3. Teacher educators' lower school teaching experiences.
4. Lack of intrinsic motivation among teacher educators.

No Criterion for Selection of Teacher Educators

There are no specific criteria for the selection of teacher educator in Pakistan. Teachers appointed in these institutions do not have had any special training as teacher trainer/educator. Usually when teachers complete a specific tenure of their service, and because stagnant are promoted as subject specialist or instructor in teacher training institutions. They do not have any special training to teach trainee teachers. Teacher educators are not provided with sufficient supplementary materials based on modern methods of instructions. They mostly rely only on teaching of prescribed. As a result of not having special training as teacher trainer and due to the lack of supporting modern material and proper physical facilities, the standard and quality of teacher education is Pakistan is not

at all satisfactory. In teacher training institutions teacher educators mostly use traditional methods of teaching or they merely rely on microteaching. They considered these the standard models of teaching.

There is no standardized procedure for the appointment of teachers in teacher training institutions. In the existing system, any person belonging to school or college cadre can be shifted to a teacher education institution (on line reference). In-service training programs for teacher educators are almost non-existent. There is no institutionalized arrangement for providing regular training to teachers and teacher educators. Sporadic training opportunities, if any, lack in quality (online reference).

Apparently, in teacher training institutions, there is a great problem of inadequate and improper physical facilities.

Conclusions

During an analysis of the available literature and documents the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. Teaching is a skill and an art, which cannot be mastered, in a short period of learning and practicing that activity.
2. Changes in teacher education are happing all over the world but in Pakistan still out dated curriculum are taught. Curriculum for teacher education programs does not match the needs of the society and the modern world.
3. Teacher trainers do not have sufficient qualification, training experience to teach trainee teachers as there is a specific criterion for selection of teacher educator.
4. Because of lack of research, no improvement in any area in teacher education could be brought about.
5. Objective of quality education could not be achieved due to poor the quality in teacher education programs.
6. Some sound measures in the field of teacher education can improve the situation in Pakistan.

Recommendations

The Following recommendations are hereby cited as a consequence of analysis of conclusions:

1. Overall duration teacher education programs and teaching practice should be extended. According to Farooq (1983) it has been

realized by teacher educators that the short period one-year training is not sufficient to develop insight, interest and maturity in educational theory and practice.

2. Criteria for selection of teacher trainers should be reconsidered, their required qualification should be enhanced and they should be selected directly from highly qualified manpower of the country solely for the teacher training. Men and women of head, heart and hand should be selected for performance of this job. Trainee teachers should be made familiar with modern teaching techniques and methodologies. Utmost attention should be paid to the utilization of the latest, relevant techniques in the field of education. Teachers should be provided with adequate pre- and in-service training courses characterized by efficacy, creativity and innovation (UNESCO, 2002).
3. Teacher educators should provide guidance to trainee teachers in actual class environment about how to teach through different teaching methods, how to gain attention of students, how to start a lesson, how to create interest in lesson, how to deal with learners of different nature and potential, trainee teacher in the experimental class should be provided assistance or treatment on the spot for variety of matters concerning teaching and dealing with learners.
4. In order to give an example, the teacher educator themselves should deliver their lessons mostly through problem solving and project matters.
5. In national gross product (GNP) grant for education should be increased upto at least 4 % and special funds and grants for teacher education should be preserved. All kinds of physical facilities and needed manpower should be provided on equal basis in all teacher educational institutions, so that same kind of quality training for teacher education could be made possible. World donor agencies, which are interested to improve quality education in Pakistan, should be approach for this purpose.
6. The teaching profession should be made so charming like central superior services so that most brilliant and talented people of the country are attracted to teaching profession. Teachers occupy central position in society. The tasks and responsibilities entrusted to them and the demands and expectations placed on them make the teaching profession a unique enterprise. As a result teachers need to be given a special consideration, particularly in matters relating to remuneration and working conditions. (UNESCO 2002).

7. Research studies conducted so far in teacher education have not find out solution for the above-mentioned problems of teacher education in Pakistan. There is dire need to conduct research in the problem areas of teacher education
8. Problem-solving project method and use of other innovative approaches.
9. Research studies should be conducted in order to investigate the needs and requirements of Pakistani society which means that need based approach towards teacher education should be adopted.
10. Macro level research study should be conducted to explore and analyse the content and methods of teacher education that work best in Pakistan
11. Community participation can make the situation better in the field of teacher education.

REFERENCES

Allah Bakhsh. (Brig R) Dr. (1987). *Administration and organization of Teacher Education.* Academy of Educational Planning and Management Ministry of Education Islamabad Pakistan.

Farooq. R.A. (1983). *Teacher Education in Pakistan.* Academy of Educational Planning and Management Ministry of Education Islamabad.

Govt. of Pakistan. (1959). *Commission on National education 1959.* Ministry of Education Karachi Pakistan

Govt. of Pakistan. (1947). *First Educational Conference 1947.* Karachi Ministry of Education.

Iqbal. Zafar. Dr. *Teacher Education for Special Purposes, Trends and Issues in Teacher Education,* Islamabad. Allama Iqbal Open University.

Khalid Muhammad Ibrahim Dr. Muhammad & Zafar Iqbal Muhammad Dr. (1999). *Teacher Education for school Improvement,* Journal of Elementary Education Vol. 9 No. 1-2 Punjab University Lahore.

Rao. V.K. (2002) *Teacher Education.* New Delhi. A.P.H. Publishing Corporation.

Riana K. (1995). *Teacher Educators in India In Search of an Identity.* Journal of Teacher Education 1995. Vol. 46 No. 1

Shah. R.A. Dr. (1999). *Education and Teacher Education*. Lahore. Wahid Art Printing Press.

Siddique, Shoukat Ali. (1997). *Tarbiat-e-Asateza*. Islamabad Pakistan Education Foundation.

Sheikh. Mussrat Anwar. Dr. & Muhammad. Ghulam Rasool. Mr. (1998). *Teacher Education in Pakistan*. Islamabad. National Education Foundation.

UNESCO (1987). *Teacher Education*. Bangkok, Thailand. UNESCO Principal Office.

Pakistan, Education: *Report of the EC Rapid Reaction Mechanism Assessment Mission* (online reference)

June 2002. The Fourth Policy Dialogue, Organized by the Aga Khan University Institute for Educational Development, on Curriculum Review and Reforms. This policy dialogue was held in Peshawar on January 29-30, 2003. (Online reference)

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

COMPETENCY BASED TEACHING

By
Dr. Nabi Bux Jumani[*]

Abstract

Education has been channel of transmission of culture to future generations. It has been effective tool of conservation of culture and is a potential instrument for modification/improvements in culture. Education plays significant role in economic development. Nations with useful education but without their own natural resources may emerge as economic powers. Nations with low levels of education cannot discover, exploit, develop and utilize their own rich natural resources. Rise and fall of nations depends on the quality and quantity of education. Education is power. Highly educated nations are powerful dominate international/ world forums and dictate in maters of peace and war, while nations with high illiteracy rate are miserable/ helpless weaklings and have to surrender their sovereignty in one way or the other.

The teachers play key role in education system. No education system is better than its teachers. The quality of teachers' education determine the quality of their students education. The teachers pass on their competencies to their students. At the time of independence, Pakistan did not have adequate number of event J.V, S.V and J.A.V teachers. B.T. (B.Ed) teachers were hardly available. After independence, new teacher education programmes like PTC, CT, B.S.Ed, M.S.Ed, M.Ed and M.A. Education were introduced. Now Pakistan has thousands of teachers with B.Ed., B.S.Ed, M.S. Ed, M.Ed and M.A. Education degrees working in its school system. Teachers are supposed to be expert in both content and pedagogy. This paper discusses competencies of teacher.

Introduction

Undoubtedly, the welfare, prosperity and security of a nation depend on the quality of its education. In the present era the nations are competing in the

[*] The writer is working as Assistant Professor in the Department of Distance and Non-Formal Education, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad. E-Mail: nbjumani@yahoo.com

field of knowledge only. The higher and nation goes into the sphere of knowledge, the more it is recognized as a great nation.

The quality and the level of excellence in education depend on the quality and competence of teachers. It is rightly said the no system of education can rise above its teachers and no nation can rise above its system of education. The teacher is the echelon is the entire system of education. It is also stated correctly that if any revolution is to be brought is education that should be started from teachers. During the professional preparation of teachers, emphasis is laid down to enhance his/ her competencies through changing his/ her behaviour. The period for professional training in Pakistan is short hence full grooming of the trainees in not completed. There are so many characteristics and facts of personality and all the characteristics, qualities and competencies need training, grooming improvement and development. In the teacher training institutions of Pakistan, the method of training is not purely competency based teacher education. The competency based teacher education model is beneficial in many ways.

Development of Competency Base Teacher Education (CBTE)

With the increase in technology, an increase in the complexity of job was evident. The area of training psychology proved to be effective in preparing persons to fill a wide variety of complex roles to a high standard such as aircraft pilots, electronics technicians, and crews who could work together successfully in teams.

As Joyce (1971, p.21) pointed out: "The urgency of war conditions took attention away from the needs of the learner and toward the need for precise and rapid training which considered the learner chiefly in terms of has capacity to respond to the training and his ability to hold himself together during a rather arduous training process."

To meet these highly specific needs the psychologists developed training systems which could deliver, in relatively short periods of time, person who could function well in pre-specified work roles.

Gagne (1975, p.10) reports three reasons for seeking to define educational objectives in terms of human performance:

> *These objectives are used to tell us whether the inference of learning can be made. They are used as specifications of the kinds of questions to ask the student in assessing his current capabilities. They become important guides for the teacher's behavior in*

selecting appropriate instruction and they could probably be used to greater advantage than they are at present in informing the student of goals to be achieved.

Gagne's position seems to clearly show the importance of specification of the work role requirement to programme of effective preparation. Certainly, the says that teachers would be better able to execute their tasks if these were explicitly stated and sound strategies were employed to lead the prospective and in-service teacher to competency in each task.

From philosophical point of view, competency based education is a concept that has emerged in an evolutionary way rather than a new theory that has been suddenly spawned out of a new set of principles of an uncommonly rational philosophy handed down from a gifted individual or group.

Kingstedt (1972, p.10) states that "Competency based education is founded on educational justifications derived from the philosophy of education known as experimentalism".

He lists programmed instruction as one of the "indications of its impending arrival" and experimentalism as the thought pattern that gave (Competency Based Education) CBE with "its emphasis of studying man by scientifically studying his behaviour".

Additional relationships between (Competency Based Education) CBE and experimentalism are identified by Klingstedt (1972, p.11) as:

- *The use of behavioural objectives.*
- *Hierarchies of behaviour based on step-by-step learning.*
- *Planning of instructional sequence to give immediate feedback.*
- *Use of pretests.*
- *Emphasis on competency attainment rather than grades. Criterion levels which are absolute based on experience and always related to a specific time and situation.*
- *Providing alternative learning routes based on psychological data which indicate that different people have different learning styles.*

Competencies of Teachers

This is an age which is considered to be programmatic and practical. It is preferred to be expressed in behavioural terms. To make the art of teaching more scientific and measurable, in the light of teaching competencies a lot of work has

been done in Australia, USA and UK. The Teacher Training Programme both pre-service and in-service tend to incorporate the notion of teaching competencies. These competencies may be divided under three broad categories of knowledge, attitudes and teaching skills. Detailed statement of their views are as follows:

i. **Knowledge**

- To enhance through understanding of content appropriate to the education of children from 5-13 and be able to relate this knowledge to a wider context and to more advanced work in the subject.
- To have a grasp of the psychological, sociological and philosophical background necessary to an understanding of the educative process.

ii. **Attitudes**

- To have an appreciation of the historical processes through which education has evolved and to think with clarity about its present purpose and nature.
- To be able to place themselves positively in the education context of the school.
- To seek constantly for themselves and for their pupil the productive learning situations.

iii. **Teaching Skills**

- To be able to devise, teach, evaluate schemes of work in the various subjects areas concerned, for different levels of ability in a range of teaching situation.
- To be able to devise suitable teaching materials
- To know what is available commercially and how to use such materials.
- To inspire enthusiasm for learning in their pupils.

Institute of Teacher Education, Leads University in its special paper or objectives of Teacher Education published in 1973, has identified a number of competencies of teachers in the following way:

i. Teaches' professional skills and techniques – knowledge.
ii. Knowledge of philosophical conservation including an understanding of aims and their importance.

iii. Knowledge to provide an adequate background to work in language skills, human studies, science studies, and expressive arts.
iv. Knowledge of human development of children.
v. Knowledge of the formation of human relationships.
vi. Knowledge of the country's system of education of schools in their social and historical context, the relationship between school and community.
vii. Knowledge of various social services.

Teachers' Personal Qualities

Professional attitudes, these include sense of responsibility a concern for the individual pupil, a strong moral, punctuality and appropriate standard of dress.

R.D. Traill of Canberra College of Advanced Education in his famous case study titled "Festering self directed learning in Teacher Education by Goad, L.H. (1984, pp.14-15) describe required abilities of teachers in the following manner:

- Student-teaches developing sensitivity to the need and characteristics of children.
- Awareness of social context and implications for education.
- Understanding of the basic problems and issues an awareness of contributions of various disciplines towards solving problems.
- Self awareness including awareness of the role of teachers' personal concepts, values and modes of operation in the encouraging of learning.
- Knowledge of skills and attitudes sufficient for effective operation at the stage teaching career towards which programme is directed.
- Desire for continued study and development.
- Flexibility.

Stones, Edgar and Sidney Morris (1980, p.233) in their book on teaching practice – problems and prospects, have identified minimum abilities which a teacher should possess. These abilities are:

1. Perform stimulus – response operations (questions, structure, probe).
2. Manipulate different kinds of knowledge.
3. Perform reinforcement operations.
4. Diagnose student's needs and learning difficulty.
5. Communicate and empathize with student's parents and others.

6. Perform in and with small and large groups.
7. Utilize technological equipment.
8. Evaluate student achievement.
9. Judge appropriateness of instructional materials.

According to Mckenna (1982, p.37) "Competency-based Teacher Education" (CBTE) appears to be a new term in the educational lexicon since the 1969 edition of he *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Even though "Pre-service Programme" in that edition cites Goodland as recommending that future research be directed toward defining expectations of teachers in terms of behavioural objectives, no where in that article or related articles is the term "competency-based teachers education to be found. The other terms which have been applied to the concept are: "Performance Assessment", "Goal-based", "outcome-based", "Field based" and "Competency-based education". The concept probably emerged from the accountability movement of the late 1960s and early 1970s which assigned responsibility to the schools and their staffs for demonstrating that students had mastered agreed-upon learning objectives. To accomplish this, it was proposed that objectives be specified and evaluated in performance terms.

"Performance based teacher education (PBTE)" is a procedure for helping prospective teachers and in-service teachers, acquire those knowledge, skills and attitudes that research empirical evidence and expertise indicate contribute most to providing learning opportunities that are consistent with objectives of schools". (Kemble and MecKenna, 1975, p. 6)

Competency based education appears to have emerged at least tentatively as a system. In a definition by Place (1973, p. 2) a competency based curriculum has been defined as "A system designed to provide instructional data to interested parties". (p. 2)

Brueckman, et al. (1971, p.1) think of competency based education as an attempt to manage education. "The case of competency based education is not unique in the history of educational trends except that it is more technical than any previous general movement in education, and it represents an attempt to mange education more than to influence its goals or methodology."

Brueckman, et al. (1977) proposed a working definition for competency based education, "Competency based education is a system of education designed to develop pre-specified role relevant competencies in those who are products of the system".

Evaluation Studies

The majority of the reported evaluations of CBTE are representative of three areas of application, vocational education, education for the handicapped and early childhood education. The reports are descriptive, rather than research oriented. Few compare CBTE to conventional approaches to teacher education to determine which is superior for particulars purposes. The studies have produced such widely disparate findings as the following seven (1) Modules have immediate effect on competency acquisition, but, the competencies are not maintained over time (Stolovich, 1976), (2) A competency based programme seemed have been operating in a superior fashion to a subject centered programme based on six measures (Enos, 1975), (3) A field oriented and competency based approach was judged a viable alternative to the traditional university approach to industrial teacher education, but the phases employed to did not fully address the issued of competency abed vocational education, (4) The un-availability and complexity of materials and a lack of data evaluation can be serious impediments to widespread use of CBTE (Gall, 1979), (5) There is a set of commonly agreed-on competencies important to the individualization of instruction in vocational education (Mills, 1977), (6) An evaluation model selected for CBTE programme did not provided sufficient guidance in programme description and had to enhanced with two other (Hinely, 1979), (7) Generic teaching competencies do exist and can be measured, but special education teachers require additional specific assessment items (Stula, C. 1978).

The study which has reviewed the literature on programme evaluation for CBTE (Kay & Schoener 1979) reiterates theory in programme evaluation, teacher evaluation, teacher assessment, and description of existing programmes and pays less attention to evaluation of CBTE implementations per se.

Promising as the concept may seem, and with as much residue as is reported remaining from the movement of the 1960s and 1970s CBTE still lacks rigorous research, development, and evaluation (Mckenna, 1982).

Piper and Houston (1980) write that no other term in recent years has generated as much interest as much confusion, and as much controversy as "competency based". Brown (1978) comments that many experts are in agreement with the basic promise of the CBTE movement of recent years. But CBTE programmes, almost without exception, turn out to be embracing revelations of the bankruptcy into which teacher education in America has fallen. He further states that the problem of assessment continue to stick out as a major obstacle in fulfilling whatever problems there is in this movement. Houston (1974) noted:

Competency based teacher education programmes and projects have proliferated extensively. Some closely reflect the criteria set forth by Elam (1977). Other programmes claiming to be competency based education appear to be only slight modifications of more conventional approaches. (p.105)

However, Gage and Winne (1975, p.165) states: "Proponents and adversaries of performance based teacher education programmes have limited most of the work on assessment and evaluation in PBTE to statements of models for assessment or integrates of models already put forth."

Competency Attainment

Denton, et al. (1975) implemented a competency based secondary level teacher education programme and assessed teaching behaviours through observation of micro teaching exercises and group activities. They also evaluated teaching skills and techniques used in the student teaching and training modules. Data were available on the frequency of objectives achieved, remediate or not achieve don 21 modules. Typical results show close to 400 objectives achieved, 30 recycled and 50 not achieved.

Conclusions

Teacher is a role model for students are influenced most from the teacher's actions rather than his sayings. To be neat and clean is not only important due to fact that it has pleasant effect on the aesthetics but also it helps in healthy living and avoiding many decease. To develop the habit of living neat and clean in the students, can only be developed in them, teachers are neat and clean by themselves. Therefore, the pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes should emphasize this characteristic in the trainee teachers. The supervisory staff of the Education Department should also consider this factor during their visits to schools. The heads of the institutions may take care of this characteristic and ensure that teachers in schools keep themselves neat and clean.

Content competency of the teachers needs to be enhanced enormously. Long INSET courses during summer/winter vacation with strong content orientation may be provided to all teachers with terminal examination in which teachers may be required to secure at least 8% marks to get certificate of success. Those, who fail, may put on probation for a period of one year to improve their knowledge of primary subject to an acceptable level. In case of failing to achieve the desired level, such teachers may be asked to quit the profession.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Breueckmen, Jack, C. and Stanley, E. Brooks, (1977) *Competency-based Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, New York: American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education.

Brown, B.B. (1978) Competency-based Education: Is there anything new? *Journal of Teacher Education*.

Denton, J., Stenning, W.F. & Limbacher, P.C. (1975) *A Field Tested Assessment Model to Evaluate the Effectiveness of a CBTE Programme*, New Orleans, LA: Association of Teacher Educators.

Elam, S. (1971) *Performance-based Teacher Education: What is the State of the Arts*? Washington, D.C: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

Enos, D.F. (1975) *A Cost Effectiveness Analysis of Competency-based and Non-Competency-based Teacher Education at San Diego State University*, San Diego, Salif: San Diego State University.

Gage, N.L. & Winne, P.H. (1975) Performance based Teacher Education, In Ryan, K. (Ed.), *Teacher Education, the Seventy-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, University of Chicago Press.

Gall, M.D. (1979) Competency-based Teacher Education Materials: How available? How Usable? How Effective? *Journal of Teacher Education.*

Hinley, W.H. (1979) *Development of an Evaluation Model for Competency-based Instruction*, (Final Report) Tallahassee: Florida State University.

Houston, W. Robert & Howsam, B. (1972) Change and Challenge, In W. Robert Houston & Robert, B. Howsam (Eds.) *Competency-based Teacher Education Progress, Problems and Prospects*, Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Joyce, B.R. (1971) *The Promise of Performance (Competency) Based Education: An Analytical Review of Literature and Experience*, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education an Welfare.

Kay, P.M. & Schoever, J.E. (1979) *Programme Evaluation for Competency Based Teacher Education: A Brief Review of Literature and Annotated Bibliography* New York: City University, Centre for Advanced Study in Education.

Klingstedt, J. L. (1972) Philosophical Basis for Competency-Based Education, *Educational Technology.*

McKenna, B. (1982) Competency based Teacher Education, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* 5th Edition.

Mills, J.D. (1977) *Development and Validation of Competency based Pre-Service/ In-Service Learning system for Vocational Teachers, (final Report)*, Tallahassee: Florida State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education.

Piper, M.K. & Houston, R. (1980) The Search for Competency: CBTE and MCT, *Journal of Teacher Education.*

Stula, C.J.F. (1978) *Special Education Competencies for Teachers Project, Final Report, Year II: A Validation Study in Identification and Measurement,* Atlanta, GA: Metropolitan Cooperative Educational Service Agency.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

QUALITY OF EDUCATION AND TEACHER TRAINING

By
Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi[*]
Dr. Mahmood Awan[**]

1. Quality of Education Meaning and Nature

Before we discuss the concept of quality, it seems quite pertinent to say a few words about the genesis of the concept of quality. According to Muhammad Aziri, it is very difficult to pinpoint the origins of the concept of quality although many argue that there is evidence of linking quality with the Egyptian civilization. In 2700 BC, Egyptians defined quality through having stringent quality control measures while building great pyramid, the tomb of King Khufu.at El Gize. In the 1960s the quality movement in Japan – rather started in 1946 with the birth of the Japanese Union for Scientists and Engineers and finally passed through a number of stages. It came to Europe and the USA much later in the 1980s and finally recognized in the developing countries.

Now a few words about the nature and definition of quality. According to Reeves and Bednar quoted by Hellriegel and Slocum, the most common definition of quality is the extent to which a good or service meets and/or exceeds customers expectations. According to Aspin and Wilkinson, issues of quality in education have been a matter of interest and concern for some time in different education systems and countries.

Quality involves those features of what's being produced that respond to the customer's needs and that create the income. Quality means meeting and exceeding the customer's needs and expectations and then continuing to improve.

The literature on education generally carries refreshment to some dimensions on quality more frequently than any other/s these dimensions relate to different aspects of the following:

1. The extent to which the system in general meets the objectives of education.

[*] The writer is working as Assistant Professor in EPM Department, AIOU, Islamabad.
[**] The writer is working as Assistant Professor in Special Education Department, AIOU, Islamabad.

2. The extent to which the curriculum reflects the felt needs of the target people.
3. Suitability of the curriculum of teacher education institutions.
4. Professional standing and other output of teacher education institutions.
5. Standard of instruction imparted in the school.
6. How closely the teacher and students have mutual interaction?
7. Effectiveness of the school management and administration.
8. The extent to which the evaluation system discriminates between dull and, bright students.
9. How transparent is the system of evaluation?
10. Academic level of evaluators.
11. How effectively the school outputs meet needs of the society?
12. How high or low is the moral character of the graduates of a particular level?

The list of dimensions of quality, given above, is just illustrative and not exhaustive in nature. This list could be qualitative aspect of education basically relates to the worth of different inputs and outputs of the system of education. It is essential to keep in mind the fact that they are meaningful only when considered with reference to certain point of time and the area which they relate to for example the statement that the college graduates do not come up to the expectations of the employing agencies is absolutely meaningless unless we relate it to some point of time and the area/country, which we are talking about.

2. Concept and Meaning of Teacher Education in the Perspective of 21st Century

It is evident that, if schools are going to be different, then teachers who will be teaching in those schools will need to be thinking differently and performing differently. This has direct implications for the initial preparation of teachers, a number of initiatives are underway at major universities, state universities, private universities and small liberal arts colleges to redesign teacher education programmes. As has been illustrated with many of the other initiatives for changing schools in changing times, the development of collaborative efforts, coalitions, and national networks is a pattern in the restructuring of teacher education. Three of the major national initiatives to reform teacher education are the Holmes Group, the Renaissance Group and the National Network for Educational Renewal. Here we are going to discuss only Holms group's reforms to teacher education.

The Holmes group is a consortium of schools of education in USA, dedicated to the reform of teacher education. This group has taken its name from Henry W. Holmes, who was Dean of Harvard University's Graduate School of Education, from 1920 to 1940. Holmes was a strong supporter of teacher education reform. The Holmes Group had its beginning in 1983, when a small number of deans of education in research oriented institutions met to explore and debate their shared understandings and to develop a common agenda. Out of their initial deliberations, the Holmes Group identified five goals for the reform of teacher education. These are as follows:

1. To make education of teachers intellectually more solid.
2. To recognize differences in teacher's knowledge, skill, and commitment, in their education, certification, and work.
3. To create standards of entry to the profession examinations and educational requirements that is professionally relevant and intellectually defensible.
4. To connect our own institutions to schools.
5. To make schools better places for teachers to work, and to learn.

Another focus of the Holmes Group is the creation of Professional Development local schools where innovative practices and the best quality of teaching will be occurring. It is in these schools that the clinical experiences for further teachers, such as on achievement (as these variables are conventionally defined) are likely to be inherently trivial.

3. Teacher Training

Generally, the term "*teaching*" is used for imparting of skills and for conditioning of the body and the mind to do a task in what may be considered a good way of doing that task at a particular period of time (Iqbal, 1999). Training provides people with knowledge and skills. Training provides people with an opportunity to learn. It is an input to the learning process. If it is particularly good and appropriate training, the outcome will be the desired' learning. So training is not learning, nor is it an indicator that learning has happened because people have undergone the training (Bentley, 1996). Training covers the following area: attitude or personal development training, skill training and field training (Jitendra, 1999). It has been suggested that in order to be competent, a person must have the ability to successfully perform occupational work or work-related activities and to demonstrate the skills; knowledge and understanding that underpin performance in employment (Walklin, 1991).

The purpose of any training is to create within the individual the desire to learn. The best training programme will be useless unless the trainees attend willingly and participate freely (Scheer, 1993).

3.1 Rational for Training

The usual reason for training staff is to equip them to undertake a new task or assume a new role and upgrading performance in the present role should be reason enough for being involved in a training event. The change to the location of decision-making is an area we have experienced several times. The decentralization of decision-making and the delegation of responsibilities to the lowest feasible level has become a feature of organizational development in recent years. It requires them to acquire a fresh set of skills, which will enable them all to assume their new roles. Some parts of this change process can be assisted by the assessment of existing skill levels and the provision of training in areas that have been pre-specified and effectively acquired in this way (Dale and Iles, 1995).

3.2 Ingredients of a Good Training Programme

Training programme should be designed along the following to maximize retention and transfer of learning to the trainees:

1. Maximize the similarity between the training situation and the job situation.
2. Provide as much experience as possible with the task being taught.
3. Provide for a variety of examples when teaching concepts or skills.
4. Label or identify important features of a task.
5. Make sure that the trained behaviors and ideas are rewarded in the job situation.
6. Design the training content so that trainees can see its applicability.
7. Use adjunct questions to guide the trainee's attention (Kreitner, 1995).

3.3 Forms of Training

There are certain other forms of training which are as follows:

(a) A fully structured training programme, which may normally be in the classroom situation.

(b) There may be semi-structured training programme in which the bulk of the structuring, if any, is left to the trainees.

(c) There may be a totally unstructured training programme.

3.3.1 *Structured training programme*

The system of structuring a training programme is derived from the formal education system. In the structured training programme, the training institution draws the syllabus and the daily programme schedule as they consider relevant to the needs of the trainees and different topics are covered under a stipulated time-frame.

3.3.2 *Semi-structured training programme*

The semi-structured training programme is formulated with basic assumptions that necessary changes are made as and when required based on the needs of the trainees.

3.3.3 *Unstructured training programme*

The unstructured training programme is a very recent innovation in training technology. However, this is the most difficult method of technology. This model calls for maturity and necessary skills by the trainees. The trainees themselves structure the day-to-day programme, as there is no pre-structured programme it calls for tremendous initiative, innovation and hard work on the part of the trainers in mobilizing the resources. The objectives of the programme must be very clear both to the trainers and the trainees.

4. Training Methods

Broad training methods are classified into two categories: Traditional Training Methods and New Training Methods. Methods are "traditional" in the sense that they do not require new technology. New training methods such as the World Wide Web, Distance Learning, and Virtual Reality resulting from recent technological advances.

Traditional training methods are organized into three broad categories: presentation methods, hands-on-hands methods, and group building methods. Presentation methods (such as lecture) are effective for efficiently communicating information (knowledge) to a large number of trainees. Presentation methods need to be supplemented with opportunities for the trainees to practice, discuss, and receive feedback to facilitate learning e.g. Demonstration Method. Hands-on methods get the trainees directly involved in learning. Hands-on methods are ideal for developing skills and behaviors. Hands-on methods include on–the-job training, simulations, self-directed learning, case studies, role-plays and behavior modeling. These methods can be expensive to develop, but incorporate the conditions needed for learning and transfer of training to occur. Group building methods such as team training, action learning, and adventure learning focus on

helping teams increase the skills needed for effective teamwork (e.g., self-awareness, conflict resolution, and coordination) and help to build team cohesion and identity. Group building techniques may include the use of presentation methods as well as exercises during which team members interact and communicate with each other (Noe, 2000).

4.1 Choosing a Training Method

The first step in choosing a method is to identify the type of learning outcomes that you want training to influence. Those outcomes include verbal information, intellectual skills, cognitive strategies, attitudes, and motor skills. Training methods may influence on or several learning outcomes. Once you have identified a learning method, the next step is to consider the extent to which the method facilitates learning and transfer of training, the costs related to development and use of the method, and its effectiveness. The training budget for developing training methods can influence the method chosen.

At a minimum, the training methods selected should: (1) motivate the trainee to learn the new skill; (2) illustrate the desired skills to be learned; (3) be consistent with the content (e.g., use an interactive approach to teach interpersonal skills); (4) allow for active participation by the trainees to fit with the adult learning model; (5) provide opportunities for practice and over learning; (6) provide feedback on performance during training; (7) be structured from simple to complex; (8) encourage positive transfer from the training to the job; and (9) be cost-effective (Bernardin and Russell, 1998).

4.2 The Training Process

The training process is dynamic, although it is often described in a linear fashion, as certain components do precede others. But in vital organizations, all the steps are happening all the time and continually influencing one another.

Surrounding and supporting the organizational objectives are the five key components of the training process: needs assessment, design, delivery, transfer and evaluation (Milano and Ullius, 1998).

4.3 Need Assessment

The process used to determine if training is necessary (Noe, 1998). Effective needs assessment beings with the organizational objectives. A needs assessment may uncover needs in many areas: systems, procedures, structures, resources, or trainee's competencies. The training needs are those that can be met

through learning (Milano and Ullius, 1998). Methods, which may be used to identify needs are as follows:

- Diagnostic documents;
- Questionnaires specially designed by and individual school or group of schools;
- Personal interviews.

Deciding which methods to use will depend on:

- How much information is wanted?
- What type of information is wanted (quantitative or qualitative)? and
- How quickly the results are needed? (Kydd. et. al., 2000).

4.4 Design

Starting with the data gathered by the needs assessment and converted into design requirements, the designer translates training needs into goals and measurable objectives, selection the essential content, and developing learning activities through which the participants will master the skills included in the objectives.

4.5 Delivery

During the delivery phase of the training process, the learners participate in activities that have been designed to allow them to reach specific training objectives, which in turn support the desired behaviors.

4.6 Transfer

Another component of the training process is ensuring that participants retain and apply, or transfer, what they have learned.

4.7 Evaluation

Every performance-based objective becomes a criterion for evaluation: if participants are to be able to perform a certain behavior by the end of the training event, then the training itself ideally will measure their success. As part of the larger training process, evaluation should also address how the new skills are applied to the job and what the impact of the training is on organizational objectives; if people fail to apply the skills or if there is no positive impact on outcomes, the training process has been failed (Milano and Ullius, 1998).

5. In-Service Training

In-service Training is mainly concerned with the improvement of the teacher's performance. This training may be provided within the form of on the-job-training, or refresher courses. It may also be provided through orientation, workshops, seminars and conferences. Keeping in view the innovative nature of the following methods we shall discuss the points as given under:

5.1 Teacher Recyclage

Recyclage is a specific aspect of teacher in-service training. It is defined as intensive training action, needed in case of qualification crises happening when the teacher's knowledge of a subject suddenly becomes obsolete (e.g. massive introduction of "new mathematics" in the school curriculum) or when it is recognized that critical gaps exist in the teacher's education (e.g. total ignorance of objective evaluation principles, methods, and techniques).

Since, in most countries, the initial training of pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary teachers does not yet include a substantial introduction to educational research, and since it seems obvious that a teacher can hardly be a regular and wise consumer of educational research findings if he or she does not possess the necessary basic technical knowledge.

Many teacher-training institutions all over the world have practically no research and objective evaluation activity. As a consequence, most teachers are not familiar with the standardized tests related to the subjects they teach, they ignore the basic statistical methods and techniques needed for any empirical approach to educational problems. They have not been scientifically introduced to educational technology and automatic data processing.

There is thus an important difference in the level of qualification of teachers and other trained professionals, such as engineers and physicians, who study in close contact with empirical research at the most advanced level in their field. Educational research and development are now reaching an ever-increasing level of sophistication: as a consequence, the gap between practice and research becomes wider and wider.

Recyclage needed to change this situation has quantitative, psychological, and methodological aspects. Psychologically, there is a critical difference between keeping scientifically trained professionals informed of the developments of their field and changing the reasoning, the attitudes, and the vocational behaviour of many thousands of artisans. As for the method of influencing teacher routine behaviors is concerned, long term sophisticated modification strategies are needed.

5.2 Team Teaching

Team teaching is any form of teaching in which two or more teachers regularly and purposefully share responsibility for the planning, presentation, and evaluation of lessons prepared for the same group of students. Although there are almost as many variations as there are teams, all team teaching is based on the premise that teachers can accomplish more working together than working alone. When team teaching is properly conducted, it provides a balanced programme of large group instruction, small-group discussion, and independent study.

5.3 Micro-Teaching

This is one of the latest techniques used for self-analysis. In this technique a small presentation about 5 minutes is done. During the presentation/lecture a video is prepared. After completion of the lecture the teacher concerned views the videotape. He or she is asked to respond the following questions:

1. What were the main objectives of your lesson and whether these were achieved?
2. How do you feel about lesson?
3. What were the major successes in the lesson and why?
4. What in your opinion, could have been changed in the lesson to improve the educational out comes?
5. What positive comments could you make about your presentation?

6. Recommendation

The following recommendations are being made:

1. Keeping in view the importance of teacher training a separate teacher education cadre should be created on the lines of school cadre and college cadre. Appointment of teacher educators should be made according to their demand in different subjects and it should be ensured that the teacher educator holds Master's degree in content areas as well as in Education.
2. Teacher educators should have extensive training in Research Methods and Measurement and Evaluation. Short courses in these areas should be arranged for the teacher educators who lack training in research Methods and Evaluation Techniques.
3. Curriculum and textbooks be evaluated and necessary changes should be brought in keeping in view the needs of the working teachers.
4. Teacher educators are in need of keeping themselves aware of the changes and developments taking place in the field of education. For this purpose in-service training courses for teacher educators and supervisors should be arranged.

5. School supervisors are the best judges of the teachers. They should be consulted in identifying the areas/subjects where in-service training is needed. Education extension centers should be made responsible for it. These centers should have their regional centers at each divisional headquarter. Need assessment studies should be properly funded.
6. Teacher educators should themselves use modern methods and techniques and encourage their trainees for it. A.V. aids should be made easily available.
7. Keeping in view the importance of practice teaching activity, its duration should be extended as much as possible. It should take place under the strict supervision be extended as much as possible. It should take place under the strict supervision of faculty supervisor and classroom teacher. During this activity prospective teachers should be encouraged and trained to prepare A. V. aids with their own hands.
8. Almost all the countries of Asian region including Pakistan have extended the duration of various teacher-training programmes. This duration should be extended gradually according to the needs and resources.
9. The courses on classroom Management and School Organization; child Development and Counseling; Principles of Education and Methods of Teaching: and Education and Society should be revised/added so that the important aspects of teacher training may have proper consideration.
10. Admission to teacher training institutions may be given in accordance with their demand in the field in each subject.
11. To examine the weaknesses or strengths of each teacher training programme, follow-up studies should be designed and properly funded.
12. Some aid-giving agencies should be approached for comparative studies of teacher education at International level especially in the Asian region.
13. Future studies should be aimed at comparing the formal system of teacher training with that of Agha Khan Field-Based Teacher Training Programme and Teacher Training through distance Education Programme of Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad.
14. In future, studies should be designed and conducted on the evaluation of existing teacher education curriculum, especially the Core Courses; and Elective Areas being offered. There must be a balance in between subject matter-centered and pedagogical courses.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brooks Bank Kenneth. 1984. *Educational Administration.* Butler and Tanner Ltd, Britain.

Ivancevin John M. 1986. *Management Principles and Functions,* Home Wood, 126430 Bosrton, M.A 02116.

Klingner Donald. 1985. *Public Personnel Management.* Prentice Hall, Inc. New Jersey.

Koontz Harold. 1972. *Principles of Management.* Prentice Hall. Inc. New Jersey.

Luthans Fred. 1995. *Organizational Behavior.* MacGraw Hill, Inc. New York.

Weihrich Heing. 1997. *Management A Global Perspective.* MacGraw Hill Inc. London.

Arthur and Bolster, J. 1983. *Toward a More Effective Model of Research on Teaching:* Harvard Educational Review, 53(3).

Dunkin. M. J. (Ed.) 1988. *The International Encyclopedia of Teaching and teacher Education.* Pergamon Press, Oxford.

Milano. M. and D. Ullius. 1998. *Designing Powerful Training: The Sequential-Iterative Model.* Jossey-Bass Pfeiffer, San Francisco.

Kydd, L., M. Crawford and C. Riches. 2000. *Professional Development for Educational Management.* Open University Press, Buckingham.

Noe, R.A. 2000. *Employee Training and Development.* Irwin McGraw-Hill, Boston.

Bernardin, H. J. and J.A. Russell. 1998. *Human Resource Management: An Experiential Approach.* Irwin McGraw-Hill, Boston.

Jitendra, M. D. 1999. *Encyclopaedia of Management Training.* Anmol Publications Pvt. Ltd., New, Delhi.

Kreitner, R. 1995. *Management. Houghton* Mifflin Company, Geneva.

Dale, M. and P. Iles.1995. *Assessing Management Skills*. Jaico Publishing House, Bombay.

Walklin, L. 1991. *The Assessment of Performance and Competence*. Stanley Thornes (Publishers) Ltd., England.

Mereseth, K. M. 1997. *Cases in Educational Administration.* Addison-Wesley Publishers Inc., New York.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

PRIVATISATION AND INCORPORATION OF REGULATIONS IN PUBLIC UTILITIES IN PAKISTAN

By
Syed Hassan Raza[*]

Abstract

The paper scrutinizes the formal regulatory systems that are often absent where the state owns the utility industry. In those places, the government writes the rules, change them whenever it wishes, appoint the utility's managers, guarantees the utility debts, and sets the price of service. The government chooses whether to make a profit in the utility business, or to use the utility to serve social or political purposes instead. Private investors would not buy utility company whose existence is subject to the changing whims of the government. Investors need to know the rules so that they can estimate the cash flows and profits decide the price that they wish to pay for the utility, and make bid. Getting the right shareholder group in place make a difference, especially when the utility needs new management, direction and technological expertise. First the government enacts the regulatory rules.

Privatisation and Regulatory Requirements

The sale of the utility is the beginning, not the end, of the process (Syed 2004). The utility and the regulators now have to deal with new audiences: the investors who bought the shares of the privatised utility and the consumers of the utility's output who now have to make their wishes known through the regulatory process.

Investors want a flow of information that helps them value their investment on a daily basis. According to Syed (2004) they want clear and timely financial statements, translated into accounting procedures that are acceptable generally around the world. They want access to management and to government officials, many of who grew up in a tradition of secrecy, never before having had to deal with persistent outside investor. Investors desire a steadily rising flow of income and dividends.

[*] The writer is working as Assistant Professor, Department of Business Administration, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad.

Why Public Utilities Need Regulators?

Hayek (1979) distinguishes four regulative principles that are directed towards keeping the competitive order intact. There are: (1) a policy to attack monopolies; (2) a policy aimed at changing the distribution of incomes; (3) the fixing of minimum wages; and (4) a policy to equalise individual and social costs. The constitutive and regulative principles are important for the national as well as the international order, (environment, multi-nationals) at the international level. Stigler (1966) provides a deliberate development of a scientific theory in the social sciences. He begins with what he regards as the empirical generalisation that "people buy less of a thing when its price rises." Through restricting this statement by holding prices of other goods and the buyers' income and tastes constant a universal law is developed. This law is strongly supported by a diverse array of empirical evidence. One of the fundamental responsibilities of a regulatory agency that oversees a firm is to determine which of the firm's markets should be open to entry and which should be protected. This responsibility reflects the trade-off between having the prices and quantities of important goods being determined by competitive market forces versus government agencies. According to Stigler (1966), the law of demand is subsumed under utility theory in which consumer choice is based on combinations of goods among which buyers are willing to trade off. The consumer is defined as having consistent tastes, and as able to correctly calculate costs and make choices to maximise utility. How things may change Behaviour of consumers conforms to the law of demand through the effect of price changes on the placement of the budget constraint, thus giving the law theoretical support to bolster the direct empirical evidence.

Derek (1994) argues that regulators act as the catalyst in the process to development of market. Little-child (2001) argues that the key to effective regulation is to generate information that allows the regulator to make good rules and allows the interest groups to watch out for improprieties by the regulator. Mitchell and Vogelsang (1991) argued that the best way to generate information is to introduce multiple players in the structure in ways that enhance direct or indirect competition.

Formal regulatory systems are often absent where the state owns the utility industry. Private investors do not buy utility company whose existence is subject to the redesign of the government. First the government enacts the regulatory rules. Then the government either reorganises the utility in order to get it into shape for the sale, or sells the utility in its present condition for example Pakistan Telecommunication. Both public and private public utilities need regulation (of price and quality) when real competition is not feasible. To counteract monopoly

power, regulatory mechanisms exist in all countries, as part of the executive branch of government or in more independent agencies.

The regulator generally act as counter-monopoly to the public utilities companies and may also be tempted to abuse that power (Shaoul 1997). Because the regulator does not invest in fixed, immovable assets, he/she has more freedom than the private monopolist, who is exposed to pressures once a system has been built does. Under political pressure, the regulator may therefore be tempted to exploit the private investor by not granting prices sufficient to cover investment costs. Or the regulator may team up with the company and exploit the consumers. To guard against such behaviour, the powers of the regulator should be carefully circumscribed (Dean and Carlisle 1999). Dnes al et (1998) argue that the office of the regulator should be set up so as to be able to resist improper influence by different interest groups (companies, consumers, and government).

Regulators in Public Utilities

Syed (2005) suggested that the Regulatory Bodies are *responsible* for setting rates that are reasonable for customers, while allowing the utility companies the opportunity to earn a fair rate of return. The Regulatory Bodies perform this by:

- Setting rates and conditions of service that are fair to ratepayers and utilities, that reflect the necessary costs of providing the service, that permit a fair rate of return to the utilities, and that reflect efficient utility operations;
- Balancing customer service and rate expectations with the needs of utilities to recover necessary costs;
- Providing a market balance in the absence of competition;
- Monitoring the advent of competition in markets where competition is the best market structure; and acting in an impartial manner.

Creates rules relating to the conduct of utilities and the procedures under which the Commission operates; provides a forum for resolving disputes between the public and utilities.

Function of Economic Regulators

The 1980 and 1990 saw an upsurge in organisational reform in the world economies. Once natural monopoly is privatised, a regulator has the responsibility for establishing the framework of rules and incentives that seek to prevent the privatised monopolist from exercise market power against the public interest. The

regulatory duties include the promotion of competition and efficiency, protection of consumers, and proper financial corporate practices.

Regulating for Competition

Some regulatory problems arise when the market is *contestable*, there are low entry and exit costs i.e., small sunk costs. Here a regulator of a natural monopoly faces a dilemma with respect to new entry. On one hand, the force of potential competition and the threat of entry help to keep costs and price under control. Against this, there is a possibility that entry could be destabilising (hit-and-run entry strategy). However, this problem is not widespread, as many privatised utilities (such as power and telephone) have substantial sunk costs to deter such kind of entry.

Given the regulatory problems associated with natural monopoly, it is important to recognise that only one part of the activities of public utilities as traditionally conceived is naturally monopolistic. For Example, electricity transmission and distribution are naturally monopolistic, though the generation of electricity is not subject to large-scale economies. In addition, while cost economies are important in distributing electricity to domestic users, this is not always the case for industrial users. However, there may be substantial contractual problems linking generation and distribution (Syed 2005). A key feature of utilities' regulation has been to isolate the component of natural monopoly in each case and encourage competition in other areas such as the generation of electricity and distribution of electricity to industrial users. Indeed, some industries (e.g., UK electricity) are disintegrated before they are privatised, though some (e.g., UK gas) are broken up or de-emerged after they have privatised (Syed 2004). As well as entry and new competition, mergers and take-overs require regulatory intervention. One of the dangers of regulation is that the regulator becomes capture by the industry being regulated. The regulator is dependent upon detail information, which is controlled by the regulated firms.

Regulating Price

One method of regulating a natural monopolist is to impose a price ceiling on the natural monopolist (in US, profits are capped). The main advantage of such price regulation is that it does not effect decision about production techniques. However there are some problems:

- Regulator requires some criterion by which to base regulated price, and it does not possess the firms' detailed knowledge of cost and revenue conditions. The firms overestimate their future cost so as to have a higher price ceiling.

- To prevent the monopolist responding to price control by reducing quality, the regulator is drawn into the detailed specification and policing of standards.

Franchising

Franchising makes a distinction between competitions *for* the market. When a service (such as rail, school, prison and security, hospital services) is franchised, a principal (the franchiser) invites competitive bids from firms to provide the service for specified period. The winning firm in such an auction is the franchisee.

Regulation, Legitimacy and the Institutional Context

According to Parker (1999) achieving a balance between regulatory objectives is never easy and for this reason regulators can expect criticism, as public attention focuses on one objective over another. In the UK regulation is framed by the privatisation legislation that provides "primary" and "secondary" duties of the regulator and by the terms of a company's operating licence. Secondary duties include promoting efficiency and economy in service delivery. Alongside the legislation, a company's operating licence sets out the company's service obligations and regulatory mechanisms, such as the price cap (RPI-X).

Licence amendments are agreed from time to time between the regulator and the company. The regulatory contract is concerned with establishing the rules of the game. In the UK the regulator has considerable discretionary powers to interpret the rules, but within statutory constraints. Regulators are responsible for overseeing industries vital to social and economic wellbeing (e.g. power and water). The term *independent regulator* should be understood as intending to signal a high degree of separation from day-to-day political intervention but not complete independence from political scrutiny. Where political risk is high (political risk being a form of regulatory risk) then the cost of capital rising in the private sector is increased, reflecting the risk premium on the investment arising from regulatory uncertainty.

Inconsistent regulatory decisions quickly undermine public confidence in a regulatory system. It is for this reason that developing countries wishing to attract foreign capital into their utility industries must ensure that the framework for regulatory consistency exists. Since political intervention tends to undermine regulatory consistency, and politicians may be prone to alter the regulatory rules of the game for short-term political advantage, consistency is a primary argument for some kind of *independent regulation.* Similarly, the different forms of regulatory agency developing for telecommunications in Pakistan, with some

countries being more reluctant than the UK to grant high degrees of independence to a regulatory agency, reflect the individual institutional contexts within each country. In Sweden independent regulation is occurring in the context of continuing state ownership, but with competition introduced in both telecommunications and posts. Regulatory governance is more concerned with the institutional context of regulation than the precise mechanisms used by regulators (e.g. price caps or rate of return regulation); although the mechanisms can be expected to reflect the institutional framework.

Refusal to provide correct and timely information to the regulator can be expected to lead to the regulator distrusting the company, with a consequent impact on the regulator's approach to future regulation (*ex ante* expectations). The relationship between the company and its regulator is important for the development of competition in the sector. Social and political imperatives remove the legitimacy of regulation based on economic criteria. Regulatory capture will be a constant threat. In a number of countries there may be no effective competition law to support regulation aimed at benefiting consumers. Also, there may be a lack of an independent judiciary to protect regulators from political pressures and interest groups.

The UK has an independent judiciary to protect due process and regulatory rules as laid down by statute. Kay al et (1997) that regulatory governance is most soundly based in countries where there is a tradition of professional public administration, low corruption and where a political decision to allow some degree of regulatory independence carries authority. Hence the rules of the regulation game need to be set down clearly for regulators, preferably by statute.

Prevailing Positions of Public Utilities Regulator in Pakistan

British scholars have contributed to a vast literature examining regulation in UK, and by comparison we know little about the historical experience of regulation in Pakistan. One reason for this could be that, until recently, Pakistani economic historians were writing against a backdrop of nationalised industry. Regulation was not a problem that needed to be addressed, unlike in Britain where utilities mostly operated as private monopolies regulated before 1950s. The historical literature on the development of municipal trading describes public ownership as a consequence of monopoly. There is well known argument that natural monopoly conditions of supply required regulation, and that over time public opinion grew to favour ownership by local government (Newbery and Pollitt (1997). However, economic theory does not show that natural monopoly conditions lead *necessarily* to public ownership. Millward (2000:325) observes

that historians have thus far been unable to produce an adequate explanation for why public ownership emerged rather than the regulation of private firms.

In Pakistan, political and economic considerations concerning public utility regulation in particular, but also privatisation, have joined together around both interest and political groups with their own agenda. The profitability of privatised utilities depends to a considerable extent on regulatory conditions. Regulators themselves, whom companies seek to *capture"* therefore become important actors in the political process (David and William 2001). The most contentious issues regarding the effective regulation and privatisation of public utilities in Pakistan concern: (i) the appropriate ownership of the utilities; (ii) the nature of the regulatory structure, in particular whether regulation should be conducted by an independent agency, or a branch of the Ministry of Economy, Finance or Transport, or the enterprise itself; (iii) the desirability of allowing entry and competition; and (iv) how to choose procedures for the control and setting of prices.

Deregulation and privatisation of public assets has increased substantially in Pakistan, in the recent years. Regarding the sectoral contributions to growth in Pakistan, Burney (1986) found that over the 1960-85 period, commodity-producing sectors (agriculture and manufacturing) accounted for more than 40 percent of growth in GDP. In the case of manufacturing, large sectors' output accounted for more than 60 percent of the contribution. The economy has gone through a number of major changes since 1985. In particular (but especially from 1988 onwards) progress has been particularly strong in the area of freeing the private sector from regulation and artificial price distortion (IBRD 1991). In early 1990, a complementary privatisation programme was launched with the aim to reduce the role of the public sector in manufacturing and services, thereby alleviating the government's financial and administrative burden and creating new opportunities for the private sector (Looney 1999). Total government investment accounted for 43 percent of national investment in 1973. Under Zulifiqar Ali Bhutto administration, this reached 63 percent in 1976 and than gradually fell since then (IBRD1984). During 1980-87 periods the government accounted for nearly 55 percent of the country's capital formation (IBRD1991). It is argued that the problems which have constrained progress in both developing and introducing effective public utility regulation and privatisation in Pakistan are due to: (i) a lack of policy consistency on the part of the government; (ii) the reservoir crisis and economic recession; (ii) an inadequate anti-trust (competition law) and legal environment; (iii) the *ad hoc* development of complex and non-independent public utility regulatory structures; and (iv) effective political resistance by

particular interest groups both within the Pakistan parliament and among public utility managers.

According to Sartaj (1996) the Pakistani economy is among the transitional economies in South East Asia, striving to move towards free market system. Fifty years into independence, Pakistan like the other former Asian colonial countries has not yet established a market economy, and arguably at present is a long way from doing so. It has to be acknowledged that transformation economies are likely to exhibit instability as they attempt to embark on the process of reform. In the case of such countries, an added impediment, which arises, is that the political situation has to be taken into account. Political factors will often dictate how far reforms will go, and at what pace.

It is now generally agreed, however, that privatisation and restructuring do not produce the same outcomes in all places, and their design and implementation require considerable preparation and consultation. The processes do not necessarily lead to more competition, greater efficiency or more profitable operations, and must be developed within the larger context of market reform, with account being taken of the standards of good management, regardless of ownership, and with competition being seen as an important source of managerial discipline.

In the case of strategic public services, there is a need to strike a balance between profitable business operations and the provision of cheap, reliable, good quality and widely accessible services. This means that mechanisms need to be developed to monitor, follow up and regulate the privatisation process according to a broad range of criteria, including social, environmental and economic considerations.

Blackman (1994) argued that the functions of the regulatory framework include the harmonisation of a number of different objectives concerning the profitability of the operator. Borenstein, Bushnell, and Wolak, (2000) argued that the continuity and quality of the general interest services provided, compliance with commitments entered into, the implementation of the necessary infrastructure investment, the management of externalities and environmental concerns (pollution of water sources, over pumping of groundwater, etc.). Bunn (1995) argued the need for flexibility to allow adjustments to be made as and when required. Joskow (1997) explained the developments in the United

Kingdom, where the regulatory model is being re-assessed, have shown how difficult it is to achieve such a balance, with the high profits and generous salary and benefits packages of senior staff in the utility industry (where the price cap formula has led to significant tariff increases) sparking public protest.

According to critics the objectives of privatisation in Pakistan appear to include among others: to retire debts, reduce fiscal deficits, broad base ownership of equity capital. Beyond that, to increase efficiency and productivity of the units, the strongest argument in favour of privatisation being that 90 per cent of the sum so rose would go to retire the crippling debts. In their enthusiasm, the officials of Privatisation Commission Pakistan have, however, forgotten that all of the 4 billion dollars, would not come handy in lump sum (about Rs.2.5 billion due from previous privatisation are still outstanding and as many as 800 cases are pending against the Privatisation Commission in courts of law) but would trickle down over several years as foreign buyers are unlikely to make a beeline for Pakistan, when comparative assets are available in the region at more attractive returns and possibly lesser risks.

The privatisation funds are, therefore, more likely to be used in paying instalments of interests instead of redeeming the principal. In that sense, the privatisation funds are more likely to be lost in the vicious circle of debts and their servicing. History confirms this view, for in the nine years upto 1999, the country managed to privatise 100 industrial units and earn 1.7 billion dollars, including the 900 million dollars from sale of 10 per cent stake in Pakistan Telecom. But out of this, most reports indicate that only 120 million dollars were utilised for debt retirement.

The first Benazir Bhutto government under a cabinet decision undertook the process and notifications were issued to set up a privatisation commission to sell public sector units. The government's failure to constitute the Council of Common Interest (CCI) as required by the Pakistani Constitution 1973 and upheld as one of the justifications for its dismissals by the superior courts. Besides bypassing the CCI, no past or present government ever formulated a legal framework for privatisation and the whole process was and is being conducted through executive fiats. It has been argued that the 1973 Constitution is infused by populist ideas, such as the State shall ensure the elimination of all forms of exploitation and the gradual fulfilment of the fundamental principle from each according to his ability, to each according to his work.

The Application of General Competition Law to the Utilities in Pakistan

Privatisation goals are not laid down in the Pakistan constitution. However, the Privatisation Commission (the main performer of privatisation in Pakistan) has declared several goals, namely to privatise state property for the maximum price, to ensure a transparent, high-speed privatisation process while not aggravating the problems of unemployment, ensuring large investments, and creating conditions for the development of capital markets. However, while efforts are focused on ensuring large investments and preserving jobs instead of leaving this to the market, other aims - such as a maximum price, transparency and speed - suffer. The measures designed to ensure a high rate of investment and preserve jobs in privatised companies distort market relationships instead of creating them. The key criteria and strategic objective of privatisation is to create conditions for a free operation of market forces. This attracts maximum effective investment and creates a maximum number of well-paid jobs. Therefore the main aim of privatisation should be defined as privatisation for the highest price without any legal constraints inhibiting free market performance.

Critics argue that privatisation increases unemployment. However, other critics suggest that while newly privatised companies often reduce the number of employees, this is aimed at increasing the efficiency of a company. If the efficiency were not increased, it would mean not only the waste of resources, but a higher probability of bankruptcy as well. Transferring money from taxpayers into the hands of inefficiently functioning state enterprises does not solve the problem of unemployment either. This problem requires other solutions. Reduction of the tax burden and liberalisation of the market are the solutions. Indeed, analysis performed by the Property Fund shows that some privatised enterprises created new jobs. These results became possible due to a more efficient use of resources and successful development of new markets for their products.

Foreign investors bringing there own resources to Pakistan even if profits are repatriated, does not necessarily mean that Pakistan will become poorer. On the contrary, earned profit results in increased wealth of the Pakistan people, since the earned profit shows how much society values the services of the privatised company. As was already mentioned, the higher the price of the privatised company, the higher the expectations of profits and therefore utility for the society. Restricting foreign investments would be the same evil as restricting Pakistan investments. In order to attain better privatisation results, investors must not be discriminated against based on their country of origin. (Sirageldin 2000)

Privatisation of infrastructure enterprises is frequently criticised on the ground that such enterprises have a monopoly status. However, during the last decade, due to market liberalisation, rapid development of technology, and other factors, many businesses - for instance, telecommunication, energy production, and public transport - have been deprived of their monopoly status. In foreign countries these businesses are being partially or fully privatised and restrictions on market entry are being removed. Experience reveals that privatised enterprises function more efficiently.

Conclusion

While they realise that the utility has to earn enough of a profit to maintain and expand its plant and equipment, the utility's customers desire good service at the lowest possible price. Each customer group, too, attempts to gain advantages over other customer groups. Formerly, the customers made their requests through the political process. After privatisation, they may have to take their complaints to the regulatory agency.

The consumer is also better off after privatisation, since he obtains the opportunity to choose higher quality, cheaper products. On the other hand, there are businesses - for instance, water supply, electricity, etc. - where it is extremely difficult to achieve competition because the state itself maintains a monopoly there. However, even in these cases, privatisation would improve the allocation of resources and reduce the cost of supplied services, particularly if restrictions are removed. When legal restrictions on competition are eliminated, it becomes evident that competition in the marketplace is achievable and that the monopoly is not entirely *natural.*

Therefore, neither the supposed increase in unemployment, the possible growth of foreigners' influence, nor privatisation of large infrastructure entities can be regarded as a danger or harm resulting from privatisation. The true harm to society and effective market performance arises when, in addition to property privatisation, citizens' freedom of choice is *privatised.* Such mistakes when privatisation is accompanied by the granting of certain privileges have been made in Pakistan too.

REFERENCES

Blackman G. (1994) *Incentive regulation and the regulation of incentives*. Boston and Dordrecht, USA.

Borenstein, S., Bushnell, J., and Wolak, F. (2000) *Diagnosing market power in California's restructured wholesale electricity market*. Working Paper # 7868. National Bureau of Economic Research, USA.

Bunn D.W. (1995) *Progress in restructuring, privatising, and regulating the U.K. electricity industry during 1990-1995*. Pacific and Asian Journal of Energy, 5(2), 223–34.

Burney N.A. (1986) *Sources of Pakistan's Economic Growth*, The Pakistan Development Review, Vol. XXV No. 4 pp. 573–87.

David B A, William J B and Andrew E B (2001) *Competition policy in dynamic markets*, International Journal of Industrial Organization, Vol. 19, pp. 63-34.

Dean, A., Carlisle, Y., Baden-Fuller, C., (1999) *Punctuated and continuous change: the UK water industry*", British Journal of Management, 10, S3-S18.

Derek (1994) *Small privatisation: the transformation of retail trade and consumer service*. - Budapest; London: Central European University Press, (CEU privatisation reports).

Dnes, A.W., Kodwani, D.G., Seaton, J.S., Wood, D., (1998) *The regulation of the United Kingdom electricity industry: an event study of price-capping measures*, Journal of Regulatory Economics, 13, 207–25.

Foldvary E (1994) *Public Goods and Private Communities: The Market Provision of Social Services*, John Lock Series in Classical Liberal Political Economy.

Hayek F. (1979) *Law and Legislation*, Routledge, London.

IBRD (1984) *Pakistan: Review of the sixth five-year Plan*, The World Bank, Washington.

IBRD (1991) *Pakistan: Current Economic Situation and Prospectus*, The World Bank, Washington.

IBRD (1992) *Pakistan: Current Economic Situation and Prospectus*, The World Bank, Washington.

IBRD (1993) *Pakistan: Country Memorandum FY93, Progress under the adjustment Program*, The World Bank, Washington.

Joskow P.L. (1997) *Restructuring, competition and regulatory reform in the U.S. electricity sector.* Journal of Economic Perspectives, 13(3), 119–38.

Kay J, Bishop M and Mayer C (1996) *Privatisation and economic performance,* p.6, Oxford University Press.

Littlechild S (2001) *Electricity Regulation, Working paper no 0026, DEA*, University of Cambridge, 24 November.

Looney, R E. (1999) - *Income distribution policies and economic growth in semi-industrialized countries.* - New York: Praeger Publishers.

Millward R (2000) *Public private ownership of British Industry,* 1820-1999, 41 Oxford.

Mitchell B M. and Vogelsang I (1991) *Telecommunications Pricing: Theory and Practice.* Cambridge University Press.

Newbery D and Pollitt M.G (1997) *The restructuring and privatisation of the CEGB - was it worth it?* Journal of Industrial Economics, XLV, 3, 269-304.

Parker D. (1999) *Regulation of Privatised Public Utilities in the UK: Performance and Governance*, International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol. 12 No. 3, pp. 213–235. MCB University Press.

Sartaj A (1996) *Privatisation in Pakistan*, Development Centre Studies, OECD.

Shaoul, J. (1997) *A critical financial analysis of the performance of privatised utilities*: the case of the water industry in England and Wales, Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 8, 479–505.

Sirageldin I (2000) *Global Interdependence, Privatisation of Risk and Human Development* The Pakistan Development Review, Vol. 39, pp. 313–336.

Stigler J G (1966) *The Theory of Price*, Macmillan London.

Syed H R (2004) *Public utilities regulation: New perspectives in Institutions & Polices*, Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities- Vol. XII, No.2 autumn.

Syed H R (2005) *The Emerging Role of Public utilities Regulator in Pakistan,* Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities- Vol. XII, No.1 spring.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

POTENTIAL ROLE OF PAKISTANI UNIVERSITIES IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

By
Mehboob Ahmad
and
Khadija Ali•

Introduction

The world is entering a new era when knowledge development is of high importance to the society. Human knowledge has become a major high-powered motive for the civilization of mankind in the current century. Therefore, the role of universities is crucial to the future human society. Universities have existed in the western world for over 900 years. During most of the history, universities have been seen as inwardly focused institutions of knowledge and scholarship, having little interaction with the outside world. Throughout the twentieth century the roles of universities have expanded to include much more direct linkages and cause-and-effect relationships with society, technology and the economy.

There is no doubt that in modern times universities are directly linked with many aspects of our societies. In this paper however, we shall confine ourselves to three dimensions of society where universities have very important influence. These are role of universities in technological development, role of universities in sustainable urbanization and role of universities in economic development. These roles of universities have been explained with reference to various countries of the world. In the end we have examined the possibility of Pakistani universities playing similar roles in our country.

Role of Universities in Technological Development

Throughout the 20th century, particularly during the last 50 years, the role of universities particularly in the United States evolved into a more cause-and-effect relationship with society, technology and the economy. For example, the

• The authors are respectively Assistant Professor, Department of Economics, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad and Director, Kashmir Institute of Economics, AJK University, Muzaffarabad, Azad Kashmir.

flow of technology from universities became apparent during World War II, when radar, penicillin, even nuclear weapons were developed from university research.

This led to the explosive growth in the biotechnology and information technology industries, propelling the shift to a knowledge-based economy.

The ramifications are remarkable: Edwn Mansfield[1] and his colleagues of the U.S National Science Foundation estimate that more than half the U.S. economic growth since WWII is directly attributable to advances in technology – advances made possible by research universities.

They have also shown that research including university research as a whole, in the United States has produced a strikingly high annual return on investment of 20% to the organization that invests in the research, 50% to society and the nation at large, and a still greater rate of return for global society as a whole. The increases in the return going from the investor to the nation to the world are striking. They result from the fact that many of the benefits of more fundamental research accrue through subsequent developments and through uses of the results of the research by those who did not invest directly in the research. Such is the universally beneficial effect of the general growth of knowledge.

Surveying a number of industries, Mansfield has also shown that 11% of new products and 9% of new processes during 1975-1985 could not have happened without academic research that had been performed in the previous 15 years. Another 8% of new products and 6% of new processes would have been much delayed without underlying academic research.

Not included in these calculations is the direct contribution of universities through the production of highly trained scientific and engineering graduates who are the workforce of the industries that, in turn, develop further the fruits of research and convert technological developments into economic development. The flow of manpower is obviously another direct effect of universities on technological development and the economy.

Moreover, the U.S. Labor Department[2] estimates that the number of jobs requiring scientists and engineers is expected to increase three times faster than all other occupations through 2005. Where will this supply of scientists and engineers are found? Obviously, at universities. They have the resources to provide a stream of know-how and human capital, serving as the fuel for innovation, entrepreneurship and regional synergy.

Fortune Magazine[3] recently referred to Stanford University as "the cause" of Silicon Valley, stating: "What sets Stanford apart from other intellectual centers isn't that it contains extremely smart people with big ideas; it's that there are so many smart people in the one part of the world tailor-made to take their ideas and turn them into something real—and profitable." Stanford's Research Park is classic example—Hewlett Packard started there in the 1950s, leading to today's success stories such as Charles Schwab, Cisco Systems, EBay, Netscape, Nike, Sun Microsystems and Yahoo!

In 1996, more than half of the $100 billion gross domestic product of the Silicon Valley economy came from companies started by Stanford graduates and faculty. In 1998, Silicon Valley attracted $4.7 billion in venture capital; had 15 percent of area workforce in research and development; and was the home of more than 40 percent of the wealthiest individuals in technology.

Another classic examples of research universities' impact on technological development and economic growth can be found in the role of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Harvard University and other area universities in creation of the Route 128 corridor around Boston. MIT's contributions alone are enormous: More than 1,000 MIT-related companies are headquartered in Massachusetts; MIT-related firms include Raytheon, Gillette, Thermo Electron, Lotus Development, Bose, and Picture Tel; Teradyne, founded by MIT graduates in the 1960s, is still located in Boston; MIT-related firms employ more than 300,000 people, with some 125,000 people in Massachusetts; and MIT-related firms represent at least 5 percent of the state's employment.

Another success story is Research Triangle Park, supported by Duke, University of North Carolina (UNC) and North Carolina State University (NCSU.) The business start-up rate in the Research Triangle Park area is the highest in the state, the unemployment rate the lowest and per capita income and average wages are well above the state average. The park was conceived in 1959 by the universities, government and industry leaders to be an economic engine for the state. Today, it has at least 100 companies employing more than 36,000 people. Major companies such as IBM, Nortel, Motorola, Dupont, Harris Micro-electronics and SAS have operations in Research Triangle Park.

Now the question arises how we, in Pakistan, can benefit from the success stories of the above mentioned institutions and how we can build our universities that drive technological development and the economy. For this purpose we can

take example of yet another U.S. University—University of California and its impact on just one industry that is biotechnology industry. We first start with impact on biotechnology industry.

- The biotechnology industry provides 48,000 jobs in California, with an average salary of $60,000.
- California has 63% of the $7.1 billion revenues of the United States biotechnology industry.
- California has 56% of the $2.6 billion of biotechnology research and development in the United States.
- One in three United States biotechnology companies is within 35 miles of a University of California campus. Essentially all California biotechnology companies are near a University of California campus.
- Six of the ten best selling biotechnology pharmaceuticals stem from University of California research.
- One in every five California biotechnology companies was founded by University of California scientists.
- 85% of California biotechnology companies employ persons with alumni with graduate degrees from the University of California.

Now coming to the University of California, it was founded in 1868, in the post-Gold rush era. It was a rather ordinary institution for the remainder of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth century. It became unique and distinguished with the arrival of scientific giants such as Gilbert Newton Lewis and Ernest Orlando Lawrence. Lewis, who came in 1912 from M. I. T., built and personally led physical chemistry at Berkeley to the highest pinnacle. Although never receiving a Nobel Prize himself, Lewis trained more Nobel Prize winners than any other American. Lawrence, who arrived in 1928 from Yale, was the inventor of the cyclotron, which enabled wondrous discoveries in high-energy physics. Not content with that, Lawrence created national laboratories namely Lawrence Berkeley and Lawrence Livermore. He and Lewis also fostered such co-workers as Glenn Seaborg, who isolated plutonium and created Trans uranium elements, and Melvin Calvin, who gave us insight into photosynthesis. These stars attracted other stars, and Berkeley grew to pre-eminence.

Now coming back to the question rose above—what we can learn these success stories.

For building magnet university three steps are needed.

i. Pick the fields that underline the new waves of technological development. This stresses the dynamism in the universities. In other words universities are fully aware of the changes taking place around them and accordingly they keep adjusting to new circumstances.
ii. Find and hire the best and most creative researchers. This point stresses the importance of faculty in the universities. The prestige of universities is not associated with its buildings and infrastructure but with the faculty of its departments. The able and creative faculty can play crucial role in the development of universities.
iii. Give them much running room and support them handsomely. This stresses the need of a free and independent faculty. The faculty is freed from various worries particularly economic. The teaching and research faculty is offered handsome amount such that they desire to join your university.

Role of Universities in Sustainable Urbanization

From now to the year 2015, one of the pressing concerns is that more cities will quickly appear in the world with increasing population, and natural environment will have to shrink to make room for the appearing cities. However, the fast development of cities in Asia as experienced in the 70s and 80s has not only been unable to make mankind's dreams of a better life come true, but also brought increasing bitterness and pollution. The material civilization of modern cities has proved to be no match for serious losses, and mankind starts dreaming of a sustainable urbanization with a healthy humanistic environment.

According to Mac Duong[4], in Vietnam, there used to be ebullient movements such as helping the poor, singing for our compatriots, praising the Vietnamese mothers in working-class areas, the struggles for peace, democracy, and for the improvement of people's living conditions, as well as the campaigns against aggressive wars to call for foreign troop's withdrawal from South Vietnam. After 1975, universities have taken part with the city youngsters in organizing the urban society. Students, together with other youngsters, helped clean the neighbor-hood, purify the environment, and protect zoos and parks. Since 1995, the universities have led students into programs to teach the poor and to take care of the lonely elderly. New courses and programs against social evils have been introduced where curricula about environment and ecology protection and woman studies are taught. The movement of the green summer in 1997-1998 carried out the environment education and the green conservation for the city

suburb. Universities also play an important role in the research programs against drug abuse in schools and the society.

Before we go further, let us understand what we mean by sustainable urbanization. In the field of agriculture and economics, the concept of sustainability is generally used to indicate the plan to avoid break-downs and failure in the post-prosperity period. The concept of "sustainability" is quite different in urbanization. Urban life and urban society with its architecture is sustainable in terms of material, and economic growth is prerequisite for urbanization. Yet, urban life and society often lead people to misery, since the development merely aims at pushing the economy and material life. Economic growth is considered as a measure to implement urbanization to reach social humanism. However to have urbanization with values stated above, we may replace, sustainable urbanization with humanistic urbanization. In the near future, the universities in the city will play a greater role to act upon the humanistic urbanization, especially in developing countries like ours. The models of humanistic urbanization will be organized in the university campuses where the community convention of community organizations is created to set up the organic attachment, abolishing the individual isolation in today's urban life. The traditional neighborhood emotional ties and the conception of "a faraway relative cannot be compared to a next-door neighbor" in ethics are to improve and develop in urban community. Students' campuses are also natural reserves with the green, forests, and open space to ensure people the quietness in the noisy modern cities. There is a need for universities to take research and teaching programs on humanistic urbanization as compulsory part of the academic curricula. The proposed content is as below:

1. Community organization and community sense

The aim is to instruct people how to organize a community society and establish voluntary conventions to run it as well as to create the sense of volunteering and responsibility and the principles in the mutual relations and support.

2. Methods of the happy family

To teach people how to manage the family economy and house keeping, to hold parties and family get-togethers, family spiritual activities, and to deal with behaviours in family, especially child rearing and relationship between family members.

3. General knowledge about the environment and ecology

To help people with deep knowledge about the damages man has brought to the natural environment, and about predictable future natural disasters.

4. Community health

To educate public sanitary, protection of daily sickness, necessary emergency with suggested near-by hospitals, measures against social evils to ensure the social order and freshness and strengthen the healthiness for all ages in community.

5. Knowledge about mankind and nation's fine customs

To introduce the stability and customs of social ethics in building happy families and minority community ties, feminism, and traditions in protecting water sources, primitive forests, soil fertility, grasslands, wildlife and water products.

6. Knowledge of history, people's literature and life philosophy

To confirm the emotion of the same origin, of appreciating national predecessors to take respect in those that dedicated to the community sake. People's literature will help perfect community relations psychologically. Philosophy about life will help our personality and thoughts about the happiness of ourselves, our family and our community.

In brief, the 21st century will be greatly influenced by the process of educating the sense of community responsibility upon the concept about human being-family-community-ecology-economic growth-urban development to reach a happy humanistic city for everyone. Universities will act as a guiding light to widespread the responsibility of people to the modem city and the security for it to grow with great humanism. To remarkably increase the social welfare for the poor, the impaired and miserable children and to help them become educated and employed are tasks of the humanistic city in this century. Another important point in urban planning is also the increasing distribution of green parks, natural forests, green lands, natural ponds and lakes in the whole city architecture, which helps bridge the gap between man and nature. Another requirement in the modern city is also the essence of traditional culture in the decoration of hotels, culture houses, offices, schools, and houses, as well as apartments specially designed for people of different religions and minorities. A humanistic city is one with comfortable facilities and modern architecture, which combines the general and individual knowledge about small communities in the society, especially the spiritual and cultural requirements of people and the community.

The 21st century is when all activities of mankind should be achieved for people, and humanistic urbanization in future will be the main momentum for social development. The concept of material urbanization to create a consuming society will be replaced with the new one, in which the role of universities has decisive influence in terms of developing and applying the concept to the research and application of future urban study.

Role of Universities in Economic Development

In the last section we examined the role of universities in the development of community organization and community sense in developing countries including ours. Main function of universities is provision of education particularly higher education. Through the provision of education universities play crucial role in the development process. The role of education is well recognized and documented in the literature.

It is possible to think of the role of education in general and university education in particular in a production process (or development process) in at least three different ways. These correspond to three different views of how education contributes to economic growth and development.

First we think of uneducated and educated workers as perfectly substitutable inputs to production. Two workers who have completed primary school, say, are equivalent to one worker who has completed secondary school. Put differently, labor is homogeneous and can be measured in terms of "efficiency units." Holding constant the number of actual workers, an increase in the average level of education of the labor force increases the size of the labor force measured in efficiency units. This increase in the number of efficiency units per worker generates greater output per worker since labor is an input to production. Growth in the average years of schooling per worker is thus associated with growth in output per worker.

Second, uneducated and educated workers can be seen as imperfectly substitutable inputs to production. In constructing a suspension bridge, say, three (or 30) workers with a primary school education cannot replace one civil engineer. With educated and uneducated labor treated as different inputs, different production processes can be thought of as making more or less intensive use of educated relative to uneducated labor. The aircraft industry will employ a higher ratio of educated to uneducated workers because of the nature of its production. Increasing the number of educated workers helps a country to "move up the ladder" to production of more technologically sophisticated goods.

An industry's production process could make intensive use of educated labor because it requires sophisticated monitoring and quality control, say, or because technology is rapidly changing and highly educated workers are needed to learn it. Generalizing from the latter case, the role of educated labor in any production process can be seen as learning or creating technology that generates more output holding levels of inputs constant, rather than as an input itself. This leads to the third view of the contribution of education to the economic growth of less developed countries: it helps them absorb foreign technology.

These are the some of the roles our universities can also play in the near future. These roles have been actively played by universities in other parts of the world. That is why there is no reason that our universities cant' do the same. The only problem is how they can do that. How they can perform the first role of technological development? As we stated above, the universities must be able to attract faculty of high caliber by paying them handsome amount and other benefits. Moreover, universities must provide good environment and safe neighborhood for the faculty as well as the students. Let there be no politics in recruitment and promotion of faculty. Let there be no indifference to the development of our institutions. Let us promote and hire faculty only and only on the basis of merit and not on the basis of personal whim and likeness / dislike ness. Let there be independent and impartial body unrelated to universities to decide about the appointment and promotions in the universities. Institutions of higher learning should be conducted for the common goal of our society and not to further the interest of certain individuals.

The role of our universities could also be very important in building of humanistic urbanization. This role of universities is very important in our fast growing cities of Karachi, Lahore and Faisalabad. In these cities, the relevant universities should end their isolation and involve themselves in the communities they are in. They must involve themselves in their neighborhood such that to make it secure and worth living. These cities are facing serious problems of unemployment, underemployment, traffic jams, shanty towns, urban crimes, pollution and environmental degradation. Let our universities take their civic responsibilities in the development and progress of their cities.

The universities may also run academic programs of the nature stated above. The role of universities in the development of this country is important indeed. The universities can play this role by developing and teaching curricula most relevant to the modern time in order to keep pace with the rest of the world. The curricula must be revised within 2-4 years. Assuming faculty is hired on merit, the teachers must teach their courses honestly. They must do justice to their courses. The faculty must keep themselves updated with the changes taking place in their respective fields.

The teachers are one part of the story. The other part is the students. Let our students devout their full time to their studies without involving themselves into petty politics. They must study not only for their own sake but also for the sake of this country in which they are living in. This country has some rights over them and the most important right is their 100% devotion to their studies.

Conclusion

It has been observed that in Pakistan higher education has played an important role in providing social mobility to emerging social groups, in opening spaces for intellectual activity and political mobilization, in providing important segments of population with professional and cultural skills, and in developing scientific and technological research capabilities. At the same time higher education system has not contributed in the development of this country, in the reduction of unemployment, inequality and poverty, in the reduction of shanty towns and urban slums, in the reduction of pollution and environmental degradation. Our higher education system has also failed in its relations with industry and applied research.

There is no consensus on the policies that could be implemented to make higher education better, and to contribute more to social and economic development and social equality. One way is to allocate more resources to the higher learning institutions in general and high performance institutions in particular. In fact support could be linked with performance. Salaries for academic staff could be improved, and the total expenditures reduced, if the existing flat and uniform civil service careers were replaced by a well functioning merit system, an effective market for competencies and the replacement of full time by part time employment when the former is not required.

REFERENCES

1. Quoted from Rosan, R.M (2002) *The key Role of Universities in Our Nation's Economic Growth and urban Revitalization*, http:// experts.uli.org/ content/ whoswho/officers/rosan/rosan_c7.htm

2. Quoted from Rosan, R.M (2002) *The key Role of Universities in Our Nation's Economic Growth and urban Revitalization*, http://experts.uli.org/ content/ whoswho/officers/rosan/rosan_c7.htm

3. Quoted from Rosan, R.M (2002) *The key Role of Universities in Our Nation's Economic Growth and urban Revitalization*, http://experts.uli.org/ content/ whoswho/officers/rosan/rosan_c7.htm

4. Duong, Mac (1999) *The Role of Universities in Humanization Process for a sustainable urbanization* (case study: Vietnam and Hochiminh City), http:www.fundp.ac.be/prelude/publications/bulletine/Bull37_39_10.html

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Erichsen, H-U (1998) *Universities in Society – Mission, Effectiveness, Accountability.* http://www.abo.fi/norden/nuas/publik/dirsem/ sthlm98/erich.pdf

2. Mowery, D.C (1999) *The Changing Role of Universities in the 21st Century U.S. R&D System.* http://www.aaas.org/spp/yearbook /2002/ch25.pdf

3. ( ) *Not to Be a University with a Closed Future,* http://home. donga. ac.kr/ ~daudh/magazine/110/cov.htm

4. (2002) *Universities as Research Partners* http://www.atp.nist.gov/ eao/ gcr02-829/chapt3.htm

5. Schwartzman, S (2002) *Universities and the Transformation of Society in Brazil.* http://www.open.ac.uk/cheri/TRschwartzmanfinal.pdf

6. King, C.J (1999) *The Role of Universities in Technological Development: The University of California Experience.* http:// www.ucop.edu/ acadaff/ adiat.html

7. Yunhe, P (2001) *Zhejiang University Has Finished Its Transition from Educational Mode to Research Mode.* http://www.zju.edu.cn/ english/news/2001-2002/news010905d.htm

8. Naqvi, S.S.H and Rahman, A. (2003) *Development plans for Pakistan's Higher Education Sector.*

9. Meier, G.M and Rauch, J.E (2000) *Leading Issues in Development.*

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

A REVIEW - EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY BEING USED AT BANGLADESH OPEN UNIVERSITY

By
Dr. Md. Mayenul Islam[*]

Abstract

Educational technology plays a crucial role in the distance and open learning system. For ensuring quality of its programmes, open learning system must make the best use of new communication educational technologies. Technological advancements in behavioral as well as social sciences can contribute to delivery of open learning materials and communication systems in educational setting. In distance education courses, different types of educational technologies are used in delivering the study materials. For examples, print, radio, television, audio, video, telephone, teleconferencing, videoconferencing etc. This paper aims at describing the educational technologies used at open and distance learning and their usage in Bangladesh Open University (BOU). This paper also suggests the technologies to be undertaken to make them more effective for BOU students.

Introduction

We are entering into the *knowledge era* and moving towards the *knowledge society*. This forthcoming period of change, with significant advances in communication and information technology, the opening of the global economy and the demands being made on limited resources of national governments is giving rise to new ways of thinking and acting about education and training (Manjulika and Reddy, 2000). The Oxford Universal Dictionary, where education is explained as: (1) the process of learning, growing up; (2) the process of rearing or bring up; and (3) systematic instruction. In other words, education is concerned with teaching, learning and providing systematic instruction for the growth of an individual. Technology is defined as: (1) systematic treatment; (2) scientific study of practical arts; and (3) the process of development of materials. The term *'Educational Technology'* (ET) came into vogue during the 1970s in our country. It was defined and understood to mean the sophisticated machines which had proliferated, such as television, audio and video tape recorders and computers (Chaudhri, 1989). Distance education has been

[*] Dr. Md. Mayenul Islam, Associate Professor (Management), School of Business, Bangladesh Open University, Gazipur-1705.

defined as "an educational process in which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and/time from the learner." (Hilary, 1994).

Technology is an important factor in distance and open education. In this system different types of technologies are used to transmit education to the learners. Open learning systems make the best use of new educational technologies. Siddiqui, (1987) stated that selection of appropriate media for a learning package is a complex decision influenced by a variety of considerations, such as the specific learning objectives of the unit, the nature of subject matter, learner's background and experiences and the characteristics of the target group, as well as practical constraints including availability of infrastructure and financial resources. Rumble (1994) said that four media namely print, audio, television, computers are available for teaching purposes, in one technological from or another. Electronic publishing will be a major development in distance education. Over the next decade, it would expect at least 70% of the various steps in publishing to be carried out electronically in most European distance teaching institution. Every learner is acquainted with textbooks as a potential print-based study material (Bates, 1994). The distinction between media and technology is a useful one. A medium is a generic form of communication associated with particular ways of presenting knowledge. There are five important media in education: direct human contact (face-to-face), text (including still graphics), audio, television and computing. The use of each medium gives both variety and chance of accommodating different learning styles. This paper aims at describing the technologies used at distance learning and their usage in BOU and to be undertaken to suggest the technologies to be undertaken to make them more effective for BOU students.

Bangladesh Open University

The Bangladesh Open University (BOU) is the only distance and open learning public university of this country. The BOU has opened up a new vista in distance education in the country. BOU was established by the Bangladesh Parliament in 1992 by the Act No 38 (Gazette, 1992). Its objectives are to:

> *Expand all levels of education, knowledge and science by a diversity of means, including the use of any communication technology to improve the quality of education and to provide opportunities for education to the general public through mass-orientation of education and to create efficient manpower by improving the quality of education in general.*

BOU has six schools in the field of science and technology, education, social science, agriculture and business. The BOU has already launched 21 formal and 19 non-formal programmes. Formal programmes include master degrees, bachelor degrees, diploma and certificate programmes, for the distance and open learners. Over 3,50,000 (approximately) students have already been enrolled in various programme. Non-formal programmes are designed to make people aware of the education. These are community based programmes and are intended for the people who are willing to improve the level of their knowledge and understanding about the environment and socio-cultural aspect of life in general. These include basic science, agriculture, pisciculture, poultry, livestock, health, nutrition, ethics and environment. The university is also planning to start its school of law, M. Phil and Ph.D. level programmes in the near future. The university has a media division to produce audio-video educational programmes and transform them into cassettes for broadcasting by radio and television (At a Glance, 2001).

The Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To identify the major educational technologies used for open and distance education.
2. To describe the identified technologies and their usage in BOU.
3. To suggest the technologies to be undertaken to make them more effective for BOU students.

Methodology

To achieve the objectives of the study secondary data collected by reviewing books and articles and primary data or some information about BOU collected from its publications such as student handbook, booklet or newsletters etc. have been used.

Educational Technologies for Distance Education

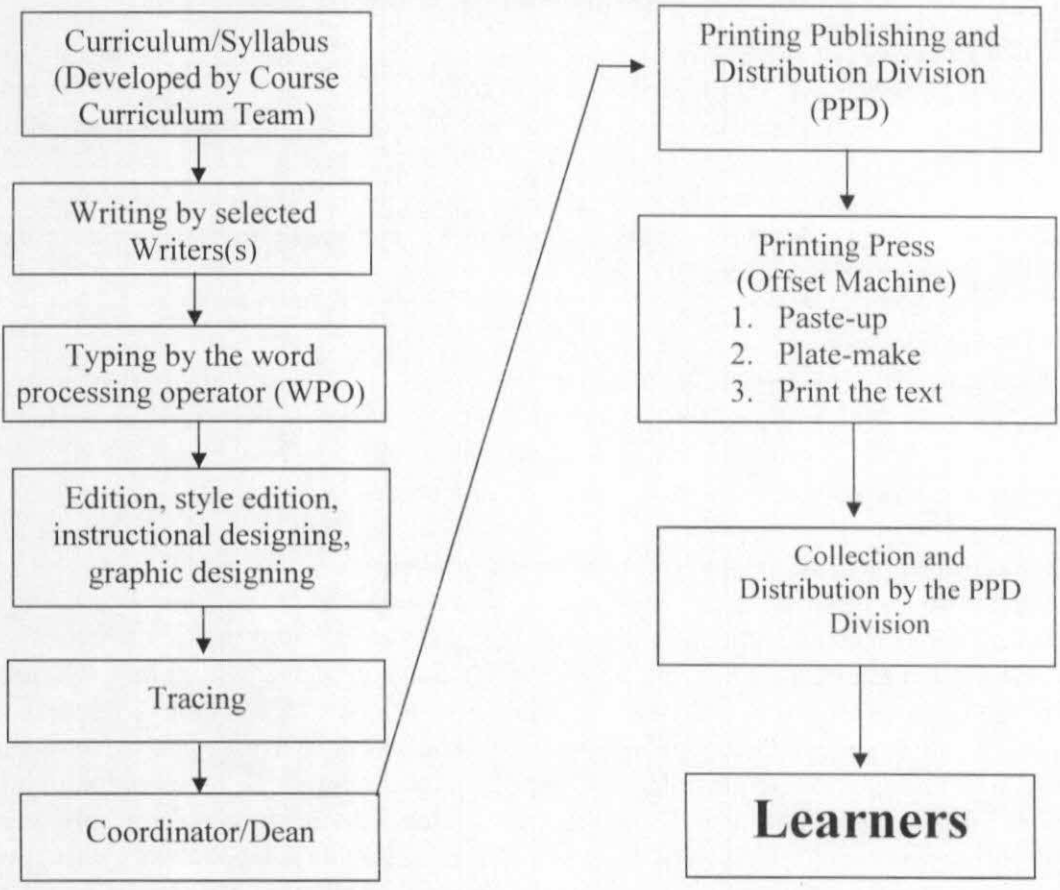
Increasingly distance education is being linked to technology. For a long time distance education was on the margins. It is only just entering the mainstream technology reinforces its emergence. Educational technology has led to a succession of revolutions in the methods of distance learning. First BOU integrated the mass media of television and radio broadcasting in the order of print medium. Next it integrated the personal media- the VCR, the computer and the tape deck. Right now it is integrating the knowledge media in another revolution (Daniel, 1997). The effective use of technology depends on two main requirements: the first one is access to the required equipment by learners and the latter one is the availability of infrastructure and resources to produce and deliver

material for various technologies. The following educational technologies are implementing delivery of distance as explained below:

1. Printing Materials

The open and distance learners have 100 percent access to the printed materials. Printed materials for each course are delivered through 12 regional resource centers and 80 local centers of Bangladesh Open University (BOU) from where students can pick them up when they register for their courses. The print materials are developed by a course development team. Writers, editors, style editors, instructional designers, graphic designers and the course co-ordinators are members of the team (Islam and Karim, 2002). To produce text materials Bangladesh Open University has used the following printing process in Figure -1:

Figure-1: Print materials preparation and its Printing process of Bangladesh Open University



Source: *Field Survey (Schools/Faculties, Printing, Publishing and Distribution Division)*

The academic planning committee (School Committee) of BOU suggest a curriculum or syllabus to the concerned curriculum committee to develop a detailed curriculum. This committee consist of academicians and media experts. For each course there is a syllabus committee to frame the detailed syllabus. Once the curriculum is proposed, it goes to academic council through the school committee for final approval. A course development team is formed by the respective school for developing each course book. This team comprises course writer(s), editor(s), style editor(s), graphic designer(s), illustrator and a course co-ordinator. The course book is also validated by at least one referee. A detailed syllabus is given to the writer(s) and once the writing is over, the manuscript is sent to the word processing operator (WPO) or Desk Text Processing (DTP) cell for typing the book.

After completing the type of the book then it is sent to editor(s), style editor(s), graphic designer(s) or illustrator to prepare different illustrations to make the subject matter easy. Many times this team sits together and discusses the complete layout of the course. Once the manuscript is fully reviewed and corrected the tracing copy is sent by co-ordinator to the Printing Publishing and Distribution (PPD) Division. This division is responsible for the quality printing and timely distribution of all course material. The PPD division sends the copy to the private offset press for its publication. The process (Figure-1) show that it is very much easier technique to produce text materials. Electronic publishing can reduce both the costs and time consuming.

2. Audio-visual Media

There is no doubt that well-designed audio-cassettes, combined with printed material, are an extremely cost effective medium; and that television has valuable and unique role to play in distance education (Bates, 1994). The following audio-visual technologies are implementing delivery of distance education in the world. Detailed description of the technologies now being used is given below:

(i) **Terrestrial Broadcast television and radio:** Broadcast television, and to a lesser extent radio, could still have a useful role to play in distance education. The key question, however, will it be possible to get access to any form of terrestrial broadcast television or radio for educational purpose? The advent of satellite and cable trends toward deregulation and competition, and the relatively small numbers of the students following any particular course at any time, are all likely to discourage terrestrial broadcasting organizations from giving a regular quality commitment to transmission of distance teaching programmes (Bates, 1994). The BOU is

engaged in planning, producing and evaluating both television and radio broadcasts for its students. The presenter or faculty member prepares the script on the selected topic. The script is presented to the respective school who check the content and language of the script and sends it to the producer of Media Division. The BOU has its own media centre to produce all audio and video materials. The producer with his/her team records the presentation. Then the editor edits the program, which is previewed by a committee. The preview committee consists of subject specialists, faculty members and media specialist. Once programme is finalized by the committee, it goes on air (Parhar, 2000). Under the existing arrangements, the BOU enjoys the facility of radio broadcast for its students only for 40 minutes each day in between 7.00pm and 8.00pm. From the very beginning, audio tapes and radio broadcasts have formed distance parts of the BOU course materials. BOU transmits 25 minutes of TV programs four days in a week in between 2.30pm and 4.00pm. All the schools of the university share these time schedules.

(ii) **Audio/Video – Cassettes:** The value of the audio or video cassette lies not just in its ability to allow students to view programs at more convenient times; it also enables learning from broadcast what the book is to the lecture. The BOU has been preparing the audio and videocassettes for broadcasting through radio and television. But it yet has not provided audio/video cassettes for using its distance learning students, for obvious reasons for cost and poor access.

(iii) **Satellite:** The 1980s have been dominated by the expansion of the video-cassette ownership in Europe. The 1990s will be dominated by the expansion of satellite broadcasting. Satellite can also transmit voice and data signals, using a fraction of the capacity of a television channel and hence at far cost-a point of particular significance for distance education (Bates, 1994). The BOU has tried to make a plan for delivery of open and distance learning programs through satellite channel.

3. Cable

Probably no other medium will vary as much in its availability among different European countries as cable television. There has been a lot of high-pressure sales activity about the interactive possibilities of cable television for education. Cable television is essentially a local distribution facility. It has potential for campus-based higher education institutions to extend their off-campus teaching. Cable may also be used, as a means of distributing video programs nationally, where terrestrial broadcasting facilities are not available.

The BOU has not prepared for delivery of open and distance learning materials through cable television, for obvious reasons for cost and poor access.

4. Videodisc/CD

Videodiscs/CD have great potential for education and, especially, training. They can either be used in a stand-alone from- in the same way as a videocassette, but with much more precise and convenient control – or combined with microcomputer (Bates, 1994). CD and other innovative techniques are used for effective transmission of knowledge to the learners at a distance. The developing countries, like Bangladesh, with very limited resources have no alternative without implementing off-campus education system to educate their vast population. The BOU has not adopted videodiscs/CD for delivery of open and distance learning students, for obvious reasons for cost and poor access.

5. Computer technology

There is a great demand for courses, which improve people's knowledge, understanding and skills in using computer technology. Whether it involves learning about programming, computer hardware or computer systems access to computer equipment is essential for this kind of course. Another important role for computers is as general tools to help the study process. The BOU is using advanced technology to communicate between 12 Regional Resources Centre (RRC). The BOU has not adopted computing media and technologies for delivery of open and distance learning students except email facility.

6. Fax Machine

Fax machine is an important factor in distance and open education. It is very much necessary for last minute announcements, timely communication of academic and administrative decision with others. The BOU is using fax machine. Fax machines are also distributed to all RRCs proving assignment distribution.

7. Telephone and Teleconferencing

Teleconferencing has been at the heart of distance education programme from its inception, and continues to play a significant role. Telephone teaching at the open learning takes two forms: one-to-one telephone tutoring; and small-group teleconferencing. Teleconferencing at open learning is essentially a small-scale, small-group activity (with up to eight or nine participants), which replicates via telecommunications the kind of small group activity that goes on at face to face tutorials (Robinson, 1994). The BOU has not adopted teleconferencing for delivery of open and distance learning students for obvious reasons for cost and poor access. But the BOU students have been demanding teleconferencing service for long time.

8. Videoconferencing

Any group visits of the smaller courses are handled by video conferencing, and both the lecturers and the students adapt themselves easily to this methodology. This equipment is ideal for extending contact sessions with students and vastly increases tutoring and counselling without generating an excessive cost on the staff side. No tutors or counsellor need to be appointed and no physical site such as classrooms and offices need to be rented, cleaned and supervised (Labuschagne, 2000). The BOU has not adopted videoconferencing for delivery of open and distance learning students though there is high demand for it.

Conclusion

Technology for home –based learning will still be relatively restricted in a number of countries, even ten years from now. For some countries, there will be a wider range of technologies for distance teaching and greater potential for cross-national delivery of courses. This could lead to a much wider variety of course design and delivery, with major implications for organizational structures and work roles. There is a danger, however, that too great a commitment to new technologies could limit the openness of distance teaching institutions (Bates, 1994). Educational technology will change the nature of the distance education experience. Technological developments need to be preceded and accompanied by research and evaluation to monitor carefully not only the learning but also the cost and organizational implications. Distance teaching institutions should investigate in more immediate and practical issues, such as studying the design implication of educational technologies.

The BOU is engaged in planning to producing both video and audio conferencing for its students. In a technically advanced society with a reliable and accessible telephone system counselling through teleconferencing, answer-phones, audio videocassettes, broadcasting by computer or interactive videodisc can be emphasized. However, in any situation students feel comfortable with face to face and telephone counselling which are provided by BOU for their existing and potential students. The BOU was set-up in 1992. Within a short span of about 11-12 years the university has launched more than 21 formal and 19 informal programs categories. In such a short span of time, for a small country like Bangladesh, it is a significant achievement and break-through. The BOU has been able to curve out a niche for itself in the community of Open University in the world.

REFERENCES

Bangladesh Gazette (1992). Bangladesh Parliament: The Act No. 38.

Bangladesh Open University *"At a Glance", 2001.*

Bates, A. (1994). Technology for distance education: a ten-year Prospective. *Distance Education: New Perspectives.* Routledge, London and New York.

Chaudhri, M. M. (1989). Educational Media and Technology. *Open Learning System.* Lancer International, New Delhi.

Daniel, John S. (1997). Can You Get My Hard Nose in Focus? Universities, Mass Education and Appropriate Technology. Keynote Address at the International Distance Learning Conference, Washington, DC, March.

Hilary Perraton (1994). Training Teachers at a Distance. Commonwealth Secretariat, Marlborough House, London.

ICDL, web site www-icdl.open.ac.uk (1999).

Islam, M.M. and Karim, S. (2002). Delivery Mode of Second-Generation Open and Distance Education: A Study of their Effectiveness at Bangladesh Open University. *Journal of Social Science Humanities and Language*, vol-2. July.

Labuschagne, J. J. (2000). The University of South Africa. *The World of Open and Distance Learning,* Viva Books Private Limited, New Delhi.

Manjulika, S. and Reddy, V. (2000). *Open and Distance Learning in Transition.* Viva Books Private Limited, New Delhi.

Parhar, M. (2000). Bangladesh Open University. *The World of Open and Distance Learning,* Viva Books Private Limited, New Delhi.

Robinson, B (1994). Telephone Teaching and Audio- conferencing at the British Open University. *Routledge,* London and New York.

Rumble, G. (1994). Media Use at Open University, *The Guardian (Dhaka, Bangladesh),* Bangladesh Open University, November.

Siddiqui, A. S. (1987). Role of Radio and TV in Distance Education System of Allama Iqbal Open University, *Pakistan Journal of Distance Education.* Vol. 5, No. 2.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

RURAL WOMEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

By
Dr. Mussaret Anwar Sheikh[*]

Abstract

Rural women lag behind in all aspects of their lives as compared to their counterparts in urban areas as well as the men in Pakistan. The rural women are deprived of education and economic opportunity because of cultural conservatism and patriarchal attitudes of the society. There is a dire need to educate rural population in general, but the rural women in particular so as to improve the quality of life of the families and the nation, as a whole.

Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU), being the only distance education institution in the country, has performed tremendous task of educating rural population, especially rural women. It has offered course from literacy to post graduate level and teacher education to cater for the needs of different segments of population. The AIOU has implemented innovative programmes in the field of non-formal education for the educational and economic up lift of rural women.

The government of Pakistan has also been trying to implement projects and programmes for the social and economic uplift of rural women since the independence of the country in 1947. The Ministry of Education, Provincial education departments, agricultural institutions and universities are involved in education and agriculture extension work in the country.

Non-government organizations (NGOs) and many social work organizations are also actively involved in making the rural population skilled and literate. However, there is still need of a close collaboration among all stakeholders (public, private, NGOs and community). A close collaboration at regional level to benefit from each other's experience can help to educate women and can foster personal, social and economic empowerment of rural women.

---

[*] The writer served as Director of Institute of Mass Education, AIOU, presently working as Consultant in Fatima Jinnah Women University, Rawalpindi.

Introduction: Distance in Pakistan

Allama Iqbal Open University was established in 1974 under an act of Parliament. When established, it was the second university of its kind in the world first being established in UK in the late sixties. Now, more than 65 universities have been established in the world on the basis of distance education. Even formal universities are introducing degree programmes on the basis of non-formal education.

In Pakistan the AIOU has successfully used a distance education model. It has established multi-media, multi level and multi method teaching system. Within a modest period the university has been able to offer courses from literacy to Ph.D. level. The AIOU programmes are offered throughout Pakistan and even in some Middle Eastern countries. The programmes offer a wide choice of courses at a variety of levels as well as for professional people.

Right from the beginning the AIOU has focused on basic and functional education for serving the masses, who do not have the access to education. This includes working people, housewives, out of school youth and rural communities, especially women and girl child. Pakistan is an agricultural country and almost 70% of its population lives in rural areas where quality of life is very low as compared to urban areas. The literacy rate in rural areas is 27.5% and it is even much lower for women. Health facilities are inadequate and employment and income generation opportunities are limited (Mahmood & Malik, 2001). The rural women are the most affected due to the low level of economic and social services available to rural population of the country. Although women contribute a large part of the farm labour and agriculture production but their contribution is not recognized. The rural women are deprived of education because of the cultural conservatism and patriarchal attitude of society. There is an urgent need to educate rural communities and particularly women for the social and economic development of the country.

The AIOU has distinguished itself in promoting female education in rural areas. It has undertaken field research and has launched many projects in all the four provinces of Pakistan to develop practical approaches for promoting mass education among females of rural areas. The AIOU for various levels of female education, has been reaching this focused population through its Institute of Mass Education, whose objectives are as follows:

- To develop need based course materials along with media support and allied materials for learners and instructors/ facilitators.

- To train non-formal instructors/facilitators in pre and in-service teachers training.
- To conduct research studies based on the feedback to improve upon the developed materials.
- To develop a viable strategy for marketing the materials and services of the available expertise.

AIOU's Earliest Initiatives on Rural Women and Girls

Basic Functional Education Programme (BFEP)

BFEP evolved out of AIOU's first research project called Functional Education Project for Rural Areas (FEPRA) whose main objective was to develop a workable strategy for the education of rural masses. After three years study of Knowledge, Attitude and Practices (KAP Study) of the area, an innovative tested strategy was developed to pass on information effectively through non-broadcast media comprising of flip charts, audio cassettes and handouts and group discussion. In this approach there is no face-to-face instruction by trained teachers. The courses are centrally prepared in the university campus and presented to groups of 15-20 learners in their villages using simple and low cost media. Within each learning group, one of its member acts as a group leader, whose tasks include convening study meetings and presenting course material. IME team trains the group leaders. The group leader's work is monitored/ supervised by a Field Worker from IME field base. One group leader has 20 learners; one Assistant Supervisor looks after 6 groups. One field worker monitors five Assistant supervisors and thus in this way the outreach of one Field Worker covers 600 learners. The BFEP course cycles are run according to the cropping pattern of the villages. The group leaders role is as that of the part time tutors in the DE system.

The field staff monitors and supervises the group sessions conducted by locally recruited persons. Additionally, they have to hold frequent motivational meetings and closely supervise the running of course cycle. The courses so far developed are:

1. Livestock Management
2. Agriculture Credit
3. Child Care-I
4. Child Care-II
5. Poultry Farming (for northern areas)
6. Livestock Diseases (for northern areas)
7. Better Yields (for Barrani Areas)

8. Poultry Keeping
9. Electricity in the Village
10. Women's Health
11. Family Health
12. Sanitation
13. Population Education
14. Better Yields (for irrigated areas)

The BFEP courses learning strategy has earned IME international recognition by getting two awards of UNESCO NOMA Award and RAJA ROY SINGH Award. The BFEP course material is purchased by NGO's for use with their groups in rural areas.

Integrated Functional Literacy Programme (IFLP)

IFLP was an endeavor to facilitate the female learners in educating them and uplifting their social standard of life. This was a comprehensive scheme for educating the out of school and dropped out girls. Desirous and not much aged housewives of the area were also included in the programme. The specific objectives were:

1. Making arrangements for the basic education of about 600 girls in a period of three years.
2. Providing skills training to enroll females in such skills as embroidery, sewing, cutting, cooking, knitting, james, pickles making and juices or as may be proposed by local population.

The learning package consisted of 4 literacy primers, followed by primary books of level III through V spread over 18 months. A certificate is awarded at the end of level V exam.

Women Basic Education Programme (WBEP)

The existing literacy and primary education programmes have been reformulated to bring them into the mainstream of the university framework through WBEP. The scheme for WBEP is aimed at the development of appropriate learning materials and methodologies that will integrate the literacy materials and methodologies and subject based primary level materials. The focus of these materials is on the empowerment of women for their personal, social, economic and political self-reliance. The learning materials will be gender sensitive and address the learners as adults, include information land functional knowledge, which will help them in their daily lives by building upon women's

lives, their life experiences, their practices, and their already existing knowledge. The target group is 10+. The objectives of the WBEP are as follows:

- To develop gender sensitive learning materials.
- To design learning materials which will be according to the needs of the rural women.
- To develop learning materials appropriate for the rural situations.
- To develop a mechanism of field-testing the learning materials including media support.
- To develop and put into practice a system for pre- and in-service training of local non-formal education teachers.
- To develop a system for learning achievement assessment.
- To develop and field test a methodology for training of field staff of NGO's and AIOU.
- To develop a system for monitoring and supervision.
- To develop a methodology for ensuring community/learners participation and ownership in cooperation with NGO's and community based organizations (CBO's).
- To develop a marketing strategy of WBEP learning materials and related training package.

The WBEP scheme of studies has been approved by the Academic Council recently. Material development will start in a workshop situation from December 2001 onwards. It is of three and half years spread over six levels as given in the table below:

Term	Level	Duration
I	Motivational Phase with BFEP course at pre literacy levels	2 months
II	Literacy level-I	4 months
III	Literacy level-II	8 months
IV	Basic level-III	8 months
V	Basic level-IV	8 months
VI	Basic level-V	8 months

Women Middle Education Programme (WMEP)

WMEP a missing ladder in the educational programmes of IME approved by the Academic Council in 1999 is now ready for launching of the Foundation course from December 2001 onwards at 20 centres. Ten centres will be at the Field Base Kharian and 10 at Bara Kou, where IFLP learners of AIOU are

available as a feeder to WMEP. It is to serve 12 + rural women through a two and half year programme spread over three terms of eight months each. The foundation course of three months is a pre-requisite so as to have a uniform group. The objectives are the same as the WBEP except that the age level requirements are to be catered. With the launching of the Foundation Course, AIOU will have to its credit the first post primary level programme through open learning for the un-reached population of Pakistan. The skill-oriented courses development process of WMEP will be according to the needs and resources of the area. The skill-oriented courses will be strengthened by Strategic Alliance of AIOU with the First Women Bank (FWBL).

Women Secondary Education Programme (WSEP)

Women's Secondary Education Programme has been offered since 1985 started under a directive of the President of Islamic Republic of Pakistan for "**Purda-observing families**" as well as housewives and women living in villages, who have little access to the formal education system because of socio-economic constraints. The secondary education programme education of women is especially very important for the development of the country because educated women tend to marry late and have fewer children. The Secondary education gives women access to a number of qualified jobs. The major objectives of the programme was to offer viable, relevant, functional and skill oriented courses for women especially rural women which are not only related to their needs but also helps them to become economically active and independent. The programme offers compulsory core courses in addition to the following skill oriented courses:

- Garment making
- Applied food and nutrition
- Selling home made products
- Home and farm operation management
- Poultry farming
- Family health and care
- First aid
- Home electrical appliances repair and maintenance

Majority of the students of secondary education programme are rural women. The programme has tremendous social and economic impact on the lives of women who have completed their certificate or those who joined the programme. Since 1999 the programme is being offered to male citizens. In collaboration with British Council and World Bank, the AIOU is offering Secondary Education programme since 2000 to educate 500 girls in two hard to reach districts of Gilgit in the northern area.

Strategic Alliance among First Women Bank Limited (FWBL) and AIOU

FWBL and AIOU have committed to provide education land banking support to micro and small entrepreneurs particularly those operated by women. Both the institutions decided to work according to their respective roles and competencies to encourage and promote self-employment for women both rural and urban by designing tailored credit products and entrepreneur development programmes. The alliance at AIOU is to be carried out by IME with the responsibilities shared as follows:

AIOU	FWBL
Based on the selection criterion, IME will short list the areas where micro credit programme could be launched	Finalize the areas where micro credit programme can be launched in collaboration with AIOU
Conduct area/village profile survey, local economic base survey, impact study survey, and any other surveys required from time to time for successful launching and maintaining Micro credit operations.	Evaluate surveys conducted by IME and report results.
Organize community gathering meeting and create awareness of FWBL's micro credit programme	Attend from time to time community gathering meetings to promote FWBL Micro credit programme
Visit potential borrowers and fill relevant documents	Evaluate credit application and related documents and inform outcomes.
Provide transport and field workers once/twice per week to assist FWBL in recovery efforts.	Visit once/twice a week the respective areas and collect dues.
Provide transport facilities to FWBL staff members for field visits.	Provide necessary training to IME staff on credit programmes
Prepare and deliver skill development courses	Evaluate performance of the programme and propose improvements

A joint committee, three members from each institution, has been formed and empowered to formulate and implement operational mechanism. Furthermore both the institutions are to encourage and promote self-employment opportunities particularly for women by providing:

a) Access to credit
b) Skill development courses

c) Marketing support by jointly organizing fairs, exhibitions, special events, and utilizing display facilities of FWBL business centres.

d) Conduct seminars, workshops, group discussions, and advocacy to address problems faced by micro small entrepreneurs in those areas.

The alliance is in line with the Beijing +5 issues related *to women and economy, women and poverty, women and illiteracy, women education and training.* Pakistan is a signatory to all these. Out of the six goals of Education for All (EFA) Dakkar Declaration, two goals highlight these.

Short Term Educational Programmes (STEP's) and Community Education Group

STEP's is novel study plan, which can be taken at any time of the year at the convenience of the learners and at their own pace. STEP's 99 courses serve a wide range of interest and fall under six groups of management sciences, social sciences, hotel services and management, community education, secondary media tuition and computer courses. Out of the 16 courses of community education group the courses useful for rural women are childcare, food and nutrition, population welfare, poultry farming, selling of home made products, garment making I and II, family health and care, childcare, first aid. The other STEPS agriculture related courses are bee keeping, fish farming, growing mushroom, kitchen gardening, seri-culture and tree plantation.

UNESCO Women Empowerment and Poverty Reduction Project

IME has signed an agreement with UNESCO on a project for women empowerment and poverty reduction whereby IME will run at 10 centres with the existing BFEP courses in the rural areas of NWFP province. In addition 4 readers, two videos and 2 audio cassettes will be developed on food preservation, kitchen gardening, family health and Women rights. The material development is in process.

Campaigning for Adult Literacy Project 2001-2003

AIOU in collaboration with the Literacy Cell of the Ministry of Education has submitted a project proposal for a national campaign for the eradication of literacy among adults both men and women of age group 15-40. it is a two-year campaign aimed a making 13.5 million literate and raising the literacy rate to 60%. The primary responsibility of implementing this campaign will rest in the proposed District Governments under the supervision of the provincial governments. The literacy focus is on providing basic literacy skills with media

support through 90,000 literacy centres with 60,000 as face-to-face Literacy Centres (FFLC) and 30,000 Community Viewing Literacy Centres (CVLC). The learning package will have both print and media component. The Print material for the FFLC's will be AIOU's four literacy primers and functional education radio programmes. sThe TV programmes in the CVLC will have will have tele-lessons in two parts. Part I initially will be AIOU functional education programmes. PTV and AIOU will prepare additional TV programmes focusing on adult literacy. Part II is based on TV lessons of PTV/Pakistan Literacy Commission (PLC) called Nia Din (New Day). The literacy personnel training will be done by AIOU at three levels for master trainers, teachers and supervisors. AIOU will have the Project Implementing Unit (PIU) for undertaking the following responsibilities":

- Production of learning packages for learners, teachers, master trainers.
- Production of media programmes both radio/audio, TV/video
- Training of teachers, master trainers and supervisors
- Launching of the project in those districts, which come under AIOU regional network and outreach system
- Contributing as one of the stakeholders in the electronic and print motivation campaign

AIOU's Initiatives at Post Graduate Level

M.Sc. Women Studies Course on Economic Contribution of Rural Women

The Department of Women Studies in the Faculty of Social Sciences is offering a postgraduate degree, diploma, or certificates of Women Studies. The Women Studies programme was developed to emphasize women's status, their approach to life situation and their contribution to national development thoughts and activities. Out of the 11 courses of women studies one is on economic contribution of rural women. It is a full credit ambitious course attempting to highlight the account of rural women's toil within the limitations of the available research data on the subject. The rural women are not visible when it comes to giving credit for the contribution made by women farmers in agricultural production, which is the main stay of Pakistan's economy. The rural women according to 1990 Agriculture Survey carry out more than 50% of farming work but it is shown in survey reports as minimal.

Women Development Education Project of UNESCO

Teacher Education Department of the Faculty of Education is developing a half credit course with the main objectives as follows:

- Develop better understanding of the conceptual and methodological aspects of women's development for their socio-economic uplift.
- To understand the role of women in the development of the society.
- Analyze the present position and trends of female literacy in Pakistan
- Inculcate the behavior and skills to conduct research on gender issues.
- Motivate the teachers to play their role for women's development in the society and to measure, evaluate and monitor the teacher's role on women's development after successfully completing the course.
- Develop better understanding about various training methodologies and their implications in the field of development of women in Pakistan.

The course focuses on aspects as status of women in the present world, female literacy in Pakistan, non-formal education for women, gender roles and responsibilities, gender issues. Role of women in national development (Agriculture will be one of the aspects). The course will be offered to prospective teachers, managers of NGO's working in the field of women development in the country. About 5000-10000 students of AIOU are expected to take this course every year for the next 10 years.

Government Initiatives for Rural Women Development

The initiatives taken by the government for the rural women are mostly in the form of face-to-face non-formal education system because the women at literacy and basic level can not cope with the self-study requirement of distance learning. Following are some of the examples of government initiatives in the field of non-formal education:

Pakistan Literacy Commission's Women Community Schools Participatory Project

Women community schools participatory project has been designed for rural women between the age group of 14-24 years. The project's main aim is functional literacy with skill training, micro credit and micro enterprise

development in order to improve the quality of life of rural women in Pakistan. The project is going to be implemented in collaboration by public, private sector and civic society. The Pakistan Literacy Commission is responsible for policymaking, social marketing, human resource development, monitoring and evaluation and life-oriented integrated curriculum, while provincial governments are responsible the execution of the project. Agriculture Development Bank of Pakistan (ADBP), First Women Bank Ltd. (FWBL) and Small Business Finance Corporation (SBFC) are going to set up community schools with the help and participation of local community (Comprehensive Literacy and Poverty reduction Programmes, 2000).

The University of Arid Agriculture, Rawalpindi

The University has been actively involved in the social and economic uplift of rural women by providing education in the field of agriculture and food processing. The university has initiated a project for rural women, which aims at establishing vocational centres with training facilities for women in different income generating skills. This project also aims at training o women in marketing skills and aims to provide short-terms loans for business.

Economic Empowerment Programme

The national social policy provides for primary education, skill training, basic health and micro credit for eradication of poverty among rural women in the country (National Social Development Policy, 1998). In accordance with the Social Policy of the government a Non-formal education programmes for rural women of 15-25 age group which would combine literacy skills with health, hygiene, population education, environment, productive and marketable skills as well as access to micro credit and enterprise education has been initiated in collaboration with Asian Development Bank (ADB) which will cater for the needs of 150,000 women of this age group in Punjab and Baluchistan (EFA Assessment, 2000).

In addition to this, export trade houses have been established at Lahore and Islamabad for women entrepreneurs, micro credit of Rs.14.4 million has been made available for women through First Women Bank during 1997-98. The First Women Bank Ltd. also provides funding for ongoing women's development projects in the country (EFA Assessment, 2000).

Information and Communication Technology for Women (ICT) for Women

Radio and television are the main source of information for rural women in Pakistan therefore; these media are extensively used for education and social awareness of rural women. Numerous broadcasts are made to increase awareness

on childcare, health and sanitation, women's rights, community development, agriculture practices, vocational training and communication (EFA Assessment, 2000). In addition, educational broadcasts of AIOU play an important role in the education of rural women.

Women Development Division

Women's Division has been actively involved in implementing projects for women development since its establishment. The main objectives of the organization are to ensure women's interests and needs adequately represented in public policy formation; to undertake special projects for women identifying gaps in relevant sectors; and to promote research on conditions and problems of women. Women's Division has implemented projects for rural women's development in the following areas:

- Agro-based skill training and cooperatives
- Education of Women through distance education
- Social welfare and physical facilities for women
- Community development
- Industries
- Health

Private Section Initiatives for Rural Women Development

Agha Khan Rural Support Programme (AKRSP)

Agha Khan Rural Support Programme was initiated in Northern Areas of Pakistan in 1982. The basic objective of the programme has been to increase the capacity of local population to become involved in their own development, so that rural household can improve their income and welfare in a sustainable and equitable manner. In northern areas due to specific cultural and social condition women bear the most of the burden of house and farm work, therefore recognizing the cultural, social and religious factors influencing women's participation in development, AKRSP has conducted extensive field research to ensure that the programmes are related to women's need and concerns. AKRSP has followed a two-tier strategy for women's development in Northern areas. Firstly, strategies designed for broad based economic and social development of the community through empowering household ... organizing women specific activities and programmes. Secondly, organizing women in the form of local women's organizations. Women's Organization (SOs) provide plat forms for women to initiate and implement economic and social development programmes. AKRSP's a most important achievement is the broader sensitization and heightened awareness among women of their own potential to create the

necessary conditions to progress and prosper in their own right. AKRSP is engaged in capacity building of women in the following manner:

- Mobilizing and organizing women in Women's Organizations
- Social Capital development through micro credit
- Encouraging traditional handicraft
- Improving health of mother and child
- Providing literacy/Education
- Income generation through indigenous skills
- Promoting micro enterprises
- Developing leadership among women

Malik Maula Bakhsh Memorial Trust (MMBMT)

MMBMT has 300 non-formal primary schools for girls in District Mianwali, which are managed and run by the community without donor support. MMBMT has signed an MoU with the University of Arid Agriculture Rawalpindi (UAAR) for 10 years for university level research in district Mianwali focused on rural women and girl child through their school network. In relation to this MoU the MMBMIT has also signed an MOU with Agriculture University of Bebei, China (AUH) enabling the Chinese agriculture experts to have direct access to the rural women of District Mianwali for technology transfer of agriculture technology with the help of UAAR. Both UAAR Pakistan and AUH China with the assistance from MMBM will prepare demonstration plots at different sites enabling the farmer direct access to latest agriculture methods in the form of implements, seeds and farm management techniques.

President of AUH China along with the four researchers visited the sites in Mianwali along with the UAAR RESEARCHES AND Vice Chancellor had number of visits to the sites, which were coordinated by MMBMT. The process of actual implementation of these MoU's will start by the end of year 2001.

Another initiative by MMBMIT is Poultry Farming project for rural girls. The girls are required to take admission in a school and they are given a Domestic Poultry Unit (DPU), which contains five hens and one rooster. The breed given to girls can lay 150 to 200 eggs per hen per year.

These hens can generate Rs.1500 per year. After utilizing the amount as under, the remaining money is utilized for any shortfall and nutrition of girls.

- Rs.300/- for school uniform
- Rs.240/- for school fee (Rs.20/- per month).
- Rs.365-400/- for textbooks and copies
- Rs.150/- for buying next DPU

MMBMT has proposed another Integrated Rural Development Project for *Nomadic Rural Community in Interior Sindh.* The Pilot project for 1000 households has been launched on 14th August 2001. Survey Prior to launching of actual programme was required. MMBMIT Career Advancement Programme (CAP) also aims at unemployed youth both male and females literate and illiterate residing in the rural areas of Pakistan. The programme is in the final stages of launching. The main features of the programme are career-counseling, assessment of economic background, trends and aptitude of the individual, educational needs keeping in view the aptitude, trends and jobs available, follow-up for next 3 years.

Bunyad

UNESCO Islamabad assisted BUNYAD, an NGO in Punjab in formulating a plan for the establishment of the Institute for Community Education (ICE) which is being launched with multi donar support. The objectives of ICE directly related to rural women and distance education are reproduced here:

- Empower disadvantaged sectors, such as the girl child, working/ street children, rural women illiterates and the poor with literacy and life skills.
- Sensitize policy makers for rural development work at the grassroots; and
- Organize field-base training course in NFE, Open school system and distance learning.

ICE will be offering practical courses, both long term and short term for the disadvantaged groups such as girls and rural women, street children, illiterates and the poor. ICE is the umbrella activity of BUNYAD and all its Basic Education Research Training Initiatives. BUNYAD is also involved in other projects like Literacy Watch and Mobilization Campaign for Literacy, Incentive schemes for girl's education.

UNESCO

UNESCO Islamabad has helped in the government sector, NGO's and the AIOU with the different programmes aimed at the empowerment of rural women through literacy, income generation activities, and material development. It also brought out four posters depicting the importance of literacy and education for girls and women with the messages of United National Secretary General and the Director General UNESCO, underlying the need for basic education, education for girls and women, for sustainable social development.

Lessons Learnt

Distance education/non-formal education system is an effective mode of educating rural women. AIOU's experience of educating rural women through distance education up to secondary level has been very successful, however, educating rural women at lower levels needs more face to face contact, therefore, AIOU has evolved different strategies of BFEP for non-formal education system to reach the women in rural areas.

Educating women in rural areas is a huge task, which requires stronger infrastructure at regional and gross root level for effective implementation of its programmes. It needs extra services to motivate, enroll, guide and administer the growing number of students and learner. The strengthening of the regional campus's and office with the additional posts of a female student counselor and Deputy Director Academics has provided relief to the workload of the Regional Directors.

At national level there is a need to coordinate all efforts in the field of education of rural women so that the resources are not wasted and also to avoid duplication of efforts. Scattered and poorly implemented efforts cannot help solve the huge problem of illiteracy in the country. Economic activities and skill training planned for women should take into account. The indigenous skills and products of women so that with the introduction of new technologies, rural women are not deprived of their skills and income.

Recommendations

- There should be a close collaboration between educational institutions and agricultural research institutions so that new research in the field of agriculture can be made available to the rural community. Both types of institutions should join hands to conceive and implement integrated projects to impart education, skills and information to rural women so that they can become active participants in national development.
- Exchange of information, expertise, agriculture technology and skills in order to enhance training and income opportunities for rural women.
- Collaboration among universities and local organization on the pattern of UAAR, AUH and MMBMT, the ultimate beneficiaries will be rural women.
- University. Linkage programmes between AIOU and Agriculture universities be initiated as these will lead to spin off new

programmes and closer collaboration of the institutions for the uplift of the rural community especially women.

- ICE and AIOU collaborate for sharing technical and expert support services with other government/private sector for community and sustainable development focused on the improvement of quality of life of the rural women and others living in marginalized state.
- For better articulation between general and vocational education the technical and vocational training (TVET) existing programmes be analyzed to see how its interface and effective linkages with the world of work may be forged.
- New and innovative experiences of AIOU be used as models for meeting the targets set in the national plan of action for distance education and EFA.
- A continuous updating and application and integration of the non-formal mode of education with the general education system of education be an ongoing process for extensive outreach and regional network of the DE institutions.
- TV/Videos of the Agriculture Department of AIOU and IME on subjects which are of a common nature is used with dubbing.
- Exchange of information and course materials of distance education programmes in the region so that these can be culturally adapted and implemented by the interested countries.

Concluding Remarks

Distance education has proved to be a very effective mode of education for the people who do not have access to education through formal education system throughout the world. In Pakistan, distance education has been successfully used to educate rural women and AIOU has used innovative methods of non-formal education system for this purpose. Partnerships in DE both with in country and other countries with slight modifications in accordance with their culture and social requirement can benefit from the experience of AIOU.

REFERENCES

Agha Khan Rural Support Programme. (1999) *Joining hands in development: Women in Northern Areas in Pakistan Annual Report,* Islamabad.

Allama Iqbal Open University (2001) *Campaigning for Literacy AIOU & PLC,* Islamabad.

Allama Iqbal Open University (2001) *Achievements of Allama Iqbal Open University,* Islamabad.

Allama Iqbal Open University (1999) *Achievements of IME 1975-1999,* Islamabad.

Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Literacy Commission, (2000) *Comprehensive Literacy and Poverty Reduction Programme,* Islamabad.

Government of Pakistan, (2000) *Education for All – Assessment 2000,* Islamabad.

Government of Pakistan, (1998) Ministry of Women Development, *National Social Development Policy,* Islamabad.

Mahmood, T. & A. A. Malik (2001), *'Self-supporting Agriculture: Key to sustainable rural development, Workshop paper presented at Workshop on technical Training for rural Development: Looking to the 21st Century,* China.

UNESCO, Bureau of Education (1999), *INNODATA Monograph series; AIOU Case study of Women Secondary School Certificate,: Claiming the Ladder,* Switzerland.

UNESCO, Bulletin (2000), No. 10 Islamabad.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

TRENDS AND TABOOS
TEACHER'S PREPARATION FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION

By
Dr. M. Mahmood Hussain Awan[•]
Dr. Tanzila Nabeel[••]

Abstract

The research was conducted to find out the adequacy of the teacher training programmes for special teacher, the support system special teachers receive at their work places. Furthermore, the study highlights the hindrances for special teacher to practice their training with its true spirits and the gaps between the teacher's competencies, learning and the outcomes. The research sample consisted on two groups of teachers: one group, holding Master's degree in special education was working in special institution for less than twelve months and the 2nd group was working in special institutions for more than five years. The responses were collected through questionnaires. Results were interpreted and recommendations were formulated on the basis of responses.

Introduction

Special education teachers work with students with physical, cognitive, sensory mental or psychological disabilities that require remedial teaching strategies, teaching materials and teaching environment as compared to general education teacher. Although like general education teachers, special educators prepare instructional plans, instruct and evaluate the performance of their students, but these teachers have additional responsibilities such as helping to identify students with special needs, working with specialists in related services, individualizing teaching methods and counseling parents about their children's condition. Teachers in special education can come across with enormous challenges that demand highly developed professional skills such as:

a) Assessment and instruction for learners with special needs
b) Effective strategies for adapting and implementing
c) Effective classroom management strategies

• The writer is working as Assistant Professor in Special Education Department, AIOU, Islamabad
•• The writer is working as Assistant Professor in Special Education Department, AIOU, Islamabad.

However, special education teachers are further expected to have well developed interpersonal skills that can be effectively employed with parents, professionals and para professionals. They must be able to improvise when resources are limited and find innovative solutions to unique problems. They also often require advocacy skills for promoting the well being of the students with special needs. They are expected to develop awareness to know when specific teaching situations are ultimately not viable, and when and how to make appropriate changes i.e. to have decision-making skills. (Meijer, et. al, 1994, Hegarty, 1998, Jerusalem, 1993)

What teachers know and do, profoundly influences what students learn. Teacher's expertise is a significant factor in the prediction of achievement gains for children. Therefore, measures aimed at recruiting, preparing and retaining good teacher will contribute to the improvement of special schools and the provision of quality educational services to special children. (Ladson – Billings, 1999) It also seems reasonable and wise to focus professional development and support efforts for teachers working in this challenging field and for those who are entering this field i.e. the teachers in their beginning year. The first year of teaching often presents overwhelming challenges for novice teachers (Willey 2000). In the beginning early childhood special education teacher or early interventionist must move from being a learner whose sole responsibility is her/his own learning to being a professional with responsibility for facilitating the learning of a diverse group of young children. (McCormick & Brennan, 2001)

There had been a lot of progress in the field of special education in our country during the last three decades. Awareness programmes had been initiated among masses about disability and attitude of people towards disables. The census was carried out in 1998 (GOP 1999) 282 schools had been opened under Federal and Provincial Government and NGO's (Directory published by NISE, 1994). Measures on prevention, identification and early intervention are taken up (GOP 2002). In the last decade there had been increasing support for teacher education reform. Preparing teachers for the rigor of teaching is although a challenging task for every institution. To help and improve the teacher's quality these institutes are lobbying for higher standards through valid and reliable curricula, methodology and evaluation measures. Over the past years, the government and politicians have become concerned with the quality of teachers in our special schools. As a result of this concern, educational institutions are most interested in the level of preparedness of their teachers candidates. The course material, which is being used to prepare a teacher is at par with worldwide trends. (Lim and Nam 2000, Artiles and Hallahan 1995, Csapo, 1994, Abosi, 1996) The infrastructure of special education is very well woven under the umbrella of Ministry of Women Development, Social

Welfare and Special Education. But with all the necessary indicators working in the right direction, there seems to be a vast gap between the policy of special education and its execution in the academic institutions where the end users – the special children, are being catered (GOP 2002).

Reviewing the matters of concern, the current study was designed to take the opinion of teachers working in special education. The objective of the study was to take the opinion of the teachers on the following aspects:

- Adequacy of the training program, they received and its implementation
- Support system they receive at their workplaces
- Highlight the hindrances, they come across in executing their planning
- The gap between the teacher's competencies, learning and outcomes

Methodology

The population was divided into two groups of teachers working in special education:

(i) Teachers' holding Master's degree in special education, working in the institutions of special education for less than 12 months

(ii) Teachers holding Master's degree in special education, working in the institutions of special education for more than 5 years.

Open-ended questionnaires were prepared on the objectives of the study. 50 teachers in each group were given the questionnaire despite considering the place and area of their jobs. They were asked to answer the questions on their true feelings as the confidentiality was guaranteed. Recommendations were also seeked from them, as teachers are the key players to fulfill the objectives of special education.

Results

Opinions of the teachers on the given aspects were compiled and analyzed. They were as follows:

(i) Teacher training programs are adequate to enable the teacher to understand and identify the special needs, planning the objectives, understand and use the required methodology, use effective classroom management techniques.

(ii) The demand on special teacher is much more in the practical setting such as adaptation in the curriculum preparation of individualized education plan, use of interpersonal and communication skills, counseling the parents, coordinating with the professionals and para-professionals, decision-making, arranging the resources to fulfill the needs of students and sometimes act as a resource teacher too.

(iii) They do get opportunities to implement their learning but their job assignment require diversity of responsibilities which are taken for granted for them, as they have entered the field of special education. So, the learning is under used when it comes to the practicality, because the teacher has to cope on many fronts on his/her own.

(iv) A single teacher has to cope with all the responsibilities on his/her own even if he/she has just entered the field. There is no concept of teacher supervision or mentors at the institutional level. There is a dire lack of cooperation, guidance/supervision in its true sense in the institutions, which a new teacher can seek.

(v) There is no teaching assistant/aides available for the teacher

(vi) The number of students in a classroom is very high for a single teacher to cope with. That leaves the teacher-student ratio beyond the recommended one.

(vii) There are many limitations at the institutional levels. Classrooms are not well equipped with the required material. There are problems in terms of the resources available to carryout the instructional design.

(viii) Most of the people working at the administrative level, lack the true knowledge, training, skills and competencies, required for the job.

(ix) The infrastructure do no provide the opportunities for the teacher of special education to ask for the rights rather she is a puppet like in the hands of the policy makers and administrators for her job security or support. The special education policy although contain the model uplift of special education but completely ignores the rights and security for the special teacher who occupies a pivotal role. There is a discrimination among teachers working under provincial and federal government, Punjab government had doubled the pay of its teachers working in special education but teachers of federal government are not privileged with this incentive.

(x) There is no support system available for teachers as government as well as at institutional level. Job related psychological and physical stress factors have important influences on their health, which may in turn affect the students and the learning environment. These teachers are susceptible to developing chronic feelings of diminishing job accomplishments. This emotional exhaustion cause feelings of dread at the thought of having to put another day on the job and often results in absenteeism, which may lead to student absenteeism and a lack of academic achievement.

(xi) While policy making, the research base is not being used to improve the quality of special education services rather political and government intents are followed more

Discussion

To prepare teachers for tomorrow's classrooms, we must cultivate productive and efficient teachers to achieve the goals of special education. Several factors highlight the importance of support to beginning teachers as well as those working for longer periods.

The pre-service training should be must for teacher before entering into the special education. This new teacher faces many problems in the classroom to implement the learning not only in terms of availability of resource material but also due to the lack of cooperation and guidance from school administration as well as senior teacher.

In 1984, the commonwealth of Kentucky made an effort through legislative action to create a professional culture in public education to foster teacher's continuous growth. This legislation established the Kentucky Teacher Internship program (KTIP), a support and assistance program designed to help every new teacher in the state develop a strong foundation for lifelong practice. The program mandates the appointment of a team of resource teachers principals, and teacher educators to support, assist and assess new teachers during a year long supervised internship. This program provides an experienced teacher mentor who has experiences and background similar to the new teacher to act as the primary guide in the process. It also provides an assessment system based on professional certification standards that are set by the state. These standards are also used in the curricula, coursework and evaluation that prepare pre-service teachers. The strong links between the pre-service program and the internship program allow novice teachers to develop necessary skills, behaviors and knowledge over a sustained period of time through observation, portfolio development and review.

(McCormick and Brennan, 2001). Mentor programs are often used to maximize the effectiveness of the first year, facilitate continued professional growth, improve professional practice and increase the retention of new practitioner. Mentoring is defined as "a caring and supportive interpersonal relationship between experienced and more knowledgeable practitioner (mentor) and a less experienced, less knowledgeable individual (protégé or mentee) in which the protégé receive career related and personal benefits. The purpose of mentoring is the transmission of knowledge, skills, attitude, beliefs and values. In efforts to meet education reform initiatives in USA, 18 states mandated mentor support for beginning teacher's in 1995 and another 16 began as pilot program. The use of mentors has been reported in early childhood special education literature to describe professional development programs for early intervention personnel, early childhood teachers, special education teachers, early care and education providers and home-based family educators. (McCormick & Brennan, 2001)

The initiation for the mentoring program has room in our system of selection and appointment of teachers when she/he enters the profession. Though the probation period of the novice teacher can be accompanied by the mentor program, which would enable the teacher to have all the necessary professional competencies, as her job requires, but a proper model/code of Ethics need to be developed. Educators have suggested (Lark, Wiseman & Bradley 1990) that structuring the first year of teaching like a medical internship with an opportunity for continuous mentoring from an experienced colleague, can have a significant impact on the professional strengthening of the special teacher.

To achieve the goals of special education, the special education teacher should be devoid of professional and emotional exhaustion (Green, Reese, et. al, 1991, Hudson et. al., 1983). For this, we do require a support system for special teacher. Teacher's aides should be appointed in the institutions. In this context, the diploma/certificate (special education), holder be the potential candidates for the job. This can help special education teacher take her workload as well as stress affecting her capabilities.

Special education is not only a field where students with disabilities or special needs are served it is also considered an opening to serve that wing of humanity, which is under privileged. The services to this population is enough motivation for a teacher who has entered the field with dedication. Though, seldom cited, money is still a factor which can ease down many stresses (emotional, financial, professional) off the teacher if the salary package is

accompanied with additional incentives. The initiation of best teacher awards for special teacher, as initiated by Provincial and Federal boards and Higher Education Commission for the teachers in general education may serve as motivational drive for this teacher who is working on many fronts as compare to general education teachers. Teachers who have excelled in their academic career with any award or position should be given increment in recognition of their hard work. Moreover, teachers working in general education but hold degree in special education should also be given incentives, as they are the personnel who are working for Inclusive Education.

Special education is a highly specified field like medical professionals. This field requires not only trained teachers but trained administrators too. 'Training' is a systematic process of changing the behavior, knowledge and/ or motivation of present employers to improve the match between employee characteristics and employment requirements (Milkovich & Boudrean 1988, Gold Hammer et. al., 1993). A qualified and trained administrator is consistent across disciplines, as they are trained for leadership skills (Kauffman, 1993). Like pre-service and in-service trainings are the most significant features for the teachers, such trainings should be made mandatory for the administrators too. An additional qualification in administration / management sciences should be a pre-requisite for an administrative/managerial post.

The policy of special education should focus on the achievable targets where not only the system is stressed but the rights of the personnel are also given due place. This will ease down many ambiguities, which hinder the efficacies of the personnel. Establishment of central resource centers at Federal and Provincial levels, which can accommodate /coordinate all kinds of information, referral services and resources required/needed by the personnel and families working for special people. These resource centers should be interlinked in order to utilize the resources lying in their catchment areas, unanimously throughout the country.

Although special education is in its formative years in Pakistan, in many respects. The journey is difficult and it is easy to get discouraged when progress is slow and there is still so far to travel. At times, we may lose our way in the maze. Blinded by promise of fads and miracle cures, it is easy to lose faith in the trustworthy but a consistent effort do let a barren land to bear trees.

REFERENCES

Abosi, C.O. (1996). *Early Childhood Education of Children with Disabilities in Botswana*: African Journal of special Education, 1(1), pp.33–40.

Artiles, A. J. Hallahan, D.P. (1995), *Special Education in Latin America: Exceptional Issues*. Westport CT: Praeger

Csapo, M. (1994) The emergence of Special Education in Third World: Education examples from the sub-Sahara experience. In N.D'Oyley, a. Blunt, & R. Bamhardt (eds.) *Educational Development: Lessons from the third world* (pp. 181–200). Calgary, Canada: Detselig Enterprises.

Goldhammer, R. Anderson, R.H. and Krajewski, R.J. (1993) *Clinical Supervision: Special methods for the supervision of teachers (3rd ed.)* Fort Wroth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich

G.O.P (1994)

G.O.P (1999)

G.O.P (2002)

Green, Reese, Shirley, Johnson, Dewayne J. Campbell, Wilburn A. Jr., (1991). *Teacher Job Satisfaction and Teacher Job Stress: school size, age, and teaching experience. Education*, 112(2) pp. 247–252.

Hegarty, S. (1998). *International Perspectives on Special Education Reform: European journal of special needs education*, 13(1), pp. 112–115.

Hudson, Floyd, Meagher, Kathleen (1983). *Variables Associated with Stress and Burnout of Regular and Special Education Teacher's*: Final report, Lawrence, KS: Kansas University, special education programs (ED 239)

Jerusalem, M. (1993) *Personal Resources, Environmental Constraints and Adaptational Processes*: the predictive power of a theoretical stress model. Personality and individual differences, 14, pp. 15–24.

Kauffman, J. M. (1993). *How we Might Achieve the Radical Reform of Special Education. Exceptional children*, 60, pp. 6–16)

Ladson–billings, G. (1999). *Preparing Teachers for Diverse Student Populations: A critical race theory perspective*. Review of research in Education, 24, pp. 211–247.

Larke, P., Wiseman, D., and Bradley, C. (1990). *The Minority Mentorship Project: Educating teachers for diverse classrooms.* In V. Florez & R. Donato. Multicultural Teacher Education: Research in the 1990's (pp: 70-80) College station, TX: Texas A & M University printing center.

Lim, L. and Nam, S.S. (2002). *Special Education in Singapore*: The journal of special education, 34, pp. 104–109.

McCormick, M.K and Brennan, S. (2001). *Mentoring the New Professional in Interdisciplinary Early Childhood Education*: The Kentucky Teachers Internship Program. Early childhood special education, Fall

Meijer, C.J. W., Pijl, S.J. & Hegarty, S. (1994). *New Perspectives in Special Education: A six-country study of integration.* London: Rutledge.

Milkovich, G.T. Boudrean, W. J. (1988) *Human Resource Management, Homewood, Illinois* 60430.

Wiley, Carolyn, (2000). *A Synthesis of Research on the Causes, Effects and Reduction Strategies of Teacher Stress.* Journal of Instructional Psychology, June.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

DEALING WITH ERRORS IN SPOKEN ENGLISH CLASS

By
Shabina Latif Khan[•]

Numerous errors can arise in a students' spoken English class that can make it difficult for the English language instructor to know when and how to deal with them. There is, therefore, a need for the language instructor to know how to define and categorize errors. This would help the instructor to know when it is best to intervene in class to rectify the students' errors. Having a clear understanding of the nature of errors and their classifications, will also help the instructor in developing relevant tasks for the students.

For the average Pakistani student of Spoken English studying at an institute or an academy, the total learning experience would be classroom based. The learning environment would be unnatural and the English language lessons would be their only contact with spoken English. Naturally, in such a learning environment, errors are bound to occur on a large scale.

However, it needs to be mentioned that it is not only the second language learners who make errors in Spoken English. Children and even adult native speakers are known to make errors. But these errors are generally considered to be different in nature from the errors produced by L2 learners. Whereas the L2 learners' errors are generally viewed as unwanted forms (George: 1972), children's errors are seen as 'transitional forms' and adult native speakers' errors as 'slips of the tongue'". (Ellis: 1994). Therefore, an error takes place when deviation arises as a consequence of fundamental lack of knowledge. An error shows a lack of competence. It occurs when a central rule has not been learnt or it has been wrongly learnt which then goes on to affect the production of speech. A mistake, on the other hand, is when the learner has the competence, but fails to perform it in a given time. Whereas, slips are a common feature of native speakers' speech and can occur due to various reasons such as tiredness or excitement. Thus, slips are the least serious of all the types of errors.

• The writer is working as Senior Lecturer, English Programme at Fatima Jinnah Women University, Rawalpindi.

In order to know how to deal properly with the problems in students' spoken English, a decision would initially need to be made by the instructor as to whether the problem on the part of the student is in fact an error or is it a mistake or a mere slip of the tongue. In order to identify errors, three types of interpretations can be used: normal, authoritative and plausible (Corder: 1974). A normal interpretation occurs when the teacher is able to link a meaning to the utterance of the student on the basis of the rules of the target language. An authoritative interpretation involves asking the student to say what his/her utterance means. A plausible interpretation is obtained by translating the sentence literally into the learners' L1. However, relying on the learner to inform the meaning of the utterance, has been criticized on the grounds that later accounts on intended meaning are often not accurate (Els:1984). Also such a procedure takes for granted that the learner will possess the necessary language knowledge to talk adequately about his/her own performance. But, even if this is the case, there is no reason why the student cannot be asked to repeat the sentence to enable the teacher to make judgement on whether the problem is an error, mistake or a slip.

The seriousness of an error would have an impact on the decision to intervene. There are many issues that can determine the seriousness of an error. The following five factors are perhaps the most serious:

1. If the speech does not make sense due to the error committed.
2. If the error changes the meaning of the speech.
3. Error committed by the class as opposed to an individual student.
4. Grammatical error.
5. Error that occurs most frequently.

By stating that the seriousness of an error will determine its priority for attention does not mean that the teacher would decide to intervene immediately to rectify the error. Depending on the assessment, the teacher may decide to postpone the correction as it might take a whole lesson to achieve the required result. The error might be dealt with immediately if it is small and can easily be explained. Deciding to intervene can also be determined by the nature of the activity. If the activity is a role-play, the teacher may decide to tackle the errors after the activity has been completed so as not to hinder the communicative process. If the problem is serious but can be dealt with easily, the instructor would most likely deal with it immediately. If, however, it appears that the problem is complex and will need more time, the instructor may leave it for the time being and then later on spend a whole lesson on it if necessary. Thus the decision to intervene immediately to correct the error or to leave it for the time being rests solely on the instructor's analysis of the situation.

Since the aim of the spoken English class would be to enable the students to communicate orally in English language, developing fluency would be of paramount importance. This is not to say that accuracy would not be dealt with. However, solely concentrating on accuracy would mean immediate correction of practically all the errors a student makes. This would mean that the instructor continuously interrupts the activities the students are involved in and thereby hinder the flow of their speech. Also, it would not be possible for a person to communicate naturally and at the same time concentrate on the form rather than the content of their speech.

In order to deal with the errors effectively and systematically, the instructor would also need to classify the errors. By classifying the errors, the instructor would be in a better position to find out which type of errors occur most frequently and which errors are the most serious. Both of these points would enable the instructor to know which types of errors need to be given more attention. Errors can be classified as being: Structural (grammatical), Lexical, Phonological (sound features, word stress, intonation), Functional (e.g. asking for direction). Another form of classification of errors would be to use what is known as surface strategy taxonomy. The following shows the ways surface structures are altered by means of such operations as omissions, additions and regularization (Dualy, Burt and Krashen: 1982):

Category	Description	Example
Omissions	The absence of an item that must appear in a well-informed utterance	She sleeping
Additions	The presence of an item that mustn't appear	We didn't went there
Misinformation	The use of wrong forms of the morphe or structure	The dog ate the chicken
Misorderings	The incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance	What daddy is doing?

Both of the aforementioned classifications would need to be taken into account while teaching as they equally assist in building a comprehensive and an accurate data on the most frequently occurring errors. For example, it could be that certain structural (grammatical) errors (not mistakes or slips) are most frequently made. It would then need to be decided whether these errors occur in the form of omissions or additions? Once the instructor has decided on these

issues, he/she would be in a better position to develop relevant activities for the students.

In sum, the instructor of *Spoken English* class would first of all, need to establish whether the error performed by the learner is in fact an error, or is it a mistake or a slip of the tongue. Three types of interpretations can be used by the instructor to identify the nature of the error: normal, authoritative and plausible (Corder: 1974). The seriousness of an error would have an impact on the instructor's decision to whether intervene or not. Depending on the assessment, the teacher may decide to postpone the correction (as it might take a whole lesson to achieve the required result) or deal with it immediately. Deciding to intervene can also be determined by the nature of the activity. Once the nature of the errors has been identified; there would be a need to classify the errors. Errors can be classified as being: *Structural, Lexical, Phonological* and *Functional.*

Another classification of errors is the surface strategy taxonomy. Both of these classifications can be taken into account to create a comprehensive data on errors. Through bearing in mind these points, the instructor would be in a better position to understand the situation of the class with regard to errors. This knowledge would subsequently contribute towards developing relevant tasks for the students.

REFERENCES

Brown and Yule, (1983) *Teaching the Spoken Language*, CUP.

Corder, S.P. (1974), '*Error Analysis*', in Allen, J.P.B., & Corder, S.P. (eds.), *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics*: Volume 3 Techniques in Applied Linguistics, pp. 122–154.

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language Two,* New York: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1994) *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*, OUP.

Ellis, R. and Tomlinson B. (1980) *Teaching Secondary English*, Longman.

Els, Theo Van. (1984) *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Language,* Victroia: Edward Arnold.

George, H. (1972) *Common Errors in Language Learning,* Newbury House, Massachusetts.

HOW TO ATTRACT QUALITY STUDENTS INTO TEACHING PROFESSION

By
Fazal-ur-Rahman[*]

The Rationale

Education, as an activity, has remained a part of socio-cultural set up for quite long time in the known history of the world. There have always been two views about the value of education in a society. One opinion concerns its self with consumption aspect while the other one corresponds to production aspect. Educations, as replica of stock of knowledge, had been imparted by teachers and sought by pupils as an item of consumption and not of investment.

New facts about education have come up since 1920, which started giving shape to new thinking among the intellectual circles. From then onward, education has been acknowledged as an investment. Now, it is a well-vindicated fact that the more a nation regards education as an investment, the larger the funds it would like to allocate towards its expansion and research.

There is a general observation that educational institutions can be no better than the teachers who maintain them. The educationists stressed that the individuals who are selected to become teachers must possess some personality as well as academic characteristics. It is the teachers who solely responsible for carrying out teaching. It is worthy to examine teaching as viewed by different scholar.

Teaching is an important part of the process of education. Its special function is to impart knowledge, develop understanding and skill. Teaching is usually associated with 3 Rs. i.e;. Reading, Writing and Arithmetic. Education, on the other hand, has a wider Connotation in terms of 7 Rs. i.e; Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Rights, Responsibilities, Relationships and recreation.

Teaching is relationship, which is established among three focal points in education, i.e. the teacher, the student and the subject matter. Teaching is a process through which the teacher brings the student and the subject mater together. Modern teaching is not a mechanical process. It is exacting and intricate as well. It is not telling and testing. It is a complex art of guiding students through

[*] The writer is working as Lecturer, in the Department of Elementary Teacher Education, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad.

variety of selected experiences towards the attainment of appropriate teaching learning goals. Different people viewed teaching in different ways as described by Aggarwal (1995, pp 34-35):

Einstein has defined teaching as: "The supreme art of teaching is to awaken joy in creative expression and knowledge."

Dewey has defined it as: "one might as well say he has sold then no one has bought, as to say he has taught when no one has learned".

To Joyce "Teaching is a process through which teacher and students create a shared environment in set of values and beliefs (agreement about what is improvement) which in turn colour their view of reality."

Gage says, "Teaching is a form of interpersonal influence aimed at changing the behavior potential of another personal."

Flanders has defined it as "Teaching is an interaction process and interaction means participation of both teacher and students, and the interaction takes place for achieving desired objectives."

Green has defined teaching, as "it is the task of a teacher which is performed for the development of a child."

Morrison on the other hand says that teaching is an intimate contact between more mature personality and less mature one, which is designed to further the education of the latter.

However, Amidon and Hunter has explained this issue in these words "Teaching is an interactive process, primarily involving classroom talk which takes place between teacher and pupils and occurs during certain definable activities."

Thus one may conclude that teaching is a tri polar process involving the sources of teaching (Human and material) students and set of activities designed and manipulated primarily to bring suitable changes in the behavior of the students.

Aggarwal (1995, pp. 36-37) further enlisted the following characteristics of teaching:

Teaching is a tri polar and interactive process.
It is an art as well as science and it is both formal and in formal.
It is conscious as well as unconscious process and it takes place in some social set up.

It is dynamic and related to time and place.
It is task oriented and dominated by communication skills.
It is a system of actions, which are varied in form and are related to content and student behavior.
It is a therapy to learners and it stimulates the child.

From the above discussion, it is evident that teaching is essentially a well-organised system as described by Mukalel (1998). As a system it has three fundamental aspects i.e. Approaches, procedures and techniques. A teacher belonging to any discipline goes into the classroom well equipped with, first, an approach. All approaches are axiomatic with a set of fundamental principles at its core. A teacher has a definite theory on hand. This theory will be concerned with his fundamentals discipline which he is teaching. In most cases it belongs to psychology, sociology, linguistics or general education. This theory constitutes the first component and it determines and directs remotely what he will be doing in the classroom. The second component of the theory is strictly pedagogical. This consists of a general pedagogical framework specifically part of the discipline the teacher is teaching. This tells the Teacher how he should go about in dealing with that particular discipline. The second fundamental aspect of teaching is the classroom method. While approaches are axiomatic, all methods are procedural. A method is an immediate guideline or framework within which the teacher organizes his teaching devices in the classroom. While the third aspect is the classroom technique. While approaches are axiomatic, methods procedural, techniques are implementational. Equipped with a remote and proximate set of principles, and employing a procedural framework, the teacher enters the classroom to do his work. As a well-prepared practitioner, he employs one teaching devise after another. Each of these devices is called technique. Besides these teaching techniques, the attitude of the teacher is also major contributor in his performance. As discussed above, the teacher is a major contributor in the process teaching. However, the task of identifying suitable teachers requires special efforts. In selection process of teachers, the development of suitable criteria is very much necessary as identified by mitazal.

The task of identifying effective teachers is crucial. Mitzal, (1982) proposed three types of criteria for selection of effective teachers i.e, presage, process and product criteria. Presage variables include teacher personality, attributes and teacher knowledge. Process variables include teacher and classroom behaviors. Product variables include the effect of teaching changes in student behavior.

Attracting and selecting students for teaching job usually involves presage criteria, i.e, score in academic examinations, aptitude tests and grade point

average on evaluation test etc. During the training of teacher usually presage and process criteria are generally utilized. Cooper, (1972) & Weber, (1973) concluded that at the time an individual is to be selected into a teacher education programme there are some presage variables, which are believed to enhance the chances of selecting a potentially effective teacher. Some research studies also suggested that teacher's verbal ability is positively related to pupil achievement and this attribute may be considered in the selection of potential teacher. Score of teacher's aptitude inventory and teacher's expectation may also be included in selection criteria. Teacher's knowledge of his subject matter is another variable seen as contribution to his effectiveness.

What the teachers have to do is certainly important, but far more important is to know what a good teacher has to be. The difference between a good teacher and poor teacher is to be found not so much in what he does as in what he is, i.e., the essential qualities he must possess and the abilities he must command. A teacher must be a scholar and that he must know how to teach. In addition, he should also have command on sufficient general knowledge to see his own subject in its proper perspective. In our country each and every policy and plan highlighted the plight of the teachers. Each tried to work out a strategy for improving the standard of teacher's in the country.

The 8th Five-Year Plan (1993) viewed that teacher plays a pivotal role in improving the quality and efficiency of education system, for which pre-service and service training programmes of high quality are essential.

A number of research studies have been conducted in the country. The Punjab Govt. conducted a study entitled "career structure for teachers in primary and middle school" in 1994. Three alternative career models were presented in the study. It was assumed that the proposed career structure would enhance the efficiency of the present cadre of teachers and will attract qualified and competent people in teaching profession.

The UNESCO (1994) also sponsored a study on the plight of teachers in Pakistan. The main objective of the said study was to examine the working condition, environment and physical facilities. The following conclusion was made thereon:

- Wages of teachers were not comparable, especially to persons of equal qualifications in private sector.
- Teachers were not professionally qualified.
- Working environment was not appropriate.

All these studies examined the factors that were influencing the quality of intake into the teaching profession. However, the spread of the findings was quite enormous and it was not possible for any policy maker to frame a policy eliminating all negative factors and encompassing all positive factors.

Keeping in view the importance of the problems, a study was designed to investigate the factors and suggest a proper strategy to attract quality students into teaching profession. It was undertaken by Teacher Training Project, which was assisted by Asian Development Bank. The study was conducted by KZR.

Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study were:

- To identify conditions that will attract good quality graduate including career progression, in service training / oversees fellowships.
- To determine factors affecting the choice of new entrants into teaching profession.
- To make assessment of other profession and their comparison with teaching profession.
- To analyze current intake in teacher training programmes.
- To assess the parent preferences regarding the career of their children.
- To suggest ways and means to attract best students from different level of education to join the teaching profession.

Methodology

The following research methodology was adopted:

Sample

The following sampling frame was used to draw the sample randomly.

Description	Population	Sample
Institutions	200	48
Quality Students	2500	573
Principals/headmasters	200	48
Teachers educators	300	27
Educationists	100	45
Parents of quality students	2500	573

Instrument

Six questionnaires were developed to collect the data. Among them, one questionnaire was developed for quality students. It included personal profile and statements about their preferences for various professions. The other questionnaire was for institutional profile of teacher training institutions. One questionnaire was developed for teachers and principals which covered the reasons for joining teaching profession, their interest, factors affecting entry into the teaching profession and suggestion to makes teaching more attractive. The questionnaire for educationists and planners included statements regarding quality of teacher training and factors contributing in the low status of teaching profession. While the questionnaire for parent consisted of statements about preferences for selecting profession for their kids.

Pretesting of Research Instruments

All the six instruments were pilot tested so as to examine the validity of the instruments.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

After pilot testing, the instruments were administered to the selected population. The tables below presented the views of the respondents regarding factors for choosing different professions and their preferences. The table No.1 presents the ranking of various factors for selecting a profession by the quality students.

Table No.1

Ranking of various factors for selecting a profession

Profession	1st %	2nd %	3rd %	AM
Job Security	40	7	3	45.78
Promotion Opportunities	16	17	11	31.18
Further Learning/ Scholarships	9	10	6	17
Personal Interest	8	11	7	17
Physical and mental comfort	4	10	8	13
Medical Facilities	8	11	7	6
Monetary gains	2	4	4	10
Proximity to residence	1.2	2	1.40	3
Residential Facilities	2	4	4	7
No transfer	0.34	1	2	2
Convenient working hours	0.69	1.2	2	2
Job opp. for children	0.87	2	1.2	3
Organizational authority	2	3	5	5
Respect in society	10	18	26	31
Guarantee of pension	2	3	10	7
Any other	0	0	0	0

It is evident from the above table that the highest important factors are job security, promotion chances, respect in the society, personal interest, medical and residential facilities.

Three factors stand distinguished from amongst the 16 indicators. In the order of preference, these three factors include "job security" promotion chances". And "respect in the society. Personal preference and medical facilities rank further low than the first three considerations. Administrative authority ranks high or low in accordance with the family circumstances, basic requirements and educational attainments of the job seeker.

Similarly the teachers were also asked to select three most important factors in order of priority while selecting a profession as shown in the table No.2 below.

Table No. 2
Order of priority for selecting a profession

Options	1st Pref.	2nd Pref.	3rd Pref.	AM
Job security	42%	5%	5%	47
Opportunities for promotion	16%	21	9	33
Convenient working hours	1.39	2.44	2%	4
Opportunities for further learning	9	11	7	19
Medical advantage	E	6	3	8
Physical and mental comfort	4	11	8	14
Proximity to residence	4	9	11	13.61
Proximity to residence	2	3	1.39	4
Job opportunities for children in the	0.87	1.39	3	3
Power and authority	1.74	2	5%	5
No disruption on account of	0.52	1.04	1.57	1.74
Respect and standing	13	20	25	35
Residential Facilities	0.69	2	5	4
Pension Fund	1.2	3.49	11	7
Vacations/Holidays	0.34	0.87	1.9	1.57
Andy other aspect	0	0	0	0

Table reveals that factors which are most important in making a choice about a profession included:

a) Job security
b) Respect and standing in society
c) Promotion chances

The teachers and principals were also asked to rate following factors to make the teaching profession interesting and attractive as indicated in the table No.3.

Table 3
Factors to make teaching profession interesting and attractive

Factors	Very Import	Important	Of little import	Not Import	Not at all Import	AM
Provision for competitive examination to select teachers	886	110	0	4	12	85.514
Access to reasonable budget	426	290	0	10	20	59.860
Performance related pay	808	138	0	7	10	81.064
Non-attractive area allowance	544	214	0	10	36	62.129
Monetary Incentives during training	444	253	0	18	18	57.678
Improvements and enhancements of qualification	654	197	0	5	14	72.600
Access to contemporary teaching methodology	734	164	0	7	18	76.178
Improvements in working environments	950	74	0	4	4	88.65
Awards of scholarship according to Performance and qualification	706	190	0	7	8	76.87
Financial support for research	380	275	0	10	32	53.49
Promotion based on merits	846	126	0	3	8	83.856
Salary exempt from taxation	360	177	0	54	120	31.675
Allowance after training before working	232	180	0	68	188	13.675
Reserved quota for children within teaching profession	356	218	0	33	80	40.226
Availability of free/subsidized accommodation	358	140	0	64	188	21.46
Free education for off-springs up to university level	2	0	0	0	0	.1745

Entries in table 3 indicate that for making the profession attractive, improvement in working environment, competitive examinations to select good teachers, merit based promotion opportunities based pay performance, monetary benefits, access to contemporary teaching methodology and performance based scholarship for higher studies on performance are the most important factor. Free educations for children, reserved quota in jobs for teacher's sons/ daughters were the least important.

Teachers Educators, were also asked to point out reasons for joining the teaching profession. Their responses are indicated in table No. 4.

Table 4
Reasons for joining the teaching profession

	Yes						No					
	M	Ranking	F	Ranking	T	Ranking	M	Ranking	F	Ranking	T	Ranking
Personal Interest	24	1	24	1	48	1	1	8	0	8	1	10
Guidance by parent/teachers/ friends	13	3	13	3	26	3.1	11	5	11	6	22	7
An interim arrangement as a step to some other occupation	5	7	4	6	9	8	19	1	19	2	38	1
To enhance qualification	15	2	13	3.1	28	2	8	6	12	5	20	8
Short working hours allows opportunity to pursue other interest/activates	12	4	14	2	26	3	14	4	10	7	24	6
There is scope to earn additional income	4	8	9	4	13	6	18	2	16	4	34	3
To seek fast promotion/ benefits	8	6	3	7	11	7	15	3	22	1	37	2
The work is easy	9	5	9	4.1	18	4	15	3.1	16	4.1	31	5
Job was easily available	9	5.1	5	5	14	5	15	3.2	18	3	33	4
Any other reason	1	9	0	8	1	9	6	7	11	6.1	17	9

Respondents were of the view that teaching is a challenging and competitive profession. Few of respondents termed teaching as boring and not economically beneficial. In the table No. 5 parents preference for choice of profession for their children were shown. It includes a list of 13 professions. In

selecting profession, they were required to assign priority to each of the profession as shown below:

Table 5
Preferences of parents for various professions

	1st			2nd			3rd			4th		
Options	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**
Armed forces	28	21	7	14	8	6	21	7	14	70	50	20
Arts/media	32	14	18	35	18	17	14	5	9	99	46	53
Banking/accountancy	17	13	4	18	8	10	31	17	14	52	32	18
Business	20	13	7	19	10	9	24	12	12	54	36	23
District Management	23	13	10	12	6	6	25	15	10	58	32	26
Engineering	25	16	9	18	7	11	19	13	6	68	39	29
Farming	20	9	11	19	13	6	22	12	10	61	31	28
Journalism	6	3	3	10	5	5	47	27	20	24	11	11
Judiciary	7	2	5	13	9	4	42	23	19	27	13	14
No profession	7	4	3	16	11	5	35	15	18	31	19	11
Office management	10	5	5	27	18	9	28	14	14	47	28	19
Politics	29	16	13	11	8	3	23	12	11	69	40	29
Any other	5	4	1	5	3	2	43	23	20	15	11	4

The order of preference was prioritized in the following manner: the highest recorded category was arts/media, second preference was armed forces and the third was politics.

Among the respondents, the female parents were largely opted for arts/media, while only a few responded in the category of 'No Profession'. This indicates that with changing time, female empowerment has had some effect on the choices available for females; as well as the change in attitude of parents towards their daughters. In comparison, the male parent respondents opted for armed forces as the major preference for their child; however this was not clear as to whether they would have preferred their daughters to go into the armed forces as well.

Findings, Conclusions and Discussion

Major findings conclusions coming out of data analysis are presented below:

(1) Conflict in attitude appeared as quality students regarded teaching as respectable profession but not the first choice because of

- Low quality of training programmes.
- Lack of incentives.
- Low of social respectability
- Low scale

Similarly the parents did not prefer it for their children.

Majority of the teachers and teacher educators said that they joined teaching out of their won choice but they were not ready to suggest it for their students and children.

(2) The analysis suggested the following measures need to be taken to make teaching an attractive profession:

- Improvement in working environment.
- Merit based promotion and salaries.
- Opportunities for higher Education.
- Holding of competitive examination for selection of teachers.

The study further recommended the following suggestions;

i. Entry qualification should be raised to intermediate level at elementary schools.

ii. Structure of pay and allowance need to be changed. The salaries and promotion of the teacher should be liked with their qualifications not with the level at which they were working. This may provide acceptable incentive for the higher achiever to join teaching.

iii. Chances of promotion need to enhance. The scores of all previous examination should be accumulated to work out the seniority of an inductee into teaching profession.

iv. All cadres in teaching profession should be open to promotion. It should be make possible for PTC/CT teachers to rise to the highest level in his own cadre with some qualification and experience.

v. It was also suggested that for selection of teachers competitive examination may be conducted regularly.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Cooper. J. (1972). *Competency based teacher education.* A scenario, Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

Govt of Pakistan. (1993). *8th five year plan. Islamabad:* Ministry of Finance.

Govt of Punjab. (19994). *Career structure for teachers in primary and middle schools.* Lahore: Department of Education.

Govt of Punjab. (1994). *Teachers Competencies Lahore:* Department of Education.

Govt of Punjab. (1993). *Non monetary incentives for teacher.* Lahore: Department of Education.

Ministry of Education. (1997). *How to Attract Quality Students into the Teaching Profession.* Islamabad: Teacher Training Project.

Mitzel, H. (1982). *Encyclopedia of Education* (5th ed)). New York: Fren press.

UNESCO. (1994). *A Study on Plight of Teachers.* Islamabad: UNESCO.

Weber; W.A. (1972). *Competency based teacher education.* Washington: American-Association of colleges for teacher education.

Aggarwal, J. C.(1995). *Essentials of Educational Technology: Teaching Learning Innovations in Education.* Delhi :Vikas Publishing.

Mukalel,J.C.(1998). *Creative Approaches to Classroom Teaching.* New Delhi: Discovery Publishing.

Webb, R.B and Sherman, R.R. (1981). *Schooling and Society.* (2nd edition). New York: Macmillan publishing.

Allama Iqbal Open university. (2001). *Trends and Issues in Teacher Education.* Islamabad: AIOU.

Ministry of Education. (1997). *Principles and Methods of Teacher Education.* Lahore: PITE.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

TEACHING STYLISTICS THROUGH NEWSPAPER HEADLINES

By
Waqar Hussain[*]

In this article, the researcher is intended to take an in depth look into the use of newspaper headlines in teaching stylistics. The English newspapers present a wide variety of stylistics. That is why most of the English language institutes, all over the world, utilize English newspapers for teaching English language.

Printed news items are the combination of different writing techniques. For example, how to utilize the vocabulary, arrange sentences syntactically, play upon words and so on. So it is not wrong to say that stylistics is central to the writing of newspapers. To define exactly, stylistics is the critical analysis of a language showing which kind of writing techniques is used, what makes a language dull or interesting. This is how J.A. Cuddon defines stylistics:

> *A kin to linguistics and semantics, it is an analytical science which covers all the expressive aspects of language: phonology, prosody, morphology, syntax and lexicology*[1].

In other words, one might say that stylistics categorizes a language according to its use and usage: in both the cases of literary text, such as prose, poems, drama, novel etc; and in nonliterary text such as advertisements, newspapers and so on. H.G. Widdowson also agrees to this point:

> *Stylistics can provide a way of mediating between two subjects: English language and literature, leaving inexplicit whatever Implications arise as to the way it might serve to relate the disciplines from which these subjects derive their contents*[2].

Newspaper headlines have the growing tendency towards attractive language usage to compel the readers to read the whole text of the news. Journalists have to work on news body and headlines in equal spirit because most of the readers just skip through the headlines due to shortage of time or lack of interest for details. Secondly, newspaper headlines are visible from quite a distance and attract the readers' attention. Therefore, all the critics of *journalese* — language of journalism — stress on writing good headlines. In this regard, Bakhat Rawan says:

---

[*] The writer is working as Lecturer in Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad.

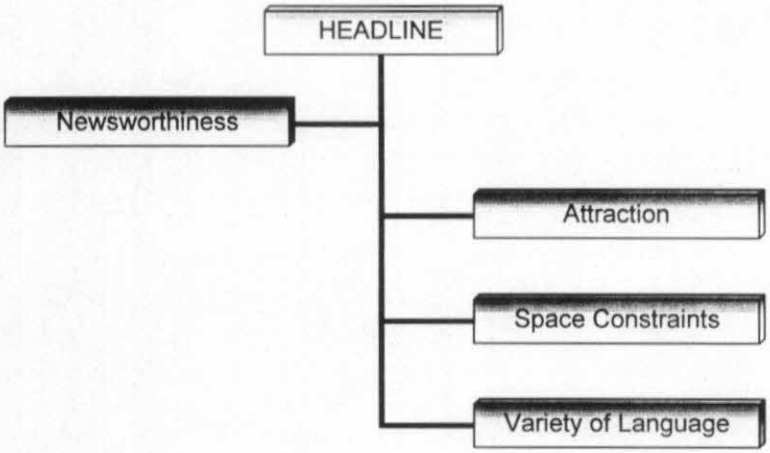
Headline may be defined as any line of collection of lines of display type that precedes a story and summarizes or introduces it[3].

Before proceeding, let us analyze what a good headline has to be. A good headline tells a story clearly, simply, and explicitly. Other characteristics of good headlines involve accuracy, interest, simplicity, precision and intelligibility. At its best, a well-worded headline actually excites a reader and makes him inclined to read the story. The reader has to be literally tempted into reading the text-body of the story.

According to Stovall:

Great headlines – those that sum up a story in a clever and interesting way, that compel the readers to read a story all the way through and that fit into the assigned space – are much harder to attain[4].

According to this researcher, basic characteristics of newspaper headlines can be explicitly interpreted in the following way:



A newspaper headline attracts attention of the readers due to its importance, for instance, the news about the burning issues and a major or shocking incident could be attractive. For example, news related to the incident on 9/11 brought about record sale because of its importance. The importance of news can also be interpreted in to two ways — geopolitical importance, whether a news is local or national; and news related to the situational context. News of cricket match for the fans of this game especially during world cup would prove to be attractive.

A news headline published on December 12, 2003 in the daily *DAWN:*

Maulana Noorani passes away

This newspaper headline would attain readers' attention especially Pakistanis due to its political concern as the figure died, was a famous and important figure of Pakistan. Similarly, news of VIPs and the persons who had been and have been playing important roles in political development of a country have their own importance. Such news would attract the readers' consideration any way.

But in this article, the researcher's main focus is on the stylistic aspect of newspaper headlines. Attraction, the second characteristic of headlines, plays its part. The main peculiarity of newspaper headlines is the use of figurative language. Mr. Bakhat Rawan says:

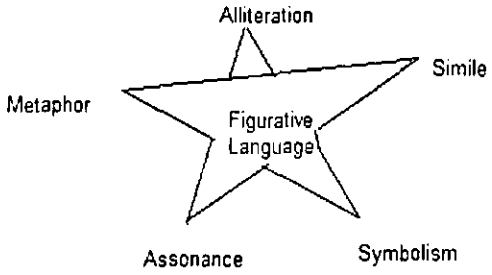
> *Figures and abbreviations should be used when they are absolutely essential* [5].

Talking of figurative language, the news published in *The Time* (London) on April 25, 2002 in which three labourers died while digging a well:

Sons of toil under mounds of the soil.

This headline excites the readers' emotions with the help of alliteration (toil) (soil) and personification (sons of toil) and compels him to read the remaining text.

Figurative language has its importance in drawing the readers' attention as it creates musical impact and produces rhythmical tone. Figurative language includes the following figure which is based on the material available on the website http:/www.mantex.co.uk/:



Alliteration, the repetition of same sounds (usually consonant) occurring at the beginning of two or more words in succession, is very common as compared to assonance which is the repetition of vowel sound. Let us see how *The*

Guardian and *The Nation* deal with it:

As suicide bomber strikes again, Israeli soldiers see no hope of peace
Blues battered but Toon deceive
Make or Break for Blair

In the first headline, repetition of 's' sound create musicality and similarly 'b' in the second and third headlines. In the third headline which was published in *Dawn* on December 12, 2003, one also finds as example of assonance that is the repetition of /ei/ diphthong in the words 'make' and 'break'.

Idiomatic phrases add to figurative language. How? In *The Guardian* (April 16, 2002), an example is given.

Israel tightens its iron grip on 1m Palestinians in West ...

The Nation on April 12, 2002 published headline

Israel rules out early pull out.

Metaphor, another aspect of figurative language, is the imaginative use of a word or phrase to describe somebody or something as another object in order to show that they have the same qualities and to make the description more forceful. *The Guardian* and *The Nation* use metaphorical language in the following ways (published in The Guardian on July 28, 2002:

Years of harmony wrecked in days.

The phrase *'years of harmony'* represents the building that took many years to be built but collapsed within a few days. Let us see another example of headline published in The Guardian on March 30, 2002:

Blue battered but Toon deceive

The word 'Blue' is a metaphor used for the team wear blue uniform.

Young lions come through
for England ahead of Ashes

The phrase *'Young lions'* is a metaphorical use which stands for the young players of New Zealand who had a tough training for playing against England (published in *The Nation* on March 30, 2002):

It's Tuffey all the way as 'Kiwis' fight back to square series.

The noun 'Kiwis' is the geological reference to New Zealand that is known as 'The Land of Kiwis'.

Firefight gets hotter

Symbolic words are usually used in sports news headlines. In the above given headline, 'Firefight' is symbolically used for the competition between the fastest bowlers of the world and 'hotter' means that the competition is getting tough. Simile is less commonly used in newspaper headlines.

The third aspect of newspaper headlines is space constraints. A journalist has to be very careful about the choice of words as he has to save time and space. That is why they use acronyms and abbreviations excessively. Acronym is a word formed from the first letters of a group of words, for example, UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Science and Cultural Organization), UK (United Kingdom) and so on. And abbreviation is a form of a word phrase that is shorter than the full form, for example, abbr. (abbreviation), aftn. (afternoon), chmn.(chairman), fig. (figure) and so on. Both The Guardian and The Nation frequently use abbreviations and acronyms just to save time and space. The underlines words in the following headlines are the examples of acronyms and abbreviations:

NSC, Cabinet okay referendum
Pakistan unlikely to meet agri- growth target
Last Scots coalmine beaten by flooding

Similarly, action verbs are used to shorten the length of sentences. For example, the words like okay, cheats, funds, beaten in the above mentioned headlines are actions words.

Certain things in the headlines are taken for granted just to save time and space. For example, the heading published in The Guardian:

EU funds Afghan opium battle

In this headline, following points are notable:

- Acronyms is used (EU for European Union).
- Articles and prepositions are omitted.
- Active voice is used
- Action verbs are utilized
- Only necessary words are selected.

All these aspects save time and space. However, in spite of all the above points, the headline is still a complete meaningful sentence.

Continuing with the economy of words, journalists have another advantage what may be called metonymy. Metonymy is a figure of speech in which an attribute or a suggestive word is substituted for the name of something. Following headline published in the daily *Dawn* on November 03, 2003:

Islamabad may move resolution next week

In this headline, 'Islamabad' is the substitute for the federal government of Pakistan. This is how some more space can be saved.

The Nation and *The Guardian* publish news stories with headlines in a very interesting way. Since the function of an opening line is to attract the readers' interest. Such a purpose might be made clear in a less direct way. As such a reporter should not be too objective and direct. The words and phrases a journalist selects must make sense to the readers. Ralph McGill says:

> *"If you're going to be a newspaper writer you've got to put the hay down where the mule can reach it."* [6]

Here are some examples from *The Guardian* published on March 30, 2002 where we see the headlines are just simple statements without ambiguity.

How the twin towers could have survived

Richard Keeble writes in his book *'The Newspapers'* the following point:

> *"Kiss (keep it short and simple and tell" could be journalist's motto.*

The Nation also follows these rules, for instance, on the same date:

Thousands say farewell to Queen Mother

Allan Holcomb says in Late City Edition:

> *"A newspaper may be judged pretty accurately by its headline when a balanced news perspective is the idea the head write will endeavour to get the picture in focus, use just the right word and avoid the bromide the shopworn phrase and the wisecrack".* [7]

However, sometimes journalists create ambiguity intentionally may be to create humour which is also known as Pun. Richard Keeble in his book *'The Newspapers'* about pun:

> *Pun are extremely important in newspapers. They play with language and its multi-faced meanings...a certain wit is needed to construct them just as they convey a certain humour.*

Here are some examples of puns from *The Guardian*. This newspaper published news on 25 March, 2002 about the football player who tried to keep himself unidentified by the press but was kept. The word 'fight' is just playing upon the words by the reporter.

Footballer loses year-long fight for privacy

Another news published by *The Guardian* on the same date:

France prepares to pick a first Lady

Pun causes two ways of interpretation for each headline. In the above written newspaper headline was published in the background that French politicians involved their ladies in election campaign. It seemed as if their ladies are to be elected for presidency.

It is the rule for writing headlines to show but not tell what the reality is. That is to keep the silent tone. However, one may see different tones in some headlines. A journalist may be serious, ironic, flippant, threatening, light hearted, pessimistic or optimistic:

> *Words chosen for a headlines should be in keeping with the tone of the story*[8].

Some headlines reflect the mood and tone of journalist, for example, the above given headline shows that the journalist is optimistic. Where as the following news headline reflects pessimistic mood (published in *The Guardian* on April 04, 2002):

Going home to hunger and death

The following headline shows the journalist is critical this time (published in *The Guardian* on April 13, 2002):

All smiles for Sharon as US turns its heat on Arafat

Words or phrases which are used in day to day conversation but not in formal speech or writing are called colloquial expressions. Here are some examples of colloquial (slang as well) or informal language.

NSC, Cabinet okay referendum
Road show for royals is more than booze and schmooze
Soaring home prices fuel spending spree

The words 'okays', 'spree' with 'spending', 'booze' and 'schmooze' in the above examples are informal. Such informal and colloquial expressions create bad impression on the minds of the readers and some times, causes difficulty in understanding the meanings especially for the readers of any foreign language.

In short, the main characteristic of the headlines come from the need to economize the space. Words are the main items of headlines that would adopt different shapes to save time and space and to make the newspapers attractive and forceful despite of many restrictions.

The Newspaper headlines are very helpful in teaching stylistics especially at graduate level in Pakistan. Though English newspapers are utilized for teaching different skills of English Language such as reading and writing skills yet the aspect of stylistics lacks so far. This article is written in the objective to draw the attention of higher authorities in educational field on this side. Above narrated stylistic aspects show that headlines involve almost all the aspects of it and it can be taught elegantly through newspaper headlines.

In this article, some of the stylistic points are mentioned where as a lot of other aspects of stylistics can be taught through newspaper headlines. By this way one not only becomes familiar with the latest information cum knowledge but also with the stylistic techniques of writing.

REFERENCES

J.A. Cuddon, *Dictionary of Literary Terms and Literary Theory.* (England: Clays Ltd, Stylistics Ives plc. 1991) p. 922.

H.G. Widdowson, *Stylistics and the Teaching of Literature.* (Hong Kong: Yu Luen Offset Printing Factory Ltd.. 1979) p. 4.

Bakhat Rawan, *Print Media.* (Islamabad: Allama Iqbal Open University. 1997) p. 89.

James G. Stovall, Charles C. Self, Edward Mullins, *On-Line Editing.* (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.. 1984) p. 2.

Bakhat Rawan, *Print Media.* (Islamabad: Allama Iqbal Open University. 1997) p. 90.

Melvin Mencher, *News Reporting and Writing,* (USA: Mc Graw Hill Companies, Inc. 1997) p. 153.

M V Kamath, *Professional Journalism,* (New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd. 1986) p. 34.

Bakhat Rawan, *Print Media.* (Islamabad: Allama Iqbal Open University. 1997) p. 89.

CONTINUOUS ASSESSMENT SYSTEM IMPLEMENTED BY GOVERNMENT OF THE PUNJAB

By
Mr. Muhammad Aslam[•]
and
Mrs. Rashida Bano[••]

Abstract

Assessment is a main component of the Educational process as the success of this process rests with the aspects that how far the learning outcomes in a certain area have been achieved. This paper has been designed to study the continuous assessment system implemented by the Govt. of Punjab on April 1, 2002. In this paper a brief introduction of continuous assessment, its purposes and techniques have been discussed. The main characteristics and some complications of continuous assessment system implemented in Punjab have also been delineated. In this study, some suggestions for the improvement of this continuous assessment system have been mentioned.

Introduction

Education is a means to develop the natural potentials of a person in conformity with the demand of society. It is to modify the behavior of the individual and to shape the personality in a more desirable form. The very purpose of instructional process is to help the pupils to achieve a set of intended learning outcomes, which cover a fairly wide range and are obviously related to the objectives. Education provides passage to a more promising future, providing the skilled manpower needed for economic prosperity and modernization. To determine the achievements or non-achievement of objectives at some appropriate stage, is possible through assessment and evaluation.

Educational process consists of four major components i.e. instructional objectives, curriculum methodology of teaching and practice, assessments and evaluation. Assessment and evaluation has a key role in this process as the success of whole educational process rests with the aspect that how far the

• [1] The writer is working as Deputy Regional Director, AIOU, Regional Campus, Faisalabad.

•• The writer is working as SST/Incharge Headmistress, Govt. Girls High School, Raja Ghazanfar Colony, Faisalabad.

learning outcomes in a certain subject area has been achieved in schools. If learning outcomes not being properly and continuously assessed, we can neither guarantee the desired improvement in the student's learning nor teacher's methodology of teaching.

The quality of schooling is linked with the qualification of teacher, curriculum, educational materials, teaching methodology equipment and physical facilities. It is well understood that the real impact of these factors on quality of education can be determined through a valid and reliable examination result only. It is, therefore, necessary to reform examinations in such a way that they measure the achievement of the whole range of educational objectives. There is a need to train teachers in test construction, assessment and evaluation.

Definition of Continuous Assessment

To assess generally meant, "to find the worth of something". In the educational context, it means to collect and interpret information about the abilities of students with an objective to further improve these areas of students. Assessment is generally of two types: formative or internal or continuous, and summative or annual examination. The former is rarely seen in our school environment while in the latter improvement in the context of quality (especially reliability and validity of test items) is the need of the hour. The class teacher, throughout the academic year, makes continuous assessment. It primarily focuses the performance of the individual learner for making instructional decisions. It does not include only achievement tests but also covers other aspects of the students such as their conduct and behavior, interest, participation in curricular and co-curricular activities, punctuality and regularity, etc.

Purposes of Continuous Assessment

The teacher can continuously assess student's learning outcomes in all the three domains-Cognitive, Affective and Psychomotor, particularly with regard to knowledge and understanding, procedural knowledge (making comparisons and estimates performing calculations, applying formulae), problem solving and other higher order skills. Continuous assessment serves the following purposes:

- Provides information about the learning status and progress of each student.
- Helps teacher to know, plan and redesign the teaching in accordance with the needs of the students.
- Provides diagnostic information on strengths and weaknesses of students learning.
- Provides feedback to the teachers.

- Helps in modification of curriculum targets and textbooks.
- Helps teachers in grouping of students for learning through various activities.
- Provides criteria for grading and promoting students.
- Provides guidance and counseling to students and their parents.
- Decides teacher-training method for a programme, faculty or staff.

Techniques for Continuous Assessment

A class teacher can employ various techniques to continuously assess the performance of the students in accordance with the objectives framed for the content. It is the teacher who will have to decide that which of the following techniques will be appropriate for the complete achievement of a certain instructional objectives:

1. Project evaluation
2. Observation during laboratory work
3. Problem solving
4. Classroom observations
5. Paper and pencil test
6. Checklists
7. Rating scales
8. Interviews
9. Cumulative record
10. Informal assessment through observation, teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction etc.
11. Homework (projects, assignments, etc.)

Review of Related Literature

The Ministry of Education had introduced the examination reforms; (1972) few of them are as follows:

1. The existing system of examinations is one of the root-cause of the general malaise in our education system. At present, there are internal examinations from class 1 to class 11 under students are failed or passed on the basic of annual test. There is no system of observing, recording and evaluating the performance, behavior and aptitudes of the pupil throughout the year. As a result, the passing or failing process in the annual examinations invariably becomes a matter of the pupil's memory. The high percentage of failures not only leads to heavy dropout but also brings life-long feeling of frustration and inferiority in the affected students. This

not only a national waste, but adds to our society a large mass of demoralized, dissatisfied and psychologically handicapped personalities.

2. To make the education system fruitful, it is essential to alter radically the present examination system. There will, therefore, be no annual examination, in the existing sense, up to class XI.
3. In place of single annual examination system of continuous evaluation of the progress, aptitudes and problems of students by the class teachers will be introduced. Progress in the primary classes will be automatic. Thereafter, up to class 11, the progressions will be based on a combination of the student's achievements, general behavior and aptitudes. For this purpose, a cumulative record of each student will be maintained by every school.
4. Eventually, there will be no failures and no repetition of classes up to class 11. A system of giving special attention to students who do show satisfactory progress will be evolved with the help and co-operation of parents.
5. In class X and XII the system of terminal examination by the Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education will be continued for the time being. However, every effort will be made to eliminate the malpractices in the conduct of these examinations in which students, parents, teacher, examiners and employees of the boards are now commonly known to indulge.
6. The terminal certificate granted as a result of these examinations will in future also indicate the percentage of marks obtained by the successful candidates in each subject.

L. R. Gay (1985) described that:

1 Evaluation is the systematic process of collecting and analyzing data in order to determine weather and to what degree, objectives have been or are being achieved.
2. Evaluation is the systematic process of collecting and analyzing data in order to make decisions.

R. P. Taneja (1989) states in the Dictionary of Education "Assessment is the process whereby one attempts to measure the quality and quantity of learning and teaching using various assessment techniques".

Murry Print (1993) describes that assessment involves the interpretation of measurement data. It makes sense of the data collected on student performance.

Muhammad Saeed (2001) explored the philosophy and mechanism of continuous assessment of students in various subjects for classes I-XII. The students will continuously be encouraged and provided academic guidance rather to waste their abilities due to fear of failure. It focuses on the assessment of all domains of students learning which come under the taxonomy of educational objectives. It reflects that the teacher can employ various techniques like classroom observations, project evaluation, homework, assignments, tests and informal assessment etc. to assess student's skills and abilities. The assessment of students will be made by the class teachers through six instruments/proformas and the parents will quarterly be informed about the progress of their children accordingly.

Discussion

The Continuous Assessment System of Examination Implemented on April 01, 2002 in Punjab.

Our Government has introduced new system of examination based on continuous internal assessment. This system has been started at Primary and Elementary stages in April 2002 for the implementation of new examination reforms. The same will be adopted stepwise at Secondary and Higher Secondary level. All the Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education have set their papers of 9^{th} class according to this new system. The utility of this system can be judged through the achievement of the different facilities according to the following proportion i.e.

i.	Knowledge and Comprehension	= 50%
ii.	Application	= 25%
iii.	Analysis + synthesis and evaluation	= 25%

In this proportion, both activities and subjective type of questions have been included in the question paper. The experts for the guidance of the teachers and all other concerned persons have set the model papers. This is a system in which teaching and evaluation go together and to test these skills and abilities, which cannot be tested through annual examination. For this purpose new system of evaluation has to be properly diversified so that through it we can test the (i) writing ability of the student, (ii) his capacity to do field work or project work and (iii) his participation in seminars or tutorials. The performance of students should form a feed back for improving the content of course, methods of teaching and the learning process in general. The practice of new examination system should become a regular feature of educational programme. It has started at grass-root level. Every institution has developed ways and means for keeping a regular

record of the performance of each child studying in the school. The new system of evaluation has based on the following (a) Tests after every six week and mid and final term achievement test, (b) class work and class discussion, (c) home work and assessments, (d) practical work in laboratory, (e) Articles prepared in craft work, (f) Self study in library, (g) participation in debates, political recitations and dramatics and (h) participation in games, magazines and such other activities. This continuous internal assessment adds new dimensions to the process of education. The scope and function of education will become wider. The educational process will rich in content. The new system of evaluation has the following characteristics and purpose.

- **Qualitative Improvement:** From the healthy teacher-taught ratio, opportunities for seminars group discussions, extension lectures and conferences; it is obvious that the new evaluation system has been introduced for achieving qualitative improvement and for better outcomes.
- **Less Mental Tension:** In this system the workload of the students gets reduced. Hence there occurs less mental tension to the students as compared to the annual examination system.
- **Confidence:** After every six week tests preparation for comprehensive test needs less labour. So students are able to gain confidence.
- **Diversification of Courses:** The new system tends to encourage diversification of courses.
- **Intensive Courses:** There is possibility of more intensive courses in internal assessment system.
- **More Valid:** It is more reliable as it is based on the whole duration of the session, chance elements gets eliminated.
- **Positive Result:** The main aim of this system is to find positive result and not a negative one. It aims to find out what a child knows, what can he do and what intelligence has he got rather than at finding out what he does not know, what he can-not do and what intelligence he has not get. Internal assessment is regarded as a real assessment of abilities of students required for success in life.
- **Instructional Value:** The teacher would work regularly, systematically and with uniform speed. Teacher can improve his methods of instructions and carries out experimentation. Teacher remains active for the whole year.
- **Data for Reports and Records:** Through this system of assessment reliable data for the progress reports and cumulative record cards of the students, can be collected and arranged.

- **Basis for Scholarship:** It may form a basis awarding scholarships and giving fee concessions.
- **Motivational Value:** It makes the students to work regularly and thoroughly. They develop the habits of hardworking, self-study and concentration.
- **Diagnostic Value:** This system helps to know the student's difficulties in learning. It reveals the potentialities of an individual and offer opportunities to find out needs, interests, abilities and aptitudes of an individuals and shows him the way for development.
- **Development of Creativity:** This system is able to provide opportunities for the development of creativity and various other potentialities.
- **Minimum Dropouts:** It results in minimizing dropouts and wastage.
- **Job Opportunities:** As a result of the diversified courses, this system provides more jobs opportunities to un-employed persons who want to become teachers.

In all advanced and developed countries this system of evaluation is prevalent. In order to keep pace with the rest of the world, we have to adopt this modern system of assessment and evaluation. This new system is not only useful but also very interesting. Internal assessment removes the fear of students and they don't consider their examination a nightmare Annual system of examinations may be pleasure for a few brilliant students but they are a necessity for average students and a boring for a majority of the students. They are a test of memory rather than of intelligence or knowledge. This old system of examination diverts the students to read helping books and neglect prescribed textbooks. This state of affairs was alarming. This general concept has been removed through this new system of evaluation and assessment. However, there are many difficulties and hurdles for the success and usefulness of this new system. It is all due to lack of competent teachers and resources. Our teachers are not qualified and trained enough to prepare objective type tests. Therefore, the publishers and other agencies have started preparing ready-made tests. Our teachers don't prepare their own tests, but they got ready-made material from the bazar, which is usually substandard. These tests are mostly prepared by untrained and unqualified persons just to earn money. All these test items lack immensely validity and reliability. Therefore, the desired results of the new system of assessment and evaluation are not being achieved.

However, we should be hopeful for our better future. The movement has been started and we should make this movement successful through our efforts and best wishes. In the end we would like to convey a message in the words of Long Fellow:

If little our labours, little are our gains,
Our fortunes are according to our pains.

Complications of Continuous Assessment System

The continuous assessment system has the following complications:-

1. Lack of competent teachers.
2. Workload of teachers.
3. Favouritism
4. Unhealthy competition.
5. Lack of understanding of the system.
6. Time consuming
7. Sub-standard ready-made tests prepared by untrained persons.

Suggestions

We would like to mention the following suggestions for further improvement of this system.

1. The "PEACE" Department of the University of Education should be made affective for the training of teacher in test designing and administrating. Only one or two workshops are not enough for teachers. They required continuous training and guidance.
2. The experts and competent subject Specialists employed for the guidance of teachers should prepare the tests so that they may avoid using "Bazari" substandard tests.
3. There should be strict follow up and checking of the record of the teachers who are teaching and evaluating the classes.
4. The possible resources should be made available for facilitating the teachers.

REFERENCES

Gay, L. R. (1985) *Educational Evaluation and Measurement*, Columbus, Charles E. Merril Publishing Company.

Govt. of Pakistan (1972). *Examinations, the Education Policy 1972-80*, Islamabad, Ministry of Education.

Naqvi, Z. H., Shaukat, S. A. & Aslam, M. (2001) *"A case study of external examination, Secondary School Examination 1999, Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education, Faisalabad"*, Journal of Elementary Education, I.E.R.(University of the Punjab) Lahore, Vol. 11, No.1-2, 2001

Naqvi, Z. H., Aslam, M. & Shaukat, S. A.(2003) *"Impacts of monitoring cell and the Punjab Universities and Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education malpractices (Amendment) Ordinance-1999"*, Pakistan Journal of Education, AIOU, Islamabad, Pakistan, Vol. XX, Issue-I, 2003.

Print, M. (1993) *Curriculum Development and Design,* Australia, Allan & Unwin (Pvt.) Ltd.

Saeed, M. (2001) *"Continuous Assessment System Under New Examination Reforms (2002) in Punjab"*, Journal of Elementary Education, I.E.R. (University of the Punjab) Lahore, Vol. 11, No.1-2, 2001.

Taneja, R. P. (1989) *Dictionary of Education,* New Delhi, Anmol Publications.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

TOWARDS INTEGRATION OF DEPARTMENTAL BASED CONTINUOUS ASSESSMENT WITH FINAL EXAMINATION IN VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

By
Medinat Badmus[*]

Abstract

This paper is intended to examine the types of Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) devices used by lecturers in vocational and technical education at tertiary level. This will be followed by the practice and distribution of DBCA. The benefits and challenges associated with integration of DBCA with final examination are discussed. Finally, the practical implications for the future policies, National University Commission (NUC) and Vocational and Technical Education in Nigeria are provided.

Introduction

The National Policy on Education for Nigeria (1981 reviewed in 1998) prescribed continuous assessment as a component for the overall assessment of students' achievement at all levels of the educational system. This prescription was a departure from the old practice of using a single end of course examination to measure students' performance. It is also an attempt to reduce the excessive emphasis placed on one-shot written examination. The policy states under section 1 subsection 7(7) that "educational assessment and evaluation will be liberalized by basing them in whole or in part on continuous assessment of the progress of the individual. In view of this policy, the traditional system of assessment in which students' performance was determined solely through a one-short terminal examination at the end of programme, was abolished on the ground that, it is adjudged to lack both comprehensivity and validity (Aina 2001). This is because the outcomes of students' learning did not portray a valid and comprehensive assessment of the students.

[*] The writer is working as Senior Lecturer in Home Economics Education Department of Vocational and Technical Education, Faculty of Education, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.

Again, the National Policy was more categorical in its section 9 paragraph 70 by declaring that:

> *The existing practice in most of our institutions of learning of basing the assessment of students' work on final examination and one type of only is no longer tenable. Continuous assessment based on a variety of evaluation techniques should be adopted and there should be some means of ensuring common national standards both in the assessment of public examination (NPE 1998)*

Towards effective implementation, a handbook was prepared on continuous assessment. It contained clarification and elaboration on the concept and implementation of Continuous Assessment. The book was published for the Federal Ministry of Education in Nigeria (FME 1985). Since the implementation of the continuous assessment, various institutions of higher learning have adopted and integrated it with final examination. It is being used in different departments by all course lecturers. All courses taken inside and outside the departments, usually include continuous assessment in the ratio ranging from 20-40 percent of each course examination. Hence, this paper will refer to continuous assessment acquired from various departments as Departmental based Continuous Assessment (DBCA).

The DBCA is conceptualized as continuous assessment (CA). It creates a change in assessment through the active involvement of classroom teachers (Weerhe 2001, Obioma 2001). The DBCA is a method of evaluating students progress and achievement in institutions of higher learning. This educational reform or innovation is a means of getting the truest picture of each student's ability, while at the same time, helping each to develop his or her abilities (Kithuka 2001). The DBCA may serve many different functions in Vocational and Technical Education at tertiary level of the education process. Apart from being systematic, comprehensive, cumulative and guidance-oriented (Aina & Badmus 1999), it serves the function of encouraging students to attend lectures at the university level where the classes are too large for the lecturer to know who is absent. The idea of integrating DBCA with final examination looks laudable on paper and to some extent, looks feasible in practice but the challenges embedded in the process require effective strategies for handling them. The strategies are essential so that in the end, whatever decision is arrived at in terms of abilities, skills and achievements of the students will portray the reflection of reality. However, the use of DBCA is not limited to Nigeria alone. Other countries such as Ethiopia, Lesotho, Swaziland, Ghana and Uganda have already had a go at it (Kellghan and Greney 1992).

The Objectives of the Paper are as Follows:

(i) Examine the types of devices/techniques used by lecturers for obtaining Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA).
(ii) Focus on practice and distribution of DBCA in vocational and technical education.
(iii) Dwell upon the benefits and challenges associated with integration of DBCA score with final examination score in vocational and technical education.
(iv) Finally provide the practical implications for the future policies, national University Commission (NUC) and Vocational and technical education in Nigeria.

Procedure

A number of documents were used the study process. One of the documents was the Nigeria National Policy on Education (1981, 1998). The second was the results of final year students in the year 2000 and 2001 where examples of the Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) and final examination scores were extracted. Moreover, samples of end-of-course practical and projects were collected. Data was also collected through interview that covered the following:

- Challenges associated with integration of Department-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) scores with final examination scores.
- Discussion on the challenges
- Open questions for further investigations
- Intervention strategies to minimize the challenges
- Types of devices used for obtaining DBCA.

Moreover, the prospectus of three old federal universities were studied for assessment and evaluation procedures. Again, the benefits identified and discussed in the paper were collected from the lecturers through interview. No hypothesis was formulated in the study.

Methodology

This paper focused on federal universities. This is because department of Vocational and Technical Education was carved out from Faculty of Education of some of these federal universities. The state universities are not bound by this aspect of education. Thus, the twenty-two federal universities formed the population.

Three federal universities were purposefully selected for gathering information for this study. Out of these twenty-two federal universities, only three of them will be involved in this study and they will be regarded as institutions. A,B, C, in this paper. These higher institutions were chosen to fulfill the major geographical and socio-cultural zones in Nigeria. These are South-West represented by Benin (C), South-East represented by Nsukka (B) and the North represented by Zaria (A). In addition, the three selected universities belong to the first generation universities (according to the National Universities Commission) in the country. They were the first universities to establish vocational and technical education department in Nigeria. For example, the creation of Department of Vocational and Technical Education took place in 1977/78 in institution A, 1981/82 in institution B and 1993/94 in institution C. Another factor that binds them together is that, the three universities run the same programmes. These include Agricultural Education, Business education, Home Economics Education and Industrial Technical Education. The teachers in vocational and technical education department formed the primary sample for the study.

Types of Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment Devices in Vocational and Technical Education at Tertiary Level

The three main types of devices for obtaining DBCA in the vocational and technical education department are course work, practical work, and project work. Each of them is explained below.

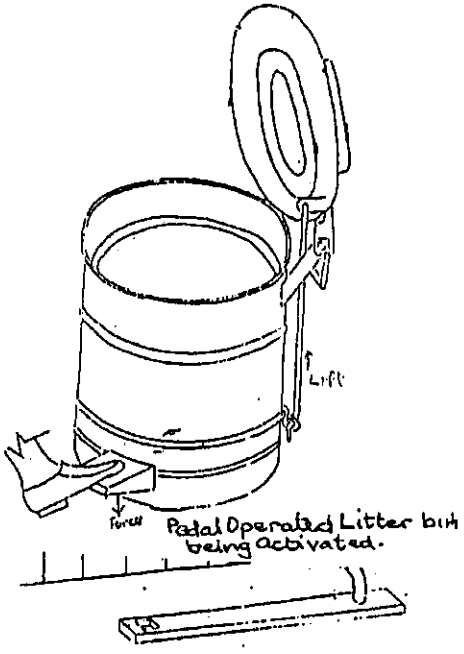
Course Work Assessment (Tests)

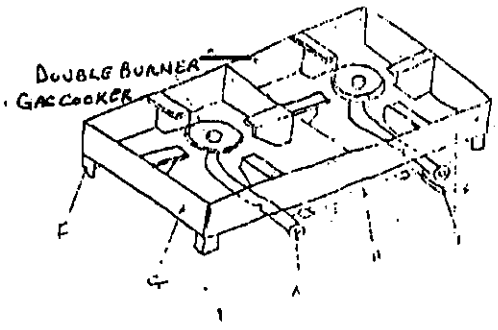
This type of assessment is used to assess students in all the subjects under controlled examination situations. This involves the use of variety of designs namely: homework, occasional tests, assignments, oral work, short pencil and paper tests and practical work where appropriate. The tests are based on the topics covered in the classroom.

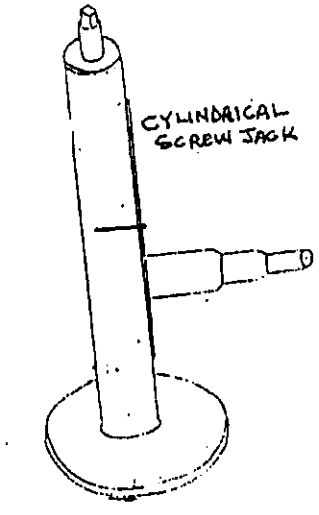
Practical Work

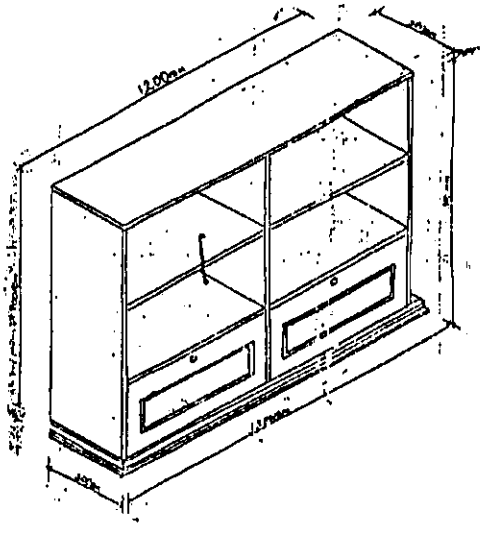
In the department of vocational and technical education at tertiary level in Nigeria, there abound a number of subjects that are practically-oriented. In this department, the subjects requiring practical include Home Economies (foods and Nutrition, Clothing and Textiles and Home Management), Agriculture, Fine and Applied Arts, Woodwork, Metal Work, Electricity/Electronics and Business Studies. For example, in clothing and textiles, a number of practical works are carried out during the semester under the supervision of the teachers who act as guides. Such works include construction of garments such as native cuts, men's garments – trousers, shirts and ties and tailored women's garments – skirts suits

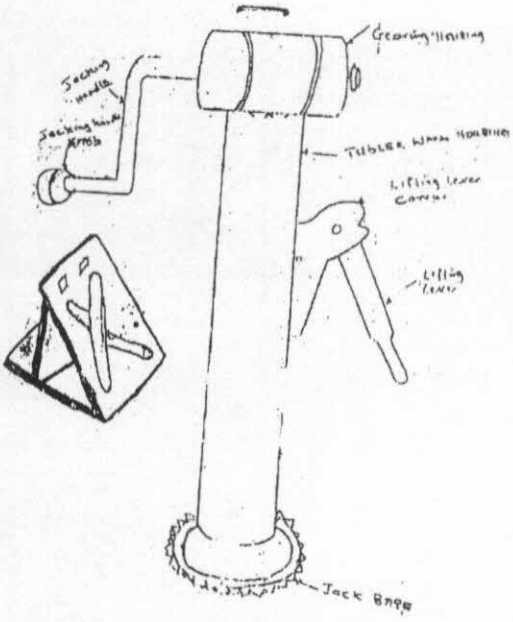
Examples of projects in industrial technical education are displayed below:

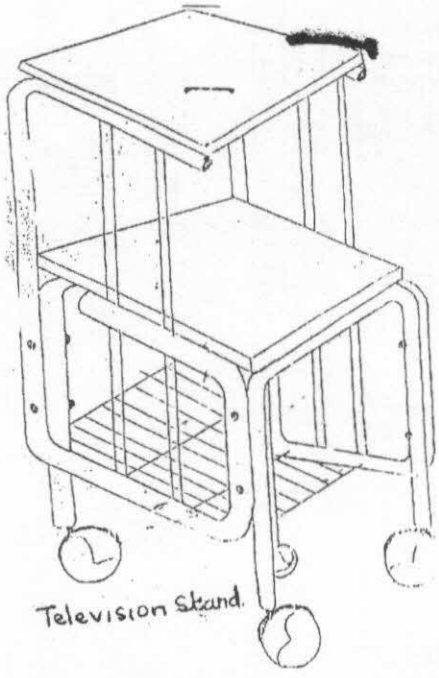


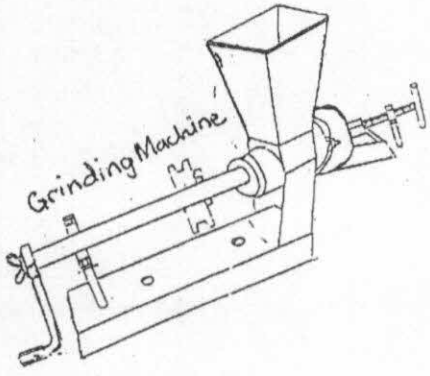


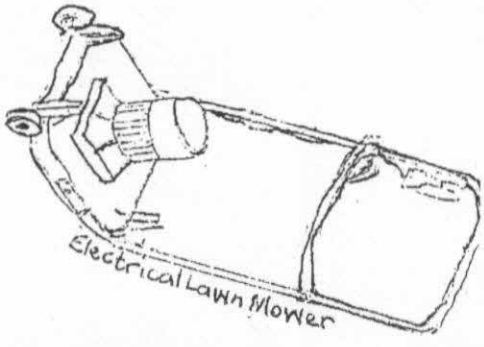












Finding

The interview held with the lecturers of both universities and a close look at their prospectus showed that, end-of-course practical examination is not carried out in Agricultural Education. Instead, a one-year practical training is undertaken by every Agricultural student (Prospectus 2002/2003). During the practical year, the students are expected to rotate among subject matter areas in either

Agriculture, Fisheries, Forestry, Wildlife and others. The practical training programme emphasizes interdisciplinary approach of practical "Agriculture Problems" as is normally experimented in the field. The students are physically involved in the farm operations. Each student at the end of the Field practical Training Programme is expected to submit a report to his/her department. There is also a written examination, as well as an evaluation of the report (prospectus of undergraduate 2001/2002).

Similarly, end-of-course practical examination is not carried out in Industrial Technical Education. This was also revealed by the lecturers of the universities involved in this study through the interview held with them. Instead of end-of-course practical examination, the students undertake a course in which they provide projects in special areas namely: building Construction and Wood Work Technology, Electrical/Electronics Technology and Automobile Technology. In this course, students are expected to conduct or produce a practical project in their respective areas of specialization. The project produced by the students must be something of value, and must give students the opportunity to exhibit theoretical and practical experience acquired in the programme (prospectus of undergraduate 1998/99). All the students in Industrial Technical Education undertake this course in both universities in this study.

Practice of Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) in Vocational and Technical Education

Departmental-Based Continuous assessment (DBCA) is an internal assessment. It is referred to as internal assessment because it is an assessment of students' work that is done at the level of the school, department/classroom and usually supervised and assessed by teachers in the classroom. The practice in vocational and Technical Education at tertiary level (in Nigeria) is that the teachers are left to handle all matters concerning Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA). Some teachers take into consideration attendance at lectures while some do not. The lecturers that take into account attendance require all students to attend a minimum of 70% of each and every prescribed course before they are allowed to sit for the examination relevant to the course (Prospectus for undergraduate's 2000/2001). This type of instruction helps in checking absenteeism from lectures and ensures that every student participates in DBCA. The teachers keep a record for participation in lectures, tutorials, assignments and tests (Garuba and Abba 1996). Such teachers allocate specific points to each of these focal areas in the final computation of DBCA score. Examples of format of distribution of DBCA are shown in table 2.

Table 2
Distribution of departmental-based continuous assessment score with final examination score

Institution A	SUBJECT: AGRICULURE Course Code: CRSS 421 Course title: Permanent fruit Crop							Home Economics Course Code: HEE 413 Course Title: Clothing Construction IV							Industrial technical Education Course code; ITE 414 Course title: Building Drawing							Business Education Course Code; BED 422 Course title; Information technology					
	S/N	STUDENT	PRACTICAL	OTHERS	EXAM SCORE	TOTAL	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	CLASS WORK	PRACTICAL	EXAM. SCORE	TOTAL	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA		FINAL EXAM	TOTAL SCORE	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	EXAM. SCORE	TOTAL SCORE	GRADE
			10	20	70	100		1	A	20	20	60	100				20	20	60	100	C						
	1	A	5	8	32	45	D	2	B	14	12	26	52	C	1	A	12	13	32	57	C	1	A	15	25	40	E
	2	B	5½	14½	49	69	B	3	C	15	15	48	78	A	2	B	11	14	25	50	C	2	B	14	23	37	F
	3	C	4½	10½	32	47	D	4	D	12½	10	18½	41	E	3	C	13	10	33	56	C	3	C	15	13	28	F
	4	D	4½	11	27	43	E	5	E	12	8	22½	43	E	4	D	12	15	30	57	C	4	D	17	31	48	D
	5	E	6½	13½	36	56	C	1	A	15	12	36	63	B	5	E	13	10	38	61	B	5	E	16	25	41	E

Institution B

Course Code: HEE 413 Course title: Technology, School Change & Problems in Agriculture						Course Code: HEE 412 Course title: Home Management Practicum							Course Code: ITE 415 Course title: Switching Circuits						Course Code: BED 421 Course Title: Advanced Transcription II					
S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	EXAM. SCORE	TOTAL	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	PRACTICAL	EXAM. SCORE	TOTAL	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	FINAL EXAM	TOTAL SCORE	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	EXAM.SCORE	TOTAL SCORE	GRADE
		20	80	100				20	30	50	100				30	70	100				20	80	100	
1	A	10	45	55	C	1	A	10	13½	33½	57	C	1	A	25	35	60	B	1	A	18	16	34	F
2	B	10	46	56	C	2	B	10	19½	40	70	A	2	B	24	32	56	C	2	B	195	45	65	B
3	C	12	44	56	C	3	C	12	20½	37	70	A	3	C	30	20	40	E	3	C	.19	27	46	D
4	D	10	33	43	E	4	D	11	22½	36	70	A	4	D	25	44	70	A	4	D	18	13	31	F
5	E	14	56	70	A	5	E	10	18	37	65	B	5	E	23	47	70	A	5	E	18	8	26	F

Institution C

Course code: CRS 515 Course Title: Pest And Pest Management						Course Code: HEE 412 Course Title: Home management Practicum						Course Code: ITE 430 Course Title: Lubrication and Cooling						Course Code: BED 423 Course Title: Advanced production Typing					
S/N	STUDENT	DBCA PRACTICAL	THEORY	TOTAL	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	EXAM. SCORES	TOTAL	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	EXAM. SCORE	TORAL	GRADE	S/N	STUDENT	DBCA	EXAM. SCORE	TOTAL SCORE	GRADE
		20	80	100				20	80	100				20	80	100				30	70	100	
1	A	05	35	40	E	1	A	18	40	58	C	1	A	16	61	77	A	1	A	21	04	25	F
2	B	06	44	50	C	2	B	20	38	58	A	2	B	06	38	44	E	2	B	23	24	47	D
3	C	-	25	25	F	3	C	20	57	77	C	3	C	08	49	57	C	3	C	30	25	55	C
4	D	11	29	40	E	4	D	20	47	67	B	4	D	10	32	42	E	4	D	28	36	64	B
5	E	15	46	61	B	5	E	20	51	71	A	5	E	13	54	67	B	5	E	24	12	36	F

Finding

As may be seen from the afore-going, Department-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) is being used in the department of vocational and technical education in the three higher institutions in this study. Table 2 shows that, all the lecturers conform with the Nigerian national policy on Education which stipulates that, educational assessment and evaluation should be based on continuous assessment of the progress of the individual (NPE 1998). Nevertheless, DBCA has its problems different from the problems associated with one-do-or-die end-of-course examination where the teachers had no contribution to the full assessment of their students.

The finding further shows that, the Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) scores in various institutions are lumped. This lumping confirms some of the challenges faced by DBCA in the universities in Nigeria and other countries, some of which will be discussed in this paper. A close look at all the institutions' results show that, the same thing goes on. There is no exception.

Table 3
Benefits Associated with Integration of Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) with Final Examination

S.No.	Benefits	Discussion
1	Improving Instruction	DBCA is useful for assessing the teaching performance of teachers. It also assesses the instructional methods of teachers from time to time in order to improve on the teaching performance. It shows the strength and weaknesses of instruction.
2	Improvement of students' learning outcomes.	DBCA provides powerful intrinsic motivation for learning. Provides immediate feedback to the students in their learning. Weakness in learning offers students opportunities for self-learning. Enables them to see the success gained in learning promptly
3.	Improving the on-going curriculum	DBCA serves as diagnostic function for improving curriculum. Displays the weaknesses and strength of a curriculum. Provides information where curriculum requires modification.
4.	Elimination of failure and drop-outs	Teachers are actively involved in the participation of assessment of their students. Enables teachers to be aware of their students' individual differences and remedial helps. Also, encourages students of lower-ability for putting in more efforts at improving their performance.
5.	Record-Keeping	DBCA provides records of the students' performance for each year. Provides records of achievement for students transferring to another school.

6.	Avoids Stress	DBCA reduces emphasis now placed on one examination. Memorization and regurgitation of facts are de-emphasized. It encourages the promotion of practical and experimental work.
7.	Ensuring quality and quantity of students' learning	DBCA being comprehensive, cumulative and guidance-oriented enables individual students in choice of career. The determination of quantity and quality of students' learning cannot be adequately evaluated by one final examination. At present, departments have adopted mastery learning, which can only be attained from time to time.
8	Development of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains	In contrast to the previous mode of education assessment, which focuses attention to only cognitive domain of learning, DBCA covers the three domains (cognitive, affective and psychomotor). This is very important in order to develop students into useful members of the community.
9	Enhancement of validity and reliability	The comprehensives nature of DBCA makes students' knowledge more valid and reliable because areas of weakness are identified and addressed while areas of strength are fine-tuned. The use of DBCA will ensure that half-baked candidates are not certified.
10	Reduction of examination phobia and malpractice	The use of DBCA reduces the threat of an all-important final examination tension, stress and over-anxiety, which naturally result, could be eliminated. Also, examination malpractice which has resulted in the rustication/expulsion of students from the university could be reduced because students would have become familiar with all the aspects of their course work.
11	Guidance-oriented	The use of DBCA would provide a basis for more effective guidance of students because information collected would be used to guide their further development. Students admitted into a programme, which they cope with are guided to other programmes where they are potentially competent.

The benefits associated with integration of DBCA with final examination score are many and varied. These benefits can be regarded as help to the students, the lecturers' the institutions, the parents, the government and the society. It is, therefore, necessary for the institutions of the higher learning that offer vocational and technical education in Nigeria to pay full attention to the success of its implementation.

Table 4
Challenges Associated with Integration of Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) Score with Examination Score

S.No.	Challenges	Discussions	Open questions	Intervention strategies
1	Adequate number of Assessments	Most teachers and even the authorities in the department cannot ascertain the required number of assessments to be considered	What amount of assessment should go into departmental-Based Continuous Assessments (DBCA)	Seminar or staff meetings should be held in the depart-ment to decide on the number of assessments to be conducted in courses taught. This could be matter for the policy to decide also.
2	Forms of techniques employed in conducting the assessment	Most lecturers are in the habit of basing DBCA on the use of tests alone. DBCA requires the utilization of a variety of instruments such as class work, oral work, quiz, term papers, projects and others.	What will be the optimal weighting of the various instruments from which DBCA scores are derived? What will be the criteria for determining these weights?	Seminar or workshop could be held to determine suitable instruments for different subject areas to deemphasize the use of classroom tests alone. For example, Agriculture, Home Economics, Technical Education should use practical and projects, because tests alone cannot measure skills in these areas Monitoring is also good.
3	Quality of assessment instrument	Teachers often prepare tests at the last minute. Most of the prepared tests are often unreliable and poor in most respects. In some cases, past questions are repeated from time to time	When should DBCA be prepared in order to present a valid and reliable assessment?	Monitoring is necessary to ascertain that valid and reliable assessments are presented to students.

4	Attitudes of the programme recipients	Most students develop non-challant attitude toward DBCA. Some regard it as burdensome and a waste of time when they are given projects, which require materials or research. Again, many students absent themselves because of the DBCA.	In what ways can the students' interest be enhanced in Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment?	The first step is to make the students understand clearly the criteria for the assessment. Second, assessment should reflect the specific learning outcomes they purport to measure programme recipients should be enlightened about the benefits and relevance of DBCA, as it will affect their performance in future.
5	Grade Inflation	Most teachers display favoritism through inflation of scores. Scores are also inflated through gratification from students. The performance of such students will be seen to have improved in terms of scores to justify the favoritism and gratification. Due to the dishonesty in the award of scores, correlations between DBCA score and examination score are usually low. The validity and reliability of the scores are thus doubtful.	What criteria should be used for assessing instruments meant for DBCA? What processes should be followed for allocation of scores for DBCA to avoid low correlation and ensure validity and reliability?	The use of moderation is essential for vetting and approval of DBCA scores.

6	Comparability of scores/ students	The issue of comparability between scores of students is sometime difficult for most teachers since they are not statistically competent to compute T. score, which will bring all the raw scores to the same level. The use of mean (x) to compare students is not adequate since there may be differences in tests set for the students. Some may be difficult while some may be easy.	What strategies should be used for capacity building for easy comparison of scores of students?	Assessments resource banks comprising assessment instruments carefully designed with marked schemes should be made available to teachers. The teachers should be trained to acquire assessment skills.
7.	Non-Unified Standards	The DBCA lies in the hands of the lecturers. It is very difficult to ascertain the uniformity in standards of assessments. Some teachers may set easy questions for their students while others may set difficult questions. The tests, assignments, projects may not cover some topics or skills essential to the students.	Which strategies can be employed for producing uniformity in standards of assessment?	Attempt should be made to moderate instruments for DBCA internally at the departmental level. This could be followed by further moderation by appointed lecturer who is competent in the area of assessment.

8	Class Size	This is another big challenge. Sometimes increased student enrolment has led to single teacher having to teach a very large class, leading to a substantial increase in workload for the said teacher. Thus, creating difficulties in managing DBCA.	How can the problem of large class be solved for effective operation of department-based Continuous Assessment (DBCA)?	More teachers should be employed to reduce teachers' workload. The use of loud speaker may just be an added assistance to reach the students.

Finding

The challenges of DBCA cited in this paper are experienced in the higher institutions used for this study. Again, the challenges can also be reflecting what prevails in other institutions of higher learning in Nigeria where DBCA is adopted as a component in educational assessment. Moreso, these various challenges are also regarded as constraints to the full implementation of DBCA.

Discussion

The finding revealed that, end-of-course practical examination is not carried out in all the subject areas in Vocational and Technical Education. This was confirmed through the interview held with the lecturers. However, it is clear that, all the institutions in the study are in line with the New Nigerian National Policy on Education. This is because both institutions emphasize the technical knowledge and vocational skills for self-reliance, which are also emphasized in National Policy of Education in Nigeria. Both institutions inculcate in their students acquisition of practical skills and knowledge relating to occupations in various subject areas. The programme recipients are given a broad preparation for the world of work and self-reliance. Evidence of this can be seen in projects made and field study. Consequently, vocational and technical education though very expensive, it should be fully embraced as it is a panacea for elimination of unemployment among youth and poverty alleviation now and in future.

Furthermore, standard projects are provided by students. At present, the youth must be taught, trained and encouraged to be productive rather than be dependent on white-collar jobs.

Surprisingly, there are variations in the practice of DBCA in the three universities in the study. In institution A, DBCA carries 40%, and final examination is 60% (Prospectus of undergraduate 1999/2000). Whereas, the final examination carry 50% weighting and the remaining 50% is DBCA acquired from cumulative grade point average up to the penultimate year in institution B, (prospectus of undergraduate 2000/2001, In institution C, DBCA carries 25%, and final examination is 75% (Prospectus of undergraduate 19998/99). There are several reasons for giving higher weighting to DBCA in institutions A and B.

First, the higher weighting might be due to the value accorded DBCA in these institutions. Institution A has 40% DBCA, while institution B has 50%. This shows that DBCA is highly valued in these two institutions. Second, it could also be attributed to the fact that, the two institutions are having highly practical oriented curricula. Again, the two institutions are older than institution C with 25% as DBCA. It is possible that the two institutions might have reviewed, reformed and restructured their curricula more than institution C since worthwhile curricula are never static. The review, reformation and restructuring of their curricula might have called for the need to enhance quality of education given to students through adequate training, teaching of practicals and manipulative skills at this level. The new curricular might have inevitably necessitated a change in their DBCA procedures to incorporate more assessment of practical subjects and projects at the end of semester; since practical skills cannot reliably be measured by the use of paper-and-pencil tests.

Furthermore, the table 2 shows clearly lumping of DBCA in many of the courses whereas; these scores should be recorded separately. The disadvantages of lumping of courses are that, it does not show clearly;

i. Appropriate description of DBCA devices, that is practical/ project/quiz, and others used for accumulating the total DBCA scores.
ii. The capacity of individual student in different areas such as acquisition of skills, knowledge, understanding and attitudes, without splitting the DBCA scores acquired, using one single score only would not accord justice to the evaluation of the capacity of students in each of the area mentioned above.
iii. Areas of competence and weakness of the programme recipients.
iv. Areas, which require remedial work in the courses
v. Areas, which require strengthening in the courses

These findings give basis for monitoring measures, proper supervision and remedial measures. Monitoring is very important to prevent lumping of the DBCA scores, to ensure that students accomplish the benefits associated with integration of DBCA score with final examination score highlighted and discussed in this paper. It is imperative that, the issue of monitoring should be considered a priority.

The achievement of the benefits associated with integration of DBCA with final examination depends greatly on the teachers. Teachers should ensure its guaranteed continuity and should regard it (DBCA) as an integral part of the teaching/learning process because of these known benefits. Teachers as users of DBCA should also increase their efforts and time in the choice of appropriate devices for attaining DBCA. If DBCA is well or properly handled by the users, it will go a long way towards enhancing the quality and quantity of learning.

The challenges translate into constraints to which solutions should be sought. What is proposed in this paper might not eliminate the problems inherent with DBCA. DBCA is a process whose success will depend largely on increased research empirically carried out and presented at appropriate conferences such as Association for Educational Assessment in Africa for more contributions. Again, it will rely heavily on competent core of professionals, which are inadequate in higher institutions in Nigeria. With the use of core professionals, the process of DBCA will move from quality controller to quality assurance.

Implications of the Study

This section discusses specifically the practical implications of the findings of the study in order to improve the operation/administration of the Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) in Vocational and Technical Education in tertiary institutions.

Implication on Future Policy

It is evident from the foregoing discussions on the findings on the practice and distribution of DBCA in Vocational and Technical Education that there is lumping of scores in many of the courses and the types of techniques used were not specified by most lecturers. It is not easy to conclude whether teachers were able to identify the diversities in students' abilities or capacities. The findings, however, call for the future policies in education to spell out clearly the function of Departmental-Based Continuous Assessment (DBCA) so that its interpretation and implementation will be systematic. This implies that, if the function of DBCA in Vocational and Technical Education is to acquire skills or capabilities or both, these should be stated in clear and unambiguous manner at policy level. There

should be certain urgent steps for formulation of policies to address the intervention strategies provided for the challenges identified and discussed in this paper in order to improve the operation of DBCA.

Implication for the National University Commission (NUC)

The study indicates that a number of challenges is currently facing the DBCA in the department of vocational and technical education. These findings have implications for national University Commission (NUC) for provision of guidelines on DBCA to all tertiary institutions on:

i. How/when to plan day to day DBCA by lecturers.
ii. The specific number of DBCA to be given to students for standardization.
iii. Monitoring, evaluating and procedures on DBCA, and recording which Christie (2000) in Adotey (2001) referred to as Teaching and Assessment Cycle.

Implication for Vocational and Technical Education

The benefits and challenges identified and discussed in this paper require that all concerned with DBCA should have the capacity to lead and give direction to the process of Departmental-based Continuous Assessment (DBCA). These have implications for vocational and technical education:

i. A member of staff should be elected at the departmental level with clear responsibility for the promotion of consistency, such as planning and organizing sessions where all staff members can discuss and agree on standards stipulated by the N.U.C. and national policy.
ii. A subject coordinator should also be elected for the monitoring and evaluation of teachers' marking and assessment practice in their own subject, promoting accuracy and consistency across their subjects.
iii. Organizing visits to other institutions for uniformity and maintenance of standards.

REFERENCES

Aina, O. (2001): *"Rational Perspectives for Using School Based Assessment (SBA) in National Technical/Business certificates (NTC/NBC) in Nigeria.* A paper Presented at the 19th Annual Conference of Association for Educational Assessment in Africa held at Nairobi, Kenya.

Aina, O. and Badmus, G.A. (2000): "towards An Integration of School-Based and *External Assessments in External Assessment in Technical and Vocational Education In Nigeria.*

Adotey, J.A. (2001) *"Rationalizing The Use of School-Based Assessment for Certification: Ghana's Experience And The Way Forwards"*. A paper presented at the 19th Annual Conference of Association for educational Assessment in Nairobi, Kenya 24th – 28th September.

Christie, T. (2001) "Pupil Grouping and the Assessment Cycle in *Jamaican Junior Secondary Education,* Volume 5, No. 2.

Federal Ministry of Education (1985). *A Handbook on Continuous Assessment.* Ibadan: Heinemann Education Books (Nigeria) Limited.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (1981). *National Policy on Education (Revised).* Lagos: Federal Government Press.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (1998). *National Policy on Education 3rd* Edition, NERDC Press, Yaba, Lagos, Nigeria.

Garuba, A. and Abba, M. (1996), "Challenges of Administering Continuous Assessment in Tertiary Institution: Limitations and Options" in (Eds) Badmus, G.A. and Odor, P.I. *Challenges of Managing Educational Assessment in Nigeria* .Nigeria: JAMB.

Kellaghan, T. and Greaney, V. (1992), "Using Examinations to Improve Education". New York: World Bank Technical papers: 42.

Kithuka, M. (2001). "Issues and Challenges Associated with the Integration of School-Based Assessment with Public Examinations". A paper presented at the 19th Annual Conference of Association for Educational Assessment, Nairobi, Kenya September 24th – 28th.

Malaki, E.A. (2001), *"Issues and Challenges Associated with The Integration of School Based Assessment with External Examinations and National Assessment Systems, with Emphasis on the Assessment of post Schools Technical Examinations in*

Kenya". A paper presented at the Annual Conference of The Association for Education Assessment in Africa held at Nairobi, Kenya, September 24th – 28th.

Obioma, G. (2001) "*Challenges to School Based Assessment. The Nigeria Experience*" A paper presented at the 19th Annual Conference of the Association for Educational Assessment in Africa held at the Grand Regency Hotel, Nairobi, Kenya, September.

Odongo, D.N. (2001) "*Constraints and Challenges of School Based Assessment: Uganda's Case*". A paper presented at the 19th Annual Conference of the Association for Educational Assessment in Africa (AEAA) Nairobi, Kenya. September 24th – 28th.

Prospectus of Undergraduate Programmes (2001/2002), Faculty of Agriculture, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.

Prospectus of Undergraduate Programmes (1998/1999), Faculty of Education, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.

Prospectus of Undergraduate Programmes (1999/2000). Vocational and Technical Education Department, Faculty of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaire.

Prospectus of Undergraduate Programmes (2000/2001), Department of vocational Teacher Education, Faculty of Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria.

Weerhe, D.M. (2001) "*Utilizing School Based Assessment for Improving Instruction and Learning: An Overview of Constraints and Challenges in Operationalizing SBA*". A paper presented at the 19th annual Conference of the Association for Educational Assessment in Africa, Nairobi, Kenya, September 24th – 28th.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN

COMPARISION OF PARENTING STYLES AMONG THE PARENTS OF SCHOOL-GOING CHILDREN LIVING IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS

By
Sadia Batool[*]

Abstract

The present study was aimed at comparing perceived parenting styles of children living in rural and urban areas. The study purports to see the differences between rural and urban children in their perception of parental acceptance, rejection and control as well. The sample comprised of one hundred male students of class 6th. They were selected from the four institutions of Islamabad and Bhara Kou. Their age ranged between 10 to 13 years (M = 11.65, SD = 1.04). For measuring the perceived parental acceptance and rejection, the Urdu version of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/ Control Questionnaire (Haque, 2000) was used. Assessment of parenting style was made by using adapted version of Parental Authority Questionnaire (Babree, 1997). The data was collected in the children's schools. The analysis of data was made with the help of statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Both paternal and maternal styles were analyzed separately, and in some cases collectively. Results showed that the children of urban area perceive themselves to be more accepted by their parents as compared to the children living in rural area. It was also found that children of rural area perceived their parents as more controlling than those of urban area. In rural area, fathers were perceived to more controlling as compared to mothers, but mothers were more controlling than fathers in urban area. Findings of PAQ reveal that parents of urban area are more authoritative than those of rural area. Also the parents of rural area are found to be more permissive than urban area. Both children of rural and urban areas perceive to statistically significant difference in the parenting style of mothers and fathers. High significant correlations were found between the sub-scales and total score of both questionnaires. Alpha Reliability analysis indicated that most of the subscales have moderate reliability. The findings of the present study have implication for intervention strategies.

---

[*] The writer is a Ph.D student of the National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-e-Azam University, Islamabad. She is also an awardee of Indigenous Scholarship, HEC, Islamabad.

Introduction

The present study is aimed at comparing the perceived parenting styles and parental acceptance, rejection and control of the children living in rural and urban areas. The parental style correlates with the development of the personality of children. Review of the literature revealed that parenting styles are influenced by socio economic conditions, level of parents' education, and types of their occupation accompanied by traditional practices and cultural variables. The rural and urban areas of a same region, obviously differ to each other in respect of socio economic conditions, educational level, occupation of people, and availability of facilities, etc. The comparison of perceived parenting styles and parental acceptance, rejection and control between the children of rural and urban areas is to study the effects of above variables collectively, and it will also help to remove the deficiency found in the styles of parents and behavior of children in aforesaid areas.

Many studies on the impact of socio-economic status (SES) on parenting styles have revealed that lower socio-economic parents are more power-assertive, authoritarian and controlling. Whereas parents with higher socio-economic status (SES) are more democratic and they are either permissive or authoritative. Kohan (1969) also found that middle-class parents focus on psychological disciplinary techniques, such as withdrawal of love to shape their children's behavior. While lower class parents tend to favour physical discipline and punishing their children as a consequence of their actions. Since parenting style is also influenced by the occupation of parents, researches show that parents, who are uneducated and work in unskilled professions are more likely to use authoritarian parenting styles, while parents from the middle socio-economic status and educated are authoritative. (Patterson et al., 1989; Ross & Willigen, 1997.)

In Pakistan, there are significant differences between rural and urban areas in terms of socio-economic status, nature of occupation, educational level, availability of facilities etc. These differences are highlighted by the report of Eighth Five Year Plan (1993-98):, rural areas where 68 percent of the total population of Pakistan lives, quality of life has considerably lagged behind their counterparts in the urban areas. The literacy rate in rural areas is only 27.5 percent as compared to 57 percent in the urban areas. Safe drinking water is available to only 47 percent of rural population. The coverage for sanitation facilities is only 14 percent in the rural areas as against 60 percent in urban areas. Health facilities are inadequate. Employment and income opportunities are also limited. The rural areas usually receive a lower quality of social service." (p.137)

Islamabad is the capital of Islamic Republic of Pakistan. It has been designed and developed on the most modern line of civic structure. Its population mostly consists of highly educated, professional and well cultured people. Islamabad College for Boys, G/6-3, which is selected for this study in urban area, is the best educational institution in this city. According to District Census Report of Islamabad (1998) the total population of the Islamabad capital territory was 8,05,235 in March 1998. The urban population was 65.7 percent of total population of the district.

Bhara Kou: It is named as Kot Hathial in the government document (Hadbast No. 0213), is selected as a rural area. It is populated unplanned like other villages of the country. The last census report reveals that total population of Bhara Kou was 27,258 in 1998. Among them were 14,138 males and 13,120 females. The population mostly consists of low-income groups, and poorly educated people.

Numerous studies have been conducted in Pakistan related to parental styles, and its effect on the children. Hamid (1986) found that children who have poor and inadequate adjustment, come from authoritarian and strict parents. Tariq and Durrani (1983) found that adverse control and support combination of parenting style was present for habitual criminals. Children who are more emotionally attached and behave normally, come from warm and loving families (Riaz, 1991). Karim (1986) found that aggression in the children is conditioned by the parenting style, i.e., the children of aggressive parents were found to be aggressive. Sajjad (1993) found the same results while studying the relationship of individual psychopathology and the family and found that disturbance in parental relationship affects the psychological condition of the children. Research conducted by Amjad (2000) reveals that children who perceived themselves accepted by their parents, are significantly more internal, strong and independent than those children who perceived themselves rejected by their parents. The results of Verda's study (2001) show those blind children perceive parental warmth and control differently as compared to their sighted siblings. Blind children perceived their mothers to be more accepting than fathers.

Many studies have been conducted in rural and urban areas of Pakistan, India and elsewhere, but no research has yet compared parenting styles in urban versus rural areas. (Rohner, Khaleque, 2002). So the present study is a new attempt in this area. It will also compare the findings of previous researchers, who made their studies separately in rural and urban areas.

An effort will be made to project the differences of parental acceptance-rejection and parenting styles especially from children's point of view. Hence this study is to be unique as the questionnaires, child PARQ/Control and child PAQ have been used simultaneously, both measures the parental attitude towards their children. These two standardized questionnaires will increase the reliability of results.

Objectives

The objectives of the present study are as follows:

- To develop the awareness about the parenting styles.
- To help the parents in adapting the parenting styles.
- To recognize the benefits of authoritative parenting styles and promotes its applications.

Research Design

This research was conducted in two phases, each of which is presented in figure 4.

PHASE 1: In phase one, the children of rural and urban areas were given the PARQ/Control questionnaires (both maternal and paternal). This phase also included the comparison between the scores of rural children and urban children.

PHASE 2: In phase two. the children of rural and urban area were given the questionnaires PAQ (both maternal and paternal). The comparison between the scores of rural and urban children was made. It also included the comparison of the scores of PARQ/Control and PAQ.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses of present study are given below:

1. Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire

1. The children of urban area will perceive themselves to be accepted by their mother than children living in rural area.
2. The children of rural area will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their mothers than children living in urban area.
2. The children of urban area will perceive themselves to be accepted by their fathers than children living in rural area.
3. The children of rural area will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their fathers than children living in urban area.
4. The children will perceive themselves to be less accepted by their fathers as compared to mothers in rural area.
5. The children will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their fathers as compared to mothers in rural area.
6. The children will perceive themselves to be less accepted by their fathers as compared to mothers in urban area.
7. The children will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their fathers as compared to mothers in rural area.

2. Parental Authority Questionnaire

The parents of urban area are more authoritative than those of rural area.

a) The mothers of urban area are more authoritative than those of rural area.
b) The fathers of urban area are more authoritative than those of rural area.

The parents of rural area are more authoritarian than those of urban area.

a) The mothers of rural area are more authoritarian than those of urban area.
b) The fathers of rural area are more authoritarian than those of urban area.

The parents of rural area are more permisive than those of urban area.

a) The mothers of rural area are more permisive than those of urban area.
b) The fathers of rural area are more permisive than those of urban area.

The parenting styles of fathers are different from those of mothers in urban area.

Fathers and mothers adopt different parenting styles in rural area.

Population

The population for this study consisted of the children of Islamabad as urban area and those of Bharakou as rural area.

Subjects

Non-probability purposive sampling method was used for this study.

Inclusion Criterion

Male students from class 6 were selected from four institutions, one from an urban and three from a rural area. The students' age ranged from ten to thirteen years. The children were one hundred in number: fifty children were taken from the urban area and fifty from the rural area. The institutions selected were:

a) Islamabad College For Boys, G/6-3, Islamabad in urban area.
b) Islamabad Model school, Kot Hathial, Bhara Kou in rural area.
c) Al-farabi public school, Nai abadi, Bhara Kou in rural area.
d) Baber Public School, Nai abadi, Bhara Kou in rural area.

Instruments

In this research, two questionnaires were used as instrument. The description of each is given as follows:

1. Parental Acceptance-Rejection Control Questionnaire

Rohner, Saaverda, and Granum had originally developed the Parental Acceptance-Rejection questionnaire in 1980. It has been widely used to measure the warmth dimension of parenting style. The Urdu version of PARQ/Control was developed by Dr. Haque in 1981. In this present study, the latest Urdu version (revised 2000) is used.

PARQ/Control is used for the children from 7-13 years of age. It measures children's perception regarding their parent's attitude. There are two parts of the questionnaire, each containing 73 items. Part I is paternal that measures the perceived attitude of father towards their children whereas, part II is maternal that measures the perceived attitude of mothers towards their children.

Scores on the control portion of the PARQ/Control range from a low of 13 (minimum control) to a high of 52 (maximum restrictive control). The control scale was designed in such a way that scores between 13 and 26 conceptually indicate low/lax control; 27 to 39 indicate moderate control; 40 to 45, firm control, and 46 to 52, strict/restrictive control.

PARQ/Control scores may be analyzed in five dimensions; each dimension has its own score. Thus it allows a number of within group comparisons. These dimensions are (1) less parental warmth, (2) parental aggression, (3) parental neglect, (4) parental undifferentiated rejection, and (5) parental control. First dimension contains 20 items, 2nd dimension has 15 items, 3rd contains 15 items, 4th has 10 items and 5th contains 13 items.

2. Parental Authority Questionnaire

Buri (1991) originally developed the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ). It was translated into Urdu by Babree (1997) and basically used to measure the control dimension of parenting style. PAQ is a 5-point Likert type scale designed to measure the permissive, authoritative, authoritarian parenting. PAQ assesses the magnitude and the manner in which authority is exercised. Each item of the questionnaire is stated from the point of view of an individual who evaluates the patterns of authority exercised by his or her parents.

PAQ consists of two parts and each part consists of 30 items. Part I of the scale measures the perceived parental attitude of father towards child, whereas, part II measures perceived attitude of mother towards child.

PAQ is a 5-point Likert Type Scale. Response categories of PAQ are to e scored as; absolutely wrong = 1, wrong to some extent = 2, undecided = 3, right to some extent = 4, and absolutely right = 5.

PAQ yields six separate scores for each participant: mother permissiveness, mother authoritarianism, mother authoritativeness, father permissiveness, father authoritarianism, and father authoritativeness.

3. Family Information Sheet

A family-information-sheet was used to collect social-demo-graphic data from children about their families including, where relevant, information about children's age, level of parental education, language spoken at home, parental occupation, family organization, number of siblings, birth order, monthly income of family, facilities, and the like.

Procedure

Two standardized questionnaires were used in this study. There was no need of pilot study because both of these tests have been used in many researches and results showed that they are reliable and valid to use for a research purpose. The Urdu version of these tests was used for better understanding of questions to the subjects. Ronald P. Rohner, who developed PARQ/Control, was contacted through e-mail for permission to use this questionnaire in present research. After permission, the photocopy of the questionnaire was obtained from a behavior scientist, who used PARQ/Control in her research last year. The questionnaire was then separated pertaining to mother and father perception of children for the convenience of data collection. A hundred copies of PARQ/Control and PAQ were used to collect data for present study. Each questionnaire consists of two parts, maternal and paternal. Instructions about the questionnaires were given to children. The students in school setting filled in the questionnaires.

Data Collection

The heads of the institutions were contacted and proper permission was sought to work with children. Class teacher's cooperation was elicited. The strength of the students in a class is more than fifty in Islamabad, however, in Bhara Kou the number of students are not more than twenty, so three institutions were selected to get the required data. Demographic variables were also collected. PARQ/Contol consists of 146 items and PAQ consists of 60 items. The questionnaires are lengthy so children took more than an hour to complete it. Data collection took more than a month for this research.

Data Analyses

The appropriate statistical analyses were done using SPSS. The results were calculated in four sections, the following statistics are calculated using SPSS:

1. The percentages and the frequencies for Demographic Features.
2. T-Scores for comparing the scores of children of rural and urban areas.
3. The correlation between the scales and subscales.
4. The reliabilities of measures.

Demographics

This part describes the frequency and percentage of the demographic factors.

Table 1
Education of Fathers in Urban and Rural area

Educational Level	Urban Area (N = 50)		Rural Area (N = 50)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Ph.D	2	4.0	-	-
M.A	5	10.0	-	-
M.B.B.S	7	14.0	-	-
B.E	12	24.0	-	-
B.A	15	30.0	-	-
F.A	5	10.0	3	6.0
Matric	4	8.0	14	28.0
Middle	-	-	13	26.0
Primary	-	-	12	24.0
Illiterate	-	-	8	16.0
Total	**50**	**100.0**	**50**	**100.0**

The Table 1 shows the frequencies and percentages of the educational level of fathers living in rural and urban area. The above values indicate the differences of educational level of fathers in rural and urban area. In urban area, highest level of education of fathers is Ph.D. (4%) while in rural area it is F.A (6%). In urban area, most of the fathers are B.A (30 %) but in rural area they are Matric (28%). The lowest level of education among fathers in urban area is Matric (8%). In rural area, 16 percent of fathers are illiterate but no illiterate father is found in urban area. Largest percentages lie in primary, middle and Matric categories (28%, 26%, 24%) in rural area. In urban area, highest percentages are found in M.B.B.S, B.E and B.A categories (14%, 24%, 30%). This analysis clearly shows that the frequencies and the percentages of educational level in rural area's father are significantly lower than urban area.

Table 2
Education of Mothers in Urban and Rural area

Educational Level	Urban Area (N = 50)		Rural Area (N = 50)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
M.A	6	12.0	-	-
M.B.B.S	4	8.0	-	-
B.A	19	38.0	-	-
F.A	11	22.0	-	-
Matric	10	20.0	2	4.0
Middle	-	-	2	4.0
Primary	-	-	8	16.0
Class-IV	-	-	7	14.0
Class-III	-	-	9	18.0
Class-I	-	-	5	10.0
Illiterate	-	-	17	34.0
Total	**50**	**100.0**	**50**	**100.0**

Table 2 indicates the frequencies and percentages of the educational level of mothers in rural and urban area. The above values shows that the highest educational level of mothers in urban area is M.A (12%) while Matric is the highest level in rural area. In rural area, 34 percent of mothers are illiterate and in urban area, no mother is found to be illiterate in urban area. Most of the mothers of urban area are B.A (38%) while in rural area most of them are illiterate. In urban area, 8 percent of mothers are M.B.B.S., and highest percentages are found in Matric, F.A, and B.A (20%, 22%, 38%) categories. Most of mothers in rural area are under primary category. The above comparison clearly shows that level of education of the mothers in rural area is significantly lower than urban area. It is also noted that the mothers are less educated than fathers in both urban and rural area.

Table 3
Occupation of Fathers in Urban and Rural area

Occupation	Urban Area (N = 50)		Rural Area (N = 50)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Professor	7	14.0	-	-
Engineer	11	22.0	-	-
Doctor	7	14.0	-	-
Businessman	10	20.0	-	-
Govt. officer	6	12.0	-	-
Clerk	7	14.0	11	22.0
Driver	2	4.0	9	18.0
Soldier	-	-	6	12.0
Shopkeeper	-	-	10	20.0
Trader	-	-	5	10.0
Labourer	-	-	4	8.0
Cook	-	-	2	4.0
Farmer	-	-	3	6.0
Total	**50**	**100.0**	**50**	**100.0**

Table 3 shows the frequencies and percentages of occupation of fathers in rural and urban area. It indicates clearly the differences in the occupations of fathers in rural and urban areas. In urban area, 14 percent of fathers are professors, 22 percent of fathers are engineer, 14 percent are doctors, 20 percent are businessman, and 12 percent are government officers while no father of rural area has these occupations. Clerk and driver are the common occupation among fathers of rural and urban area, but their percentages are 14% and 4% in urban area, and, 22% and 18% in rural area respectively. Greatest number of fathers in urban area belongs to engineering profession (22%) but in rural area, most of the fathers are clerks (22%). The other highest percentages are found in businessmen (20%) in urban area and shopkeepers (20%) in rural area. It is interesting to note here that the percentages of professors, doctors and clerks are same in urban area (14% each). The above comparison indicates that the fathers of urban area are highly paid as compared to rural area.

Table 4

Occupation of Mothers in Urban and Rural area

Occupation	Urban Area (N = 50)		Rural Area (N = 50)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Doctor	4	8.0	-	-
Teacher	5	10.0	1	2.0
Social worker	2	4.0	-	-
Homeo. Doctor	2	4.0	-	-
House wife	37	74.0	49	98.0
Total	**50**	**100.0**	**50**	**100.0**

Table 4 shows the frequencies and percentages of the occupation of mothers in urban and rural area. It is interesting to note that greatest numbers of mothers are housewives in both urban and rural areas. The percentage of housewife is 74 in urban area and 98 in rural area. In urban area, 10 percentage of mothers are teachers while 2 percent teacher are in rural area. Second highest percentage is of teachers in urban area. There are only 8 percent doctors in urban area. The percentages of social worker and homeopathic doctor are equal in urban area (4% each). Above analysis indicate that there is a far difference in the occupations of mothers in rural and urban areas. It can be concluded from table 3 and 4 that most of the mothers in urban and rural area are housewives and fathers are working outside the homes.

T-Tests Results of PARQ/Control and PAQ

T-tests were computed to determine the significance values to check the hypotheses of the study. Tabulated findings are presented in the following tables.

- **Maternal and paternal PARQ/Control**

Table 5

Comparison between rural and urban children on the four dimensions of maternal acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Dimension of acceptance & rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Rural children (N = 50)		Urban children (N = 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Less Warmth/Affection	33.52	7.50	31.12	8.85	.147
Aggression/Hostility	29.76	6.84	23.80	4.63	.0001
Neglect/Indifference	29.82	6.47	20.58	4.01	.0001
Rejection/Undifferent	22.38	3.33	20.34	2.74	.001
Total PARQ	**115.48**	**17.80**	**95.84**	**14.65**	**.0001**

Table 5 shows the means, standard deviations and significance values on the rural and urban children's perception of maternal acceptance, and rejection. The findings indicate that there are significant differences in most of the scales of PARQ/Control.

Hypothesis testing

1. The children of urban area will perceive themselves to be more accepted by their mothers than children living in rural area.

The values from the table indicate that there are clear differences in the means of the score of rural and urban children on four subcales of maternal PARQ/Control, while the significance (p .147) on Less warmth scale shows that there is not significant difference between the children of rural and urban area in the perception of receiving warmth from their mothers. However, the means indicate that urban children perceive more warmth than urban children by their mothers.

There are significant differences in the means scores of rural and urban children on the subscales of Aggression(p .0001), Neglect (p .0001), and Undifferentiated rejection (p .001) show that urban children perceive less maternal aggression, undifferentiated rejection and neglect than the children living in rural area.

The significance value (p .0001) indicates that the difference in the means of total scores of rural and urban children is statistically significant. It supports the hypothesis that children of urban area will perceive themselves to be more accepted than children living in rural area.

Table 6

Comparison between rural and urban children on the control dimension of maternal acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Control dimension (as measured by PARQ/C)	Rural children (N = 50)		Urban children (N = 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Control	38.34	3.19	37.06	3.32	.05

Hypothesis testing

2. The children of rural area will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their mothers than children living in urban area.

Regarding the expecting finding that rural children will perceive greater maternal control than urban children is also supported. In table, the significance value (p .05) on control indicate that rural children have perceived their mother as more controlling than children living in urban area.

Table 7

Comparison between rural and urban children on the four dimensions of paternal acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Dimension of acceptance & rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Rural children (N = 50) M	SD	Urban children (N = 50) M	SD	Significance
Less Warmth/Affection	35.60	10.51	29.34	8.13	.001
Aggression/Hostility	27.20	3.58	25.30	7.50	.109
Neglect/Indifference	28.02	7.56	20.78	5.81	.0001
Rejection/Un-different	20.02	4.02	19.16	2.69	.212
Total PARQ	**110.84**	**19.03**	**94.58**	**15.28**	**.0001**

Table 7 shows the means, standard deviations and significance values on the rural and urban children's perception of paternal acceptance, and rejection.

Hypothesis testing

3. The children of urban area will perceive themselves to be more accepted by their fathers than children living in rural area.

The values from the above table indicate that there are clear differences in the means of the scores of rural and urban children on two subscales of paternal PARQ. These subscales are less warmth (p .001), and neglect (p .0001). It reveals that urban children perceive more paternal warmth than rural children. Rural children perceive that they are more neglected by their fathers than children living in urban area.

The significant values of the aggression (p .109) and rejection (p .212) reveal that there is not statistically significant difference between the children of urban and rural areas on these subscales. However the means show that scores of urban children are less than rural children's scores. So the perception of children of both areas about the rejection and aggression by their fathers is almost equal.

It is interesting to note that the difference between the means of total score is statistically significant (p .0001). Therefore, the hypothesis 3 is accepted and the

children of urban area perceive themselves as more accepted by their fathers than children living in rural area.

Table 8

Comparison between rural and urban children on the control dimension of paternal acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Control dimension (as measured by PARQ/C)	Rural children (N = 50)		Urban children (N = 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Control	39.66	1.55	34.70	5.03	.0001

Hypothesis testing

4. The children of rural area will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their fathers than children living in urban area.

Table 8 shows that difference between the rural and urban children in the perception of paternal control is statistically significant (p .0001). It supports the above hypothesis that rural children perceive their fathers as more controlling than fathers of children living in urban area.

Table 9

Comparison between fathers and mothers of rural area on the four dimensions of parental acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Dimension of acceptance & rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Mother (N = 50)		Father (N = 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Less Warmth / Affection	33.52	7.50	35.60	10.51	.258
Aggression/Hostility	29.76	6.84	27.20	3.58	.021
Neglect/Indifference	29.82	6.47	28.02	7.56	.204
Rejection/Undifferent	22.38	3.33	20.02	4.02	.002
Total PARQ	**115.48**	**17.80**	**110.84**	**19.03**	**.211**

Table 9 shows the means, standard deviations and significance values on the rural children's perception of maternal and paternal acceptance, rejection and control. The scores show that there are clear differences in means of rural children on three subscales.

Hypothesis testing

5. The children will perceive themselves to be less accepted by their fathers as compared to mothers in rural area.

The values from table indicate that there are statitically significant difference on the subscales of aggression (p .021), and rejection (p .002). it shows that the children of rural area perceive their fathes as more aggressive and rejected than mothers.

The significane value (p .258) reveals that rural children receive almost equal warmth from their fathers and mothers. Because the difference in the means of scores is not statistically significant. There is another unsignificant value on neglect (p .204), which does not support the hypothesis that rural children perceive their fathers as more neglected than mothers.

There is a minor difference on the means of total scores so it is not statitically significant (p .211). This shows that total score rejects the 5th hypothesis . It reveals that children of rural area receive equal acceptance from their fathers and mothers.

Table 10

Comparison between fathers and mothers of rural area on the control dimension of parental acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Control dimension (as measured by PARQ/C)	Mother (N = 50)		Father (N = 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Control	38.34	3.19	39.66	1.55	.01

Hypothesis testing

6. The children will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their fathers as compared to mothers in rural area.

Regarding the 6th hypothesis, the significance (p .01) in table 17 shows that hypothesis is supported and rural children perceived their fathers as more controlling than mothers.

Table 11
Comparison between fathers and mothers of urban area on the four dimensions of parental acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Dimension of acceptance & rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Mother (N = 50)		Father (N = 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Less Warmth/Affection	31.12	8.85	29.34	8.13	.298
Aggression/Hostility	23.80	4.63	25.30	7.50	.232
Neglect/Indifference	20.58	4.01	20.78	5.81	.842
Rejection/Undifferent	20.34	2.74	19.16	2.69	.032
Total PARQ	**95.84**	**14.65**	**94.58**	**15.28**	**.675**

Table 11 shows the means, standard deviations and significance values on the urban children's perception of maternal and paternal acceptance, and rejection. The scores show that there are significant differences in means of rural children on only two subscales.

Hypothesis testing

7. The children will perceive themselves to be less accepted by their fathers as compared to mothers in urban area.

The statitically significant value on rejection (p .032) indicates that urban children perceive less paternal undifferentiated rejection. The values on less warmth (p .298), aggression (p .232), and neglect (p .842) reveals that urban children's perception of father and mother about their warmth, aggression and neglect is almost same. The difference in the means of total scores is also un significant (p .675), therefore the above hypothesis is rejected as urban children have similar perception of their parents regarded their acceptance and rejection.

Table 12
Comparison between fathers and mothers of urban area on the control dimension of parental acceptance and rejection/control (as measured by PARQ/C)

Control dimension (as measured by PARQ/C)	Mother (N= 50)		Father (N= 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Control	37.06	3.32	34.70	5.03	.007

Hypothesis testing

8. The children will perceive themselves to be more controlled by their fathers as compared to mothers in urban area.

The significance value (p .007) shows that differences in the means is statistically significant. But the mean of the mother's scores (u = 37.06) is higher than the mean of father's scores (u = 34.70). These values indicates that children perceive their mothers as more controlling than fathers in urban area. Thus rejecting the above hypothesis.

- **Maternal and Paternal PAQ**

Table 13
Comparison of rural and urban mothers' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Mother (N = 50)		Urban Mother (N = 50)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Authoritative	39.54	5.20	43.76	4.83	-4.28	.0001

The above table shows the means, standard deviations, t and significant value of rural and urban mothers' authoritative parenting style.

Hypothesis testing

9-a. The mothers of urban area are more authoritative than rural area.

If the results mentioned in table is compared with the hypothesis. It becomes clear that there is significant difference in the means of rural and urban mothers' scores (p .0001). Therefore hypothesis 9a is proved that children of urban area perceive their mothers as more authoritative than children living in rural area.

Table 14
Comparison of rural and urban fathers' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Father (N = 50)		Urban Father (N = 50)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Authoritative	34.24	6.13	44.66	3.75	-10.24	.0001

The table 14 indicates the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of rural and urban fathers' authoritativeness as measured by Paternal Authority Questionnaire.

Hypothesis testing

9-b. The fathers of urban area are more authoritative than rural area.

The significance value (*p* .0001) shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of rural and urban children' scores. It reveals that the children of urban area perceive their fathers as more authoritative than children living in rural area. This finding supports the above hypothesis.

Table 15

Comparison of rural and urban parents' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Parent (N = 100)		Urban Parent (N = 100)		*t*	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Authoritative	73.86	8.76	88.54	8.01	-8.74	.0001

Above Table shows the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of the rural and urban parents' authoritative scores.

Hypothesis testing

9. The parents of urban area are more authoritative than rural area.

Regarding the 9th hypothesis, the significance value (*p* .0001) shows that hypothesis is supported and urban children perceive their parents as more authoritative than children living in rural area. Sub-hypotheses 9a and 9b are also accepted. Hence above hypothesis is proved.

Table 16

Comparison of rural and urban mothers' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Mother (N = 50)		Urban Mother (N = 50)		*t*	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Authoritarian	38.16	4.95	39.78	3.01	-1.97	.051

Table 16 shows the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of the rural and urban children's perception of Maternal authority as measured by PAQ.

Hypothesis testing

10a. The mothers of rural area are more authoritarian than urban area.

The significant value (*p* .051) show that there is a significant difference between the means of rural and urban mothers. However, the mean values indicate that urban mother (*u* = 39.78) have greater mean than rural mother (*u*=38.16). It does not support the above hypothesis. Therefore it reveals that mothers of urban children are more authoritarian than those of mothers living in rural area.

Table 17

Comparison of rural and urban fathers' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Father (N = 50) M	SD	Urban Father (N = 50) M	SD	*t*	Sig.
Authoritarian	38.50	5.91	38.64	4.54	-.133	.895

The above table indicates the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of rural and urban fathers' authoritarianism as measured by Paternal Authority Questionnaire.

Hypothesis testing

10b. The fathers of rural area are more authoritarian than urban area.

The value (*p* .895) indicates that there is not significant difference between the means of fathers living in rural and urban areas. Therefore the above hypothesis is rejected. It reveals those children of rural and urban areas have same perception about authoritarianism of their fathers.

Table 18

Comparison of rural and urban parents' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Parent (N = 100) M	SD	Urban Parent (N = 100) M	SD	*t*	Sig.
Authoritarian	76.52	9.44	78.40	6.56	-1.15	.251

Table shows the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of the rural and urban parents' authoritarian scores.

Hypothesis testing

10. The parents of rural area are more authoritarian than urban area.

The significant (p .251) indicates that it is statistically insignificant to accept the above hypothesis. As it does not support the hypothesis that parents of rural area are more authoritarian than urban area. It is concluded that children of rural and urban area have almost equal perception about the authoritarianism of their fathers. The sub-hypotheses 10a and 10b are also rejected.

Table 19
Comparison of rural and urban mothers' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Mother (N = 50)		Urban Mother (N = 50)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Permissive	29.92	7.16	22.68	7.39	5.02	.0001

Above Table shows the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of the rural and urban children's perception of maternal authority as measured by PAQ.

Hypothesis testing

11a. The mothers of rural area are more permissive than urban area.

The significant value (p .0001) indicates that the difference in the means of rural and urban mother is statistically significant. Therefore the above hypothesis is accepted. It reveals that the children of rural area perceive their mothers as more permissive than children living in urban area.

Table 20
Comparison of rural and urban fathers' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Father (N = 50)		Urban Father (N = 50)		t	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Permissive	29.40	7.33	22.36	6.60	5.04	.0001

The above table indicates the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of rural and urban fathers' permissiveness as measured by Paternal Authority Questionnaire.

Hypothesis testing

11b. The fathers of rural area are more permisive than urban area.

The differences in the means of rural and urban fathers' score is statistically significant (p .0001). it reveals that the children of rural area perceive their fathers as more permissive than children living in urban area. thus supporting the hypothesis 11b.

Table 21
Comparison of rural and urban parents' parenting style perceived by their children (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Style (as measured by PAQ)	Rural Parent (N = 100) M	SD	Urban Parent (N = 100) M	SD	*t*	Sig.
Permissive	59.32	13.61	45.26	13.86	5.11	.0001

Table 21 shows the means, standard deviations, t and significance value of the rural and urban parents' permissive scores.

Hypothesis testing

11. The parents of rural area are more permisive than urban area.

The significance value (p .0001) indicates that there is a significant difference between the means of rural and urban children's perception of their parents' permissiveness. Therefore, it supports the above hypothesis. Sub-hypotheses 11a & 11b are also proved it as shown by the results of table 26 & 27. 11th hypothesis is accepted that children of rural area perceive their parents as more permissive than children living in urban area.

Table 22
Comparison between parenting styles of mothers and fathers in urban area (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Styles (as measured by PAQ)	Mother (N = 50) M	SD	Father (N = 50) M	SD	Significance
Permissive	22.90	7.35	22.36	6.60	.700
Authoritative	43.88	4.73	44.66	3.75	.364
Authoritarian	39.76	3.02	38.64	4.54	.150
Total	**106.54**	**6.96**	**105.66**	**8.74**	**.579**

Table 22 shows the means, standard deviations and significance values of mothers and fathers of urban area as measured by Parental Authority Questionnaire.

Hypothesis testing

12. The parenting styles of fathers are different from mothers in urban area.

The significant values on permissive (*p* .700), authoritative (*p*. 364), and authoritarian (*p* .150) subscales indicates that there is no difference in the perception of children about the parenting styles of mothers and fathers. Therefore, children perceive their mother and father as having almost equal permissive, authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles in urban area. The significance (*p* .579) of total score also rejects the above hypothesis.

Table 23
Comparison between parenting styles of mothers and fathers in rural area (as measured by PAQ)

Perceived Parenting Styles (as measured by PAQ)	Mother (N = 50)		Father (N = 50)		Significance
	M	SD	M	SD	
Permissive	29.92	7.16	29.40	7.33	.721
Authoritative	39.62	5.29	34.24	6.13	.0001
Authoritarian	38.02	5.03	38.50	5.91	.663
Total	**107.56**	**9.88**	**102.14**	**12.50**	**.018**

Above table indicates the means, standard deviations, and significance values of rural children' perception of their mothers and fathers parenting style.

Hypothesis testing

13. Fathers and mothers adopt different parenting styles in rural area.

Regarding the 13th hypothesis, the significance (*p* .721) and (*p* .663) shows that hypothesis is not supported and parents adopt same permissivenes and authoritarianism in rural area. however, the significance (*p* .0001) indicates that mothers of rural area are more authoritative than fathers.

It is interesting to note here that the differences in the means of total scores is satitically significant (*p* .01). therefore above hypoyhesis is accepted that children of rural area perceive that the parenting styles of fathers and mothers are different from each other.

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of the demographic variables showed that fathers of urban area were educated and highly paid. Whereas, fathers living in rural area were poorly educated and employed in low-income jobs. In urban area, the level of mothers' education was upto M.A but it was upto matric in rural area. It also revealed that mothers were less educated and their employment rate was significantly lower than fathers. These findings have socio-cultural reasons because in Pakistan, less attention is paid to the education of female child and working women are usually discouraged. Results indicated that ages of rural students were greater than those of urban students in 6^{th} class. The reason is that urban parents stress more on the education their children. It is also found that the children of rural area have more siblings as compared to their counterparts in urban area. Nuclear family system was more prevalent in urban area. It was also observed that there were significant differences in availability of facilities to the people between Bhara kou and Islamabad. In rural area, none of the children have water and sui gas facility at home. The comparison of rural and urban areas clearly indicated that people of Bhara kou have poor resources and cannot maintain a good standard of life and they belongs to lower socioeconomic status, whereas, in Islamabad the standard of living is quite high and children in this study belongs to middle socioeconomic class. It is concluded that rural and urban children are differentiated on the basis of their socioeconomic status, parental education, parental occupation, and availability of resources.

The results overall indicated that there were a clear difference between rural and urban children on the dimensions of perceived parenting styles and parental acceptance, rejection and control. However there are no direct researches done on this topic before to compare but there are researches that studied the relationship of socioeconomic status and parenting styles. Present research findings showed that children of urban area perceived themselves to be more accepted by their mothers and fathers than children living in rural area. It also revealed that children of rural area perceive more parental aggression, neglect and rejection as compared to the urban children. These findings are linked with the Skinner et al. (1992) results, which studied the relationship of economic hardship with the adolescent aggression in a middle-class rural sample. Economic hardship increases husband hostility and negative behavior towards their spouses. Financial difficulty is related to irritable parenting and parent's irritable responses to discipline situations evoke expression of aggression in their adolescent. Shumow, Vandell, and Posner (1998) also reported that lower family income was associated with greater parental harshness in third and fifth graders. In present study, rural children belongs to a lower socioeconomic class, therefore their parents have high level of economic pressure.

Hypotheses 2 and 4 were also supported by the research findings. Therefore it can be concluded that children of rural area perceived themselves to be more controlled by their parents than those of children living in urban area. These results goes with the McLoyd's (1990) study, who found that poor mothers value obedience more, are less likely to use reasoning, and more likely to use physical punishment as a means of disciplining and controlling the child. McLoyd also showed that in both black and non-black families poor parents who are supportive but firm and consistent disciplinarians are more likely to have children who function well socio-emotionally and academically than those who are punitive, power assertive, and erratic. Kagan and his colleagues (1978) also found that working-class mothers uttered a prohibition e.g., "no, don't" every five minutes when interacting with their preschool children at home, whereas middle-class mothers restrained their children only about half as often.

Another focus of the study was to find out differences and to compare the scores of fathers and mothers of rural and urban area. The results however did not show much significant differences between the perception of mothers and fathers' acceptance and rejection in the children of both areas. So it is concluded that the children of rural and urban areas have almost same perception about their parents' attitude towards them.

There are interesting findings regarding the comparison of control between mothers and fathers. In rural area, the children perceived that their fathers are more controlling than mothers, whereas, children perceived themselves to be more controlled by their mothers as compared to fathers in urban area. These results are in accordance with the findings of Kohen & Scholer (1983) that Working class fathers are more willing to use physical punishment to demand obedience, conformity. Middle class fathers, whose work is more likely to be self-directed, generally value and promote self-control, initiative, and independence in their children.

The separate and combined scores of mothers and fathers' authoritativeness supported the hypothesis 7, and sub-hypotheses 7a and 7b. It indicated that parents of urban area were more authoritative than those of urban area. These findings of PAQ positively correlated with the results of PARQ that children of urban area perceived themselves to be more accepted by their parents as compared to children living in rural area. It may be related to Bluestone and Tamis-LeMonda (1999) findings that middle SES mothers engaged in more "child-oriented approaches to discipline" (p. 890), or authoritative parenting. Rosier and Corsaro (1993) also found that working-class parents tend to stress conformity and behavioral rules

(typical of authoritarian parents), while middle- and upper-class parents emphasized self-direction (typical of authoritative parents).

Maccoby (1980) founds that Lower SES parents are more power-assertive, authoritarian, and controlling. They use more physical punishment. Higher SES parents are more democratic and either permissive or authoritative. These results are not going with the present findings that rural and urban children have minor differences in their perception of parental authoritarianism. This difference was not statistically significant, so it can be concluded that rural and urban children perceive their parents as almost equal authoritarian regardless of the differences in their socioeconomic status.

Findings of this study supported the hypotheses that rural parents are more permissive than urban parents. These results have linked with a research based on a longer report by Chao and Willms (1998), employed data from the National Longitudinal Study of Children and Youth (NLSCY) and examined the relationships among parenting styles, family socioeconomic status (SES), and childhood cognitive and behavioural outcomes. One of the assumptions underlying the "culture of poverty" thesis is that children of poor parents have worse schooling outcomes because of the way they are parented. The findings indicates that parents with fewer resources tend to be authoritarian or permissive, and their style of parenting contributes to the difficulties their children often experience.

The scores of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) indicated that children living in urban area perceived that the parenting style of mothers and fathers are same. But it is found that there is a statistically significant difference in the perception of children living in rural area about the parenting style of fathers and mothers. This goes opposite to the result of hypothesis 7 based on PARQ which shows that rural children have similar perception of their parents regarded their acceptance and rejection. However, there is a similarity between the results of PAQ and PARQ in the perception of children of urban area. One reason functioning behind these results might be the less understanding of 6^{th} class children living in rural area about the discrimination between their parents' behavior.

The parental acceptance-rejection questionnaire was designed in a way to produce an overall measure of perceived acceptance-rejection ranging from a low of 60 (maximum perceived acceptance) to a high of 240 (maximum perceived rejection). Scores at or above 150 on the acceptance-rejection portion reveals conceptually the experience of significantly more parents' rejection than

acceptance. Scores between 140 and 149 reveal that youth experience serious rejection but not necessarily more overall rejection than acceptance. On the other hand, scores between 60 and 120 reveal the perception of substantial parental love. All the PARQ scores of rural and urban children fell in this category. Therefore it is concluded that both group of children living in rural and urban area receive substantial parental love.

Scores on the control portion of the PARQ/Control range from a low of 13 (minimum control) to a high of 52 (maximum restrictive control). The control scale was designed in such a way that scores between 13 and 26 conceptually indicate low/lax control; 27 to 39 indicate moderate control; 40 to 45, firm control, and 46 to 52, strict/restrictive control. In present study, all the scores of rural and urban children ranges from 34 to 39.66 indicate that they are controlled moderately by their parents.

Parental acceptance-rejection and control questionnaire (PARQ/ Control) was used in a research conducted by KYOUNGHO KIM and RONALD P. ROHNER (2002) on Korean American adolescent. The scores on PARQ/Control were used to create Baumrind's parenting style categories as follows: PARQ scores at or above 140 (revealing considerable perceived rejection), plus control scores between 46 and 52 (revealing the experience of strict/restrictive control) were coded *authoritarian;* PARQ scores at or below120 (revealing considerable perceived acceptance), plus control scores between 40 and 45 (revealing the experience of firm control), were coded *authoritative;* PARQ scores at or below120 and control scores between 13 and 26 (revealing low/lax control) were coded *permissive*; and PARQ scores at or above 140 and control scores between 13 and 26 were coded *rejecting/neglecting*.

In present findings, the total mean PARQ score of rural mother was 115.48 and control mean score was 38.34; the total mean PARQ score of urban mother was 95.84 and control mean score was 37.06; the total mean PARQ score of rural father was 110.84 and control mean score was 39.66; and the total mean PARQ score of urban father was 94.58 and control mean score was 34.70. All these values showed that the parents of both groups i.e., children of rural and urban areas seemed to fall in the authoritative category of parenting style and they cannot fall in authoritarian style category. Whereas, the results of PAQ indicated that urban parents are more authoritative than rural parents and children perceive them as applying same authoritarian style in rural and urban area.

REFERENCES

Kohn, M.L. (1969). *Class and Conformity: A Study in Values*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey.

1998-*District Census Report of Islamabad, Population Census Organization,* Statistics Division, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad, 1999.

Awan, A. (2000). *Perceived Parenting Styles and its Relationship with the Locus of Control in Children.* Unpublished M.Phill thesis. Islamabad: National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University.

Rohner, R. P. (2001). *Parental Acceptance-Rejection Bibliography* [on-line]. http://vm.uconn.edu/~rohner.

Babree, S. (1997). *Aggressive and Nonaggressive Children's Perceptions of Parental Acceptance-Rejection and Control*. Unpublished M.Phil thesis, National Institute of psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad.

Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental authority questionnaire. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 57(1), 110-119.

Skinner, M. L., Elder, G. H., & Conger, R. D. (1992). *Linking Economic Hardship to Adolescent Aggression*. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 21(3), 259-276.

McLoyd, V.C. (1990). *The Impact of Economic Hardship on Black Families and Children*: Psychological Distress, Parenting and Socioemotional Development. Child Development, 61, 311-346.

Kohn, M.L. & Schooler, C. (1973). *Occupation Experience and Psychological Functioning: An Assessment of Reciprocal Effects*. American Sociological Review, 38, 97-118.

Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). *Socialization in the Context of the Family*: Parent-child interaction. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.) & E. M. Hetherington (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 4. Socialization, personality, and social development* (4th ed., pp. 1-101). New York: Wiley.

PERSONALITIES

DR. MAHMUD HUSSAIN KHAN

An eminent educationist

By
Dr. Mahmudur Rahman

Dr. Mahmud Hussain Khan is generally known as an eminent educationist who served the University of Karachi in various capacities, i.e., professor, dean and finally as its vice chancellor. But very few of us are aware of his diverse qualities. He was a good translator who during 1930s rendered Rousseau's most important work *Social Contract* into Urdu, and thus introduced this French philosophical writer to us, whose influence exerted on political opinion in many countries for nearly two hundred years. During the same decade, Doctor Hussain translated into Urdu *The Prince,* a masterpiece of Machiavelli, the world-famed author of Italy.

Mahmud Hussain Khan was born on July 15, 1907 at Qaimgang, a small town in the United Provinces (UP), India. His elder brother, Dr. Zakir Hussain, emerged as the first Muslim economist in undivided India, who worked as vice chancellor of Jamia Millia, Delhi and Aligarh University. Later on, he rose to the rank of the President of India. Dr. Mahmud's second brother, Dr. Yusuf Hussain Khan earned fame in literature through his descriptive book *Rooh-i-Iqbal,* first of its kind on Allama Iqbal's thought. He also served as vice chancellor of Jamia Millia, Delhi.

Dr. Mahmud Hussain Khan received his early education at Etawah. Later on, he was admitted to Aligarh University. When Maulana Muhammad Ali Jauhar shifted Jamia Millia from Aligarh to Delhi in 1925, and Dr. Zakir Hussain was appointed as its vice chancellor, Mahmud Hussain also left Syed's institution and took admission in Jamia. On completing college education, he proceeded to Heidelberg (West Germany). In 1932, he received the degree of Ph.D in the discipline of history.

On his return in 1933, Dr. Mahmud started his career as a teacher in the University of Dhaka. There, he rose to the rank of professor and head of the department of history. After the emergence of Pakistan, he was picked up for the government service in 1949. He served as deputy minister, minister of state and finally as cabinet minister. During a 3-year attachment with the Federal Government, Dr. Mahmud Hussain served in various ministries such as Interior,

Foreign Affairs, Kashmir Affairs and Education. In 1953, he joined the University of Karachi as professor of history. He also worked as dean faculty of Arts. In 1960, he was selected for the post of vice chancellor at Dhaka University. In 1964, he went abroad and worked as visiting professor at the universities of Heidelberg and Columbia till 1965. In 1964, Dr. Mahmud Hussain was awarded honorary degree of D. Litt in USA. In 1973, he was designated as vice chancellor of Karachi University which post he held till his death.

His most comprehensive contribution is Jamia Taleem-i-Milli which he founded at Malir (Karachi) on October 29, 1952. It was established on the pattern of Maulana Muhammad Ali Jauhar's institution in Delhi. Under its auspices, primary and secondary schools, degree college, training institute and a splendid library was established. He also established a publishing house and managed to print dozens of books on the subject of adult education. Here it may be pointed out that Dr. Mahmud Hussain was a pioneer in adult education. He managed to publish lot of books for those adult persons who have just started to read. Thus, he rendered a great service to the nation.

Dr. Mahmud Hussain was very fond of reading books. He founded the Pakistan Library Association in 1957. It was due to his enormous efforts that the first post-graduate Library School was opened in Karachi. As such, it may not be wrong to say that the art of librarianship in Pakistan was duly initiated and developed by this educationist. He was so keen to develop this art that whichever books he had bought in and brought from various countries of the world, were donated to library of Jamia Talim Milli. During my 4-year association with this institution, I got an excellent opportunity to go through such valuable books which are not traceable in other libraries of Pakistan. It was the unique idea of Dr. Mahmud Hussain that at the Jamia campus, he constructed a separate building for library which has millions of books on each and every subject along with all facilities for the readers.

Dr. Mahmud Hussain was the author of several books. His *Education and Culture* and *of Libraries and Librarian* are considered to be the most thought provoking work. He was the chairman of Pakistan History Board, and had managed to publish *A Short History of Hind-Pakistan* in 1950. The primary purpose of this work was a correct and scientific presentation of the newly born country, Pakistan.

From his school-age, Dr. Mahmud Hussain had developed his taste to bring out magazine. While a student of Jamia Millia, Delhi, he used to compile a hand-written magazine *Jauhar* which was named after the founder of this

institution. Thereafter, this journal got much publicity through its two special issues on Maulana Mohammad Ali Jauhar and Allama Iqbal. The immense impact of these two prominent figures of the subcontinent had moulded the life of Dr. Mahmud Hussain.

While working on the table of vice chancellor of Karachi University, this educationist, historian, author, orator and organizer of libraries died of hear failure on 10th of April, 1975. On the sad demise, Begum Rana Liaquat Ali Khan, then the Governor of Sindh and Chancellor of Karachi University, said in her condolence message:

> "Dr. Mahmud Hussain has rendered most valuable services in the field of education. His contributions towards eliminating illiteracy from the country would always be remembered. Among his books, one is Fatah-ul-Mujahedeen, an English renderation from a Persian books based on the military techniques and strategies of Tipu Sultan. Its foreword has been written by Quaid-i-Millat Liaquat Ali Khan"

The life of Dr. Mahmud Hussain appears to be a role-model for the young generation of Pakistan. Our students would be benefited a lot from this dignified personality who served the newly-born country with much passion and sense of duty.

BOOK REVIEW

A UNIQUE PUBLICATION FOR THE FIRST TIME

Reviewed By
Dr. Mahmudur Rahman

Title: Atlas of the Holy Qur'an
Compiler: Dr. Shauqi Abu Khalil
Pages: 392
Publisher: Darussalam,
50, Lower Mall,
Lahore.

The Holy Qur'an is the marvelous act of Almighty Allah. It is indeed a composite Book of miracle comprising a variety of aspects, each of which is a standing and even challenging miracle in itself. Its language, its authenticity, the comprehensiveness of its guidance to the humanity for all times and in all aspects of life, the encompassing legality of its excellent contents, and an in-depth effects upon its listeners of whatever mental caliber – are all the more miracle, unparalleled, unique and impressive.

We, as Muslims, believe the Holy Qur'an to be the last and the most complete guide for men, and to attain spiritual elevation and to acquaint himself with the sole aim of life, i.e., to be a truly faithful servant of Allah. And in order that the man may lead his life as to be reckoned among God's faithful servants, the Holy Qur'an contains necessary rules of guidance, following which the desired goal and intented status can be attained and external salvation gained.

It is exclusively the beauty of the Holy Qur'an that whatever has been ordained, convincing arguments have also been gives therein in support and justification thereof. The Holy Qur'an leaves no room for any external advocacy in proof of the admissibility and rationality of its injunctions. It is exceptionally the characteristic of the Holy Qur'an alone that it has elaborated a number of topics. Frequent mention has been made of different tribes who emerged on the earth in various times, and were destined to vanish from surface due to ill-doings and infidelity.

In the Holy Qur'an, we find an in-depth narration about various prophets. Mention has been made in detail about Hazrat Adam (A.S), and all other Messengers of Allah who came to guide their nations in different times. In this Holy Book, we find in detail the name of numerous historical places. And the Last

Prophet of Allah, on whom the Holy Qur'an was revealed, has been mentioned with much respect and regards. Details of his mission have been given frequently.

This Holy Book numerously elaborates the historical sites which provide a penerating lesson to the readers. How the people of Noah (A.S) were drowned; in which way the unbelievers at the time of Hund's (A.S) prophethood were destroyed; in what shape the Thamud people were got to be punished and rooted out eternally from the surface of the earth. Verily, in description of such stories, there appears to be a sign.

The Holy Qur'an narrates the episodes of *Ashab-e-Kahaf* and *Ashab-e-Feel*. These narrations light the lamp of Faith in our hearts. This Holy Book is indeed a History of Islam. All events have been described in various verses and chapters. In short, every thing is there in this Holy Book which happens to be a *Light House* for all of us.

The book under review, entitled as *Atlas of the Qur'an*, is a unique publication for the first time. It is an authentic collection of the Qur'anic informations, having relevant maps, tables and pictures. All the places, nations, landmarks, etc.., duly mentioned in the Holy Qur'an, have been quoted in this book in the light of relevant verses and even with necessary charts, maps, tables.

This book tells us as to how many times Hazrat Adam (A.S) or any other Prophet has been mentioned in the Qur'an, and in which *Surah, Aayet and Para*, facts about each of them have been given. Moreover, maps, pictures, charts pertaining to different cities, rivers, mountains, deserts, caravan-routes have immensely increased the validity of this Atlas. It looks by all means an encyclopaedia.

The *Atlas of the Qur'an* was originally compiled in Arabic by a prominent research scholar of geography and an Arabian renowned figure, Dr. Shauqi Abu Khalil. The credit to get this book translated into English and Urdu goes to the owner of world-famed Darussalam, Mr. Abdul Malik Mujahid. He also undertook the task of publishing the translated version in most decent way. The whole text is adorned with coloured maps, charts, photos, tables, etc. Even the Quranic verses and their English meanings have been printed in different colours so as to highlights timulate the significance of each of them. The paper used for the printing of the book is of very high quality. The hard-bound edition is itself a symbol of high standard of publication, indeed.

By all counts, this Atlas of the Qur'an appears to be a unique presentation, having vivid informations and thoughtful descriptions. Mr. Mujahid deserves to be congratulated for bringing out a unique publication.

BOOK REVIEW

POETRY OF A PLEASANT DREAM

Title:	Terey Hi Khab Mein Rahna
Author:	Aziz Ahsan
Pages:	160
Price:	Rs.100/-
Publication:	Bazm-e-Takhleeq-e-Adab, Karachi.
Distributor:	Fazli Book, Super Market, Urdu Bazar, Karachi

According to the established critics, the poetry is an art work, being accomplished by any poet in metrical form. But, some scholars think it to be more than that. This literary genre is actually an elevated and elegant expression of thought – the inner treasury of a talented poet. Moreover, the verse–writer is called as one, duly possessing high powers of expression. This quality adorns the poet with the title of historian, who depicts the society with all its ins and outs.

Broadly speaking, poetry is a most dignified, much delicious and extraordinary divine. It touches the heart of the reader and broadens the canvas of his imagination. By all means, poetry is a picture which reflects the life not even of the poet, but of the reader as well. It is because of this characteristic that everyone thinks the poetic lines as his own life – scenario.

This thinking of a common reader comes true while going through the poetical collection of Aziz Ahsan. Being a highly qualified person, having a vast experience of journalism and a deep sense of the prevailing society, the poet portraits the true picture of life he looks all around. His verses vibrates with the true emotion Aziz Ahsan is engulfed with.

Although he has adopted the ghazal-writing-form, a traditional genre of Urdu poetry, but the thought, the vision and the symbol he has presented therein are unique one. He has not followed any literary school, but advented his own one with new concept of life lingering in the modern age. Even his poetry depicts other genres in excellent way.

Being as old as Pakistan, Aziz Ahsan has presented what he has seen in 70s and thereafter. Thus, his poetry becomes a written record of the events emerged during the last leg of the 20th century. Some verses highlight the facts which I have just pointed out:

یہ ننگے پاؤں، یہ تپتی سڑک، یہ دھوپ کڑی
بڑے عذاب میں ڈالا ہے نونہالوں کو

.....

شام کی ردا اوڑھے غم دلوں میں لوٹ آیا
صبح کتنی مشکل سے شہر جاں سے نکلا تھا

.....

دریچہ دل بے مہر ہی کھلا رکھئے
کوئی بھی شکل سہی، ہم سے رابطہ رکھئے

.....

میں ظلمتِ شب سے لڑ رہا ہوں
یادوں کا دیا جلا ہوا ہے

.....

Ranging from nature to humanity and love to reality, this volume of Aziz Ahsan is a good specimen of Urdu poetry and would surely be welcomed by all and seendry.

Dr. Mahmudur Rahman
Editor

BOOK REVIEW

STORY TOLD BY THE CLOUD

Title:	New Cloud Tales
Author:	Tajima Shinji
Translator:	T. M. Hoffman
Illustrator:	Kazuko Tajima
Pages:	82
Price:	Pak. Rs.130/- (US $ 2.5)
Publisher:	Islamabad Center for Literacy and Culture, P.O. Box 406, Islamabad, Pakistan.

If we go through the history of mankind, it may be revealed to us that the art of story telling dates back to very early and far-off period of human being. It is such a thrilling fun which has always had attracted the listner whether young or old, male or female, master or manual labour. The sole aim of story telling always considered to be the source of recreation and entertainment. According to history books, the tiresome and terrible engagements – spreading from dawn to dusk – have always had turned the human being into a fatique figure and boredom state. To get rid of the exhausting element of day to day life and make the deadly weariness to be changed into merriment, this sort of amusement attracted the whole population, without any discrimination.

This very art of story telling took a turn after the advent of pen and paper, and then came to be known as *Fiction Writing*. At the earlier stage, the topic and theme of this literary genre merely confined to imaginary life and aesthetic norms. The main purpose of such kind of story remained to appease the readers and get them pacified and delighted.

But this artistic creation moved on with the process of time and, directly or indirectly, reflected the social, political, economical environment and religious life of the period wherein such piece was penned down.

Today, our life has become a complex with a number of facets, such as trial, tribulation, poverty, illness, draught, chronic disease, mental conflict, hatred, jealousy, etc. Such drastic and devastating scenario has turned this *Earthy Paradise* into a *Hell*. No peace, no progress, no prosperity, no placidity, no harmony, no pleasantness – nothing else!

Under such pathetic and pinching atmosphere, the new generation is gaining ground and dwelling disparately. The future of our children looks grim and bleak. They do not have access to proper education and indepth learning. They are totally deprived of good nutrition and clothing. They are incapable of enjoying a merry-making life.

Even our tiny tots are pushed behind the bar for a *FAULT NOT THEIR OWN*. They become victim of land mine and resultantly loose their legs. They use to peep through the hotel windows those foreigners who are taking their meals. And, ironically, share the leftover rice and curry in a fighting way with other hungry kids.

These humiliating events and shocking scenarios have compelled Mr. Tajima Shinji – a world-famed educationist and noted author – to write down stories for the younger generation. In very lucid way, he has narrated the darkest features of life prevailing in the modern world.

To tell the story in most impressive way, Mr. Tajima has adopted a unique symbol, and that is of the *Cloud*. Keeping himself behind, the story-writer makes the *Cloud* tell the whole tales with emotion, excitement and in a humane manner. All the narrations of *Cloud* inspire the young readers. They are tempted to know much more from the roaming *Cloud*, and in this way become acquainted with the children of other remote regions.

Thus the learned author has made a good attempt to assemble the children of different countries, culture, caste and creed on one platform. Through this act, Mr. Tajima endeavours to create a sense of *Sympathy, Love* and *Affection* amidst them.

Through this wonderful act of the *Cloud*, the author has made a dignified place for himself in the juvenile literature of the world. The respectable artist Mrs. Kazuko Tajima deserves much applause from the young readers for marvelous illustrations inserted at various pages of this story book.

Dr. Mahmudur Rahman
Editor

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Vol. XXII Issue-I 2005

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD - PAKISTAN