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Message from Chief Patron

I heartily congratulate the chief editor, Prof. Dr Sufiana Khatoon Malik, her team, the advisor and all the scholars associated with Journal of Research in Social Sciences for working continuously with dedication and firm resolve to bring the Social Science Journal of NUML to the Y-category level as per HEC standard. All my praise is also for the contributors who have joined the venture of producing research work in the field of Social Sciences which no doubt enjoys a place of eminence in all our efforts for national and international understanding and collaborative research for creation of a better to-morrow for our coming generations. I do hope that for a greater degree of research rigor and sophistication the Social Science Journal of NUML can find its due place in W-category Journals and bring laurels to the contributors and the scholarly reviewers as well. Bon voyage ahead!

Maj. Gen Zia Uddin Najam HI (M) (Retd)

Message from the Senior Advisor

I feel pleasure in stating that the valuable and scholarly zeal of the chief Editor Professor Dr Sufiana Khatoon Malik and her co-workers have reaped a veritable harvest by obtaining Y-category status amongst all the journals of this nature in Pakistan from the HEC. Certainly it is a great achievement and it could not have been possible without attaining a very high level of critical scrutiny and careful peer reviewing. I, in my capacity as an advisor, would long for a still better status i-e Y-category for our Journal of social sciences. I am appending a few words for the potential contributors who would like to join us in our quest for better research standards in the field of social sciences. The title is ‘’A few hints towards understanding the dynamics of social sciences research: Search for the truth in social sciences’’.

Brig ® Dr Allah Bakhsh Malik

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The Mathematics Needs of Prospective Geography Undergraduates

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Abstract

This study sought to investigate what mathematics content and assessment is useful for students who go on to study degrees which require mathematical competency. 184 undergraduate geographers who had studied some Advanced 'A' level Mathematics at school responded to a questionnaire regarding their opinions of it as preparation for the mathematical component of their degree. Participants' responses suggest that its study would be beneficial, particularly optional statistics topics. The findings of this study suggest that universities and students might benefit from beginning to recommend that those applying to study geography take A-level Mathematics – especially given reforms to its content which will see students being required to use data sets and statistics. Similarly, the introduction of new 'Core Mathematics' qualifications may also be of interest to geography departments and may be a more appealing and accessible option for students who do not wish to study A-level Mathematics.

Keywords*: geography; mathematics; transition; A-level; mathematical thinking; statistics*

Introduction

> *Geography is an unusual subject in the ways it bridges between physical science, social science and the humanities. Its status as a part-STEM subject groups it with science, technology, engineering and mathematics. Degree-level geography students go into a wide range of jobs.*
>
> (Harris et al., 2014, p. 45)

There are three different strands of geography at undergraduate level in the UK: human, social and physical. These are sometimes used to distinguish between

geography degrees although, for the most part, courses in the UK are generally labelled as 'geography' and thus usually combine these different strands. Differences between geography degrees sometimes exist when they are classed as a bachelor of arts degree (usually meaning its focus is human or social geography) or a bachelor of science degree (usually physical), although this is not always the case. Despite the implications of the 'arts' and 'science' descriptions of those degrees, however, Souch, Fitzpatrick, and Harris (2014) found no significant differences between them in terms of the quantitative methods taught throughout the programme. This is despite the common perception of a "physical-human division endemic in the discipline" (Folkard, 2004, p. 210), which has been accused of creating an artificial barrier between human and quantitative geography (Barnes, 2009).

Advanced 'A' levels in England and Wales

At age 16, students in England and Wales take examinations in a wide range of subjects and are awarded a graded General Certificate of Secondary Education in each of these. Mathematics is a compulsory subject.

Students hoping to go on to study at university generally then specialise by studying three or four subjects to Advanced 'A' level, being examined in each of these around age 18. Students may choose their A-levels from a wide range of possibilities, though are likely to be restricted in their choice by which subjects are available at their school. Whilst A-levels are designed to be studied over the course of two years, students are able to take examinations at the end of the first year of the course and earn an Advanced Subsidiary 'AS' level.

Some universities require prospective applicants of certain subjects to take particular A-level subjects in order to be offered a place in order to ensure new undergraduates have the required background knowledge and understanding. However, there are no compulsory A-level subjects. Despite mathematics not being a compulsory subject, it was the most popular A-level subject in 2016, accounting for 11% of all A-levels taken (Joint Council for Qualifications, 2016). A more advanced A-level, Further Mathematics, has been rapidly growing in popularity over recent years, and may be taken *in addition to* A-level Mathematics.

The number of A-level Geography students has fluctuated over recent years, as has the number of undergraduate geographers (see Figure 1). According to the Joint Council for Qualifications (2016), in 2001 there were 37,505 A-level Geography candidates (5.0% of all A-levels), decreasing to only 33,007 (4.0%) in 2014 but there was a sharp rise in uptake in 2015 to 37,195 candidates (4.4% of all A-levels) and 36,363 in 2016. However, there is a perception that the transition between A-level and undergraduate geography is not straightforward (Bonnett, 2003; Naish & Rawling, 1990; Tate & Swords, 2013).

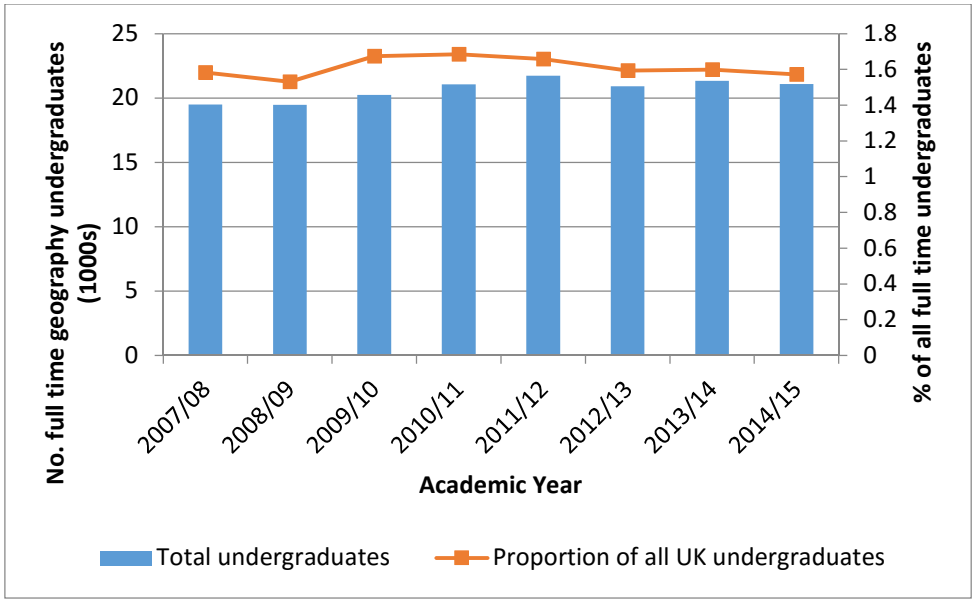

Figure 1 – Full-time students of physical, human and social geography degrees in the UK, 2007-2015
Data from the Higher Education Statistics Agency (2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016)

A minority of undergraduate geographers study A-level Mathematics before commencing university: 22% of physical geography students and 18% of human and social geography students had taken A-level Mathematics in 2010 (Hillman, 2014, p. 22). However, geography students are likely to have taken a range of subjects at A-level; this suggests that some are likely to have studied a numerate subject, such as a science, even if they have not taken mathematics (Souch et al., 2014).

A-level Mathematics and Further Mathematics

A-levels are modular, with A-level Mathematics comprising six equally-weighted units from four strands: Core Pure Mathematics (4 compulsory sequential units), Mechanics (5 sequential optional units available), Statistics (4 optional sequential units available) and Decision Mathematics (2 optional sequential units available). Students are able to take two applied mathematics units from the same strand, or may take one unit from two different applied mathematics strands. Consequently, there are six different routes through A-level Mathematics which means that students with the same qualification may have studied very different content. Students may not necessarily have a free choice in the optional units they take, with teaching specialisms, timetabling and resource availability often playing significant roles in the units made available for study at different schools.

This is all about to change. A-level qualifications in England and Wales are currently undergoing substantial reform, which will see students who begin studying A-level Mathematics in September 2017 studying a different specification. All A-levels will become linearly assessed, and the content of A-level Mathematics and Further Mathematics will change in response to consultations between the government's Department for Education and the A-level Content Advisory Board (ALCAB), a panel of mathematics education experts. The ALCAB concluded that it was in the best interests of students and higher education if A-level Mathematics had 100 per cent prescribed content because it would reduce variability in students' mathematical knowledge at the beginning of the university. The new compulsory content will consist of a core of pure mathematics, in addition to topics in statistics and mechanics. Further Mathematics will continue to have optional content. Decision mathematics will only be available for study as part of A-level Further Mathematics after ALCAB (2014) concluded that existing Decision Mathematics units are viewed as a 'soft' option by schools and universities.

In addition to the changes to the A-level qualifications, new Level 3 'Core Mathematics' qualifications are to be introduced. These qualifications will be aimed at students who achieve at least a grade C in GCSE Mathematics, and who want to continue studying some mathematics but not necessarily at A-level (Department for Education, 2013). The qualifications aim to develop students' problem-solving skills, and will focus on students using mathematics in real-world contexts. All specifications for the different Core Mathematics qualifications include applications of statistics and statistical techniques. This should support students with the mathematical component of any A-levels that they are studying, and may act as preparation for certain university degree courses. A large number of universities in the UK have responded positively to the announcement of the introduction of Core Mathematics qualifications (Core Maths Support Programme, 2016).

Mathematics requirements for undergraduate courses in the UK

The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (2014) explains the mathematical components of undergraduate geography, stating that graduates should be able to choose and apply appropriate quantitative and qualitative analysis on geographical data. They should also be able to solve problems and use "numeracy and statistical literacy, preparing effective maps, diagrams and visualizations, the use of secondary data sets, critically evaluating, interpreting and combining different types of geographical evidence" (p. 10).

Although this benchmark statement indicates the presence of mathematics in undergraduate geography, many UK universities do not stipulate specific mathematical entry requirements for admission to geography degrees.

Indeed, a thorough study by Souch et al. (2014) found that, of all geography degrees offered in the UK, fewer than half stipulate a formal mathematics requirement and, of those who do, the requirement is normally for a minimum of a C grade in GCSE Mathematics. Consequently, new cohorts of geography undergraduates come from a wide variety of mathematical backgrounds, including both students who were last taught mathematics at least two years ago and students who have studied A-level Further Mathematics.

Additionally, these variations in requirements may account for many academics' perceptions that students are unaware of the volume of mathematics involved in undergraduate geography (Souch et al., 2014). Understandably, this provides a significant challenge for educators, but it is not a recent phenomenon. Nearly forty years ago, Haining (1978) bemoaned that new undergraduate geographers had often not continued mathematics after 'O' level, and that much of what they had learnt was 'unsuitable' as it was unlikely to have been taught in a social or environmental context. This had the consequence of undergraduates taking "a surprisingly long time to accept that mathematical structures can be used to represent geographical problems" (p. 30). He argued that it was 'crucial' that universities require students to have performed well at 'O' level, although cautioned against making A-level Mathematics compulsory for geography applicants.

The low mathematical entry requirements mean that geography has "witnessed a quantitative de-skilling – most obviously in regard to the mathematical demands of what is taught in universities" (Harris et al., 2014, p. 46). In 2013, Porkess claimed that there was minimal mathematical content in A-level Geography, with Pointon (2008) claiming that new undergraduates will need to supplement A-level Geography with Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects in order to cope with the demands of physical geography at tertiary level. However, the redeveloped A-level Geography has much greater quantitative and mathematical content (see Department for Education, 2014).

Impact of mathematical backgrounds on performance

> *[Q]uantitative geography is a collection of methods that are applied, or could/can be applied, by geographers and others to study spatial phenomena, issues and problems*
>
> (Murray, 2010, p. 144)

The term 'quantitative methods' (QM) encapsulates the mathematics involved in geographical study and research, an area which traditionally focuses on the use of statistics. QM are 'fundamental' in geographical study (Stokes, 2006), and are often related to and used in Geographic Information Science (GIS). However, QM teaching on British human geography courses has been described as sub-par, and is suggested as a reason why the United Kingdom (UK) is unable to compete

internationally in research in this area (ESRC, RGS, & AHRC, 2013; Harris et al., 2014). Furthermore, teaching shortages in QM on geography courses mean that this is a topic of concern in terms of the advancement of the field in the UK (ESRC et al., 2013).

There are at least five reasons why undergraduate geographers need to be able to use and understand mathematics and QM in geography:

- It helps them to "understand the more empirically oriented literature that is increasingly considered relevant by policy makers" (Keylock & Dorling, 2004, p. 359), i.e. they will be able to understand the geography literature which makes use of QM.
- It equips them with the basics to begin postgraduate study and research in areas of geography which require QM.
- It provides them with transferrable skills which can be used in future employment, regardless of the sector, something which geography graduates have described as useful after graduation (Clark & Higgitt, 1997).
- QM 'underpins' aspects of geography study such as fieldwork and data analysis (Folkard, 2004).
- It gives students the ability to "critique the misuse of statistics in policy or in the media or to defend a counter view" (Harris et al., 2014, p. 44).

QM have been described as permitting geographers to "relate events to each other, to infer causality and to determine relationships" (Bennett, 1978, p. 40). Mathematics is a 'language' for modelling in geography, with statistics being a means of testing hypotheses based on these models (Haining, 1978), therefore allowing geographers to validate theories.

Mathematics can be used for a variety of geographical analyses, including field surveying, population models, description and modelling of dynamic geographical systems. A study by Souch et al. (2014) found that the mathematical topics most-commonly covered in first-year QM courses for geographers were based in statistics, such as GIS, regression, inferential statistics, parametric and non-parametric statistics, spatial analysis, correlation, *t*-tests and remote sensing, along with the use of software such as Excel and SPSS. However, the amount, depth, teaching of, and specific QM taught in different universities across the UK varies considerably (Souch et al., 2014).

The mathematical components of geography are sometimes taught 'covertly' in UK geography departments, often under the guise of another name such as QM, which is perceived as less threatening by students who have been found to struggle with this area of their degree (Chapman, 2010). This was a problem forty years ago, when students were described as having "an inbuilt resistance to teaching or reading

with a large statistical and especially mathematical content" (Bennett, 1978, p. 39), and is a problem which is likely to remain. A recent study by the Higher Education Academy (HEA) found that the vast majority of university geography staff in the UK think that mathematics anxiety is a significant factor in their students' struggles with QM (see also Chapman, 2010). Indeed, Folkard (2004) describes undergraduate geographers as having an 'aversion' to QM, regardless of their academic achievements, and claims that mathematics is one of the most challenging aspects in teaching and learning undergraduate geography. This becomes increasingly challenging when students are not interested in QM:

> *It would appear to us that for many quantitative methods courses in British geography departments, the actual number of students attending such lectures after the first few weeks is usually dramatically at odds with the number enrolled. This problem emerges because students are simultaneously being taught far more interesting alternative images of the world as compared to the statistical one.*
>
> (Keylock & Dorling, 2004, p. 361)

Folkard (2004) also attributes the disengagement with QM to students' perceptions that it has no real connection to the geography that they are studying, that its teaching is not engaging and that universities have inaccurate conceptions of their prior mathematical knowledge. The latter was also thought to be the case by Bennett (1978) and Castree (2011).

Furthermore, academics perceive their students to have problems other than poor mathematical preparedness, negative attitudes and a lack of interest. These include misconceptions of concepts and an overreliance on technology, as well as issues with visualisation of problems and interpretation of results (Stokes, 2006). Furthermore, many students report that they struggle with QM, especially those who have not studied mathematics since age 16 (Souch et al., 2014).

This means that a number of solutions to the 'Mathematics Problem' in undergraduate geography have been proposed in order to better support students and equip them with the QM necessary to undertake further study in relevant fields if required. Encouragingly, many geography departments offer additional support[1] for any students who struggle with QM (Souch et al., 2014). Suggestions for solutions include:

- Streaming students for QM courses according to their mathematical backgrounds (Haining, 1978);

[1] This takes the form of supplementary classes, online resources, in-class support, drop-in services, student mentoring and/or mathematics support centres.

- Teaching QM with links to geographical examples (Keylock & Dorling, 2004);
- Use of GIS to enhance students' experiences of QM (Şeremet & Chalkley, 2015);
- The use of technology such as Google Earth to foster student interest and engagement (Thorndycraft, Thompson, & Tomlinson, 2009); and
- 'Diagnostic' testing of students' mathematics upon arrival at university (Souch et al., 2014).

Additionally, Stokes (2006) proposes peer assisted learning, increased use of worked examples, and stresses that departments must "recognise that staff need to be part of the solution to the problem" (p. 20). Outside of the context of teaching, the HEA study found that it is important that universities give clearer signaling regarding the mathematical component of geography degrees, which may be reflected in their entry requirements, and to consider options such as recommending or requiring prospective students to take Core Mathematics.

Research aims

In response to announcements regarding the changes to A-level Mathematics and Further Mathematics, this study aimed to establish the views of undergraduate geography students who had taken A-level Mathematics regarding their preparedness for the mathematical demands of tertiary-level geography study.

Existing research in this area has not focused specifically on the experiences of geography students who had taken post-compulsory mathematics. Rather, because there is no A-level Mathematics requirement, the focus of studies such as that by Souch et al. (2014) has been on general mathematical preparation and challenges, given some students enter university with limited mathematical backgrounds.

The research outlined in this article aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Which optional units in A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics did geography students find useful as preparation for the mathematical component of their degree?
2. What were undergraduate geographers' experiences of studying Further Mathematics (if applicable)?
3. Do geography students who took A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics believe the qualification(s) were useful preparation for their degree?
4. Are there any areas in which A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics could be improved to suit the needs of future prospective geography students?

This article focuses on the responses of undergraduate geography students. However, an overarching project (Darlington & Bowyer, 2016) sought the views of students of a variety of other science and social science degree subjects, the results of which will be reported elsewhere.

Method

All contactable universities in the UK which offered single honours geography degrees[2] (*N*=68) were emailed requesting participation. Geography departments were asked to pass on details of an online questionnaire aimed at students who fulfilled two criteria:

1. They must have been in their second year or above, in order that they could reflect on their experiences so far.
2. They must have taken at least AS-level Mathematics since 2006 (when the qualification underwent its previous restructuring).

The questionnaire surveyed students who fulfilled these criteria regarding:

- Their mathematical background (e.g. mathematics qualifications and grades, and units studied as part of A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics).
- Their current studies (e.g. university, degree course, year of study).
- Their perceptions of A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics (where applicable) as preparation for the mathematical component of their degree, in particular their views of the applied units of the qualifications.
- The factors which motivated them to take Further Mathematics (if applicable).
- Their experiences of Further Mathematics (if applicable).

There was a mixture of multiple choice, closed and open-ended questions. The questionnaire was developed by the researchers and an A-level Mathematics expert, before being piloted by three recent graduates of scientific degrees.

Analysis of the quantitative data was conducted using SPSS, and qualitative data was coded using MAXQDA (qualitative and mixed methods data analysis software). Thematic analysis was used in order to analyze and describe participants' views of the qualification(s) and participants' suggestions for improvements which could be made to the qualification(s).

[2] These were identified using the UCAS search tool available at http://search.ucas.com

Results

As not all questions were relevant to all participants (e.g. some were aimed only at those who had taken Further Mathematics) and because some participants missed answering some questions, the number of participants, *N*, is given with the data in this section.

Sample

A total of 184 geography students took part, and came from a total of 19 different universities.

Table 1 – Specific degrees studied (*N*=184)

Degree Title	N	%
Geography	86	46.7
Geographical sciences	78	42.4
Geography and economics	7	3.8
Physical geography	6	3.3
Geography and quantitative research methods	3	1.6
Environmental change and sustainable development	1	0.5
Geography and geology	1	0.5
Geography and natural hazards	1	0.5
Geography, politics and international relations	1	0.5

As indicated by the course titles in Table 1, a number of participants were studying for joint honours degrees with other subjects.

Most of the participants had studied the full A-level in Mathematics (see Table 2).

Table 2 - Mathematical A-level qualifications held by participants (*N*=184)

Qualification(s)	Frequency	Proportion (%)
AS-level Mathematics only	18	9.8
A-level Mathematics only	137	74.5
A-level Mathematics + AS-level Further Mathematics	15	8.2
A-level Mathematics + A-level Further Mathematics	14	7.6

It should be noted that the students taking part in this survey represented the higher-achieving end of the A-level Mathematics and Further Mathematics spectrum (see Table 3). Over 90% of participants achieved an A or A* in Mathematics. This is much higher than the typical A-level Mathematics cohort.

Table 3 – Participants' AS- and A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics grades

	% Students			
	Mathematics		Further Mathematics	
AS- or A-level Grade	Participants	All candidates (2016)	Participants	All candidates (2016)
A*/A	91.1	38.7	78.4	54.7
B	0.5	19.7	17.0	18.1
C	1.1	14.9	4.5	11.5
D	5.5	10.5	0.0	7.1
E	0.0	7.1	0.0	4.5
Ungraded (fail)	0.0	9.7	0.0	4.1

Data for all candidates obtained from the Joint Council for Qualifications (2016). Participants' responses suggest that more of them had studied Statistics units than Mechanics (see Figure-2), more than half had taken only one of unit in a particular strand. This suggests that students were more likely to have taken a mixture of applied units than to have specialized in a specific strand.

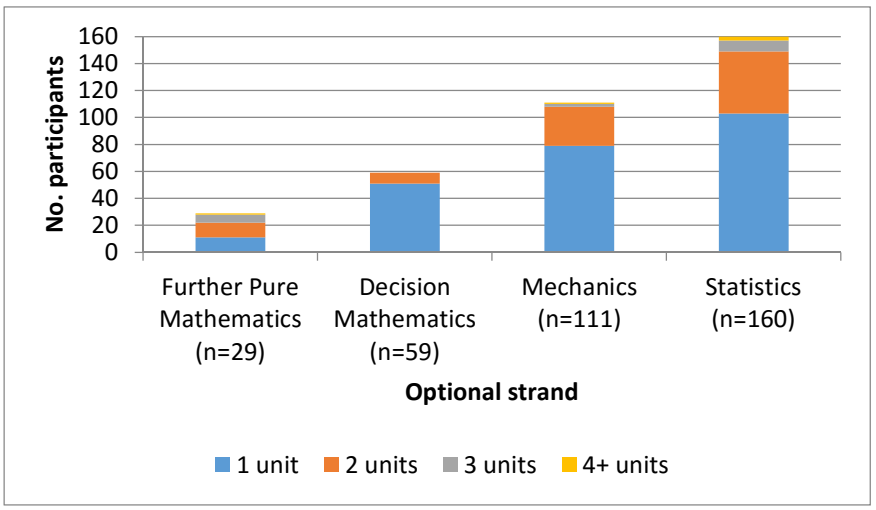

Figure 2 – Number of optional units studied

The low proportions of students who had studied multiple Mechanics, Statistics and Decision Mathematics units are perhaps indicative of the data which showed that most participants took A-level Mathematics only (and not Further Mathematics).

Experiences of non-compulsory A-level units

The impression of the majority of the participants who had taken Decision Mathematics was that it was not useful, with only one participant describing it as 'very useful' (see Figure 3). Similarly, Further Pure Mathematics and Mechanics were described as 'not useful' by the many participants (55.2% and 44.6%, respectively).

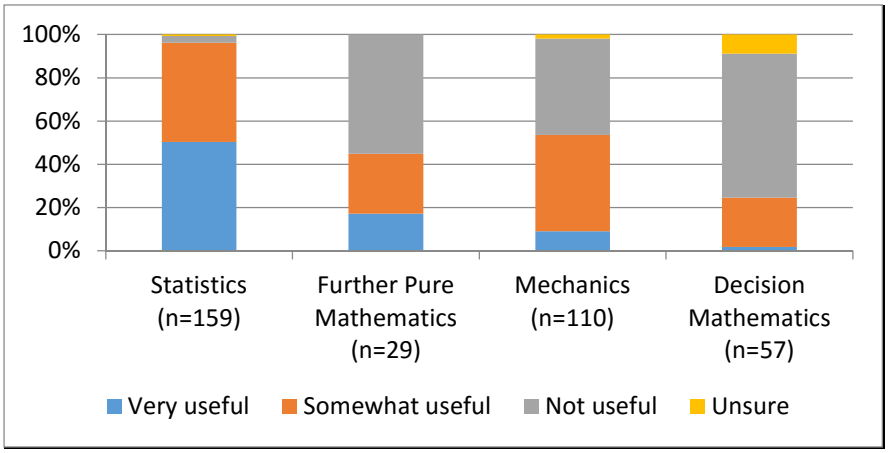

Figure 3 – Students' views of the utility of optional units

The applied strand which had the most positive responses was Statistics, which was described as 'very useful' by nearly half of the participants, and 'not useful' by only 3.1%.

Experiences of Further Mathematics

The participants had mixed views about their experiences of Further Mathematics, although they were generally positive (see Table 4).

Table 4 – Students' experiences of studying Further Mathematics

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Unsure
	Number of Participants (%)					
I'm glad I did Further Mathematics	13 (44.8%)	14 (48.3%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.4%)	1 (3.4%)	0 (0.0%)
I found Further Mathematics challenging	12 (41.4%)	14 (48.3%)	1 (3.4%)	1 (3.4%)	1 (3.4%)	0 (0.0%)
Further Mathematics was my most difficult A-level	10 (34.5%)	4 (13.8%)	1 (3.4%)	8 (27.6%)	5 (17.2%)	1 (3.4%)
Studying Mathematics and Further Mathematics was sufficient preparation for the mathematical component of my degree	9 (31.0%)	15 (51.7%)	3 (10.3%)	1 (3.4%)	1 (3.4%)	0 (0.0%)
I enjoyed Further Mathematics	8 (27.6%)	14 (48.3%)	4 (13.8%)	3 (10.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
I did Further Mathematics because I was thinking of doing a maths or maths-related degree at university	6 (20.7%)	8 (27.6%)	1 (3.4%)	9 (31.0%)	4 (13.8%)	1 (3.4%)
In my first year at university, we were taught material that I had learned in Further Mathematics	1 (3.4%)	3 (10.3%)	2 (6.9%)	9 (31.0%)	14 (48.3%)	0 (0.0%)

Whilst there appeared to be little overlap between the content of Further Mathematics and the mathematical component of first year Geography – only 13.8% of participants strongly agreed or agreed with 'In my first year at university, we were taught material that I had learned in Further Maths' – more than three-quarters of participants agreed that they enjoyed Further Mathematics and that they were glad that they had taken it.

Additionally, the qualification was felt to test those who had taken it. Nearly 90% agreed that they found Further Mathematics challenging, and half of participants reported that they strongly agreed or agreed that 'Further Mathematics was my most difficult A-level'.

A-level as preparation for the mathematical component of undergraduate geography

Only 1.1% of participants claimed that they did not find A-level Mathematics to be useful as preparation for the mathematical component of degree-level geography, with 71.5% reporting that it was good preparation. Furthermore, it appears that Further Mathematics was reasonably valuable preparation, with 44.8% describing it as good preparation, and only one participant (3.4% of the sample) describing it as bad preparation (see Figure 4). However, most participants (51.7%) reported that Further Mathematics was neither good nor bad preparation, suggesting that its use in preparing students for the mathematical component of degree-level geography may be limited. The reader should exercise caution regarding this result, as the number of respondents was small.

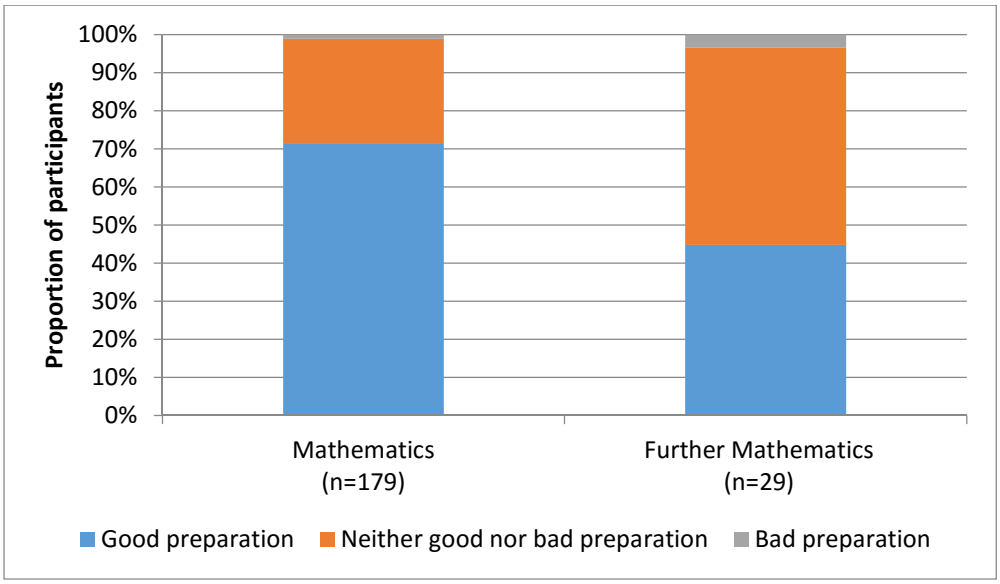

Figure 4 – The A-levels as preparation for undergraduate geography

Improvements to A-level Mathematics and Further Mathematics

Participants were also asked whether there were any additional topics that they would have found useful at A-level, and whether there were any improvements they would make to either Mathematics or Further Mathematics. A total of 95 participants responded regarding additional topics, and 131 regarding potential improvements.

By far the most frequently mentioned topics for inclusion at A-level were statistics-based. These comments tended to take two forms. Either participants reported that they were unable to take any Statistics units at A-level (or were only able to take S1) and therefore they wished for more general statistical exposure before beginning their university studies, or they suggested specific topics that they felt could have been included at A-level. A common suggestion was the inclusion of statistical software and computer-based modelling, as this had formed the majority of their experience with Statistics at university but is not currently included at A-level.

Additional suggestions reflected the diversity in content in undergraduate geography courses; a minority of participants reported that an introduction to economics or financial mathematics would have been beneficial for the study of human geography, whilst a small proportion of physical geographers would have liked to have encountered fluid mechanics, spatial modelling and basic physics. A full overview of the most frequently mentioned topics are in Table 5.

Table 5 – Suggested topics for inclusion in A-level Mathematics which could benefit prospective undergraduate geography students

Topic		In new A-level specification?	
		Mathematics[3]	Further Mathematics[4]
Statistics	Software (SPSS, Stata, Excel)		✓
	Regression	✓	✓
	Significance testing	✓	✓
	Hypothesis testing*		✓
	t-tests		
	Chi-squared test*		

[3] Based on the Department for Education (2014) subject content for A-level Mathematics.

[4] This is based on the draft content of the OCR (2016) awarding body Further Mathematics qualification. It is yet to be accredited – this part of the article will be updated when the accreditation process has been finalised (likely before any revisions to this article are submitted, if it is accepted).

	Time series analysis		
Calculus	Partial derivatives		✓
	Differential equations	✓	✓
	Vector calculus		
Mechanics	Fluid mechanics		
	Basic physics (Newton's laws)	✓	✓
Economics			
Financial mathematics			
Other	Spatial modelling		
	Interpolation		
	Matrices		✓

* Topics taught as part of the OCR MEI Core Mathematics specification for 'Quantitative Problem Solving' (OCR, 2014).

The most commonly suggested area of improvement to either Mathematics or Further Mathematics was related to the Statistics units. Most participants simply called for a greater emphasis on statistics at A-level. However, the most commonly cited specific improvements were the introduction of computer software, in order to provide better preparation for studying statistics at university, and introducing context to the statistical content at A-level. Additionally, a minority of participants reported that they believed studying topics in statistics should be compulsory for all students. Participants were substantially less likely to refer to mechanics in their comments; however, those who did were equally likely to suggest that some mechanics content should be compulsory, or conversely that they had found mechanics to be of little relevance to their geography degree and therefore would have preferred to study Statistics units.

The issue of greater application to real-world or practical contexts was a common theme in participants' comments about the overall A-levels. The majority of participants felt that a greater use of real-world examples would enable greater understanding, as it would allow students to see how they could apply particular mathematical techniques to geography at university. For example, two participants mentioned that integration and differential equations could be used with examples from glaciology and atmospheric physics in physical geography.

In terms of difficulty and depth, most participants would have liked more depth in particular areas of statistics. Students' opinions about the perceived difficulty of the A-levels were equally split between those who believed the A-levels should be made harder, and those who reported that there was a big jump in difficulty between GCSE and A-level and A-level Mathematics was consequently too difficult. Further concern was expressed about the structure and type of questions in examinations. A

minority of participants reported that Mathematics examinations were formulaic, with similar questions being repeated annually, and thus suggested this could be counteracted by introducing variability in the type of questions. However, most participants suggested that examination questions should be set in applied or 'real-life' contexts, particularly in Statistics units. One participant proposed that students should be assessed on their ability to analyze large data-sets.

Limitations

This study was self-selecting in two ways. Firstly, universities self-selected when choosing whether to send on details of the questionnaire to their students. Secondly, the students themselves self-selected when choosing whether to complete the questionnaire. Data reported in Table 3 show that the participants of this study are not representative of the general cohort of A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics candidates. Moreover, all but one participant attended a university ranked in the top 75% for geography according to the Complete University Guide (2016), with three-quarters studying at universities ranked in the top 25%. Through self-selection, those students who chose to take part may have been those who felt more strongly about their mathematical preparedness and its impact on their transition to undergraduate geography study (be it positively or negatively).

It should be noted that this study only considered the views of students who had taken post-compulsory mathematics qualifications. We cannot contrast their experiences with those who did not take A-level Mathematics and/or Further Mathematics, or who took alternative qualifications such as the International Baccalaureate. This is something which could be considered for future research, along with the views of students who take the new Core Mathematics qualifications.

Discussion and conclusion

Despite low mathematics entry requirements for geography and only around one in five undergraduate geographers studying any post-compulsory mathematics qualifications, participants in this study were enthusiastic about A-level Mathematics. A majority (71.5%) considered it to be good preparation for their course. In particular, Statistics units were considered to be the most useful optional units, with more students reporting negative opinions about Further Pure Mathematics, Mechanics and Decision Mathematics units. Consequently, it appears that prospective geography students would benefit from studying A-level Mathematics as preparation for their course, particularly if their degree has a substantial Quantitative Methods component. However, the open response data collated in this study suggests that geography students are not necessarily aware of the benefits of taking a post-compulsory Mathematics qualification until they begin their university courses. The responses

indicated that some participants were not sure which applied units were relevant to geography, with some studying Mechanics before finding that Statistics would have been more beneficial. Additionally, some students reported that they would have benefited from studying only Statistics, as they considered there to be little relevance in the pure mathematics content. Consequently, it seems that prospective geographers would benefit from more information about the use and application of mathematics in geography, in particular the role of statistics.

Additionally, students would benefit from being aware of the full range of post-compulsory mathematics qualifications. For example, the new Core Mathematics qualifications may be particularly beneficial for geography students, as some specifications cover in-depth statistical testing, as well as critical analysis of real data-sets and the use of computer modelling. Whilst the qualifications available to students will depend on school resources, universities should clearly state the benefits of studying post-compulsory mathematics for geography as well as the range of qualifications available to students.

There appears to be some, albeit more limited, use in Further Mathematics as preparation for undergraduate geography. Participants were broadly positive about their experiences of the qualification, with only one participant reporting that it had been 'bad preparation' for their course and 93.1% reporting that they were glad they had studied it. However, whilst participants had *enjoyed* studying Further Mathematics, the preparation it had provided for the mathematical demands of their degree seems to be more restricted. Participants reported that there was very little, if any, overlap in content between Further Mathematics and the first year of undergraduate geography. More than half of the participants also indicated that Further Pure Mathematics units were not useful preparation. Furthermore, most participants were ambivalent about the preparation the qualification as a whole had provided, with a majority reporting that Further Mathematics had been 'neither good nor bad preparation' for the mathematical demands of their degree. Consequently, it appears that any benefit to studying Further Mathematics as preparation for undergraduate geography lies in the opportunity to study additional statistics units
Nevertheless, the reforms to both A-level Mathematics and Further Mathematics have implications for the utility of both qualifications as preparation for undergraduate geography. In particular, the reformed A-level in Mathematics will have compulsory mechanics and statistics content for all students, including the handling of real data-sets. A minimal grounding in both areas will be appealing for prospective students and lecturers of both physical and human geography. Universities and teachers would thus be wise to pay close attention to A-level reform and the preparation that the reformed qualifications offer for potential geography students.

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A Study of Depressiveness and its Relationship with Academic Achievement of University Students

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Abstract

This study explored the association of depressiveness with academic achievement of university students. A sample of (N=700) university students (including graduate as well as undergraduate level students) from the Islamia University of Bahawalpur and Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan, Pakistan were selected through convenient-purposive sampling technique. The data regarding depressiveness were collected by using Siddiqui-Shah Depression Scale (SSDS) by Siddiqui and Shah (1992); whereas, the academic achievement of the students was examined by GPA and CGPA of their last examination. The data were analyzed by using SPSS version 16.0. The results of the study demonstrated depressiveness to be significantly associated with academic achievement of university students. Furthermore, the normal students from both of the sampled universities and having no depressiveness attained good CGPA in comparison with those having mild and moderate depressiveness. Moreover, depressiveness among male university students was found to be slightly higher than among their counterparts –the female university students of the sampled universities.

Keywords: *Depressiveness, Academic Achievement, Negative Perception, Anhedonia, Isolation*

Introduction

Depressiveness appears as a psychological condition and describes one's state of sadness and gloominess in general. It is reflected through ones' feelings and behaviors. Apparently, it affects one's emotional, sentimental, behavioral, cognitive and physical activities. The depressed individuals seem to be sad and usually tend to lose their senses of humor having anhedonia. It affects normal functioning of individuals i.e. their social and professional lives. As they experience loss of motivation, lack of drive & initiative and spontaneity, their social life becomes disturbed and performance decreases in professional activities. Sometimes, they

avoid even their friends, eating meals, or study etc. Such individuals appear to be less active and less productive in their respective lives. Generally, they like isolation and exhibit low voice and slow movements. At extreme level they develop negative perception of and/ or about their-selves and surroundings. They start thinking negatively and seem to be feeling inferiority becoming pessimistic and helpless leading towards suicidal attempts (Comer, 2008).

Causes of Depressiveness

As an individual has physique with emotions and lives in society, therefore, the causative factors of depressiveness can be described in this perspective; and these are biological, psychological & psychosocial, and socio-cultural factors (Sarson & Sarson, 2002). All of the three factors seem to be closely associated with each other and have effect on overall functioning of an individual. The biological factors affect one's physique and physical functioning, psychological & psychological factors are associated with one's feelings and cause such states which are reflected through one's moods, attitudes and body language(s), whereas, socio-cultural aspects influence living of individuals and work as predictors and/ or determinants of both of the earlier factors and shape them in different conditions. All these factors are considered to be the contributory channels to main stream of depressiveness. The prevalence of depressiveness varies from individual to individual and also from culture to culture (Butcher & Carson, 1992). Therefore, some individuals may become depressed while the others may not even in the same situations.

Theoretical Evidences of Depressiveness

Generally, depressiveness is regarded as psychological state of an individual resulting from inconsistency between conscious and unconscious faculties of the mind –repression. It is a phase of un-gratification or in some case delayed gratification of one's wishes, desires, and motive. It leads towards aggression and hopelessness. Nemade, Reiss, & Dombeck (2007) found philosophers and scientists believing that when anger switches into self-hatred it generates symptoms of depressiveness among individuals.

Whereas, the proponents of behavioral theories (Watson & Skinner, 1913) believe that human behavior has nothing to do with the internal mindful or unaware conflicts. They regard depression as a learned mental state. Observably, stress is the main source of depression which deepens with lack of one's personal skills of coping with it. Under such conditions one thinks himself/herself to be helpless and unable to get healthy reinforcement (Antonuccio, 1998) for healthy life. According to Nemade, Reiss, & Dombeck (2013) students work for getting through examinations with good

grades and these [grades] provide reinforcement to them. Failing to get through examinations with such grades makes them depressed, gloomy and frustrated. Davidson & Neale (1991) regarded such events [failure in examinations and alike] as stressful and source of depression in the life of students. Similarly, Beck (2008) described that depressed students think subjectively and they often negatively appraise the environmental factors around them.

Literature Review

Gunther, Holtkamp, Jolles (2004) explored the dynamic association of depressiveness with academic success and failure among university students. They confirmed that the depressive symptoms decrease academic performance of students i.e. in class or co-curricular activities. They affirmed that depressive symptoms in students plunge them in to depression leading towards academic failure. A study by Rowland, Hass, & Hysenbeqasi (2005) pointed out that depressiveness is a core variable for the failure of students. They found students with depressive symptoms academically poor as compared with their counterparts i.e. non-depressed students. Similarly, Wilson (2010) affirmed that the students who were poor in their class performance showed high depressive symptoms. He also reported a significant relationship between depressive symptoms and poor academic achievement of students. Alexander (2013) found the same among adolescent and investigated to find out the cause of depressiveness, self-perceived academic competence among 7thgrade students; and its relationship with drop out cases in later adolescence. The study established significant relationship between risk of dropping out and level of depressiveness among adolescence.

Similarly, Quan, Shannon, Graciela, Kristine, & James (2010) found depressive symptoms negatively associated with learning achievement of school children. Similarly, Gunther, Holtkamp & Jolles (2004) found academic troubles of students and negative reinforcement from teachers to be the causative factors of depressiveness among students. The study of Maurizi (2013) demonstrated worsened effects of depressiveness on academic performance of students. It affirmed that school, family and peers contribute significantly towards depressiveness to impact on academic achievement of students [in one or the other way]. Hysenbegasi, Steven, & Rowland (2005) reported more behavioral problems of depressed students as compared to those without depression. Similarly, the study of Furr, Westefeld, Meccounnell, & Jenkins (2001) demonstrated prevalence of depression among more than half of the university students which was related with their academic performance. Likewise, Morales, Barragun, Silvia, Medrano, Aguilar, & Guzmln (2013) found depressive features significantly higher among medical students as

compared to their counterparts i.e. non-medical/ general undergraduate students. It caused poor performance and dropout.

Zychinski and Polo (2012) found depressive features significantly correlated with academic performance of students. Bailey (2009) acknowledged level of depression as determinant or predictor of low grades and academic failure of students. In the same way, Dearden, Cruz, Crookston, Novilla, & Clark, (2005) admitted depression as a risk factor for academic performance of students. According to them students with high level of depression showed significantly low academic grades. Also Yasin and Dzulkifli (2011) found significant relationship between depressiveness and low achievement of students.

It is evident from the above discussion that depressiveness is prevalent among students, particularly, the university students and it has significant effects on their academic performance. Studies on depressiveness and its relationship with academic achievement of university students are rarely found in our context. Therefore, the present study was justifiably conducted.

Objectives of the Study

This study was conducted to (a) find the overall level depressiveness among university students of south Punjab Pakistan, (b) compare the severity of depressiveness among university girls and boys students of south Punjab Pakistan, (c) assess the impact of depressiveness across different grade levels among university students of south Punjab Pakistan, (d) compare the prevalence of depressiveness among graduate and undergraduate level students.

Research Method

Population, Sample Size and Sampling (Participants) of the Study

Graduate and undergraduate level university students from the South Punjab were the target participants. In this research the observed sample was (N=700) students out of which (n=350) were graduate level students and (n=350) were undergraduate level students studying in different disciplines at The Islamia University of Bahawalpur and Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan, Pakistan.

Research Methodology

A sample of (N=700) students was chosen by convenient sampling including male and female students studying in various discipline. It was a quantitative research with cross sectional research design to study the participants. The overall sample further bifurcated as (n=350) graduates students and (n=350) undergraduates students.

Research Tools

The study used following research tools.

Siddiqui-Shah Depression Scale (SSDS). To check the depressive symptoms of the students Siddiqui-Shah Depression Scale by Siddiqui and Shah (1992) was administered. It consists of 36 items. The maximum score of this scale is 108 and minimum is zero. The cut of score of this device is 26.

Reliability and Validity of (SSDS). The split-half reliability is ($p>.001$) for clinical group ($r=.79$) and non-clinical group ($r=.80$) along with Spearman-Brown correlation for the full scale for both clinical ($r=.84$) and non-clinical group ($r=.89$). A highly significant internal consistency was also observed for both of the groups i.e., an alpha coefficient of .91 ($p<.001$) for clinical group and .89 ($p<.001$) for non-clinical group. Moreover, it has high construct and concurrent validity.

Data Collection

Data was collected from university students including graduate and undergraduate. Depressive symptoms were measured by apply Siddiqui-Shah Depression Scale by Siddiqui and Shah (1992).

Data Analysis

The collected data was analyzed by SPSS. To check the hypotheses t-test, Mean values and frequencies were calculated.

Operational Definition of the Variables

Depressiveness

Prevalence of sad mood, low appetite and sleep problem for a period of 5 to 6 months is labeled as depressive phase and these symptoms include loss of interest of pleasure, guilt, and low mood throughout the day. In this current research depressive symptoms were measured by using Siddiqui-Shah Depression (1992).

Academic Performance

Academic performance defined as the outcomes of education. Usually the students' achievements, acquired knowledge, skills and proficiencies are known their performance level. In other words it is known as the academic intelligence that refers to the general ability to perform. In this research the student's self-reported grade points (GP) or (CGPA) was obtained as a criterion of their academic performance.

Result of the Study

The study demonstrated following results in the light of data analysis.

Table 1
Overall level of Depressiveness among University Students of South Punjab Pakistan.

Depressiveness	F	%	Cumulative Percent
Normal (26-36)	539	77.0%	77.0
Mild (37-49)	130	18.6%	95.6
Moderate (50 and above)	31	4.4%	100.0
Total	700	100.0%	

Table-1 shows the sample distribution of the participants according to their level of depressiveness. From overall sample of (N=700) students (77%) students were rated at normal level of sadness, (18.6%) students were mildly depressed, and the (4.4%) students were moderately depressed.

Table 2
Gender wise comparison of depressiveness

Variables		N	Mean	Std. Devi	Comparison using T-test			
Gender	Boys	405	34.56	7.853	Effect size	T-score	d.f	P-value
	Girls	295	33.95	6.290	0.61	1.101	698	0.271

$P < 0.05$ taken as level of significance

The Table-2 demonstrates that the average of depressiveness among male university students was higher as compared with their counterparts –the female university students.

Table 3
Depressiveness and Academic Performance among University Students

Depressive Symptoms Criteria	Institute	Depressive Symptoms		Academic Performance (CGPA)	
		Mean	Std. Devi	Mean	Std. Devi
Normal Sadness (26-36)	BZU	30.82	3.131	3.113	0.593
	IUB	32.26	2.543	3.000	0.791
Mild Depression (37-49)	BZU	39.54	3.118	3.199	0.660
	IUB	39.75	3.365	2.573	0.682
Moderate Depression (50 and above)	BZU	61.56	6.207	1.899	0.364
	IUB	59.53	5.902	2.209	0.515

The data analysis given in the table-3 reflected that in overall the depressiveness found among university students was significantly related with their academic performance.

Table 4
Depressiveness among the IUB and BZU Graduates and Undergraduates Students

Education	Institutes	N	Mean	Std. Devi	Comparison using T-test			
Graduates	BZU	175	33.87	7.978	Effect size	T-score	d.f	P-value
	IUB	175	36.32	6.514	2.45	-3.148	348	0.002
Under graduates	BZU	175	32.87	7.198	Effect size	T-score	d.f	P-value
	IUB	175	34.14	6.793	1.27	-1.696	348	0.091

$P < 0.05$ taken as level of significance

Table-4 revealed that in overall the students of the Islamia University of Bahawalpur showed higher level depressiveness than those of the students of the Bahauddin Zkariya University Multan. It might be due to climatic conditions and environmental factors and educational level of parents and their income.

Conclusion

This study concluded that the students with high level of depressiveness attained lower scores or lower academic grades or performance in terms of Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA).Depressiveness is one of the reasons behind poor academic grades or performance of university students. Hence in order to enhance the academic performance of university students, the proper physical growth, psychological well-being with healthy mental state and appropriate socio-cultural conditions need to be promoted in universities.

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Peace Education in War Affected Areas of Pakistan: Role of Distance Education

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Abstract

The present article aims to give a critical qualitative review of the situation emerged from wave of terrorism and violence in the country after 9/11 accident. The country has been passing through critical situations from the last three decades. Ups and downs came, but the tragic attack on army public school in December 2014 was a turning point in the life of the country. The country leadership announced a national action plan and thus a decisive military operation started in tribal belt of the country. Rehabilitation started in the areas where the operation has completed. It is now high time to initiate a mass campaign to promote peace education in those areas. And distance education has the potential to reach those areas and Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) can play a major role. .The study suggested that the instructional materials, FM radio transmission, training capacity, tutors networks with more than one million students of AIOU can also be used for this purpose. This article explored some possible ways through which distance education can be effectively used for promoting peace education in those areas.

Key words: *Peace education, conflict resolution, open distance learning, terrorism.*

Introduction

This study is theoretical in nature and mainly focused on the careful document review, study of real world situations/phenomena, personal experience/ insights and observations. The study found answers to the following research questions, what are causes of intolerance in the Pakistani society? Is distance education can play any role to bring peace in the society? And how distance education can be used to bring peace in the society? Critically discourse analysis and documents reflects that Pakistan has been facing internal and external challenges in the shape of

bomb blasts, suicide attacks and other terrorist attacks after September 11 accident in the United States of America. The conflict and war between the terrorist groups and law enforcement agencies has created instability and chaos in the country and its ultimate result is massive economic and infrastructure loss in the country. Most of the violence is being carried out in the province of Khyber Pukhtunkhwa and Baluchistan. The police, paramilitary, military and civilians have been targeting daily in attacks. During last few years, thousands of innocent people killed in suicide attacks and bomb blasts. The terrorist attack on Army Public School Peshawar on December 16 2014 was very tragic accident that shackled the whole country. The attack resulted killing of hundreds of innocent school children. This was a turning point that united the whole society to think seriously about combating terrorism in the country. Political and military leadership in the country joined hands in hands and devised a national action plan (NAP). The NAP is going on with full spirit in tribal belt. Most of the area in North Waziristan has been cleared and thousands of militants killed in the operation. The army also destroyed most of the hideouts of the militants. The operation is now going on near border area of Afghanistan. Pakistan Army also started rehabilitation work in the areas where situation is normalizing. Most of the internally displaced people (IDPs) have returned to their home in the north of Waziristan.

As the situation is becoming normal in the war affected areas, therefore, it is high time to take some preventive measures by introducing peace education program in those areas of the country. Along other initiatives, educating people will be most effective, as education will open the mind of people. Through education, the people can be taught tolerance and respect to others. It is a famous saying that “war begins in the minds of men”. Thus psychological factors bring the people in conflicts and war. So the mind of people must be changed and this can only be possible with the help of training and education. For this purpose all strategies may be adopted to trace the human mind dedicated to peace and harmony. And Education is an effective instrument to create an environment of peace, goodwill and understanding (Khanna, 1991). In this connection, various peace education programs can be organized. These programs can bring a positive change in people thinking, beliefs and attitude. A successful peace education program requires several dimensions, description and resources like teacher-education, parents, community involvement and use of print and electronic media.

It is necessary to describe concept of peace education, as it is a new area of work in our country. Peace education also known as Education for dispute and conflict Resolution, civil rights Education; Global Education; Critical Pedagogy; liberty and Empowerment Education; Social Education; Environmental Education;

Education for Life long Skills; Civic education; citizenship education and Development Education; and more.

Though there is no universal meaning of peace education, the UNO defining it as: "the process of promoting the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to bring about behavioral changes to prevent and resolve conflict peacefully and to create conducive environment". Peace education is a fluid concept that can be defined and practiced verily in different country and cultures. Simply, peace education is a process through which people get values and attitudes towards the concept of non-violence. However, peace education mainly varied in terms of aims objectives, importance, methods, approaches and practices (Bjerstedt, 1993). Further it may be said that peace education nurtures the people with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to end violence and promote peace. It is the opening of attitude development for conflict resolution (Staehr.1974: 269) and absence of conflict or violence in a commonly useful and harmonious relationship among parties (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). It is a way of developing awareness, skills and attitudes to bring positive change in behavior (James, 2008). Matsuura (1974) described it, as actions that develop attitude, knowledge and skills desire for concepts of peace. Galtung (1995) highlighted that peace education provides knowledge for practical life. Reardon (1988) said that it prepares people for universalization while Cremin (1993) defining it as "a universal term applying to all academic activities." Harris, Ian & Synott (2002) termed it as a teaching activity that promotes peace and helps in solving conflicts. They further described that peace education means love for, critical analysis of the situation and seeking ways to resolve differences. James (2008) suggested that peace education is a desire for peace and giving knowledge and confidence to the individual and telling people about the aftereffects of violence, war and injustice; and as encouraging them to love and care people and to think a peaceful future. Thus peace education programs must aimed to train people and to end conflict through dialogue. For this purpose training in areas like improving communication through listening, turn-taking, controlling emotions, must be provided to the people. Nature of peace education programs related directly to the culture/environment. Therefore, cultural aspects must be considered as Palmer (1981) said (described by willis, 2002) that culture represents the general opening, resources, and opportunities. It is also important to note that success of Peace education is also directly related to conflict resolution skills (Baldo & Furniss, 1998). Peace education program should include topics like individual rights and competencies to resolve conflicts. It will build harmony and trust in relationships (Edward, 2003).

It is pertinent to explain the theoretical aspects of peace education before suggesting some viable solutions to the problem. In this regard, the work of Galtung is very important to discuss. Galtung (1975) highlighted three theories of peace education: 1) social interdependence theory that deals with the teamwork. 2) Constructive controversy theory that relates with political dialogue and conflict resolution. 3) Integrative negotiations theory concerning to agreements and cooperation. These theories make a foundation for development of peace education programs and these theories also lead to three main approaches to peace education: (1) the knowledge-based approach, (2) the skills-based approach, and (3) the values-based approach, which emphasizes moral values.

Research on peace education revealed that there is no single method and approach for peace education for all society and country. It varies from culture to culture and country to country. It also depends on the nature of the conflict/dispute and global involvement and international interests.

However, there are certain principles for developing peace education programs. These must be kept in mind while organizing peace education activities and programs:

- An environment where teaching and learning take place through unbiased discussion
- Combination of learning with practical application towards societal transformation
- Examining issues in a holistic way

Promoting values such as kindness, equality, interdependence, diversity, sustainability and nonviolence. Along these facts, there are some important things to consider for initiating some peace education program/activities in any educational set up (Thapa & et al 2010). These are:

a. Curriculum and teachers' support

Our teachers are lacking pedagogical skills and knowledge of people rights and responsibilities. Trained teachers are necessary for an effective peace education curriculum. And it is big challenge.

b. Curriculum, pedagogy and learning resources.

Curriculum includes all the activities organized by the educational institute (school/college/university) inside and outside. And these educational entities are considered to be a miniature society. Therefore, the Curriculum should contain all

aspects of society/cultures. All sections of the population are to be involved in the curriculum development to include their intonation. Some parameters should be established to review the learning materials and pedagogy tools/practices. It requires some immediate actions at government level to address problems of curriculum, pedagogy and resources, teacher training and community involvement. To avoid any duplication and loss of resources, there should be some unified peace education programs. However, there are many problems in the execution of peace education program as identified by Thapa & et al (2010):

- Less importance of peace education
- Weak coordination between different stakeholders
- Defective implementation strategy
- Inappropriate peace education curricula
- Limited participation of the people
- Lack of research on peace education
- Evaluation of peace education programs

It can be summed up from the above discussion that education can play an important part in creating harmony and peace in the society**.** It is the key to uniting people and bringing them together. The discussion further revealed that there exists some principles/rules and approaches to organize a peace education program as it is not simply transferring information but it is a matter of attitude development. These steps may be categorized as: 1) Compulsory education system. 2) Cooperation and sharing of welfares. 3) Positive disagreement and negotiation. 4) Consultations and peer negotiation and 5) Developing civic values.

The very first principle for effective peace education program is compulsory education system. As far as, Pakistan is concerned, there is no compulsory education system but it is worthwhile to mention that National Education Policy (NEP) 2009, highlighted some recommendations that helpful for promoting peace education programs (Ministry of Education, 2009). These are:

1. Life long skills and education such as human equality, school safety and calamity management, training for peace and harmony and concept of child protection may be included in the curricula. Necessary instructional material will be developed for students and teachers.
2. Peace education and conflict resolution should be an essential part of the curriculum. As discussed, peace education is the process of developing attitudes, behaviour, values, and skills to resolve conflicts (Johnson & Johnson, 2003, 2005 & 2006), whereas the ultimate aims of education is also bringing permanent change in the behaviour of the individual. Therefore, the concept of peace education should be included as subject in scheme of studies at school/college and university level. It should be introduced in the present scheme of studies, course books and teacher

discourses. The basic objective of the peace education should be to resolve disputes among conflicting parties that serve the purpose of friendship (Willis, 2000).

3. There may be better working relationship between donors and government institutions for organizing different programs of peace education.
4. Peace education through Public Private Partnerships (PPP) may be included in the teacher training programs.
5. Good practices and research studies may be disseminated for knowledge of the people.

The above policy recommendations provide a foundation for initiating a peace education program in the country. The education policy 2009 covered all the necessary steps that are essential for peace education programs at various spheres of education from school to university. Now it is time to implement the above-cited recommendations of the National Education Policy (2009) through a nationwide commitment to peace education program. Various forms of education that can be used for peace education included formal, informal and non-formal. The non-formal education through distance education is best available option for use in tribal belt for peace promotion.

Using Distance Education for Promoting Peace

Distance education has been defined as a process in which teachers and learners are separated in distance and/or time for some or all of the time of study and in which the instructional resources take over traditional role of the teacher. Instructional materials play a vital role, comprising a variety of media and student support. It has also provisions for learners to interact with tutors and other learners. Open distance learning (ODL) is an organized educational activity where learners study by themselves. It is based on a set of values in which constraints on study are minimized in terms of access, time, pace and method of study. Thus it provides learners with access to instructional resources, tutorials and students' support and, in many cases, assessment of learning. Virtual learning or e-learning employs similar principles and methods but exploits the capabilities of the Internet and Web for providing access to learning materials and supporting two-way communication. Distance education' has now become identical with the use of ICT. Open distance learning (ODL) is an umbrella term that covers a variety of organizational arrangements to provide learning resources and opportunities (formal and non-formal, structured and unstructured, award-bearing or not). This flexibility is at the strength, in terms of the adaptability of open and distance education to a variety of needs and situations (COL, 2005).

Distance education is widely used for education and training of people in a variety of contexts. It is one of alternative to promote peace in war affected areas of the country and Allama Iqbal Open University is a leading distance open university of Pakistan that can effectively play its role in launching different peace education programs. The university is a charted public sector university established under parliament act XXXIX 1974. Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) was then the second Open University in, and is an exceptional institute in several ways, particularly in terms of Distance Education as its basic delivery mode. It provides a second chance to the people to get knowledge and professional skills which can improve their job efficiency and productivity through a vide range of degree/non-degree programs. In Pakistan, distance Education is most suitable to women as it provides them an opportunity to study at their doorstep. Similarly, people living in the tribal and far-flung areas where the formal education system has not reached as yet, also get a chance to be educated (AIOU, 2015). Some of the prominent features of AIOU are as:

i. Course material

The university develops correspondence materials including self-learning study package and supplementary study materials (Articles, textbooks and study guides). The university has print production unit (PPU) for publishing of course material. The PPU prints more than one million books annually.

ii. Media component in Course Materials

The University also develops instructional and self-study material to the learners. Furthermore, the textbooks are substantially supported by media components such as, Radio, T.V Audio, Video CDs, etc. The university has Institute of Educational Technology (IET) with fully equipped TV studios. The IET has also facility of O.B. van for outdoor broadcast. The government of Japan gifted the van.

iii. **Delivery system:** AIOU has a very effective delivery system such as:

The AIOU FM Radio has been broadcasting educational programs on the national frequency of 91.6. The FM radio started its live transmission for its students.

- Satellite transmission: AIOU is putting on air its educational media material on PTV-2, which is beaming out its transmission through satellite to more than 50 countries around the world.
- Online Teaching: Many regional offices/campuses have already been linked for online education and online classes through teleconferencing.
- Information Technology & E-learning

Blending of various applications of information and communication technologies (ICT) are making the system of Distance Education more efficient. As more and more learners get access to the personal computers and Internet, support to teaching through distance learning system is becoming more effective. To cope with the situation, the university established directorate of

E-learning and multimedia courseware design centre. The e-learning directorate is responsible for online support to the students.

- Regional video Conferencing

Latest technology of video conferencing has extensively been employed for interaction among learners, teachers and administration. Videoconference systems have been installed in fifteen Provincial Regional campuses in collaboration with PTCL for the purpose of academic workshops.

- Network of Regional Campuses and Tutor

The AIOU has a very expanded network of regional campuses and study centers throughout the country. Presently there are 44 regional offices and 1,600 study centers in the country. These campuses have thousands of registered tutors', which spread, over the whole country. The Regional offices keep a panel of good number of qualified and willing tutors in each field of study. Thus, the University has a strong central database of tutors. During 2014 more than 70,000 tutors have appointed in both semesters. It is important to mention that the AIOU has 1.3 million students enrolled in different programs and courses.

Thus keeping in view the large presence across the country, Allama Iqbal Open University can play a role in promotion of peace in war-affected areas of the country as number of countries using distance education for educating people. There are number of option, the AIOU can use for building peace such reflecting the content of peace education in curricula of secondary, intermediate, bachelor and teacher training programs. For example, the concepts of peace education/moral lessons may be included in Sociology/Pakistan studies textbooks. Similarly lessons regarding tolerance/respect others and agreements made by the Prophet Muhammad (SAW) with the enemy may also be included in the syllabus of these courses.

Similarly, some non-credit certificate courses/program may be offered for giving skills for peace and non-violence such as listening, discussion, arbitration, and cooperative learning are delicate skills to develop. Seminars can also be arranged for adult on respect for universal values and rights. The University may organize art and speech competition for peace. AIOU FM radio station can also be utilized for presenting discussions and drama/stories for peace promotion.

Conclusions

The peace campaign started at the end of the 1950s, but the educational institutes did not hail it. Today, we still pay the cost for this: there is dire need to start peace education movement in the educational institutions (Galtung, 1972). Peace education is a mirror that shows future to come and will help to build up a nonviolent society. The country now cannot afford to set aside the peace education program. As during the last several years, terrorist attacks not only killed the innocent people but also destroyed the physical infrastructure of the country. The economy of the country also affected. This wave of terrorism tarnished the image of the country in the globe. This violence and terrorism has emerged as a threat to our society as well as to the whole world. Now it appropriate to initiate some peace education initiatives. One of the best options is the non-formal program for peace building in war-affected areas of the country. Though a numbers of NGOs working but there is no coordination among them. However, these agencies seldom coordinate their efforts and share information. Peace education requires all-around approach. These NGOs have been providing peace education through civic education, human rights education, and citizenship education/ethics in non-formal system. Some of the NGOs are providing civic training through education, health and microfinance services (Dean, 2007). Imtiaz (2010) also indicated that many of NGOs have done a remarkable job in promoting peace in the country. The nature and span of their work, however, varies. The experience of different countries may also kept in mind while preparing peace education programs. The research on peace education revealed that the most effective of all is educating the masses and they can be trained well through non-formal way. Distance education is also a way-out as distance education programs for community development has great advantage of reaching many more people than conventional face-to-face programs. Focusing on issues affecting peace of individuals and the communities in which they live, a non-formal approach can address specific problems and challenges through focused objectives directed toward concrete outcomes. And Allama Iqbal Open University can take this initiative of peace promotion. As pointed out above, AIOU has a very strong out reach system with internal, state of the art infrastructure at the main campus as well as in the regions throughout the country. The university can use various forms such as preparing pamphlets and books, peace painting competition, speech competition among students, offering courses, seminars and conferences, newspaper articles and magazine, online courses, discussion and FM radio programs on concept of peace. FM radio transmission of AIOU in the tribal belt will be very useful. Discussion and dialogue series on different aspects of peace may be telecasted in local language. Radio program on Islamic brotherhood, respect for mankind, equality, responsibilities of an individual in the society, fear of Allah, accountability and the concept of hereafter may be organized with help of local clerics/ulemas. Similarly cultural programs may also telecast. For this purpose O.B van of IET may be used for recording and broadcasting of cultural programs. The O.B van has fully equipped with recording facilities. Another area where the AIOU can intervene very effectively is the teacher training. Presently the Open University is a key player in teacher training sub sector in the country. The enrollment in the teacher-training programs like PTC/CT/BED/M.Ed/MA Education is more than two

hundred thousand. The AIOU trained teachers serving in all areas of the country. So introduction of peace education through teacher training will be an effective intervention strategy to educate the people, as the teachers are role models. For this purpose, different topics related to peace may be included in different courses of pre-service teacher training programs. Further some non-credit courses for awareness and developing understanding of in-service teachers may also be introduced.

Recommendations

On the basis of document analysis and qualitative discourse, it is recommended that:

- Use the potentials of Allama Iqbal Open University for launching Nationwide campaign of peace education
- Training programs for teachers on the concepts of peace and tolerance and non-violence may be organized with collaboration of AIOU. FM radio station and O.B van may be used for awareness of the people about peace/tolerance.
- A common narrative of peace education may be developed and propagated through media. The description may also be included in curriculum at different levels.
- Peace education should be included in the curriculum of distance and non-formal education courses/programs of teachers training.

Encouraging peace education as an area of research. The universities and research institutes may be encouraged to take this initiative. And some best researches may be published and rewarded by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan.

Some political, policy and administrative actions are needed immediately to address the issues like: curriculum, pedagogy and resources, teacher training and community involvement.

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Attitudes of Parents towards Pashto Medium of Instruction in Government Primary Schools of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to explore the attitudes of parents that they favor or disfavour the use of Pashto in education because parents and maternal languages have very strongest natural attachment with children. A sample from the study was drawn randomly. Cluster sampling technique was used, which included six hundred parents of primary school students. A questionnaire based on two points scale was used for data collection. The collected data was analyzed, and it was found that most of the parents considered Pashto as a mother tongue and the easiest medium of instruction but they did not favor it on the basis that it would not support their children in upcoming education and competitive examinations which are in English. If one wants to enhance parents' involvement, education should be provided through children's mother tongue at the early primary school level while national and international (English) languages should be implemented at onward levels.

***Keywords*:** Parents, Pashto medium, Primary school, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Medium of instruction, Mother tongue.

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Introduction

Every baby's mental development starts on its arrival in this universe. In his/her development, the role of parents is very significant because they are the child's irreplaceable life-partners, teachers, guides, counselors and nurses (Khan, *et al*., 2008). So a child soon acquires mother tongue and informally builds up vocabulary of nearby things during his/her continuous attachment with parents (Daud, 2003). These informal learning experiences of home interact with the formal

learning experiences of schools. Therefore, parents' involvement and consultation is a very essential ingredient for a child's desired primary education (Government of Ireland, 1999).

A purposeful primary education leads a child to successful future education and ultimately high-caliber jobs (Muslimi, 1999). Therefore, all over the world, parents have a great desire to see the future through their children's safety and success in educational perspective (Khurshid, *et al*., 2010). So education is the door to all successes but the language, a unique tool granted to human beings by Almighty Allah is the key to these successes (Hussain, 2005). Urdu is the medium of instruction in majority of government primary schools of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, but it is the mother tongue of only 6.8% people of Pakistan. So, only 5% of children are getting education through their mother tongue (Coleman, 2010). In the majority of schools, students face the difficulty of having to learn three languages, Pashto (mother language), (Urdu) national and (English) international language (Khattak, 1998). Parents are the important stake holders in education of children, so they should also be consulted on the selection of a medium of instruction (Hussain, 2005). It is universally acknowledged that every new admitted child feels traumatic and insecure in school environment, needs supportive and familiar environment, which is possible by making learning resources localized as much as possible in transition from home to school (Government of Pakistan, 2007).

Certainly, the medium of instruction in past and present remained a matter of confusion and no one among teachers and educationists, including parents are clear about the instructional medium for primary school's children (Gillani, *et al*., 2010). However, in this situation, parents are the only stake holders who would never choose an inferior or harmful gift (medium of instruction) for their children (Khurshid, *et al*., 2010).

We are now going to analyze some of the main points in favor and disfavor of the medium of instruction in first language from the parents' point of view.

Favor

A child communicates in his/her first language with parents and particularly community members; soon he/she acquires enough familiarity and comprehension in their first language, which enhances his/her intellectual development. Majority of parents responded that they would be able to supervise and assist their children at home in primary school studies, if provided in their mother tongue (Iyamu and Ogiegbaen, 2007).

Educators in their studies reported a situation in which majority of parents were neither adequately proficient nor literate in English language to assist their children at home in their (English medium) studies. Hence they endorsed the

importance of mother tongue for parents as well (O'Connor, 2006). Mother tongue as an instructional medium will also facilitate parents to encourage as well as motivate their children in studies at home, which will surely enhance their enrolment and success (Shukurova, 2009; Ball, 2010). According to British Council Pakistan, if the home languages of children and instructional medium are same, then parents will be able to assist their children in study, otherwise through foreign language it will be very difficult for them (British Council of Pakistan, 2010).

Many parents have high expectations from their children and were of the view that math and science subjects are already hard to understand; moreover, English medium of instruction doubles the learning difficulties which will lead to under performance (Tarhan, 2003). Students having other than English language backgrounds are bound to struggle hard and usually learn by rote in English medium of instruction to get through examinations. They are also unable to acquire important information and remain deprived of parents' guidance related to their studies at home, which is possible for most of the parents through mother tongue only (Olugbara, 2008). Most of the parents are unable to arrange coaching facilities for their children's education, provided through English medium due to financial constraints (Maniam, 2010). The use of mother tongue as an instructional medium also increases parents' rate of participation in a teaching-learning process in the shape of their communication with teachers and classroom resource (UNESCO, 2007b). Parents who were in favour of mother tongue's use as an instructional medium pointed out that it would support their children in preservation and nourishment of native language and culture (Government of Nepal, 2005; Shukurova, 2009). It was found from the responses of teachers and principals, including parents that children learn to read and write easily; consequently, their writing skill also builds up (UNESCO, 2007a). According to Sipra (2007), children listen to routine discussions and stories from their parents and other caregivers who enhance their vocabulary, so they come to school mentally prepared for successful education.

Disfavor

According to British Council report, Pakistan is included among those countries who have high level of fragility in language; that's why it requires very careful planning for choosing a medium of instruction in education (Coleman, 2010). In Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pashto was found the first language of majority school going children, but it was opposed by parents due to its ghettoizing potential and devaluation in domains of power, which is ultimately disadvantageous for their children's future education and employment (Rahman, 1996; Tarhan, 2003). It is due to the fact that the knowledge of English language is an essential requirement for most of the jobs and upcoming education (Rahman, 1999). Some of the marginalized

and poor parents were of the view that their children also have a right to get education through the same language (English) that has benefited the elite families' children (Benson, 2004). The Assistant Director (Education) for tribal areas pointed out two obstacles in implementation of Pashto medium of instruction, i.e. lack of employment opportunities and difficulties in understanding the northern dialect of Pashto to children of people hailing from southern areas (Rahman, 1996). Parents decide and force their children to study English, whether they like it or not (Ba-Udhan, 2010). Most of the parents consider English a superior and high function language as compared to their mother tongue which certainly beneficial for their children in the future (Ndamba, 2008). It was found from the responses of one hundred seventy six (176) parents out of which ninety (51.14 %) favored Urdu, twenty seven (15.34 %) Pashto, eight (4.54 %) favored English medium of instruction while the remaining were neutral (Farooq, *et al*., 1991).

Parents opposed the mother tongue and considered the use of English superior as a medium of instruction in schools on the basis that it is the responsibility of parents and not the school to teach in the mother tongue (Iyamu and Ogiegbaen, 2007). Even in China the mediums of instruction were: Chinese, Malay and Tamil up to 1980. Even here the enrolment ratio gradually decreased due to parents' increasing inclination towards English medium of instruction (SEAMEO, 2009). Some parents assumed that as much earlier children confronted with English (as a medium of instruction); the sooner they would be able to overcome the deficiency in its use. So they preferred English as an instructional medium from the beginning of school (Wolfaardt, 2005). Many literate and illiterate parents have assumed their children will progress immensely if they study in English medium schools (Mustafa, 2005). Parents responded that the use of local languages as the medium of instruction would negatively affect their children's performance in English (Heugh, *et al*., 2007). Because the average and high-status parents want to admit their children in English medium schools to achieve maximum academic and economic benefits in the future. This type of 'children centered' attitude of parents is not only particular about Pakistan but prevalent throughout the world. In Eire and Wales also, parents considered English the best instructional medium, which would make children's future life safe and prosperous (Lodhi, 1971). Otherwise, use of mother tongue will make him/her economically disadvantageous (Heugh, *et al*., 2007). Therefore, parents never want to see their children being disadvantaged by using the mother tongue. Thus it is argued that English medium of instruction enhances children's proficiency in English language, which will direct them in securing upward social mobility, prestige and well-paid jobs (Tarhan, 2003).

Method and Procedure

Population of this study included all the parents of 2838847 (2.84 million) government primary school's students throughout the province (Govt. of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, 2012). Sample of the study consisted of six hundred (600) parents of government primary school students. For this purpose a hundred (100) parents were randomly selected from each sampled district, i.e. two upper (Swat, Malakand), two central (Nowshera, Peshawar) and two lower districts (Bannu, Kohat). The study was delimited by concentrating on attitudes of parents towards Pashto medium of instruction to a primary school level. A questionnaire based on two points scale (favor and disfavor) was used for data collection. It consisted of fifteen items (N=15). The reliability of the questionnaire was found 0.936 using Cronbach Alpha Coefficient through SPSS version 16. The collected data was analyzed by using percentages and chi- square.

Results

Table

Attitudes of Parents towards Pashto as an Instructional Medium

Items	Favor	Disfavor	p-value	X^2
• You can read the text of Pashto language.	190 (31.7%)	410 (68.3%)	.00	80.7
• You can write in Pashto (language).	167 (27.8%)	433 (72.2%)	.00	1.2
• You have the ability to speak Pashto fluently.	596 (99.33%)	4 (0.67%)	.00	5.8
• It will be easier for literate and illiterate parents to support their children's studies at home if it is provided in Pashto.	431(71.8%)	169 (28.2%)	.00	1.1
• As a parent you prefer Pashto (mostly spoken language of the province) as an instructional medium for your child, as	120 (20%)	480 (80%)	.00	2.2

compared to English (global) and Urdu (National) language.				
• Reading of text will be easier to learn for a child in Pashto medium of instruction.	435 (72.5%)	165 (27.5%)	.00	1.2
• Writing will be easier to learn for your child in Pashto.	443 (73.8%)	157 (26.2%)	.00	1.4
• Use of foreign language as an instructional medium will pose learning difficulties in reading for a child.	330 (55%)	270 (45%)	.01	6
• Pashto as a mother tongue will help to bridge home and school experiences.	506 (84.3%)	94 (15.7%)	.00	2.8
• Pashto medium of instruction has an effective role in the promotion of your cultural heritage.	482 (80.3%)	118 (19.7%)	.00	2.2
• Primary school education in Pashto will be less disturbing for your child.	368 (61.3%)	232 (38.7%)	.00	30.8
• Your children will gain pride among colleagues while acquiring education through Pashto medium.	266 (44.3%)	334 (55.7%)	.01	7.7

• Your child will learn faster in his mother tongue than in second or foreign language.	585 (97.5%)	15 (2.5%)	.00	5.4
• Primary education provided in Pashto medium will be helpful for upcoming education in English or Urdu.	78 (13%)	522 (87%)	.00	3.3
• Pashto medium of instruction will support your child's performance in upcoming competitive examinations.	97 (16.2%)	503 (83.8%)	.00	2.7

Significant level (α) = 0.05

Attitudes of Parents about Pashto medium of instruction were analyzed in the above table. All the responses of parents were found as significant. Out of fifteen (N=15) items parents favored nine (9) and disfavored six (6). Variance of the responses was found 20.79 and standard deviation 4.503.

68.3 % of parents were found unable to read and only 27.83 % were able to write, however, 99.3 % could speak Pashto. 72.5% of parents responded that reading while 73.83 % viewed writing will be easier to learn for their children through Pashto medium of instruction. 55 % of parents viewed that reading will be difficult to learn through use of foreign language as an instructional medium. 84% of parents responded that Pashto medium of instruction will bridge home and school experiences and promote cultural heritage in the light of 80.3 % of respondents. Furthermore, 71.83% of parents (literate and illiterate) responded that Pashto medium of instruction would make them able to support their children in studies and make school less disturbing for children under the responses of 61.33% of parents. 97.5% of respondents accepted that children will learn faster in their mother tongue. 87% of parents opposed Pashto medium of instruction due to future education provided in English or Urdu and 83.83% opposed on the basis that it will not support their children in upcoming competitive examinations.

Discussion

Majority of parents were found unable to read and write the (text of) Pashto language, although they had fluency in Pashto speaking. It was supported in the study conducted by Farooq, *et al*., (1991) in Malakand division where the overall literacy rate was found 53.97%, however, 97.2 % of parents were Pashto speakers.

It was favored by most of Parents that reading and writing of text will be easier to learn for a child in Pashto medium of instruction. While it was found similar to the responses of parents, teachers and principals by UNESCO (2007a) that children studying in their home language will participate more actively in class discussions, learn to read and write easily and consequently their skill of creative writing will also build up. As most of the parents responded that Pashto medium of instruction will bridge home and school experiences and promote cultural heritage. Similar results were found by Government of Nepal (2005) and in the study of Shukurova (2009) and Olugbara (2008) from parents' responses that mother tongue as an instructional medium will support their children's academic performance, preserve native culture and in particular their language.

Furthermore, literate and illiterate parents both would be able to support their children studies at home, which will ultimately make school less disturbing for them. It was also argued by O'Connor (2006) that parents in majority are not proficient enough in English to assist their children at home whereas the mother tongue was considered the best medium in the findings of Shukurova (2009) for parents to guide their children at home. Parents also accepted in majority that children will learn faster in their mother tongue. This result was consistent with the findings of Tarhan (2003), who was of the view that parents have high expectations from their children and the use of the instructional mediums other than the mother tongue doubles the learning difficulties which lead to under performance.

However, instead of these advantages, parents in majority disfavored Pashto medium of instruction on the plea that it will not support their children in upcoming education and competitive examinations. In their views, only English can solve this problem. The findings of Rahman (1996) and Tarhan (2003) were in line with these results because parents opposed Pashto (mother tongue) as an instructional medium due to its ghettoizing potential and devaluation in domains of power, which is ultimately disadvantageous for their children's future education and employment. In a study conducted by Government of Nepal (2005) parents also disfavored mother tongue as an instructional medium due to fear of loss of investment and dark future for their children.

Conclusion

Majority of parents were unable to read and write in Pashto while they had fluency in Pashto speaking. Parents assumed that learning to read and write will be easier for a child through Pashto medium of instruction. This medium will bridge home and school experiences and promote cultural heritage. It will also be possible for literate and illiterate parents to assist and supervise their children studies at home

which will make school stress less for them. Furthermore parents accepted the capability of mother tongue in faster learning.

Besides these advantages, most of the parents' inclination was found not in favor of Pashto medium of instruction. They opposed it for their children on the basis of future education, participation in competitive examinations and in particularly finding it an edge for employment opportunities where English is pre- requisite.

Recommendations

Following recommendations were made upon the basis of discussions and conclusions:

- Parents confirmed that children can learn efficiently at school through Pashto medium of instruction. It will be possible for parents to assist their children in studies at home if frequent orientation is provided to them about the use of Pashto medium of instruction.
- Parents like teachers have equal responsibilities in children's successful education. Therefore, if we want to enhance parents' involvement, education should be provided through children's mother tongue at the early primary school level.
- Most of the Parents accepted that mother tongue (Pashto) medium of instruction is useful for learning but at the same time keeping in mind the future education and employment opportunities, their inclination was towards English. So government should keep in consideration the regional sensitivities at early primary level and implement Pashto and Hindko mediums in their respective areas, while at onward level English should be implemented.

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A Comparison of Motivational Desires and Motivational Outcomes:

Study of Employees of Telecommunication Sector Organizations

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Abstract

This study examines the disparity between 'motivational desires' demanded by employees and 'motivational outcomes' offered to the employees. The survey is conducted on middle and top level managers of telecommunication sector organizations located in Islamabad and Rawalpindi. Adapted structured close-ended questionnaire with ranking scale from 1 to 20 is used for this research. Non probability convenience sampling method is used for data collection. The sample size of the study is 228 and response rate is 91.20 percent. The responses are statistically analyzed through spearman rank correlation. It is investigated that motivational expectancy of employees is striking on two counts. Firstly, high salary, social status & high prestige, house rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities, better working environment, opportunity for further training and education, appreciation in the meetings on work completed, job security, opportunity to utilize unusual abilities and opportunity of learning new things have least disparity between motivation desires and motivation outcomes. Secondly, the significant level of disparity between motivation desires and motivation outcomes exists for chance to exercise leadership, friendly and congenial associates, promotion, sensible company rules, regulations procedures and policies and working as part of team as the motivational factors.

Keywords: *motivation, motivation desires, motivation outcomes, expectancy theory.*

Introduction

Most employers would like to have their employees motivated and ready to work, but do not understand what truly motivates a person (Tian et al., 2001).Organizations could be more efficient if the employees had vested interest in the future of the company. In order to maximize organizational efficiency, human potential, individuals' capabilities, talents, motivation, satisfaction and time must be managed. The managers' job is to achieve the ultimate objective of the organization through employees. Steers & Porter (1987) has rightly said that one of the tasks of the manager is to motivate employees in organization to perform at high levels. The employees spend their valuable time in the best hours of the days for years to work. It is well settled that highly motivated employees lean to work harder and perform efficiently in their jobs than the less motivated employees. Motivation at workplace is relative term and its perception varies from employee to employee. Knowing best about what motivates employees is the key to achieve the desired objectives. This study is based on expectancy theory of motivation first proposed by Victor Vroom (1964). This theory explains the processes that an individual undergoes to make choices. The primary focus of this study is to empirically investigate the existence of motivational gap between desires and outcomes of employees in Telecommunication organizations both in Government and private sector located at Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

One of the best fit approaches that stresses the universal significance of human recourse management practices is ability, motivation and opportunity (Boxall & Purcell, 2003). According to Ahmed (1999), human resource management is a strategic approach to acquire, motivate, manage and develop employees.HRM in Pakistan is introduced as consequences of the challenges posed by globalization to bring efficiency in business activities. Government of Pakistan for long has been trying to formulate and execute effective techniques to increase employee motivation in order to improve productivity and retention of the employees in all the government institutions. Private sector of Pakistan has better productivity and efficiency than the Government sector.

Motivation

There is an intrinsic correlation between motivation and emotion as motivation is directly influenced by an emotion state of mind (Crowder & Pupynin, 1993). Motivation is a linkage between rationale and actual performance and may be transformed into individual outputs (Guest, 1997). The relevant requirement of employee motivation is valuable information related to the organizational performance (Locke, 1991) with a capacity to make assessments of employees desire

from their jobs and also for their inner feelings in respect of the same (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982; Scully, 1994).

Lawler (1986) has suggested high importance to the skills and knowledge of the employees in organization, and also to their psychological behavior in addition to intrinsic motivation of goal setting and money motivation. Intrinsic motivation is driven by a sense of attachments, interest and whole hearted enjoyment in the works assigned to the job which inherently exists in the individual human being conscience to a certain extent than relying on external pressures or a greed for reward. While extrinsic motivation means that an employee gets any pleasure from working or completing a specific task. It also means that the employee gets an anticipated pleasure as an external reward which serves as a motivator to effectively discharge his duties and achieve the required beneficial result for the organization.

Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation Factors

Many researches show linkage between organizational outcomes, rewards and benefits. Trevor, Gerhart and Boudreau (1997) based on compensation theory found that salary growth has a prominent effect on turnover. Kruglanski (1978) and Deci, Koestner & Ryan (1999) are of the view that rewards have impact on impairing performance, making them 'negative reinforces', especially in the long run.

Promotion procedures and opportunities are directly related with the organizational commitment. Waldman (1984) has introduced the idea that "the sincere workers tend to be most productive if they are given a chance to be at the top which would justify that the workers may be assigned with the job suitable to their talent and skills". This is only the way for the organization to recover their investment from human capital, and therefore an incentive for a profitable return. According to Mumford (1997) there are some important learning style preferences like "activists want to be involved in new experiences and look forward to new ideas". They are implausible to prepare for the learning experience or evaluate their learning afterwards." Huselid (1995) has suggested that the performance based compensation is highly motivating and also acts like influence creating HRM practice for better result. Bansal et al. (2001) has showed that the job security is providing employees with a reasonable guarantee that they will not be laid off, even during tough economic crisis. One of the important motivations for the employees is the attractiveness of the salary, leadership, autonomy, incentives and facilities offered for performance. According to Herzberg theory "if you want motivation of the people to do the good, gives them a good job". Cascio (2003) has suggested that in order to achieve a higher level of productivity compensation in the form of cash payments and indirect payments in the form of benefits is inevitable.

Buchanan (1974) is of the view that the better working conditions could be customized to impact motivation. Buchanan (1974, 1975)is of the view that the work environment characteristics which influence a manager's leverage in motivating employees are personal connotation reinforcement, reference group experiences and stability of expectations. According to the Appelbaum et al, (2000),"teams are seen as a vital part of high performance work systems". Team work is presented as an imperfectly defined construct. Social capital enhances social status. The status is attained through the mobilization and investment of resources with the objective to increase one's socioeconomic standings. Brewer (1991) and McGuire (1968) differentiate two streams of social desires; the need for uniqueness and the need for conformity. Buchanan (1974a)is of the view that employees want to be part of decision making process and want their views to be heard and implement if necessary. Staff members should be allowed to attend the important events of the company.

Expectancy Theory:

The expectancy theory developed by Victor Vroom (1964) tries to lay emphasis on how employees make choices from the possible options available leading to their resultant behavior and effort. On the basis of expectancy theory, anticipation about the consequences, outcomes, or results influence both short-term and long-term behavior indicators in an individual (Vroom, 1964; Torrington et al. 2008).The expectancy theory is solidly founded on two variables namely, the valence, which is seen as the perceived value of the outcomes, and the expectancy on the other part which is viewed as the probability that the behavior through action and effort will lead towards the desired outcomes (Vroom, 1964).The significance of the expectancy theory in the study is majorly to empower employees based on the higher value attached to a set of rewards and the probability of the rewards recurring, calling for equivalent levels of effort, employee relations, commitment and participation (Poulikas, 2009).

Hypotheses

The study constitutes following hypotheses

Hypothesis a:Employees at telecommunication sector organizations have different Motivational Desires and Motivational Outcomes.

Hypothesis b: Both male and female employees have different Motivational Desires and Motivational Outcomes.

Hypothesis c: Employees in organizations of different sectors have different Motivational Desires and Motivational Outcomes.

Hypothesis d: Employees at different managerial level have different Motivational Desires and Motivational Outcomes.

Research Methodology

The population of the study is telecommunication sector organizations operating in twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. These organizations include National Telecommunication Corporation (NTC), Pakistan Telecommunication Authority (PTA), *Pakistan Telecommunication Company Limited (PTCL) (including Ufone),* Telenor, Mobilink and Zong. This sector is selected for the study because during last seventeen years employee demand, growth rate, realization of different HR issues and employee turnover ratio is comparatively higher in this sector in Pakistan. In total, 250 respondents are being approached. 228 questionnaires are received and considered for data analysis. The response rate of the survey is 91.20 percent. Demographics wise sample distribution is shown in Table 1. This sample is appropriate as per Green's (1991) sample size criteria i.e. N>50+8(m) where 'm' is 20 motivational factors. Non probability convenience sampling is used for data collection.

The research instrument is adapted through extracting motivation factors from multiple sources including Heimovics & Brown (1976),Jurkiewicz *et al* (1998) and Islam & Ismail (2004).During pilot phase, instrument is revised based on expert opinion and post-survey feedback from 20 respondents. As the result of these in-depth interviews, the wording and essence of some motivational factors are modified to make respondents commenting well. Questionnaire items are made more readable and simple. Respondents prioritize motivational factors through ranking scale to find out gap between motivational desires and motivational outcomes. The Pearson's correlation coefficient, the spearman rank correlation is used to measure motivational expectancy. This is widely used for non-parametric correlation coefficient and gauges the association between two variables measured at the ordinal level thus is used in this study.

Table 1.Demographics Wise Sample Distribution

1	**Total Sample**	(228)			
2.	**Gender**	(185)	Male	(43)	Female
3.	**Age Group**	(64)	Below 30 years	(36)	31 - 35 years
		(29)	36 - 40 years	(38)	41 - 50 years
		(54)	51 – 60 years	(07)	Above 60 year
4.	**Education**	(06)	Ph.D.	(31)	MS/ M.Phil/ Post Graduation
		(127)	Master	(64)	Bachelor/Graduation
5	**Income (monthly)**	(68)	Below 40,000	(26)	Rs.41, 000- Rs.60, 000

		(25)	Rs.61, 000- Rs.80, 000	(43)	Rs.81,000 - Rs.100,000
		(66)	Rs.100, 000 above		
6.	**Marital Status**	(81)	Unmarried	(147)	Married
7.	**Sector**	(113)	Government	(115)	Private
8.	**Managerial level**	(61)	Top manager	(167)	Middle manager
9.	**Years of experience**	(16)	Less than 3 years	(25)	3 – 5 years
		(68)	5 – 10 years	(119)	more than 10 years

Research Findings

The data on motivational desires and motivational outcomes of employees are striking on two counts: first, the near first nine identical rankings of "Desires" and "Outcomes" employees as shown in table 2. and second, the significant level of disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 10,12,11,18 and 19 and "Outcomes" on rank 17,10,18,12 and 13 for chance to exercise leadership, friendly and congenial associates, promotion, sensible company rules, regulations procedures and policies and finally working as part of team as the motivational factors consecutively. The degree of similarity evidenced here is counter to the research as well as to the stereotype. It can be assume that a strong case is now being built that there is an unmistakable disparity between how these employees view their job environments.

This table 2 shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.821) at 0.01 level. Employees at selected organizations are aware of HR issues. There is rapid growth and development in telecommunication industry. As far as HR issues are concern, companies are keener about their employees and focusing on retaining employees. As high salary and job security are most important motivational factors for retention and organizational commitment on one side and good employees are required by the companies and turnover rate is very high organizations are providing high salary, job security and good working condition as per the demand of employees. An interesting result is that collectively employees rank job security at higher level as compared to high salary. Another amazing result is that there is no vast difference in the opinion of government and private sector employees as far as job security is concern. Generally speaking it is the perception of the government that people shift towards government sector for the sake of job security and towards private sector for the sake of high salary but results are comparatively change as far as target industry is concern.

Table 2: A Comparison of Rank Order of Motivational "Desires" and Motivational "Outcomes" of Employees

Overall Comparison – Sample Size (228)

	Motivational Desires		**Motivational Outcomes**
Rank	**Motivational Factor**	**Rank**	**Motivational Factor**
1	Job security	1	Job security
13	Opportunity to benefit society	11	Opportunity to benefit society
3	Opportunity of learning new things	3	Opportunity of learning new things
17	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities	14	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities
10	Opportunity to exercise leadership	17	Opportunity to exercise leadership
7	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities	7	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities
16	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions	19	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions
15	Freedom from supervision	20	Freedom from supervision
14	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job	15	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job
12	Friendly & pleasant associates	10	Friendly & pleasant associates
9	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed	9	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed
8	Opportunity for further training and education	8	Opportunity for further training and education
4	Better working environment	4	Better working environment
5	Social status & High prestige	5	Social status & High prestige
2	High salary	2	High salary
6	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities	6	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities
11	Opportunity for promotion	18	Opportunity for promotion
18	Sensible regulations and policies	12	Sensible regulations and policies
20	Diversity in job assignments	16	Diversity in job assignments
19	Working in teams	13	Working in teams

Gender Wise Comparison

Table 3. 1. A Comparison of Rank Order of Motivational "Desires" and Motivational "Outcomes" of Male Employees

Gender Wise Comparison Male Employees – Sample Size (185)

	Motivational Desires of Male		**Motivational Outcomes of Male**
Rank	**Motivational Factor**	**Rank**	**Motivational Factor**
1	Job security	1	Job security
12	Opportunity to benefit society	12	Opportunity to benefit society
3	Opportunity of learning new things	3	Opportunity of learning new things
16	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities	16	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities
8	Opportunity to exercise leadership	17	Opportunity to exercise leadership
6	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities	12	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities
13	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions	13	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions
15	Freedom from supervision	15	Freedom from supervision
14	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job	14	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job
11	Friendly & pleasant associates	6	Friendly & pleasant associates
9	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed	9	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed
7	Opportunity for further training and education	7	Opportunity for further training and education
4	Better working environment	4	Better working environment
5	Social status & High prestige	5	Social status & High prestige
2	High salary	2	High salary
20	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities	20	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities
10	Opportunity for promotion	19	Opportunity for promotion
17	Sensible regulations and policies	17	Sensible regulations and policies
18	Diversity in job assignments	18	Diversity in job assignments
19	Working in teams	14	Working in teams

This table 3.1 shows the significance of the spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.813) at 0.01 level. Motivational desires and motivational outcomes of male employees are striking on two counts: almost all other motivational factors have identical rankings of “Desires” and "Outcomes" except the significant level of disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 8,6, 11,10 and 19 and “Outcomes” on rank 17,12,19,6 and 14 for chance to exercise leadership, opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities, working in teams, promotion and friendly and congenial associates as the motivational factors consecutively.

Table 3.2. A Comparison of Rank Order of Motivational “Desires” and Motivational “Outcomes” of Female Employees
Gender Wise Comparison of Female Employees – Sample Size (43)

	Motivational Desires of Female		**Motivational Outcomes of Female**
Rank	**Motivational Factor**	**Rank**	**Motivational Factor**
1	Job security	1	Job security
7	Opportunity to benefit society	7	Opportunity to benefit society
4	Opportunity of learning new things	4	Opportunity of learning new things
15	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities	17	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities
14	Opportunity to exercise leadership	15	Opportunity to exercise leadership
12	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities	13	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities
17	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions	20	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions
6	Freedom from supervision	6	Freedom from supervision
5	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job	18	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job
8	Friendly & pleasant associates	3	Friendly & pleasant associates
11	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed	9	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed
13	Opportunity for further training and education	14	Opportunity for further training and education
3	Better working environment	12	Better working environment
9	Social status & High prestige	5	Social status & High prestige
2	High salary	2	High salary
10	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities	11	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities

16	Opportunity for promotion	16	Opportunity for promotion
18	Sensible regulations and policies	19	Sensible regulations and policies
20	Diversity in job assignments	10	Diversity in job assignments
19	Working in teams	8	Working in teams

This table 3.2. Shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.598) at 0.01 level. The Motivational "Desires" and motivational "Outcomes" of employees differ in many terms. There is significant level of disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 5,3,20 and 19 and "Outcomes" on rank 18,12,10 and 8 for freedom from supervisor, good working conditions, variety of work assignment and finally working as part of team as the motivational factors consecutively.

Similarly, while comparing rank order of motivational "desires" by male and that with female employees, gender wise comparison of male and female employees' desires is made. This comparison shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.636) at 0.01 level. Motivational desires of male and female employees have significant level of disparity between "Male Desires" standing on rank 15,14 and 20 and "Female Desires" on rank 6,5 and 10 for freedom from supervision, freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job, medical facilities, house rent, conveyance allowance as the motivational factors consecutively. Similarly, while comparing rank order of motivational "outcomes" by male and that with female employees, gender wise comparison of male and female employees' outcomes is also made. This comparison shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.620) at 0.01 level. Motivational outcomes of male and female employees in this comparison have significant level of disparity between "Male Outcomes" standing on rank 13,15, 7, 4, 20 and 18 and "Female Outcomes" on rank 20, 6, 14, 12, 11 and 10 for opportunity to make a participation in important decisions, freedom from supervision, opportunity for further training and education, good working condition, house rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities and variety of work assignments as the motivational factors consecutively.

Sector Wise Comparison

Table 4.1. A Comparison of Rank Order of Motivational "Desires" and Motivational "Outcomes" of by Government Sector Employees

Sector Wise Comparison of By Government Sector Employees – Sample Size (113)

	Motivational Desires		**Motivational Outcomes**
Rank	**Motivational Factor**	**Rank**	**Motivational Factor**
1	Job security	1	Job security
18	Opportunity to benefit society	13	Opportunity to benefit society
8	Opportunity of learning new things	6	Opportunity of learning new things
15	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities	16	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities
3	Opportunity to exercise leadership	12	Opportunity to exercise leadership
10	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities	14	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities
12	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions	18	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions
14	Freedom from supervision	19	Freedom from supervision
16	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job	20	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job
13	Friendly & pleasant associates	5	Friendly & pleasant associates
11	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed	11	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed
9	Opportunity for further training and education	8	Opportunity for further training and education
4	Better working environment	4	Better working environment
7	Social status & High prestige	9	Social status & High prestige
2	High salary	2	High salary
6	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities	3	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities
5	Opportunity for promotion	15	Opportunity for promotion
17	Sensible regulations and policies	7	Sensible regulations and policies
20	Diversity in job assignments	17	Diversity in job assignments
19	Working in teams	10	Working in teams

This table 4.1. Shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.570) at 0.01 level. There is almost least disparity between motivational

desires and motivational outcomes of employees in government sector. There is significant level of disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 3 and 5 and “Outcomes” on rank 12 and 15 for chance to exercise leadership and opportunity for promotion as the motivational factors consecutively. Similarly, there is a negative disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 17 and 19 and “Outcomes” on rank 7 and 10 for sensible company rules, regulations, procedures, and policies and working as part of a team as the motivational factors consecutively.

Table 4.2. A Comparison of Rank Order of Motivational “Desires” and Motivational “Outcomes” of By Private Sector Employees

Sector Wise Comparison of By Private Sector Employees – Sample Size (115)

	Motivational Desires		**Motivational Outcomes**
Rank	**Motivational Factor**	**Rank**	**Motivational Factor**
1	Job security	1	Job security
6	Opportunity to benefit society	6	Opportunity to benefit society
4	Opportunity of learning new things	2	Opportunity of learning new things
18	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities	10	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities
12	Opportunity to exercise leadership	19	Opportunity to exercise leadership
5	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities	9	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities
15	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions	17	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions
16	Freedom from supervision	16	Freedom from supervision
14	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job	12	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job
11	Friendly & pleasant associates	8	Friendly & pleasant associates
10	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed	7	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed
8	Opportunity for further training and education	13	Opportunity for further training and education
3	Better working environment	5	Better working environment
7	Social status & High prestige	4	Social status & High prestige
2	High salary	3	High salary
9	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities	11	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities
13	Opportunity for promotion	15	Opportunity for promotion
17	Sensible regulations and policies	14	Sensible regulations and policies

19	Diversity in job assignments	20	Diversity in job assignments
20	Working in teams	18	Working in teams

This table 4.2. Shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.835) at 0.01 level. Motivational desires and motivational outcomes of employees in private sector have almost least disparity between “Motivational Desires” and “Motivational Outcomes” except significant level of disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 18, 12 and “Outcomes” on rank 10, 19 for opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities and opportunity to exercise leadership as the motivational factor consecutively. A comparison of rank order of motivational “desires” by government and private sector employees is also made. Sector wise comparison of motivational “desires” by government and private sector employees shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.719) at 0.01 level. Motivational desires of employees both in government and private sector have almost least disparity between “Motivational Desires” in this comparison except significant level of disparity between "Government Desires" standing on rank 18, 3 and 5 and “Outcomes” on rank 6, 12 and 13 for opportunity to benefit society, opportunity to exercise leadership and opportunity for advancement (promotion) as the motivational factors consecutively.

The data on private sector employees challenge some long-held beliefs and bolster others. The first of the two most surprising artifacts is the level of importance of "chance to benefit society ranked 6th overall for private sector employees (compared with 18th rank for government sector employees). It may be that the answer to the often asked question, "Where has the ethic of government service gone?". It has gone to the private sector; finding says. Second artifact is the level of importance of "chance to exercise leadership ranked 12th overall for private sector employees compared with, 3rd rank for government sector employees. Reason may be that the employees in government sector desire to enjoy a chance to exercise leadership whereas motivational factor “working as part of a team” ranked 19. On the artifact is the level of importance of "chance to benefit society ranked 6th overall for private sector employees (compared with, as mentioned, 18th rank for government sector employees).

A comparison of rank order of motivational “outcomes” by government and private sector employees is also made. Sector wise comparison of motivational “outcomes” by government and private sector employees also shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.615) at 0.01 level. Motivational desires of employees both in government and private sector has almost least disparity between “Motivational Outcomes” except high disparity between "Government

Outcomes" standing on rank 10 and “Outcomes” on rank 18 for working as part of a team as the motivational factor consecutively.

Management Level Wise Comparison

Table 5.1. A Comparison of Rank Order of Motivational “Desires” and Motivational “Outcomes” of Top Level Managers
Management Level Wise Comparison of Top Level Managers – Sample Size (61)

	Motivational Desires		Motivational Outcomes
Rank	**Motivational Factor**	**Rank**	**Motivational Factor**
1	Job security	1	Job security
11	Opportunity to benefit society	20	Opportunity to benefit society
4	Opportunity of learning new things	2	Opportunity of learning new things
19	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities	10	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities
3	Opportunity to exercise leadership	3	Opportunity to exercise leadership
7	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities	6	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities
14	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions	17	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions
17	Freedom from supervision	13	Freedom from supervision
18	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job	14	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job
15	Friendly & pleasant associates	15	Friendly & pleasant associates
10	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed	9	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed
20	Opportunity for further training and education	19	Opportunity for further training and education
5	Better working environment	4	Better working environment
8	Social status & High prestige	11	Social status & High prestige
2	High salary	7	High salary
9	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities	12	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities
13	Opportunity for promotion	16	Opportunity for promotion
16	Sensible regulations and policies	18	Sensible regulations and policies
12	Diversity in job assignments	8	Diversity in job assignments
6	Working in teams	5	Working in teams

This table 5.1. shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.786) at 0.01 level. Motivational desires and motivational outcomes of top level management have almost identical rankings of “Desires” and "Outcomes" except the significant level of disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 11, 19 and “Outcomes” on rank 20, 10 for chance to benefit society and opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities as the motivational factor consecutively.

Table 5.2. A Comparison of Rank Order of Motivational “Desires” and Motivational “Outcomes” of Middle Level Managers

Management Level Wise Comparison of Middle Level Managers – Sample Size (167)

	Motivational Desires		**Motivational Outcomes**
Rank	**Motivational Factor**	**Rank**	**Motivational Factor**
1	Job security	1	Job security
12	Opportunity to benefit society	14	Opportunity to benefit society
3	Opportunity of learning new things	6	Opportunity of learning new things
18	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities	19	Opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities
13	Opportunity to exercise leadership	18	Opportunity to exercise leadership
8	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities	12	Opportunity to utilize my unusual abilities
15	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions	16	Opportunity to make a participation in important decisions
16	Freedom from supervision	20	Freedom from supervision
14	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job	10	Freedom from pressures to obey on & off the job
11	Friendly & pleasant associates	5	Friendly & pleasant associates
9	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed	8	Appreciation in the meetings on work completed
7	Opportunity for further training and education	11	Opportunity for further training and education
4	Better working environment	4	Better working environment
6	Social status & High prestige	3	Social status & High prestige
2	High salary	2	High salary
5	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities	7	House rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities
10	Opportunity for promotion	15	Opportunity for promotion
17	Sensible regulations and policies	13	Sensible regulations and policies
20	Diversity in job assignments	9	Diversity in job assignments

19	Working in teams	17	Working in teams

This table 5.2. Shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.759) at 0.01 level. Data on motivational desires and motivational outcomes of middle level managers have almost identical rankings of “Desires” and "Outcomes" employees except significant level of disparity between "Desires" standing on rank 20 and “Outcomes” on rank 9 for variety in work assignments as the motivational factor consecutively. Similarly, a comparison of rank order of motivational “desires” of top level managers and middle level managers is made. Management level wise comparison top level managers and middle level managers shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.570) at 0.01 level. In this case, motivational desires of top level managers and middle level managers have almost identical rankings of “Desires” except high disparity between "top level managers desires" standing on rank3, 20, 12, 6 and “middle level managers desires” on rank 13, 7, 20, 19 for chance to exercise leadership, opportunity for further training and education, diversity in job assignments, working in teams as the motivational factor consecutively.

A comparison of rank order of motivational “outcomes” of top level managers and middle level managers is also made. Management level wise comparison of top level managers and middle level managers shows the significance of spearman rank correlation coefficient (0.316) at 0.01 level. Motivational “outcomes” of top level managers and middle level managers have almost identical rankings of “Outcomes” except high disparity between "Top level managers Outcomes" standing on rank 10, 3, 13, 15, 19, 11 and 5 and “Middle level managers Outcomes” on rank 19, 18, 20, 5, 11, 3 and 17 for opportunity to exercise leadership, opportunity to engage in gratifying leisure activities, freedom from supervision, friendly & pleasant associates, opportunity for further training and education, Working in teams and social status & high prestige as the motivational factor consecutively.

Conclusion

Many researchers have been conducted on motivation globally as well as indigenously. This research study is Pakistan first rank-based empirical work ever done in the field of motivation reflecting disparity between motivational desires and motivational outcomes in government and private sector organization in development sector. The degree of disparity evidenced in this study is counter to the research as well as to the stereotype. This study is strong policy case for HR

practitioners that there is an unmistakable disparity regarding how these employees view their job environment in comparison with their HR policy.

Employees in different telecom organizations have different preferences in terms of motivational desires and motivational outcomes. There is a great gap between motivational desires demanded by employees and motivational outcomes provided by the organizations in terms of opportunity of learning new things, opportunity to exercise leadership, further training and educational opportunities, good working condition, medical facilities, house rent, conveyance allowance, opportunity for advancement (promotion), sensible company rules, regulations, procedures, and policies and working as part of a team. Some motivational desires and motivational outcomes are different at each level in gender wise, sector wise, managerial wise and experience wise comparative analysis in telecommunication sector. It is also concluded that companies are keen about retaining their employees. High salary, job security and good working condition are most important motivational factors for employee retention. Interestingly, employees of both government and private sector organizations rank job security high as compared to high salary. The motivational desires and motivational outcomes of employees are striking on two counts: first, the identical rankings of “desires” and "outcomes" employees are high salary, social status & high prestige, house rent, conveyance allowance, medical facilities, better working environment, opportunity for further training and education, appreciation in the meetings on work completed, job security, opportunity to utilize employee unusual abilities, opportunity of learning new things. Secondly, the significant level of disparity between "desires" are chance to exercise leadership, friendly and congenial associates, promotion, sensible company rules, regulations procedures and policies and finally working as part of team as the motivational factors. The research advocates the formulation and implementation of appropriate motivational strategies. This may improve motivation-led performance at both individual and organizational levels. More cross-sectional and longitudinal studies should be conducted on the same subject in other sectors, industries and cities of the country.

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Comparative Analysis of Test Anxiety in Male and Female Students Studying in Arts Group at 9th Grade

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Abstract

This descriptive research study compared test anxiety in male and female students studying in arts group at 9th grade in Municipal Corporation Secondary Schools located in Rawalpindi. Multi stage Random sampling technique was applied to select the schools and the respondents of the study. The major conclusions of the study were that the level of test anxiety in the 'form of nervousness and anxiousness, something bad going to happen on test day, feelings of uneasiness before the test' both in male and female students of arts group was found of high level. It is reflected that confused and anxiety driven bent of mind may be the result of over emphasis of parents on marks and competitive environment of the classroom that may negatively affects the thinking process of students on a test. It is also concluded that the rate of test anxiety was found higher in female students as compared to the male students.

Keywords: anxiety, comparison, 9th grade, arts group.

Introduction

Unemployment, inflation, population increase, immigration, eroding of ethical values and the breaking family structure are some of the major factors that have raised the level of anxiety and depression in the developing and developed countries of the world (Talib, Tabrizi & Yacob; 2011). Anxiety is a condition of mood in which one can organize himself/herself to contract with forthcoming troubles that may negatively effects performance. It is feeling of complex fear and nervousness about future events without any scrupulous reasons. It means the existence of panic,

pressure and tension a person feels in performance of any activity that negatively affects his or her performance (Butt & Akram, 2013). It is psychological state of brain of a contestant expressed by the degree of concern, fear, uncertainty, suffering and weakness shown before, during or even after attempting an exam (Cizek & burg, 2006). It is anticipatory, situational or conditions that have abnormal effects on the state of mind which consequently effects performance on a test. According to Woolfolk (2004), test anxiety may effects on these points: focusing, testing, learning attention. It has three main features: cognitive, affective and behavioral. Students who suffer with test anxiety due to cognition element are deficient in self-confidence (Sarason & Sarason, 1990). According to Pekrun and Stöber (2004), students' academic achievement, life quality and internal motivation may decrease by the negative effects of test anxiety.

According to Smith, Robinson, and Segal, (2013), there are six salient types of anxiety discovered by the psychologists that are: *phobia, panic disorder, possessive-compulsive disorder, post-traumatic stress disorder, societal anxiety disorder, universal anxiety disorder*. Components of test anxiety are *affective, behavioral and cognitive*. Physiological state such as 'tight muscles, shaking and tension are due to affective state. Behavioral components include students poor study skills, escaping and delaying their work. Cognitive components include negative thought and mostly under estimate one's self and performance. It is observed that anxious students work more to cope with their examination questions. They work very hard as compare to other students as a compensatory mechanism but it causes more complication for them. It effects concentration on a test and students' minds go blank occupied with negative self-talk and racing thoughts. Emotional symptoms include **f**eelings of anger, helplessness, fear, despair, low-self-esteem and discontentment are common emotional responses to test anxiety. Students often feel helpless to change their situation, or disparage and criticize themselves at their poor test performance. Physical symptoms include nausea, headache, diarrhea, extreme sweating, and shortness of breath, rapid heart-beat, light-headedness and feeling faint. Sometime test anxiety leads to such a panic, forceful fear or embarrassment in which individuals may feel like they are unable to breathe or having a heart attack (Putwain, 2008).

According to Khalid & Hasan (2009), causes of test anxiety are biological, phobia of failure, lack of preparation, mental disorder, poor test history etc. Body releases hormone called adrenaline in stressful situations, and in a lot of cases, this adrenaline rush is good to help in preparing a person to deal efficiently with stressful situations. The symptoms of test anxiety such as nausea, sweating and shaking hands can really make students feel more nervousness and anxiousness on a test day when

they connect to test anxiety. Phobia is horrified state under the pressure of exams that connects self-worth to consequence of a test. Mental factors include students' expectations and hopes play a vital role as a mental factor. For example, if a student underestimates his or her capabilities and fears that his or her result will be poor that will definitely put extra pressure on students' mind and raise the level of anxiety. Sometime failure in one exam may cause anxiety for the next all exams. In this way, test anxiety can also become a horrible cycle. After frequent bearing of test anxiety, students may begin to feel helpless to change their situation. Students past bad examinational experiences and problems influences their minds to great extent that it transform them into a negative minded person and also affects their performance in future exams.

According to Rana & Mahmood (2010), tips for managing test anxiety are: students may arrive at least 10 minutes early and try to engage themselves in reading some magazines to make their mind busy, avoid other test anxious students, accept a little anxiety as a motivator, be prepared for test, develop good test-taking skills**,** read directions carefully, answer questions you know very well first and then go back to the more difficult ones, make outlines before beginning to write, establish a consistent pre-test routine, follow some time table, focus during the test, maintain a positive attitude**,** be confident on their own talent, self-worth and creativity, practice relaxation techniques such as take deep, slow breaths and intentionally relax your muscles, progressive muscle relaxation, before the test or exams remember the best or enjoyable or non-forgetful beautiful scenes of their memory, get enough sleep, take healthy food, do proper exercise, day off a test eat an ample breakfast, visit counseling center**,** visualize success, watch self-talk, resort thinking and crush negative ideas (I should have studied more, I must be stupid, and I have to do well), work on early warning system, Palming method (close and cover their eyes using the center of the palms of their hands), put their feet flat on the floor and with their hands grip beneath the chair.

Research studies have been carried out to explore the impacts of test anxiety on the performance of students' in respect to gender, race, locality, language, ethnicity, parent's socioeconomic status have revealed that it is one of the major hurdle in achieving good grades (Ali & Awan, 2013). According to Pekrun and Stober (2004), individual differences in test anxiety play an important role not only in science and arts group students' accomplishment but also in their personality growth and fitness as well as self-concept, academic development and growth, and educational incentives. The above discussion identify the fact that anxiety dose play a significant role in the performance of students studying at different levels, and the researcher has not observed any study on test anxiety in male and female genders of arts groups in comparative perspective at lower secondary level in Pakistan.

Therefore, it was decided to conduct a study on comparative analysis of test anxiety in male and female genders studying in Science Group at 9th grade in the schools located in the ambit of Municipal Corporation. It also includes to explore the causes of test anxiety in the students studying in arts group at grade 9th and to recommend some logical measures to control the test anxiety for improving the performance of the students.

Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

1. To analyse test anxiety in male students studying in arts group at 9th grade
2. To analyse test anxiety in female students studying in arts group at 9th grade
3. To compare test anxiety in male and female students studying in arts group at 9th grade.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses of the study were:

1. There is no significant difference in the rate of test anxiety between male and female students studying at 9th grade in arts group on the following variables on academic test:
    a. feeling nervous and anxious on test day
    b. being absent on test day by making different excuses
    c. feeling pain in stomach to forget answers of the questions on test day
    d. thinking everything is all right and nothing bad will happen on a test day
    e. feeling uneasy before attempting a test
    f. developing hot and blush face before the test
    g. usually getting sweaty and cold hands before and after the test
    h. getting the arms and legs shaking and trembling before attempting a test
    i. heart beat fastens (increase) and forgetting answers during a test
    j. feeling the need to be pampered before a test
    k. getting nervousness on a test and do not perform well
    l. performing at the best of ability under pressure conditions
    m. enjoying a difficult test more than an easy one
    n. not to enjoy eating before or after the test
    o. feeling of calmness during the test

Delimitation of study

The study is delimited:

1. To the Municipal Corporation (MC) Secondary Schools located in Rawalpindi City
2. To the students studying in arts group at 9th grade

Research Methodology

It is a descriptive research following quantitative approach to collect the data. The variables of the study are rate of test anxiety in male and female students, and comparison of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group were checked in natural setting. It is a survey type research, and test anxiety scale developed by William WK Zung was used after translation into Urdu language and getting its validation from the experts. The data collected from the respondents were analysed applying descriptive and inferential statistics. The rate of test anxiety was determined through the cut off scores on the test anxiety scale that was 3.5. The difference in the rate of test anxiety between male and female students of arts group was determined applying t statistics. The detailed description about the methodology portion is as under:

Population and sampling

The study is aimed at the comparative analysis of test anxiety in male and female students studying in arts group at 9th grade. Therefore, the target population of the study was the students studying in arts group at 9th grade in Municipal Corporation Secondary Schools (MCSS) located in Rawalpindi city. The total numbers of male and female MCSS are 16. The students studying in these schools belonged to middle class and lower middle class families having almost similar socio-economic status. The well to do people sends their children to elite primary schools. The students follow the unified curriculum, teaching hours and the evaluation system. In this respect, the population is homogenous.

Multistage random sampling technique was applied to select the schools and the respondents of the study. At first stage, 5 girls and 4 boys MCSS were selected as the sample of the study out of 16 boys and girls secondary schools located in the ambit of Municipal Corporation (MC). In this way more than fifty percent of the schools were selected as a sample of the study. At second stage, random sampling technique was applied to select the male and female students from girls and boys school. The total numbers of the students selected for data collection were 140 (60 boys & 80 girls). Multi stage random sampling technique was considered appropriate

because it provided equal opportunity to both strata (boys & girls), and also it helped to generalize the results of the study on overall population.

Instrument of the study

The test anxiety scale developed by William WK Zung was used as instrument of the study after getting permission from the scale developer. It was a 20-itemed five point scale response option questionnaire, with a response format strongly agree, agree neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree with numerical value of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 respectively. The numerical values of the item number 13,16,17,20 were reversed as being negative statements. The instrument was translated into Urdu language and modified to focus the major variable of the study. The translated version and English version of the scale were sent to three English and Urdu language experts for correction, refinement and suggestions in vocabulary and sentence structure. The proposed changes and adjustment was discussed with the supervisor to finalize the instrument for pilot testing. The instrument was also validated by three experts in the field of Education. Based on their comments, some items were reconstructed. The major variables of the scale for measuring test anxiety were fear, tension, feeling of nervousness, feeling of up tightness on doing tests.

Reliability and pilot testing

The reliability of the instrument was determined calculating Croanbach Alpha formula to see whether the questionnaire that was being used for collecting data was reliable or not. Alpha reliability of the test anxiety scale was .779. The scale was administered to 20 male and 20 female students for pilot testing. The students were advised to give comments or may discuss those items that are ambiguous and lack clarity for them. In the lights of the feedback given by students, adjustment and changes was made in the instrument.

Data analysis

Data collected with the help of test anxiety scale was analyzed through SPSS version 16.0. Descriptive and inferential statistics was applied to calculate mean, standard deviation, t test to draw out the findings and conclusions of the study. To analyze the level of test anxiety mean, standard deviation and cut off scores was calculated from the responses of the respondents on the each item of the scale. The cut off score on the test anxiety scale was 3.5, and the mean value on the item found 3.5 or above was considered higher level of anxiety and mean value on the item below 3.5 was considered lower level of test anxiety. t statistics was applied to compare the test anxiety of the male and female students in science group.

In quantitative research a lot of ethical issues create hurdles and so the researcher took utmost care of them. The researcher informed the respondents that there is no correct or incorrect answer and ensured that their performance on the test anxiety

scale would not be disclosed to anybody and only used for the generalization of the results. For administration of the test anxiety scale, friendly and comfortable environment was maintained. The element of favoritism and biasness by the researcher during the administration of scale was strictly prevented.

Analysis and Discussion

Data collected with the research scale is analysed under the following tables. The cut off scores to determine the rate of test anxiety was 3.5.

Table 3.1

Analysis of test anxiety in male and female students of the arts group

S. no	Scale item	Gender	N	M	SD	SEM	Decision
01	Feeling nervous and anxious on a test day	Male	60	4.27	.907	.166	HE
		Female	80	3.68	1.37	.195	HE
02	Absent on test day making different excuse	Male	60	2.97	1.29	.237	LE
		Female	80	1.74	.899	.127	LE
03	Feeling pain in stomach on forgetting the answer	Male	60	3.27	1.17	.214	LE
		Female	80	2.74	1.6	.226	LE
04	Feeling everything is all right and nothing bad will happen on a test day	Male	60	3.27	1.36	.249	LE
		Female	80	3.76	1.28	.182	HE
05	Bothered by irritating moments on a test day	Male	60	3.3	1.31	.24	LE
		Female	80	3.22	1.48	.211	LE

06	Uneasy feelings on a test day	Male	60	3.53	1.4	.257	HE
		Female	80	3.62	1.45	.206	HE
07	Face gets hot and blushes before the test	Male	60	3.2	1.42	.26	LE
		Female	80	2.82	1.53	.217	LE
08	Before and after the test my hands are usually sweaty and cold	Male	60	3.9	1.02	.188	HE
		Female	80	2.86	1.65	.234	LE
09	Feel my arms and legs shaking and trembling before attempting a test	Male	60	3.5	1.37	.251	HE
		Female	80	3.68	1.43	.203	HE
10	Mind goes blank and I am unable to think clearly during a test	Male	60	3.43	.923	.168	LE
		Female	80	3.46	1.44	.204	LE
11	During a test my heart beat fastens (increase) and I forget my answers	Male	60	3.7	1.35	.248	HE
		Female	80	3.52	1.51	.214	HE
12	I often feel need to be pampered before a test	Male	60	2.63	1.35	.248	LE
		Female	80	3.74	1.45	.206	HE
13	Enjoy test because it is directly connected to my future success	Male	60	2.3	1.23	.226	LE
		Female	80	1.74	1.1	.156	LE

14	Even getting good score in a test does not seem to increase confidence	Male	60	3.13	1.32	.242	LE
		Female	80	2.68	1.6	.228	LE
15	Nervousness while attempting a test hinders (stops) me from doing well	Male	60	3.03	1.2	.219	LE
		Female	80	3.46	1.54	.218	LE
16	Perform the best of my ability when I am under pressure	Male	60	2.87	1.27	.234	LE
		Female	80	2.76	1.59	.226	LE
17	Enjoy attempting a difficult test more than an easy one	Male	60	2.97	1.52	.277	LE
		Female	80	2.86	1.61	.229	LE
18	Do not enjoy eating before or after an important test	Male	60	2.8	1.2	.219	LE
		Female	80	3.64	1.52	.215	HE
19	I eat too much before or after an important test	Male	60	3.33	1.34	.246	LE
		Female	80	2.52	1.55	.220	LE
20	I feel clam down during a test	Male	60	3.2	1.34	.246	LE
		Female	80	2.74	1.68	.239	LE

HE: Higher Anxiety LE: Lower Anxiety

1. The Mean value of male students on the variable of feeling nervous and anxious on a test day was 4.27 and of female was 3.68. The std. deviation of male students was .907 and of female was 1.37. Mean values of both the male

and female students were above the cut off scores that was 3.5. It indicates existence of higher level of test anxiety in both of the groups.

2. The mean value of male students on the variable of being absent on test day was 2.97 and that of female was 1.74. The std. deviation of male students was 1.29 and that of female was .899. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and female students.
3. The mean value of male students on the variable of feeling pain in stomach to forget answers of the questions on test day was 3.27 and that of female was 2.74. The std. deviation value of male students was 1.17 and that of female was 1.601. There was lower level of test anxiety existing in male and female students on the basis of cut off score.
4. The mean value of male students in arts group on the variable of feeling that everything is all right and nothing bad will happen on a test day was 3.27 and that of female was 3.76. The std. deviation value of male students was 1.36 and that of female was 1.28. There was lower level of test anxiety in the male and higher level of test anxiety in female students of arts group.
5. The mean value of male students on the variable of bothering by irritating moments on a test day was 3.3 and that of female was 3.22. The std. deviation value of male students was 1.31 and that of female was 1.48. There was higher level of test anxiety in male students and lower level of test anxiety exists in female students of science group.
6. The mean value of male students on the variable of feeling uneasy before attempting a test was 3.53 and that of female was 3.62. The std. deviation of male students was 1.408 and that of female was 1.45. Higher level of test anxiety does exist in both of the genders of arts group.
7. The mean value of male students on the variable of their face grow hot and blush before and after the test was 3.20 and that of female was 2.82. The std. deviation of male students was 1.42 and that of female was 1.53. Lower level of test anxiety does exist in male and female students on the basis of cut off scores.
8. The mean value of male students on the variable that before and after the test their hands are usually sweaty and cold was 3.90 and that of female was 2.86. The std. deviation of male students was 1.02 and that of female was 1.65. There was higher level of test anxiety in male and lower level of test anxiety in female students.
9. The mean value of male students in arts group on the variable of arms and legs shaking and trembling before attempting a test was 3.5 and that of female was 3.68. The std. deviation of male was 1.37 and that of female was 1.43.

There was higher level of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group.

10. The mean value of male students on the variable of minds go blank and unable to think clearly during a test was 3.43 and that of female was 3.46. The std. deviation of male students was .923 and that of female was 1.44. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and female students of science group.
11. The mean value of male students on the variable heart beat fasten (increase) during a test was 3.70 and that of female was 3.52. The std. deviation value of male students was 1.35 and that of female was 1.51. There was higher level of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group.
12. The mean value of male students on the variable of feeling the need to be pampered before a test was 2.63 and that of female was 3.74. The std. deviation of the male students was 1.35 and that of female was 1.45. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and higher level test anxiety in female students of arts group.
13. The mean value of male students on the variable of enjoying test that is directly connected to the future success was 2.3 and that of female was 1.74. The std. deviation of the male students was 1.23 and that of female was 1.103. There was lower level of test anxiety in the male and female students of arts group.
14. The mean of male students on the variable of getting good score on a test does not seem to increase the confidence was 3.13 and that of female was 2.68. The std. deviation of male students was 1.32 and that of female was 1.609. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group because the mean values of both the genders were found below the cut off scores.
15. The mean value of male students on the variable of nervousness while attempting a test hinders me from doing well was 3.03 and that of female was 3.46. The std. deviation of male students was 1.202 and that of female was 1.54. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group because the mean values of both the genders were found above the cut off scores.
16. The mean value of male students on the variable of performing at the best of ability when they are under pressure was 2.87 and that of female was 2.76. The std. deviation value of male students was 1.27 and that of female was 1.59. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and female students of science group.
17. The mean value of male students on the variable of enjoying to attempt a difficult test more than an easy one was 2.97 and that of female was 2.86.

The std. deviation mean of male students was 1.52 and that of female was 1.61. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group.

18. The mean value of male students on the variable of not enjoying eating before or after the test was 2.80 and that of female was 2.64. The std. deviation of the male students was 1.202 and that of female was 1.52. There was higher level of anxiety in female students and lower level of test anxiety in male students of science group.
19. The mean value of male students on the variable of eating too much before or after the test was 3.33 and that of female was 2.50. The std. deviation of male was 1.34 and that of female was 1.55. It indicates higher level anxiety in male students and there was lower level of anxiety found in female students studying in arts group.
20. The mean value of male students on the variable of feeling of calmness during a test was 3.20 and that of female was 2.74. The std. deviation of male students was 1.34 and that of female was 1.68. There was lower level of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group because the mean values of both the genders were found below the cut off scores.

Table 3.2
Significant difference of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group
Significant difference of test anxiety in male and female students of arts group studying at grade 9 applying independent sample t test is explained under the following tables:

S #	Scale item	Gender	N	DF	SD	M	T.V	P.V
01	Feeling nervous and anxious on a test day	Male	60	59	1.67	1.29	11.37	.000
		Female	80	79	3.68	1.37	18.9	.000
02	Absent on test day making different excuse	Male	60	59	2.97	1.29	15.5	.000
		Female	80	79	1.74	0.89	13.68	.000
03	Feeling pain in stomach on forgetting the answer	Male	60	59	2.73	1.17	12.76	.000

		Female	80	79	2.74	1.6	12.1	.000
04	Feeling everything is all right and nothing bad will happen on a test day	Male	60	59	2.8	1.37	11.15	.000
		Female	80	79	3.76	1.28	20.6	.000
05	Bothered by irritating moments on a test day	Male	60	59	2.7	1.31	11.22	.000
		Female	80	79	3.22	1.48	15.29	.000
06	Uneasy feelings on a test day	Male	60	59	2.47	1.4	9.58	.000
		Female	80	79	3.62	1.45	17.58	.000
07	Face gets hot and blushes before the test	Male	60	59	2.8	1.42	10.77	.000
		Female	80	79	2.82	1.53	12.99	.000
08	Before and after the test my hands are usually sweaty and cold	Male	60	59	2.1	1.02	11.17	.000
		Female	80	79	2.86	1.65	11.22	.000
09	Feel my arms and legs shaking and trembling before attempting a test	Male	60	59	2.57	1.38	10.17	.000
		Female	80	79	3.68	1.43	18.13	.000
10	Mind goes blank and I am unable to think clearly during a test	Male	60	59	2.1	.923	12.46	.000
		Female	80	79	3.46	1.44	16.92	.000
11		Male	60	59	2.5	1.35	10.08	.000

	During a test my heart beat fastens (increase) and I forget my answers	Female	80	79	3.52	1.51	16.42	.000
12	I often feel need to be pampered before a test	Male	60	59	2.57	1.35	10.36	.000
		Female	80	79	3.47	1.45	18.18	.000
13	Enjoy test because it is directly connected to my future success	Male	60	59	2.3	1.23	10.19	.000
		Female	80	79	1.74	1.1	11.15	.000
14	Even getting good score in a test does not seem to increase confidence	Male	60	59	3.37	1.32	13.41	.000
		Female	80	79	2.68	1.6	11.77	.000
15	Nervousness while attempting a test hinders (stops) me from doing well	Male	60	59	2.27	1.2	10.33	.000
		Female	80	79	3.46	1.54	15.87	.000
16	Perform the best of my ability when I am under pressure	Male	60	59	2.87	1.27	12.27	.000
		Female	80	79	2.76	1.59	12.21	.000
17	Enjoy attempting a difficult test more than an easy one	Male	60	59	2.97	1.52	10.69	.000
		Female	80	79	2.86	1.61	12.51	.000
18	Do not enjoy eating before or after an important test	Male	60	59	2.27	1.2	10.33	.000
		Female	80	79	3.64	1.52	16.91	.000

19	I eat too much before or after an important test	Male	60	59	2.7	1.39	10.61	.000
		Female	80	79	2.52	1.55	11.45	.000
20	I feel clam down during a test	Male	60	59	3.2	1.34	12.9	.000
		Female	80	79	2.74	1.68	11.44	.000

1. There was significant difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group on the variable of feeling nervous and anxious on a test day. The mean value of male students was 1.67 and that of female was 3.68. The significance difference of male students was t (59)= 11.37,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 18.9, p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.

2. There was significant difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group on the variable of trying to be absent on a test day. The mean value of male students was 2.97 and that of female was 1.74. The significance difference of male students was t (59)= 15.5,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79) = 13.68, p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.
3. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about feeling pain (nervousness) in the stomach when they forget their answers were found significant. The mean value of male students was 2.73 and that of female was 2.74. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 12.76,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 12.1, p =.000. The t value of the male students was found greater than the female students of the arts group.
4. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group on the variable of feeling that everything is all right and nothing bad will happen on a test day was found significant. The mean value of male students was 2.8 and that of female was 3.76. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 11.15,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 20.6, p =.000. The t value of the male students was found greater than the female students of the arts group.

5. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group on the variable of bothering by irritating moments on a test was found significant. The mean value of male students was 2.7 and that of female was 3.22. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 11.22,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 15.29, p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.
6. Difference in the means of the male and female students studying in arts group on the variable of feeling uneasy before attempting a test was found significant. The mean value of male students was 2.47 and that of female was 3.62. The p value on t test was .000 that was highly significant. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 9.58, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 17.58, p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of thearts group.
7. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group on the variable that their face grows hot and blush before a test was found significant. The mean value of the male students was 2.8 and that of female was 2.82. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.77, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 12.99, p =.000. The t value of female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.
8. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group on the statement that before and after a test their hands are usually sweaty and cold was found significant. The mean value of male students was 2.1 and that of female was 2.86. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 11.17,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 11.22, p =.000.
9. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group on the statement my arms and legs are shaking and trembling before attempting a test was calculated. The mean of male students was 2.57 and that of female was 3.68. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.17,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 18.13, p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.
10. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about minds goes blank and students are unable to think clearly during a test was found significant. The mean of male students was 2.1 and that of female was 3.46. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 12.46, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 16.92,

p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.

11. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group that during a test their heart beat fasten (increase) and they forget their answers was found significant. Mean value of male students was 2.5 and that of female was 3.52. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.08,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 16.42, p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.
12. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about feeling the need to be pampered before a test was found significant. Mean values of male students were 2.57 and that of female were 3.47. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.36,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 18.18, p =.000. t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.
13. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about enjoying test that is directly connected to the future success was found significant. Mean value of male students was 2.3 and that of female was 1.74. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.19, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79) = 11.15, p =.000.
14. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about getting good score on a test does not seem to increase the confidence was found significant. Mean value of male students was 3.37 and that of female was 2.68. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 13.41, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79) = 11.47, p =.000. The t value of male students was found greater than the female students of the arts group.
15. Difference in the means of the male and female students studying in arts group about nervousness while attempting a test that hinders doing well was found significant. Mean value of male students was 2.27 and that of female was 3.46. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.33, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 15.87, p =.000. The t value of male students was found greater than the female students of the arts group.
16. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about performing at the best of their ability when under pressure was found significant. Mean of male students was 2.87 and that of female was 2.76. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 12.27, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79) = 12.21, p =.000.

17. Difference in the means of the male and female students studying in arts group on the variable of enjoying a difficult test more than an easy one was found significant. Mean value of male students was 2.97 and that of female was 2.86. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.69,= p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 12.51, p =.000. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group.
18. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about not enjoy eating before or after an important test were found significant. Mean value of male students was 2.27 and that of female was 3.64. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.33, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79) = 16.91, p =.000.
19. Difference in the means of the male and female students studying in arts group about eating too much before or after an important test was found significant. Mean value of male was 3.70 and that of female was 2.52. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 10.61, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79) = 11.45, p =.000.
20. Difference in the means of male and female students studying in arts group about feeling of clam during a test was found significant. Mean value of male students was 3.2 and that of female was 2.74. The significance difference of male students was t (59) = 12.9, = p= .000 and the significance difference of female students was t (79)= 11.44, p =.000.

Discussion and Conclusions

It was concluded that anxiety level was found above the cut off scores in male and female students of arts group on the variable of 'feeling nervous and anxious on a test day, feeling that everything is all right and nothing bad will happen on a test day, feelings of uneasiness before the test'. The higher level of nervousness may effects their performance on a test and they may not be in a position to get good scores. The higher rate of anxiety affects their cognitive functions and they may not be in position to put their best performance on a test. They are under the spell of frustration, pressure and tension before appearing on a test. These results are verified by the studies conducted by Ali & Mohsin (2013); Ali & Awan (2013); Cizek & Burg (2006). The analysis of the study revealed that the students are almost in a state of physiological breakdown and their hands get sweating, heart beat fasten and start trembling on a test. They need to be encouraged and pampered before a test.

Significant difference was also observed on the variable of 'feeling nervous and anxious on a test day, everything will be alright and nothing bad will happen on

test day, feeling uneasy before attempting a test' in male and female students. The t value of the female students was found greater than the male students of the arts group. The female students were under the greater pressure as compared to male students of the arts group on test day and their arms and legs get trembling on a test. Their minds go blank and they are not able to think clearly on test day. The higher level of test anxiety affects the thinking process of students on a test. They may not be able to analyse, examine, and critically evaluate the problem that they have to respond on a test. Some students are panicky or tense on a test day and their minds go blank when they are not able to think clearly and logically. Female students need to be more pampered on test day as compared to male students. It is reflected that higher rate of anxiety in female students is due to the sensitive and very cautious attitude towards education as well as to the other matters of life. This confused and anxiety driven bent of mind may be the result of over emphasis of parents on marks and competitive environment of the classroom.

The study has significant implications for students, parents, and teachers. In order to eradicate the student's negative attitude towards test and test anxiety, students, parents, teachers and peers group work cooperatively in the light of following recommendations:

1. Teachers may develop and promote an environment during a test in which the students may feel comfortable and perform at the higher level of their abilities. They may inform the students about the aims of tests, test techniques, and the evaluation procedure.
2. Teachers may develop teaching strategies that help highly anxious students. Teachers may create an environment in which students do not feel threatened rather perform on the test in relaxed way.
3. Students may learn and practice behavioural techniques of anxiety relaxation such as deep breathing, progressive muscle relaxation and visualization, physiological state of relaxation that may help to overcome on the rate of anxiety.
4. Classroom learning and testing may go hand in hand. They may support, facilitate and guide each other that may help to overcome the rate of anxiety.
5. Parents may support the teacher in developing collaborative learning habits in the students and do not place their wards in the ever burning fire of competition. On the other hands, parents play a vital role in shaping their children's' attitudes and different kinds of anxieties.

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Teacher Self-efficacy as Determining Factor of Burnout Among College Teachers

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Abstract

Present study was planned to examine the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and burnout among college teachers. A sample of 150 college teachers including 75 male and 75 female was approached through convenient sampling technique. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES: Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) and Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES: Maslach, Jackson, & Schwab, 1986) were used to operationalize and measure the pertinent constructs. Multiple regression analysis demonstrated teachers' self-efficacy as negative predictor of teachers' overall job burnout among college teachers. Classroom management and instructional strategies (factors of teachers' self-efficacy) were found to be the significant negative predictors of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, whereas student engagement negatively predicted emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment (factors of burnout). Gender differences revealed that female teacher scored significantly higher on classroom management, student engagement, and instructional strategies, whereas male teachers were found significantly higher on emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

Keywords: *Teachers self-efficacy, burnout, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduced personal accomplishment.*

Introduction

The main goal of the college teachers is to practice methodologies and techniques that are student-centered, and to increases the ability and efficiency of

students in learning. The selection and use of these teaching activities mostly relies on self-perception of teachers called teacher' self-efficacy. Teachers' self-efficacy helps the teachers in the selection of assignments and activities that better enhance students' achievement. Bandura (1997) viewed self-efficacy as "conviction in one's abilities to manage and carry out activities necessary to generate particular attainments" (p. 193). Generally, it has been seen that people who have confidence in their abilities perform their duties successfully and effectively as compared to those who are not confident (Woolfolk, 2008). The success of teachers mainly relies on their confidence level which facilitates them to select and design suitable activities in teaching process. Self-confidence is one of the elements of teachers' self-efficacy refers to ones' conviction in managing and accomplishing activities essential to achieve particular teaching objectives in specific conditions (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998).

Teacher Self-efficacy

The most common concept of teachers' self-efficacy denotes to the convictions of teachers in their capability to control important learners' outcomes (Wheatley, 2005). Self-efficacy is revealed in teacher's esteem and capability to bring constructive reforms in the classroom (Osborne, Rausch, & Walker, 2002). Self-efficacy is obvious in the performance of an individual in a given task. Teachers having high self-efficacy deal with problems optimistically and confidently. Also perform the job very well. They are able to continue efforts in complex circumstances and handle these complex circumstances successfully (Scharlach, 2008).

An extensive body of research on self-efficacy beliefs of teachers proved that teachers' convictions regarding their competency have strong link with job dedication, motivation and satisfaction among teachers (e.g., Bamburg, 2004; Rodriguez, Nunez,Valle, Blas, & Rosario, 2009). With this point of view, it is a general observation that highly efficacious teachers give more importance to students' inner and inherent interests like sense of responsibility or gratification associated with their learning as compared to those teachers possessing low level of efficacy beliefs. Also, the teachers who considered themselves incompetent at encouraging their students, lacking ability to improve their teaching quality and unable to control class show a lack of inspiration and have dissatisfaction with the job (Rodriguez, et al., 2009).

Less efficacious teachers with low self-efficacy have less expectation from students, blame students when their planning don't work as designed, and had negative attitude towards students' abilities and performance (Scharlach, 2008).

Robbins and Judge (2007) declared that one's chances to succeed in task are increased by high self-efficacy. In challenging situations people with low self-efficacy are supposed to quit the situation. Whereas highly efficacious people do more attempts to deal with challenge. As a result, it is evident from literature that teachers with high self-efficacy show better results in the class room.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) categorized three dimensions of self-efficacy in teachers, namely teacher self-efficacy in instructional strategies, student engagement and classroom management, measured by teacher self-efficacy scale. Instructional strategies are those methods which foster autonomy in learners; enhance learning through motivation, deep concentration, observation and evaluation of knowledge (Learning, 2002). Efficacy in student engagement reflects the convictions hold by teachers about their talent to stimulate learners to learn (Moalosi, 2012). Consequently, efficacy in classroom management refers to the convictions possessed by teachers about their ability to develop a climate that is academically as well as socially and emotionally conducive for learning through the implementation of suitable instructional methods (Oliver, Wehby, & Daniel, 2011).

Teachers' self-efficacy shapes the qualities of effective teachers such as efficiency, originality and determination (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Moreover, highly efficacious teachers were observed to be good planner and organizer of their work, more determined, original, flexible and willing to accept latest ideas (Prothroe, 2008).

In many countries including Pakistan teaching is conceptualized as most hectic job. Many factors like teachers' pay structure, social status, working hours, heavy work-load, and work place make this profession most stressful (Naheed, Rehman, & Shah, 2000). The economic status of teachers is not very impressive. They have little chances for obtaining appreciation and professional improvement. Education system is not homogeneous throughout the country. All these factors contribute a lot in the development of job-related stress.

Job Burnout

Burnout is a psychological term that is defined in its varied aspects by the pioneer Freudenberger (1974). Burnout is defined as disorder of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that mostly exists in professionals who have frequent interaction with other people (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The term explains a state of physical and emotional draining condition that hinders in performing job activities. It stems from frustration, stress, depression, and fatigue due to job activities and impacted the work performance

adversely. Emotionally quitting or leaving the job is an elaborated type of burnout. Stress, tiredness, fatigue, and exhaustion lead to such a psychological or emotional state that hinders the working efficiency of teachers. They feel overwhelmed under this stress and an observable decrease in their performance occurs. Emotional burnout is measurable in three types: emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and inadequate personal accomplishment (PA) (Saiiari, Moslehi, & Valizadeh, 2011).

Emotional exhaustion is the result of long term stress and excessive work-burden. The employees develop feelings of alienation in their profession mentally and emotionally and face problems to deal with this situation. The second dimension of burnout is depersonalization that is about psychologically isolating oneself from service recipients, having no or minimum dealing with them. Employees experiencing this dimension do not admit the exceptional qualities of service recipients and considered them as objects (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). The reduced personal accomplishment is the last dimension of the job burnout. Employees experiencing this dimension have negative self-perception and evaluate their achievements as in sufficient. This state describes the personal condition of a person who loses confidence in his/her abilities and has negative perception of self (Maslach, 2003).

Researchers have supported the idea that extreme job demands and employee's failure to constantly spend energy to fulfill these demands are triggers of job burnout (Burisch, 2006). The dimension of emotional exhaustion in burnout has negative outcomes for the person. Various health problems, reduced well-being, and different forms of substance abuse are mainly linked with exhaustion (Maslach, et al., 2001). Individual's mental health is deteriorated by burnout. Feeling of anxiety, depression, and loss of self-esteem are some of the negative outcomes of exhaustion. Burnout has negative effects for the employees as well as for the organizations. Accordingly, higher level of exhaustion in employees may result in avoidance and withdrawal from the people, clients, patients, and customers, work, and also from the job. (Tarist, Le Blanc, & Schreurs, 2005). So, it has been concluded depersonalization dimension of burnout emerges from emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001).

Relationship between Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Teacher Burnout

Friedman and Kass, (2002) gave the idea that awareness of teachers' self-efficacy is beneficial for teachers to understand and deal with burnout. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) examined the linkage between teachers' self-efficacy and teacher burnout and established an inverse relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and

teacher burnout. It is evident from their findings that highly efficacious teachers experienced less burnout and their students are high on achievement.

A study by Savas, Bozgeik, and Eser (2014) indicated that there was significant decrease in participants' burnout as their scores in self-efficacy was increased. Although, nearly all teachers encounter stress and experience job burnout but teachers with high self-efficacy effectively cope and deal with job stress and burnout using their problem solving skills. More efficacious teachers consider it necessary to face challenging tasks in order to get mastery. So this viewpoint promotes their intrinsic motivation. They recover quickly in case of failures and carry on their efforts. They also think that failures are the result of inadequate efforts or deficient information. So, it is essential to attain or acquire these skills. They are sure that they can overcome these threatening conditions. Consequently it is assumed that these strong beliefs generate personal achievement, decrease stress, and reduce the burnout.

For the present research it is hypothesized that "teacher self-efficacy will be a negative predictor of burnout and its composite constructs i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment". Moreover current study also intended to examine gender differences on teacher self-efficacy and burnout.

Method

Sample. Total sample (N = 150) of current study was comprised of college lecturers selected from different colleges of Sargodha, Khushab, Mianwali and Bhakar districts of Punjab. The sample of lecturers was divided into male (n = 75) and female (n = 75).

Instruments

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) was used to measure teachers' self-efficacy. This scale contains 12 items, which are scored on five-point Likert scale ranges from 5 = a great deal to 1 = nothing. Further, this instrument consisted of three sub-domains i.e., teachers' efficacy in student engagement (a = .81), teachers' efficacy in instructional strategies (a = .86), and teachers' efficacy in classroom management (a = .86). The Chronbach alpha reported by author is .90 for overall scale.

Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES). Urdu version of the scale (Makhdoom, 2015) developed by Maslach, Jackson, and Schwab (1986) was used in order to measure job burnout in teachers. This inventory comprises of 22-items, each based on seven-point Likert scale ranging from 0 for never to 6 for every day. The inventory has three sub-scales namely emotional exhaustion, reduced personal accomplishment, and depersonalization. The Chronbach alpha estimate for emotional exhaustion is .90; for depersonalization is .76; and for personal accomplishment is also.76.

Procedure

The current study was conducted in two phases. In first phase, scales used in current study were translated into Urdu by using committee approach to reduce the chances of flaws and errors in the measurement tool (European social survey, 2012). In the second step of first phase try out was conducted to evaluate the psychometric characteristics of these instruments. Total sample of Phase-I comprised 60 lecturers, i.e. males (n = 27) and females (n = 33), which was selected from different colleges of Sargodha division through purposive convenience sampling technique. The tryout revealed that aforementioned scales possessed adequate indices of reliability and internal consistency. Phase-II was designed to explore the relationship between study variables. The total sample of phase-II, i.e. 150 lecturers, was personally approached by the researcher. In accordance with APA ethical guidelines, concerned authorities and participants were briefed about the goals of study. They were provided with necessary written and oral information about completing the questionnaire. They were also guaranteed about confidentiality of information provided by them.

Results

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Reliabilities, and Correlation Matrix for all Study Variables (N = 150)

Variables	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*M*	*SD*	*a*
CM	-	.78**	.81**	-.74**	-	-	15.80	2.88	.80
SE	-	--	.84**	-.75**	.71**	.71**	15.64	2.71	.78
IS	--	--	--	-.78**	-	-	15.90	2.96	.79
EE	--	--	--	--	.71**	.72**	15.07	15.24	.95
DP	--	--	--	--	-	-	5.54	7.38	.92
PA	--	--	--	--	.77**	.75**	12.54	12.22	.92
	--				.91**	.88**			
					--	.86**			
					--	--			

Note. 1= teacher self-efficacy in class management; 2 = teacher self-efficacy in student engagement; 3 = teacher self-efficacy in instructional strategies; 4 = emotional exhaustion; 5 = depersonalization; 6 = personal accomplishment.

***p* <.01.

Table 1 shows means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients for all the scales and subscales used in the study. The alpha reliabilities of aforementioned scales range from .78 to .95 that guaranteed their appropriateness and accuracy of measurement for present study. Table 1 also shows the correlation between teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout and their constructs scales. It is evident from results that teacher self-efficacy has significant negative correlation with burnout and its constructs subscales.

Table 1

Regression Analysis for Predicting Teachers' Burnout from the Constructs of Teacher Self-efficacy (N = 150)

Emotional	**exhaustion**			**Personal accomplishment**			**Depersonalization**		
Variables	***β***	***R²***	***F***	***β***	***R²***	***F***	***β***	***R²***	***F***
CM	-.25**	.65	91.52***	-.23**	.61	76.71***	-.22*	.62	78.57***
SE	-.24*			-.21*			-.15		
IS	-.38***			-.39***			-.46***		

Note. CM = teachers' self-efficacy in class management; SE = teachers' self-efficacy in student engagement; IS = teachers' self-efficacy in instructional strategies.
**p* < .05. ***p* < .01. ****p* < .001.

Table 2 proposed that 65% of the variance in emotional exhaustion can be explained by a model comprising constructs of class management, student engagement, and instructional strategy (R^2 = .65), whereas 61% of the variance in personal accomplishment can be explained by a model comprising constructs of class management, student engagement, and instructional strategy (R^2 = .61), and 62% of the variance in depersonalization can be denoted to the model comprising constructs of class management, student engagement, and instructional strategy (R^2 = .62). Overall the model one was significant {F (3, 146) = 91.52, p < .001} for teacher burnout emotional exhaustion, the second model for the prediction of personal accomplishment was {F (3, 146) = 76.71, p < .001}, and the third model for the

prediction of depersonalization were {F (3, 146) = 78.57, p < .001} found to be significant.

Table 3

Comparison of Male and Female Teachers on Self-Efficacy and Burnout (N = 150)

Variables	Males (n = 75)		Females (n = 75)			95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*(148)	*LL*	*UL*	
Student Engagement	14.76	3.08	16.52	1.91	4.2***	.93	2.59	0.69
Instructional Strategies	14.83	3.39	16.97	1.96	4.7***	1.25	3.04	0.77
Class Management	14.93	3.30	16.67	2.07	3.9***	.85	2.62	0.63
Emotional Exhaustion	21.01	16.49	9.12	11.14	5.2***	7.35	16.43	0.84
Personal Accomplishment	16.91	13.87	8.17	8.33	4.7***	5.04	12.43	0.76
Depersonalization	8.45	8.25	2.63	4.93	5.3***	3.63	8.02	0.86

***p < .001.

Results in Table 3 demonstrate the mean gender differences and effect size of teacher self-efficacy, burnout, and their construct scales. Results demonstrate that female teachers were higher on self-efficacy in student engagement, class management and instructional strategies, whereas male teachers found to be higher on emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization as compared to their counter parts.

Discussion

Current research examined the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and teacher burnout among college teachers. Results indicated that teachers' self-efficacy has significant negative correlation with burnout and its three main constructs i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (see Table 1). As it's obvious that the self-efficacy denotes to the one's confidence one's possess and individual can better cope and handle the situations around. On the other hand burnout is individual's negative response towards situation when the stressors are out of control or strong enough to frail the

ability to tackle the situation confidently. It is therefore seems quite logical that efficacy negatively relates to burnout.

It is evident that more efficacious teachers are successful in their profession. They experience less job burnout because they have confidence in their abilities to deal with stressful and challenging situation more effectively, while teachers with low self-efficacy are nervous, depressed, and more vulnerable to emotions and become emotionally exhausted as they face hurdles. Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) believed that if a person holds a belief that he can perform a certain task, he can do it very well as compared to that person who has some doubts or uncertainties about that job.

Finding of the current study are in accordance with earlier theoretical researches demonstrating the impact of teachers' self-efficacy on job burnout for example Yazdi, Motallaebzadeh and Ashraf (2014) explored that teachers' self-efficacy has significant negative correlation with job burnout. Vaezi and Fallah (2011) conducted a study on Iranian teachers and found that teachers' self-efficacy and job-related stress have negative relation.

It has been proven from the current findings that constructs of teachers' self-efficacy are negative predictors of teacher burnout and its constructs except student engagement which did not significantly predicted depersonalization dimension of burnout (see Table 2). One plausible reason for current findings may be that teachers' self-efficacy encompasses not only variety of skills but also the confidence that one possess to effectively deal with various situation. Efficacy beliefs are considered as a crucial element for person capability while burnout is recognized with signs of laziness, feelings of despair, tiredness, cynicism, depression, absent mindedness, doing work as a burden, unfriendly, cold and distrustful attitude towards students, an inclination to blame oneself and feeling of failure etc., so both these construct have opposite features and are supposed as two extremes of continuum. Therefore a negative relation between these two constructs is quite reasonable.

Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) conducted the cross sectional survey method to study the role of perceived self-efficacy in the prediction of job stress and job burnout. The mediated relationship of low self-efficacy may lead to job stress and later to job burnout. Low self-efficacy is related to job stress which later produces job burnout.

However, findings of present study revealed that domain student engagement was not a significant predictor of depersonalization among teachers. As student engagement refers to teachers' confidence to actively involve, empower, and motivate students in learning process (Wolter & Daugherty, 2007). It seems quite

obvious as in Pakistan teachers have no concern with the emotional lives of students. They do not care when student are not effectively involved in learning process. Students are punished for their mistakes. Some teachers do not practice innovative or new methods, so their students remain unmotivated and have no interest in teaching learning process. It is also noted that in our society, teachers have no close contact with parents. Parent teacher interaction is necessary to engage students in such activities that boost their achievement and learning.

It is inferred from the previous studies that teachers experience burnout when they perceived themselves less efficacious. For example, it was assumed that teachers who were suspicious about their capability to control troublesome students considered them responsible for their suspicions and consequently have hostile attitude towards them. Teachers, who are unable to engage students effectively in the class, experienced more job related stress and are more emotionally exhausted (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) demonstrated that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in teachers is developed due to constant professional stress produced as a result of their inability to effectively manage classroom. Therefore, it is concluded that an inverse relationship exists between teachers' self-efficacy and teacher burnout.

The current research investigated gender differences among teachers on constructs of teachers' self-efficacy and burnout. Finding revealed that all constructs of self-efficacy i.e., efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies, efficacy in class management and all constructs of burnout i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment have significant gender differences. The mean differences on all constructs of teachers' self-efficacy indicate that female teachers have high sense of efficacy-beliefs than male teachers (see Table 3). It implies that female teachers have high efficacy beliefs in class management, student engagement, and instructional strategies. The findings are quite reasonable as females are better in class management because they have a strict and firm attitude towards class management and are prone to engage students more but male teachers have soft corner for students especially they treat girls kindly.

Current findings are consistent with Martin, Yin, and Mayall (2006) who explored the gender differences on class management style and found that female teachers had utilized more instructional techniques in a single lesson than male teachers. Ferrara (2013) also examined the impact of gender on efficacy in class management and concluded males and female teachers significantly differ on this construct.

Current study revealed that female teachers have better efficacy in student engagement than male. The finding seems quite logical as female teachers have more emotional attachment and concern with students. Hence they easily find out when student are not efficiently involved in learning process. Present findings are in same fashion with Tison, Batman, and Culver (2011) who studied the gender differences on student engagement among teachers at the post-secondary level in US and found that female teachers scored higher than male teachers.

Current study also indicated that female teachers were better on instructional strategies. The logical reason for these results may be that female teacher are usually more committed with their profession and they use variety of innovative teaching techniques to attract the attention of students and enhance learning in them. Female teachers have higher self-efficacy beliefs as they are more capable than male teachers to easily adjust to each student. They always tried their best to demonstrate superb performance in their profession. In Pakistan, teaching is regarded as most suitable profession for females. More females are employed in this profession. They feel more protected, capable, and skilled in this profession. Another possible explanation for current findings may be that females have limited activities and they give much time to their profession. They are sensitive, caring, more responsible, and touchy by nature. Due to these attributes they have more confidence to develop strong and effective relationship with students. However, in Pakistan males are not inclined toward teaching at elementary or other levels. They feel less comfortable in this profession because they lack skills to develop effective link with students. Therefore, they possess less teaching self-efficacy than females.

Numerous studies demonstrated that female teachers were more efficacious (e.g., Anderson, 2011; Cheung, 2008; Karimvand, 2011). Specifically, at elementary level schooling the female teachers perform better, like a recent study by Wood (2012) explored that the male teachers were negative in their attitude and behavior at elementary level and female teachers were more encouraging and concerned regarding students' needs. Current findings are supported by shazadi, Khatoon, Shamsa, and Hassan (2011) who examined that female teachers secured higher score on self-efficacy beliefs than male teachers. Current findings are in same fashion with Atta, Ahmad, and Ali (2012) who proved that female teachers' secondary schools are more self-efficacious in decision making, parental, and community participation as compared to male teachers.

In the present study independent sample t-test was carried out to demonstrate significant gender differences on burnout and all its constructs i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Mean scores

for males are higher on all three constructs of burnout (see Table 3). It is concluded that male teachers were found more exhausted, strained, tired, and frustrated than female teachers. The mean difference of scores in depersonalization was in favor of male teachers reported statistically significant. It is observed that comparatively male teachers revealed more offended and pessimistic attitude towards learners. Similarly the mean difference of scores in personal accomplishment was in favor of males reported statistically significant. Hence, it is noted that male teachers' reveal reduced achievement in their professional activities than female teachers.

The lower level of job satisfaction in male teachers might be subject to the female teachers' perception to stand side by side the male to accomplish responsibilities, along with their aspiration level, social suitability, job responsibilities, challenges, and career development. Rigid time schedules, long working hours, competitive environment, and constant encounters with the students and teachers is assumed to induce emotional burnout among teachers. However, female teachers have the tendency to better cope with these challenges and overcome burnout as teaching provide them the opportunity of working with children. Due to their personality traits and motherly nature, they are more satisfied in teaching profession. This factor enhances their self-efficacy beliefs and reduces the burnout. Furthermore, teaching is associated with many benefits particularly for women such as nice working timetable with short working days, lengthy leaves, and sufficient time for their families. Career oriented people are not required in teaching profession, so females are more attracted in this profession. They considered it a noble profession and do not pursue the profession.

Female teachers are more satisfied with the supervision of authorities in an institution, whereas men are naturally more ambitious about their career and are more concerned with leadership factors, fairness of administration, and supervision. If they are not satisfied with the above factors, there are chances to observe a situation which makes them unhappy. Since females are more concerned with their work and are satisfied with their profession. So they do not bother these factors and have little interest to the work of the principal and supervisors. For these reasons females are more successful in the profession and face less burnout than males.

Byrne (1998) highlighted that male teachers are more influenced by the triggers of burnout as compared to females who are more motivated. Present findings are in same fashion with Burke and Greenglass (1989) who found that male teachers were significantly higher than women on depersonalization. Male teachers were observed with more signs of burnout and dissatisfaction with their profession than female teachers. Anterbrink (2007) reported male teachers showed significantly

lower personal accomplishment and more depersonalization than female. Present findings are also in accordance with the study conducted by Bayani, Bagheri, and Bayani (2013) that reveals that male teachers were significantly higher than female on burnout. Male teachers show more signs of burnout in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than the female teachers. However male and female teachers were not significantly different in reduced personal accomplishment.

Conclusions

Current findings endorsed that teachers' self-efficacy is negatively related to their job burnout, whereas female teachers scored higher on self-efficacy and male teachers were higher on all three constructs of burnout. Further domains of teachers' self-efficacy are recommended to be study by using large sample size and multimethod approach in order reduce response biases caused by self-report measures. The study also has implications for college principals to arrange professional trainings to develop teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and to implement effective interventions to reduce stress and job burnout.

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The Use of Stative Verbs as Progressive in Pakistani English: A Corpus-Based Study

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Abstract

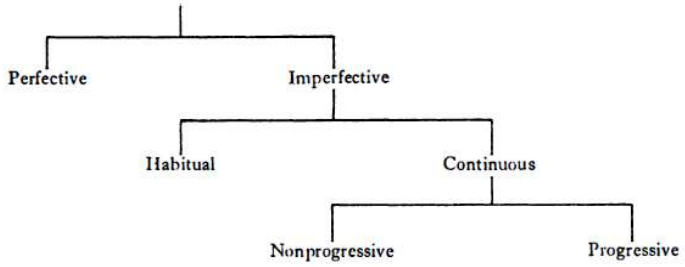
This present research focuses on the progressive aspect of Pakistani English. It investigates whether Pakistani bilinguals deviate in the use of stative verbs in their journalistic writing or not. This deviant use of progressive aspect is shared by other non-native varieties of English and may be the result of language interference. A corpus of Pakistani English newspapers comprising of more than 10 million words has been used for the present research. Software application "Antcoc 3.2.1" is used to extract the required data from the corpus. On the basis of progressive structure almost more than half verbs are extracted. The extracted examples are manually filtered by the researchers. The results show that the stative verbs are used progressively in Pakistani English very frequently. This study also finds that the deviant use of stative verbs as progressive is an important characteristic of Pakistan English.

Key Words*: Pakistani English, Stative verbs, Progressive Aspect, Corpus based, Deviation, British English*

Introduction

In the English language aspect is an important feature of verb. According to Comrie (1976, p. 3), aspect is a miscellaneous mode of viewing the ‘‘internal temporal constituency of a situation". English verbs carry two types of aspect; progressive and perfective.

Table 1. *Classification of aspectual oppositions*



(Source: Comrie, 1976)

Progressive aspect is a subcategory of imperfective which refers to the internal structure of an event, situation or action. Biber et al. (1999) define progressive as the activity or event in progress for a limited time period. On the other hand perfective aspect is related to the verb, which shows complete action. It has proper start, middle and end. Perfective aspect takes the overall view of the situation while progressive judges the situation within. Aspect is different from tense but both are related to verb in a sentence. According to Biber et al. (1999), tense and aspect are different from each other from a semantic point of view. Tense is related to time as past, present and future, while aspect is related to the completion or the progression of the event that is described by a verb. For example,

- He **is playing** county cricket. (FP, September 28)

In the above example, tense is present and the aspect is progressive.
On the basis of aspect, verbs are also divided into two categories; dynamic and stative verbs (Rasheed & Mehmood 2014). Dynamic verbs (run, walk, go) are associated with progressive aspect while stative (have, feel, think) are associated with perfective. For example,

1. This **is going** to be a good crop year …….(DT, September 19)
2. So I **look** forward to sharing my views…..(DT, September 1)

The linguists establish a particular set of verbs which appears with the perfective aspect (Rasheed & Mehmood, 2014). Lackoff (1970) also develops a particular set of verbs. According to him, a verb should be relevant in its semantic and syntactic construction. Some verbs are not used progressively; these verbs are stative which show experience, condition and state of being. Alexander (1992) highlights it with the help of example to make it clear.

- "She *loves* her baby more than anything in the world". (p. 160)

In this exemplar, "love" describes a state. It is an involuntary feeling/action. We cannot use the progressive forms (was/am loving) here while dynamic verbs show

those actions which consciously refer to the situation which has proper middle and end.

The English progressives consist of be+-ing form of verb like, are playing, were walking etc. It is usually related to the dynamic verbs (Quirk et al., 1985; Biber et al. 1999). Verbs take progressive marking as:

1. He *is playing* in the ground.
2. You *are walking* on the road.

In contrast to dynamic verbs, stative verbs do not take progressive marking. For example

- *She *is knowing* her from last five years.

Many linguists (Comrie, 1976; Lakoff, 1970; Leech, 1971) do not favor progressive form with stative verbs. But they are also of the view that a few stative can be used progressively. This brief paper tends to investigate the use of progressive verbs in Pakistani English newspapers. It has become the feature of new varieties of English (Rehman, 2014). The use of stative verb as progressive is a typical feature of new Englishes (Mesthrie & Bhatt 2008). According to Trudgill & Hannah (1982) progressive aspect of non-progressive verb is also the trait of Indian English (IE). It is more frequent, if Indian English is compared with British Standard English (Gokhale 1988). Rehman (2014) also favors the same view but he does not discuss this feature of Pakistani English in detail. This research tries to fill this gap by providing authentic date from journalistic writing.

Research Questions

- How are stative verbs used differently in Pakistani English with reference to Standard British English?
- How are stative verbs used progressively in Pakistani English?
- What is the role of these verbs in forming the unique syntactic features of Pakistani English?

Limitations

The current study has different limitations; the first limitation is the use of only one corpus type in this research. Due to time constraint, the researchers could not use any other type of genre like fiction or spoken English. Rooy (2014) finds that Indian spoken corpus shows more frequency of progressive verb as compared to written corpus. Spoken corpus is helpful for better result but the researchers could not compile it because of the limited time and financial constraints.

Another limitation of this project is the selection of only six newspapers. All the English newspapers and magazines published in Pakistan could not be taken into account because of the limited nature of this study. However, the newspapers have been selected very carefully.

Literature Review

The use of stative as progressive has been discussed by many linguists in different perspectives. Kakietak (1997) highlights the use of stative as progressive on the basis of American and British novel corpus. Zydati (1976) states that this linguistic phenomenon is one the most problematic issues in English syntax and semantics for most of the ESL and EFL learners.

There are basically two different views about the use of stative verbs as progressives (Rooy, 2014). According to first point of view, the use of stative verb in progressive form is considered a mistake. These types of constructions in English have been called ill formed and sporadic (Comrie 1976; Quirk et al., 1985). Such occurrence of stative verbs is considered an error among the speakers of outer and expanding circles. Gamaroff (1988) also talks about this problematic issue and highlights the incorrect and sticky use of statives. According to Hirtle (1967 cited in Smiecinska, 2003), progressives are acceptable only with action verbs. He also negates the occurrence of stative verb in progressive aspects. Finn (1986) notices that mother tongue plays a vital role in the use of stative as progressive as the following example suggests:

- *He was having a problem.
- He has had a problem.

Bilinguals directly translate it as ‘he was having problem’ instead of ‘he has had problem’. Makalela (2004) notices the same issue in Black South African English (BSAFE). He points out that the Bantu language does not distinguish between the imperfective aspects of language. Black South African English speakers have the same issue in the use of progressive and non-progressive forms (Van, 2006). The other researchers (Virtanen, 1997; Axelsson & Hahn, 2001) are also of the opinion that the second and foreign language learners use stative verbs incorrectly in their formal and academic writing which is against the standard norms of inner circle varieties.

However, with the passage of time, the previous notion has been changed. According to many linguists, this incorrect usage is not a mistake; its deviation marks the distinctiveness in outer and expanding circle varieties. Scheffer (1975) finds copious use of statives as progressives in American British contemporary novel

corpus. This study highlights the acceptance of progressive aspect of stative verbs. The variant use of progressive aspect of statives is also highlighted by Kakietek (1997). According to him the presence of statives as progressive is not against tense, verb phrase structure, genres, polarity and contraction type. The basic point of this research project is to reveal that the use of statives as progressives is very regular and frequent in Pakistani English newspapers.

In this paper the researchers tend to examine the unmitigated use of stative verbs in Pakistani English. This research is conducted to verify the deviant use of non-progressives as progressive with the help of Pakistani newspaper corpus. It has been noticed by different linguists that the second languages learners make a deviant use of stative verbs. This study has been conducted to highlight this issue as it is the feature of outer and expanding circles.

Smiecinska (2003) conducts a survey on the acceptability of non-progressive verbs as progressives. He concludes that it is widely acceptable phenomenon. He finds that stative verbs are used in progressive aspect in many corpora and daily speech. The use of progressive is increased in America up to 30% (Rasheed & Mehmood, 2014).

Axelsson & Hahn (2001) have conducted research on the same issue by using Swedish and German advanced learner's corpora and described that this is a difficult feature of English for second language learners. According to Biber et al. (1999) this feature is common in fiction like imaginative writing and less frequent in academic writing. The frequency is increased in imaginative essays as compared to argumentative. Collins (2008) notes that the progressive condition of non-progressive is not restricted to outer circle countries rather it has become the feature of second language learning in outer circle countries. Edwards (2014) is also of the same view. He highlights the same aspect of Neitherland English. Progressive aspect is not only the feature of outer but also of expanding circle. In the same category of research, Buregeya (2006) presents the acceptance of progressive in his paper that is more than 50% which fairly declares it the feature of Kenyan English.

Klerk (2003) claims that the progressive construction is used very frequently in the corpus of spoken Xhosa English. She provides 625 examples of this construction. She claims that progressive aspect of stative verb is becoming a wide spread phenomenon among second and foreign language learners. Both outer and expanding circles have this identical feature of statives as progressive.

Research Methodology

This is a corpus based research. In linguistics, a corpus is a collection of text or authentic data (Francis, 1982). The purpose of a corpus may differ according to the needs and demands of the researcher in his/her research plan. A corpus of Pakistani English newspapers, which consisted of more than 10 million words, has been used in this project. This corpus was actually compiled for Ph.D. research in the field of linguistics by Anwar (2012). This corpus has been selected because it provides huge and authentic data of Pakistani English newspapers. Newspapers text is considered reliable as it has different filters before publication. Six newspapers were selected keeping in view the seriousness and reputation of these newspapers. The data of one month (September) was downloaded and transformed into text file. The list of the newspapers and websites from where the texts were downloaded along with the total number of words (token) is presented in the following table:

Newspapers	Abbreviations	Websites	Token
Daily Times	DT	www.dailytimes.com.pk	1,784,672
The Post	P	www.thepost.com.pk	1,904,142
Frontier Post	FP	www.frontierpost.com.pk	982,998
The Nation	TN	www.nation.com.pk	1,123,983
News	N	www.news.com.pk	2,172,209
Dawn	D	www.dawn.com.pk	2,391,449
Total			**10,359,453**

Table 2: Number of Tokens in different Newspapers

Token: Total number of words in a corpus

In conducting the linguistic analysis of corpus, a software application was used. A list of all types of words was generated with the help of software. Then a selection of stative verbs was made by the researchers. Antcoc 3.2.1 was used to extract all be + -ing form from corpus. Concordancer was used to observe the patterns of stative verbs in a newspaper corpus. It represents "a simple use of technology: search, display, find" (Stubbs 2001, p.55). The software searches for all the occurrences of a word form and the results are displayed in the middle of the screen within a limited span.On the basis of progressive structure almost more than half verbs were extracted. The extorted examples were filtered and selected by the researchers manually. All stative and dynamic verbs were separated for further analysis. The researchers left all the dynamic verbs as they were not relevant to this study.

Data Presentation

All the non-native varieties of English portray deviations at different levels from Standard English. Pakistani English is no exception in this regard and has deviant features at lexical, semantic and syntactic levels (Kachru, 1986; Baumgardner, 1993; Talaat 1998; Mehboob, 2003; Anwar & Talaat 2011; Rehman, 2014). The use of the stative verbs as progressive is one of the syntactic features of Pakistani English. These verbs are used progressively in Pakistani newspapers very frequently as the following table shows:

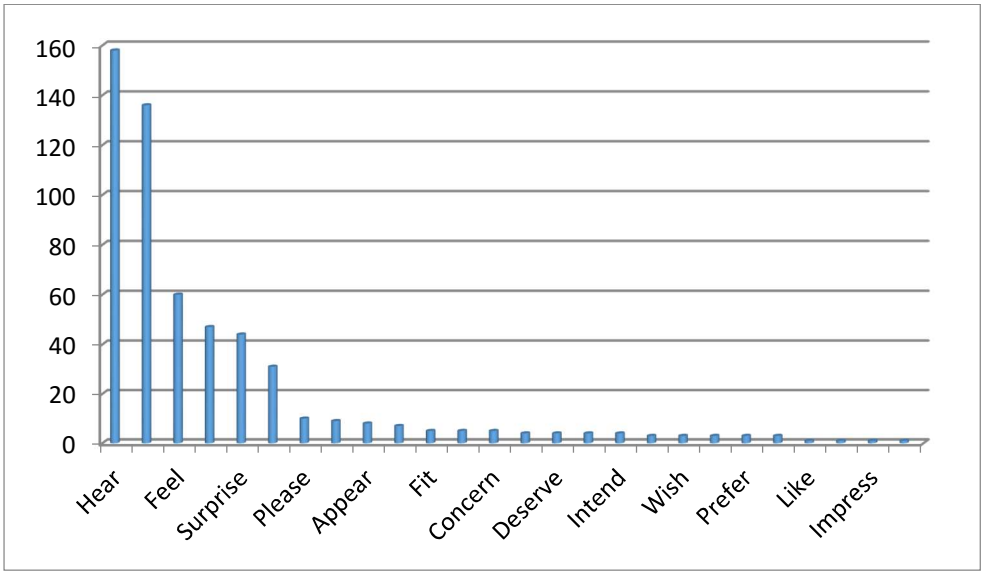


Table 3: Most frequent Stative Verbs used as Progressive

A few examples have been presented in graphical notion to show the frequency of different non- progressive verbs in progressive aspect in Pakistani English. In the data analysis the deviant features have been written in Bold for readers' convenience.

Data Analysis

Handling of stative verbs is a major concern for many learners in outer and expanding circle varieties (Rasheed & Mehmood 2014). Virtanen (1997) states that this variant use of stative verbs as progressive shows extension in meaning. They are semantically different and opposite in nature.

Stative verbs are generally divided into following three categories:

Relational Verbs: These include verbs like, belong, consist, have, include etc.

Perception Verbs: Verbs which are related to our five senses as, smell, hear, see, taste etc.

Cognition Verbs: These include verbs like hate, love, like, know etc.

In this study, the retrieved data has been divided into three subcategories of stative verb.

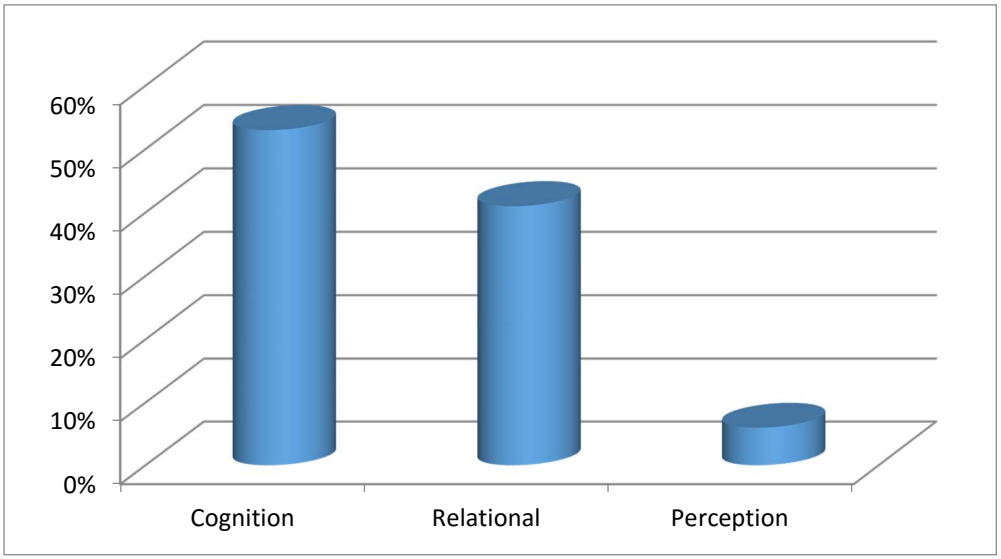


Table 4: Sub categories of Stative Verb: Cognition, Relational, Perception

Cognitive verbs appear 53% in the data which is higher in rank as compared to relational and perception verbs. These types of verbs show the mental state or situation. These types of verbs cannot come with continuous tense. This construction purely depicts the feature of Pakistani English. Some examples are given below:

1. The Local Government and Community Development (LGCD) Department **is thinking** about amending a provision in the …… (DT, September 15)
2. It **was pleasing** to see a youngster who is playing in his first international event bowl so brilliantly," he said. (N, September 25)
3. It **is believing** in ourselves. (D, September 26)

Relational verbs are less than cognitive verbs but more than perception verbs. Frequency (41%) of relational is showing that it is also frequently used in Pakistani English. This is also a feature of Pakistani English as the following examples show:

1. He **is having** his cake and is eating it too…. (D, September 28)
2. The regime **is sounding** smug, confident that Nawaz Sharif's renewed exile has rid it of its primary opponent. (D, September 15)
3. Zardari **is deserving** of the Nobel Prize (if there is one for crockery) for his alleged corrupt practices. (DT, September 20)

Perception verbs deal with human perception in the senses of taste, hear and feel. Corpus data shows the progressive use of perceptive verbs as well (see table no. 4). These are purely stative verbs which show different states. They are not used progressively in Standard English. Pakistani newspapers reveal this unique feature as given below:

1. Some persons aware of the process of illegal bootlegging claimed that the only test carried out by the illegal wine-makers **is tasting** their product. (N, September 23)
2. The state **is feeling** threat from the judiciary that it may declare the candidature of President Musharraf as illegal and unconstitutional. (TP, September 25)
3. Supreme Court **is hearing** various constitutional petitions challenging the holding of two offices by President Musharraf …..(FP, September 7)

The ratio of three categories varies from each other; cognitive verbs are more than half of total ratio which indicates that it is more frequent stative verb category.

Relational > Cognitive > Perception

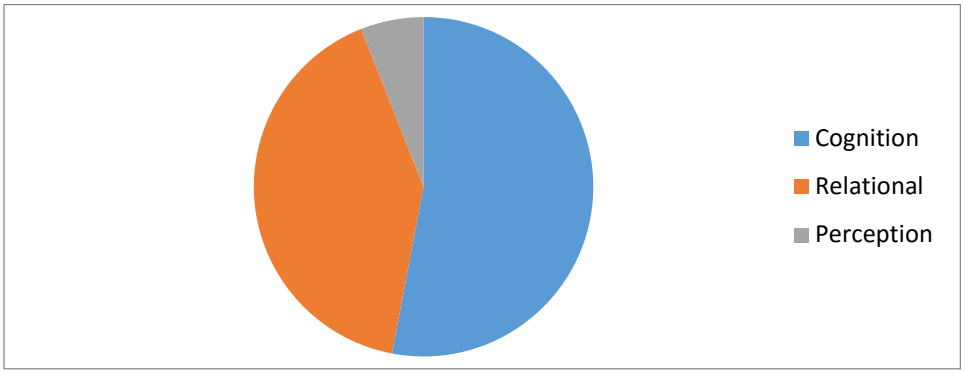


Table 5: Frequency of Relational > Cognitive > Perception

The findings of data follow the second feature of analysis for this present research which is adopted by Rooy (2014). On the basis of data, three main categories can be identified; temporary state, ongoing state and unlimited state.

Temporary State

Temporary state is for comparatively short span of time (Williams, 2002) and is recognized by stative verbs in progressive aspect. Statives are nativized in non-native varieties of English and show different states with –ing constructions. The examples below show the typical representation of such states:

1. Today we **are hearing** news of kidnappings and killing of army personnel," Ghulam Nabi added….. (DT, September 15)
2. It **was pleasing** to see a youngster who is playing in his first international event bowl so brilliantly," he said. (N, September 25)

In the above examples, states are not permanent rather going to be fade soon. Both the activities are just for a short period of time. Duration is very limited but not perfect in aspect.

Ongoing State

In many situations, it is vague to recognize when an action or activity is going to end. We are not clear about the ending of that state. It highlights the feature of time-delimited. This feature is parallel to Indian English (Sharma, 2009) and is a regular feature of Indian English. For example,

- Consumers **are experiencing** frequent increase in atta prices despite a bumper wheat crop of 23.5 million tons as claimed by the government followed by a ban on export of wheat and flour varieties. (D, September 11)

In the above example, state is not limited for a particular time as it is temporary state. Action is continuous as the experience of consumers is not going to end soon, it is in progression.

1. Two thousand kilometres away, a military regime usurping the rightful political aspirations of the people of Myanmar since 1962 **is feeling** the heat of peaceful public protests.(TP, September 25)
2. Actually, he **was having** serious reservations about re-election of President Musharraf in uniform, deportation of Mian Nawaz Sharif and ongoing dialogue with Benazir Bhutto. (N, September 17)

In ongoing aspect it is suitable to call it continuous rather than progressive (Rooy, 2014). It illustrates the prolongation of event without time boundaries.

Unlimited State

The last extension of this temporal is unlimited state. This indicates the progression with unlimited time span while the end of action is not given. For example,

1. We **are having** problems in Balochistan, NWFP and Sind. (D, September 18)
2. The disgruntled and disappointed lawyers **are comparing** this SC judgment with the infamous Maulvi Tamizuddin Case. (D, September 15)

The verb "have" is frequently used in data, and it indicates unlimited state. In first example the stative verb (have) is not used for defined period of time, it is unlimited in its aspect. Second example is the extension of idea (Rooy, 2014) with reference to time in context. The idea is discussed in the sense of comparison.

Conclusion

Stative verbs basically have three categories as relational, perception and cognition. These three categories are used progressively in corpus which indicates their occurrence in Pakistani English newspapers. Cognitive verbs are used more frequently than relational verbs in this study. Perception verbs are used less frequently as compared to relational and progressive verbs. It is an important feature of newspaper writing in Pakistan. Progressive aspect of non-progressive verb is not limited to any particular newspaper rather it is a common feature which is found in all the newspapers.

The results indicate that Pakistani English journalistic writers use progressive aspect for stative verbs frequently. Its progressive use shows a range of sense as, temporary state, ongoing state and unlimited range. This feature shows that in 21st century people do not differentiate in aspect while using dynamic or stative verb (Rasheed & Mehmood 2014). People want to be more explicit that is why they prefer progressive even with stative verbs.

Imperfective aspect (Sharma, 2009) is an additional aspect of Indo Aryan languages (Pakistani, Indian) which is not present in the English language. Imperfective aspectual meanings are programmed in progressive by Indian speakers

(Sharma 2009, Sharma & Doe 2010). The same is the case with Pakistani bilinguals as the data reveals. The features of the Urdu language help Pakistani English writers and learners to form their own unique and distinctive features.

This syntactic feature is common to all outer and expanding circle varieties which portrays their identical presence on the globe of New Englishes. Data exhibits that progressive (aspect) use of stative verbs is a regular feature of Pakistani English and it contributes a lot in making Pakistani English a distinctive variety of New Englishes.

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An Analysis of Interpersonal Skills of Teachers at Higher Level

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Abstract

The study was designed to analyze the level of interpersonal skills of the employees and further to develop a comparison on the basis of gender, age, academic qualification, professional qualification, and job experience. The population of the study consisted of university teachers serving in the public sector universities in Islamabad. 193 university teachers were selected through convenient sampling. The data showed that there was no significant difference between male and female faculty member in the interpersonal skills. There was no significant difference on the basis of age and professional qualification. However on the basis of academic qualification there was a significant difference. The teachers having B.A qualification were found more social. The teachers having less than 10 years of job experience were found significantly more social. It was recommended that the university management may use quick conflict resolution policy, informal social events and maintain a fair policy to develop effective interpersonal skills among the employees.

Key Words: *Interpersonal Skills, Multiple Intelligences, Clarity of Message, Listening, Feedback, Emotional Interaction*

Introduction

Interpersonal skills are referred as people skills. These are simply the life related skills that help the person to live a happy social life. Human beings have the uniqueness in comparison to the other creation that they live with people. Human creation cannot survive in isolation. To fulfill this basic need to be in group, we all need these interpersonal skills. Interpersonal skills are used by a person to connect and communicate with others. It may comprise conversion, active heeding, entrustment, and guidance. Moreover interpersonal skill is used to measure the individual's capacity to build associations through interactions and social communication. As an academic discipline, interpersonal skills are studied under the

area of "Social psychology". According to Caroselli (2003) interpersonal skills are simply learning through interaction with others. The learning of these skills is started from the first day of life. Child soon after his birth, a child starts recognizing and interacting with his parents, family and environment through signs and symbols. As the social environment of the child expands in life the interpersonal skills also expand. When a child enters in school he start learning how to behave and interact with class fellows and teachers. As he enters in practical life he starts learing how to behave with the people around him. Similarly as he enters in a job he starts learning to interact with the other people working at that workplace. Interpersonal skills enable a person to work successfully and cooperate positively with others" (Robbins, 2009). Many companies have been focusing to develop and train the interpersonal skills of employees to handle office differences and workers disputes in a productive way. To use interpersonal skills effectively become more important when it is concerned with the teaching learning process. Teachers being the builders of a nation need more attention to this area. Teachers with good interpersonal skills can train the future generation in the same skills for their better tomorrow.

Good interpersonal skills can lead to less agitation, creating a friendly environment for students and teachers, increased productivity of the teachers, effective time management, improvement in student learning and care and Development of good reputation for the institute. Good teaching practice emphasizes on up to date knowledge, maintaining and improving performance and good teaching practices. Maintaining good teaching standards depend on developing teachers' interpersonal skills. Failing to do so may put students and teachers at risk.

Interpersonal skills are "those skills whish one needs in order to communicate effectively with another person or a group of people" (Herting, 2011). Thus the researcher is interested to find out the effect of age, gender and experience on the development of interpersonal skills among the teachers. Keeping in view the importance of interpersonal skills the researcher is interested to suggest the measures to improve such skills in order to improve the educational outputs.

Research Objectives

1. To assess level of interpersonal skills of the teachers serving in the public sector universities of Islamabad.

2. To find out the difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of gender.

3. To find out the difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of age.

4. To find out the difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of academic qualification.

5. To find out the difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of professional qualification.

6. To find out the difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of job experience.

Research Hypothesis

Ho 1: There is no difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of gender.

Ho 2: There is no difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of age.

Ho 3: There is no difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of academic qualification.

Ho 4: There is no difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of professional qualification.

Ho 5: There is no difference in interpersonal skills of the teachers on the basis of job experience.

Literature review:

Interpersonal skills are considered as the most important skill for the life of an individual. It is the basic human need. The roots of interpersonal intelligence are related to the theory presented by Gardener (1983). The ideas presented by the Multiple Intellegence Theory were focused on the uniqueness of the human child. According to this theory each child is intelligence, however the kind and the dimension of the intelligence is different in every child (Covey, 1990). This is the beauty of the human creation that every individual on the face of earth is capable of some unique ability or skill. These multiple type of intelligence may include verbal, visual, physical, musical, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (Gardener, 193).

Among all the above mentioned areas the interpersonal skills are considered as the most important skill in order to live a successful life (Azim, Gale, Lawlor-Wright, Kirkham, Khan, & Alam, 2010). As a matter of fact the human beings are socially dependant on each other. This social interdependence develops the need of

interpersonal skills. “Interpersonal skills are considered as the elementary source which enables the people to work in groups with other people” (Covey, 1990). The ability to understand people’ behaviors and actions is interpersonal skills.

According to Flannes & Levin (2005) Interpersonal skills are the life skills we use every day to communicate and interact with other people, both individually and in groups. People who have worked on developing strong interpersonal skills are usually more successful in both their professional and personal lives (El-Sabaa, 2001). Employers often seek to hire staff with 'strong interpersonal skills', they want people who will work well in a team and be able to communicate effectively with colleagues, customers and clients (Belbin, 2004).

Understanding the people and the attitudes of the individuals is not a skill that can be learnt through the books or teaching (Richard, 2004). It deals with the social dealing of the people. The people living in socially isolated situations can be less effective in interpersonal skills while the people dealing with public relations are considered as good in interpersonal skills. It is also affected by the ratio and type of experiences that a persona may have with the people during his life (Wheeler & D’Andrea, 2004).

According to Forsyth, (2010) A pervasive gender stereotype posits that men often perform better in math and science contexts, women are better when it comes to creativity, communication, and developing interpersonal relationships. Concerning the early development of communication ability, there is evidence to suggest that females are better at both verbal and nonverbal communication than males. As one example, Leaper and Smith (2004) found female children to be rated higher than males in both speech and talkativeness. In addition, LaFrance, Hecht, and Paluck (2003), in a sample include both adolescents and adults, found a rather large difference favoring females on the variable of smiling. McClure (2000) also found the same findings.

Lewin (1951) explained the learning any behavior change by using the concept of stages. He explained that there are three stages involved in developing the behavior of the individual. To learn a new thing or to reshape the already learnt concept it is important to understand the stages working behind it. “Behavior needs to be unfrozen, individuals are ready to change, they must know it that changes is required and for this change they have to come out of their luxury circle. Then change will come with required support and understanding that how the change is important. At last the stage of freeze comes when change is converted into norm” (Lewin, 1951). Interpersonal skills are reflected by the communication skills to a large extend. That’s why mostly communication and interpersonal skills are known as correlated skills (Forsyth, 2010). Egan (1976) defined “immediacy one of the communication skills as a “complex” skill which is the combination of three other skills i.e. “accurate

empathy, self-disclosure and confrontation". Egan further explained that one of the most critical of all interpersonal skills is accurate empathy" (p. 28).
Interpersonal skills are especially important for the professions that are directly related to the public dealing (Caroselli, 2003).

Pant & Baroudi (2008) explains the Interpersonal skills are the tools people use to communicate with other individuals in an organizational environment. Interpersonal Skills are necessary for the following functions of any firm or institution.

1. to provide good customer service
2. to resolve conflicts and competitions between two (or more) workers.
3. to work satisfactorily in team environments
4. to adapt well to changes in the workplace
5. to convey professionalism
6. to make good leaders

It is very important for companies, because employees with good interpersonal skills work as team and generate a good working environment and a better output (Stevenson & Starkweather, 2010).
Teaching is one of such important professions. Interpersonal skills of the teachers are far more important than the employees of any other profession. As they have not only to teach the students but they are responsible to build generation.

Methodology

The research in hand was based on the survey approach. The topic of the research was dealing with the everyday issue so the researcher decided to collect the first hand information through the survey. In this sense the research was descriptive in nature. Further the quantitative approach was used to draw the findings of the research.

The population of the study was consisted of all the faculty members of the public sector universities of Islamabad. All faculty members serving in these 13 public sector universities were considered as the population of the study. The Higher Education Commission record revealed that there were 9,421 faculty members were serving in these 13 public sector universities. Among which 6,475 were male and 2,946 were female.

The sample was selected with the use of convenient sampling technique. 200 faculty members were approached in order to collect the data related to the interpersonal skills. 193 faculty members in return responded to the process of data collection. Thus sample of 193 teachers were finalized as the sample of the study.

A standardized questionnaire was used as the tool for the purpose of data collection. The scale was termed as Interpersonal Communication Skills Inventory (Learning Dynamics, 2002). This scale was based on four parts, which consists of 40 items in total. The parts were related to clarity of message, listening, feedback and emotional interaction. Each section was consisted of 10 items individually.

This Interpersonal Communication Skills Inventory is designed to provide individuals with some insights into their communication strengths and potential areas for development. By answering each question candidly, an individual will receive a profile that displays their level of competence in four key communication areas. This inventory is intended to be viewed only by the individual who completes it.

The section related to the 'clarity of message" was based on the questions to inquire about the individual ability to communicate the ideas and thinking in a proper and logical manner. It was related to the ability to transfer the thoughts in a maximum way so that the once message must be delivered in an effective way to the other person.

The section related to the Listening was based on the idea to assess the ability of the person to attentively listen and understand the words, feelings and situation of the next person. It also includes the questions about the situation, giving advise and discussion on the issues.

The third section related to the feedback was based on the idea that after listening to the feeling of other person we need to say something as a response. This include giving encouraging remarks, offering help and to provide assistance.

The last section was related to the emotional interaction. It was related to the a tendency to change the subject when the other person's feelings enter into the discussion, handling communication problems, use of appropriate words and managing the situation to avoid fight.

The data was collected by the researchers personally and analyzed through SPSS 21 edition.

Results

Table No. 1 ***Cronbach's Alpha Reliability of the Interpersonal Communication Skills Inventory***

Scale	Items	*Cronbach's Alpha Reliability*
Interpersonal Skills	40	.86

The Table No.1 shows Cronbach's Alpha Reliability analysis and the result indicated that scale was reliable (.86). Thus the instrument found effective to measure the interpersonal skills of the teachers.

Table No. 2 **Inter-section correlation of *interpersonal communication skills inventory***

	Message Clarity	**Listening**	**Feed Back**	**Emotional Interactions**	**Interpersonal Communication Skills**
Message Clarity	1				
Listening	.593**	1			
Feed Back	.548**	.435**	1		
Emotional Interactions	.502**	.461**	.949**	1	
Interpersonal Communication Skills	.846**	.757**	.855**	.843**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Table No. 2 explains that all the sub variables of the interpersonal skill assessment scale were significantly correlated (0.01). The highest correlation was found between feedback and emotional interactions (949**).

Table No. 3 ***Interpersonal Skill Level***

	Interpersonal Skill Level	Interpersonal Skill Score	*Frequency*	*%*
1.	Not Present at all	0-20	-	
2.	Very low	21-40	-	
3.	Needs Improvement	41-60	61	32
4.	Acceptable	61-80	132	68

Table No. 3 shows that the scores obtained by the respondents were categorized in four levels of interpersonal skills. The results show that 32 % of the Respondants were having needed to improve the interpersonal skills ahile majority of the respondents was having acceptable level of interpersonal skills.

Table No. 4 ***Gender based comparison of Interpersonal Communication Skills (t Test)***

Variable	Gender	*N*	*Mean*	*t value*	*df*	*Sig*
Interpersonal Skills	Male	80	64.33	-.062	191	.950
	Female	113	64.39			

*p <0.05, **p <0.01

Table No. 4 shows that the t value (-.062) was statistically not significant. Thus there was no gender based significant difference was found related to interpersonal skills of the respondents.

Table No. 5 ***Age based comparison of Interpersonal Communication Skills (ANOVA)***

Variable	Age	*N*	*Mean*	*F*	*df*	*Sig*
	20-35	118	64.17	0.30	190	.74
	36-50	29	64.03			
	51-60	46	65.07			
	Total	193	64.36			

In Table No. 5 the result explains that there was statistically no significant (F= 0.30) difference on the basis of age in the interpersonal skills of the teachers. The table shows that teachers from all age groups were having almost similar level of interpersonal skills.

Table No. 6 **Academic *Qualification based comparison of Interpersonal Communication Skills (ANOVA)***

Variable	Academic Qualification	*N*	*Mean*	*F*	*df*	*Sig*
	B.A/B.SC	27	69.11	5.29	189	.00
	M.A/M.SC	71	64.07			
	M.Phil	66	63.06			
	P.HD	29	63.62			
	Total	193	64.36			

**p <0.01

In Table No. 6 the ANOVA result explains that there was statistically significant (F= 5.29) difference on the basis of academic qualification in the interpersonal skills of the teachers. The table shows that teachers with less level (B.A/B.SC) of qualification were found more active in interpersonal relationships/skills in comparison to the teachers with highest levels of qualification.

Table No. 7 **Professional *Qualification based comparison of Interpersonal Communication Skills (ANOVA)***

Variable	Professional Qualification	*N*	*Mean*	*F*	*df*	*Sig*
	B.Ed	13	64.23	1.33	188	.0.25
	M.Ed	22	65.64			

	FDP by HEC	2	73.50
	Any Other	1	71.00
	None	155	64.03
	Total	**193**	**64.36**

In Table No. 7 the result explains that there was statistically no significant (F= 1.33) difference on the basis of professional qualification in the interpersonal skills of the teachers. The table shows that teachers with different professional qualifications were having almost similar level of interpersonal skills. However the table also explains that the majority of the teachers were not having any professional qualification.

Table No. 8 ***Experience based comparison of Interpersonal Communication Skills (ANOVA)***

Variable	**Experience**	***N***	***Mean***	***F***	***df***	***Sig***
	0-10	138	65.27	4.90	190	.00
	11-20	47	61.62			
	20+	8	64.88			
	Total	193	64.36			

*p <0.05, **p <0.01

In the Table No. 8 ANOVA result shows that there was statistically significant difference (F= 4.90) found on the basis of teaching experience in the interpersonal skills of the teachers. The teachers with less experience (0-10 years) were found more active in interpersonal relationships/skills (Mean= 65.27) in comparison to the teachers with more years of teaching experience. The data shows that the teacher having less than 10 years of teaching experience were better in interpersonal skills in comparison to the teachers having more than 10 years of experience.

Discussion

Interpersonal Skills are significant just not in our work place, but also in our personal and social lives. Responsibility and accountability are indicators of maturity and are important interpersonal skills (Cheng, Dainty & Moore, 2005). Interpersonal skills are very important because life and work are about relationships, responsibility and accountability. Actually some of us believe we must give an account for our lives that means also an account of our time at work.

People are hired based mainly on knowledge and hard skills, but they could be fired for attitudes and lack of soft skills. So that's how important interpersonal skills are (Caroselli, 2003). According to Slavin (1995) Interpersonal skills like team work, communication, leadership, conflict management, decision making, ethics and values, articulation skills, relationship management, problem solving, time management and more enable individuals to deal with the requirements, challenges and opportunities of their work functions successfully. Good Interpersonal skills lie at the spirit of an effective work place (El-Sabaa, 2001). This is of crucial importance for competitiveness in contemporary globalized world.

According to Caroselli (2003) one of the main life skills which are known as interpersonal skills are used by people in daily life to communicate and interact with other people either individually or collectively. Individuals with effective interactive skills are leading successful lives professionally and personally. The communication skills are very much identical to the interpersonal skills. The reason is that usually the human interactions are reflected by the verbal or non verbal communication. Thus the scale used in the current research was based on further four sub variables. These variables were “clarity of message, listening, feedback and emotional interaction”.

The research was based on six research objectives. The prime objective was to determine the level of social skills of teachers serving in the public sector universities of Islamabad. In response the data revealed that 32 % of the teachers were in need of improvement while 68% of the teachers were having acceptable level of interpersonal skills. The rest of the objectives were based on the comparative analysis of the interpersonal skills on the basis of gender, age, academic qualification, professional qualification and job experience. The data shows that there was no significant difference between male and female faculty member in the social and interpersonal skills. Similarly there was no significant difference on the basis of age and professional qualification. However on the basis of academic qualification there was a significant difference and here the data shows that the teachers having B.A qualification were found more social. Similarly the teachers having less than 10 years of job experience were also found significantly more social. On the basis of these finding the researcher recommend that the same research topic can be continued to explore the factors of interpersonal skills development of such teachers having less

qualification and experience. As this is a unique thing that the employees having less qualification are more good with interpersonal skills.

Recommendations

It is recommended that the university managements may develop a comprehensive plan of action to develop the interpersonal skills of the faculty members. In this regard they may take the following steps.

1. Management of the universities may organize the social gathering events to make the faculty familiarize with each other. Such informal events may be helpful in development of interpersonal skills.
2. The university management may adopt a fair attitude towards all the employees. Fairness is the key to build healthy relations between the employees.
3. Conflict resolution process used in the universities also needs to be very quick. It is observed that the conflicts can be harmful in the developing healthy relationships.
4. The teachers with less experience may be attached for the mentoring purposes with the senior members. In this way the senior members will also interact with the fresh employees and remain in contact with the organizational structure.
5. The use of co curricular activities especially the physical activities may also be arranged by the universities. Games and sports can be an effective measure in developing good interpersonal skills among the employees.
6. In this regard on the basis of the research findings the following model has been developed to be used by the educational management to develop certain areas of interpersonal skills as a compulsory part of their teacher training programme. These areas are communication, understanding others feeling, problem solving, empathy, flexibility, tolerance and respect for others.

Fig No. 1 Model of Interpersonal Skills Development Areas

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Stakeholders' Perceptions about Quality of University Research with Reference to Scholars' Psychosocial Competence

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Abstract

The study explored the perceptions of Pakistani postgraduate research Scholars, their teachers and heads regarding the university quality research in psychosocial perspectives. The study identified the factors deteriorating quality research; competence problem of research scholars and the relationship of psychosocial factors with the researchers' creativity; and, elaborated the gaps in self-actualization and research development. Responses were collected from 459 subjects i.e. 310 scholars, and their 111 teachers and 38 heads of university departments from 10 leading universities located in Islamabad and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. The Master of Philosophy and Doctor of Philosophy theses were critically analyzed. Data were interpreted and statistically tested while using Chi-square etc. The study found the problem of postgraduate quality research in relation with psychosocial competence affecting researchers' performance. It is recommended to create a conducive environment for scholars 'self-actualization, learning, and psychosocial competence.

Keywords: *Psychosocial Competence, the Self, Postgraduate Research Quality.*

Introduction

The definition of quality in higher education as given by Hayward (in his glossary for the Council for Higher Education Accreditation), refers to the "fitness for purpose" meeting or conforming to generally accepted standards as defined by an institution, quality assurance bodies and appropriate academic and professional communities. (Language in India, 2010)

All researches are employed for value judgment based on quality. Quality is one of the most fundamental parameters that determine the merit of a research. A

quality research makes proficient use of both the performance and competence of the researchers that lead to their self-actualization. Self-actualization is based on psychosocial competence. This competence varies differently in terms of behavioural, cognitive and social/situational orientations. Quality research is carried out only then if the performance is actually valued and psychosocially realized.

Performance is pragmatic competence which is directly associated with the self-actualization of a researcher and the quality of research is greatly concerned with the work of a self-actualized researcher. A self-actualizing researcher needs psychosocial maturity, and communicative ability which cannot be detached from the psychosocial environment of a researcher. It means that the context in which a communication occurs is very much important. Communicative competence, performance and a social situation appropriate for self-realization are the necessary constituents of a psychosocial setting for the self-actualization of a researcher. That is why the quality of research is totally interlinked with the psychosocial competence of a researcher.

For the last few years, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan is determined firmly to encourage and maintain the quality of higher education. Quality Assurance Agency has been established at HEC to achieve excellence in higher education. At university level, Quality Enhancement Cells (QECs) have been established with a view to create awareness on modern theories and practices of quality reassurance in higher education (Language in India, 2010).

Self-actualization

The major function of self-actualization is shaping an individual's knowledge, skill, creativity, attitude and the whole personality development. A researcher with actualized self thinks accurately, responds intelligently and performs reasonably in a social setting. The quality, acceptability and impact of a research are interdependent with the self-actualization of a researcher. Self-actualization is a very high state of satisfaction and realization running through the whole personality development of an individual. It comprises so many other constituents, objects, mediums, modes and ways of thinking, expressing, behaving and creating. It is also meant for assimilating and accommodating knowledge and skills and attitudes; for receiving and perceiving new things and ideas according to their context; and, for making concepts of others and self.

Carl Rogers believed that humans have one basic motive that is the tendency to self-actualization. It induces one to accomplish one's unrealized potentials and achieve the highest level of "human-beingness." Like a flower that grows to its full potential if the conditions are right, but it is constrained by its environment, so people

will flourish and reach their potential if their environment is good enough. "A person with low self-worth may avoid challenges in life." (Simply Psychology, 2007)

In his hierarchy of human needs, Maslow mentioned two group of needs i.e. deficiency needs and growth needs. This hierarchy is made up of *physiological, security, belongingness and love, esteem, cognitive, aesthetic, self-actualization* (to find self-fulfillment and realize one's potential), and *self-transcendence*. According to Maslow's basic concept, a self-actualized and self-transcendent individual becomes wise and aware of what to do in complex situations. Daniels (2001), referring to Maslow's ultimate conclusion, asserts that the highest levels of self-actualization are transcendent in their nature. (Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, 2007)

Rogers pointed out five characteristics of the self-actualized person: i) "Open to experience; ii) Existential living; iii) Trust feelings**;** iv) Creativity; and v) Fulfilled life A self-actualized person is happy and satisfied with life, and is always looking for new challenges and experiences." (Simply Psychology, 2007)

Accordingly, self-actualization refers to psychosocial maturity with the quality of being realistic, self acceptance, spontaneity and naturalness. A self-actualizing person possesses good interpersonal skills and can play very effective social roles. He maintains privacy and autonomy, and accepts challenges. He respects democratic values and manifests very positive attitudes**.** He possesses a very philosophical and unhostile sense of humour**,** creativity with transcendence of heart and mind.

Psychosocial Competence and Research

Psychosocial competence of a researcher is based on his psychological and social development. This psychosocial development refers to psychological development in a social domain. It means that the psychosocial growth is how a person's mind, emotions, and maturity level develop throughout the course of his lifetime. It entails both biological and environmental elements necessary for an individual's biopsychosocial development. These different biological processes and social interactions psychosocially develop different individuals.

According to Saul Mc Leod (2008), Erickson's "psychosocial" term is derived from the two source words i.e. psychological (or the root, 'psycho' relating to the mind, brain, personality, etc) and social (external relationships and environment), both at the heart of Erickson's theory. It is also extended to biopsychosocial, in which bio refers to life, as in biological. (Erickson's Psychosocial Development Theory,in Simple Psychology, 2010)

Quality Research in Pakistan

According to Scott, higher education institutions are in great difficulty while improving the quality of education they offer. Universities across the world are redefining their vision and mission, and needful steps are being taken for making their Ph.D. programmes compatible with greater global competitiveness. (Language in India, 2010)

Since1947 to 2011, as given in Pakistan Higher Education Commission's Annual Report 2011. Six Pakistani universities had been producing PhDs in different disciplines. They are: in Social Sciences, 1778; in Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences, 975; in Arts and Humanities, 1099; in Biological and Medical Sciences 1438; in Business Education, 117; in Engineering Technology, 229; in Physical Sciences, 1537; and Honorary, 58. In the last years the ratio of PhDs produced is higher as it reached to 616 in 2008; 779 in 2009; and 617 in 2010 as well. Furthermore, in the last five years till 2016, Pakistan produced 5621 PhDs in various disciplines. (HEC Annual Report 2016)

In spite of the high PhD bulk, HEC itself criticizes Pakistan higher education for the lack of quality. There are multifarious factors of this problem, but language, curriculum and self-esteem are the most striking factors that can determine the parameters of quality education. For quality research, a researcher's linguistic competence and self-actualization are fundamental variables. Thus, high quality research requires an environment that satisfies the psychosocial and biological needs of the researcher.

The Ph.D. degrees of the Pakistani universities need to train the scholars with skills like observation, critical analysis and finding solution and designing tools. In Pakistan, like in many other developing countries of the world, most of the research in the fields of natural sciences and technical education is carried out, and very little emphasis on research in languages or humanities is found (Language in India, 2010)

In this regard, performance indicators work to determine quality research. Such quality determiners are regarded to be the quality of teaching, quality of student evaluation, quality of situation and student satisfaction. Some other indicators of quality measurement are libraries and laboratories, the effective management and good leadership. Thus, the quality research demands conformity with the desirable human needs and existing valuable standards of education, scholarship, and communication.

Methodology

Research design and Procedure

This study aimed at the factors deteriorating the quality research ultimately affecting the achievement of educational aims at postgraduate level. It explores the relationship of the psychosocial competence with the researchers' creativity and self-actualization. It assumes that there is a significant correlation of the psychosocial competence with the creativity and self-actualization level of the postgraduates who are the stalk holders of university research.

This study is very important as its educational implications and its relevance with the achievement level are very high. It also promotes both the curriculum development and implementation in psychosocial structure which can be utilized at doctorate-granting institutions.

A descriptive and survey research methodology was adopted in carrying out this study. Its procedures focused on the psychosocial performance and self-actualization as the bases for quality research. The survey method was appropriate to explore the problems and competencies and to find out their psychosocial impact on the self-actualization of the postgraduate research scholars. The study was conducted as correlational. Questionnaires as descriptive research tools were designed for collecting data from the respondents. Besides, some of the recently conducted MPhil and PhD theses were critically analyzed for finding out the problem areas of the competence like contextual choices that might have been hurdles in the way of creativity and full self-actualization of the researchers. Data were analyzed by descriptive and co-relational statistics like: Chi Square, Mean Differences, Percentages, etc.

Choice of Setting

In the present study, a university setting was chosen to examine stakeholders' perceptions about quality of university research with reference to scholars' psychosocial competence In this study, the stalk holders were research scholars, their teachers and Heads of Departments. The respondents were from those Pakistani universities that offered the programmes of M Phil and PhD, such as:

i) Postgraduate research scholars studying in MPhil or PhD programmes, Semester Fall 2010.

ii) Teachers of the university departments offering MPhil and PhD programmes in various disciplines.

iii) Heads of the university departments offering MPhil and PhD programmes in various disciplines.

Sample

The sample of the study consists of the following:

i) Randomly selected postgraduate research scholars studying in MPhil and PhD programes at NUML, IIUI, AIOU, University of Peshawar, Hazara University, AWKUM, University of Malakand, CUSIT, Abasyn University and Northern University.

ii) Randomly selected teachers of the university departments offering MPhil and PhD programmes at the above selected universities.

iii) All heads of the university departments offering MPhil and PhD programmes at the above selected universities.

Instruments

The data collection approach was a structured questionnaire. Three different pre-structured questionnaires were designed for different groups, but the basic contents focussed on the main problem of psychosocial competence and quality research of the postgraduate research scholars. In addition, personal observations and experiences of the stalk holders (research scholars, their teachers and Department Heads) were assessed to discover their specific needs and their impact on them.

Questionnaires for M Phil and Ph D research scholar, and their teachers were administered to the randomly selected respondents at NUML Islamabad, IIUI Islamabad, AIOU Islamabad, University of Peshawar, Hazara University, AWKUM, University of Malakand, CUSIT Peshawar, Abasyn University Peshawar and Northern University Nowshera by the researcher personally and also through email. Survey-correspondence techniques at the concerned university departments of the selected universities were employed for collecting valid and accurate data from the scholars, their teachers and their Heads of Departments.

Analysis of Data

The procedure for the data collection and analysis was carried out as that the data collected by means of questionnaires form the randomly selected postgraduate research scholars, teachers and heads of the given disciplines at the selected universities were analyzed by applying statistical formulae. Comparison of the response frequency was made by percentages for demographic profile. For measuring the psychosocial perspectives and self actualization factors *Chi square* was applied. Sampling error was calculated to judge the adequacy of the sample.

Moreover, for further analysis descriptive and correlational statistics like Mean Differences, Percentages etc. were applied. Findings, conclusions and recommendations were made. The basic areas including, learning and competence, psychosocial factors and development, communicative ability, psychosocial competence and performance , psychosocial factors and self-actualization, self-identity and scholastic achievement, intelligence and self-expression, university research environment and psychosocial perspectives, sociological perspectives , psychosocial factors and university research were critically analysed.

Results

Analysis of M Phil/PhD Theses

The researcher critically examined some of the recently conducted MPhil/PhD theses for finding out problems regarding psychosocial competence and quality research. Main objectives of the investigation were to determine the problem areas of the university research scholars faced during their courses and research report writing. Some important things like standards, emerging trends and status of research at university level were also sorted out and used as a background for this study. This analysis found theses having mistakes and errors in semantic and contextual choices. Besides, some of the difficulties in the way of creativity and self-actualization of the researchers were also pointed out and utilized in preparation of tools for this study.

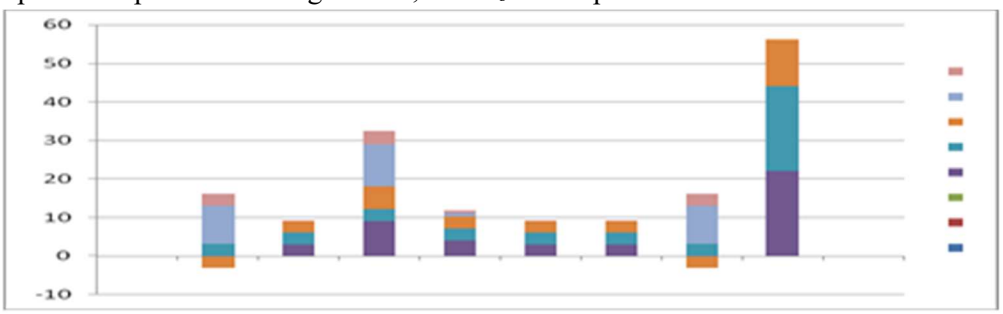
Opinion of Heads of University Departments about MPhil/PhD Scholars (N=22)

Opinion about maintaining high degree of quality research

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the heads
H_1: Opinion is different among the heads

	Level of Agreement							
	SA	**A**	**SWA**	**N**	**SWDA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**Total**
$\mathbf{f_o}$	0	3	9	4	3	3	0	22
$\mathbf{f_e}$	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	21.98
$\mathbf{f_o-f_e}$	-3.14	3.14	5.86	3.14	3.14	3.14	-3.14	12.14
$\mathbf{(f_o-f_e)^2}$	9.86	-0.14	10.94	0.86	-0.14	-0.14	9.86	
$\mathbf{(f_o-f_e)^2 / f_e}$	3.14	0.02	3.48	0.74	0.02	0.02	3.14	**10.56** = χ^2
df = 6		P =	0.05					χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59

Table shows that the calculated value of χ^2 (10.56) at 0.05 level is less than the table value of χ^2 (12.59) for all responses of the heads of university departments about maintaining high degree of quality research. Therefore, it is concluded that opinion response is less significant, and H_o is accepted.



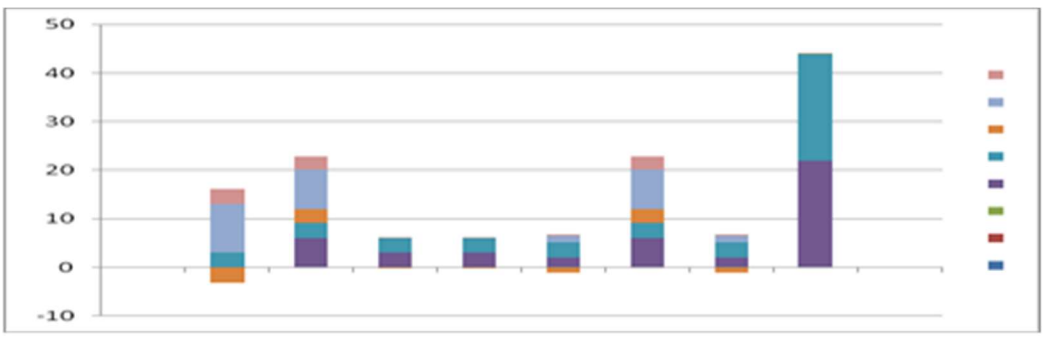
Opinion of University Heads of Departments about MPhil/PhD Scholars (N=22)

Opinion about scholars' psychosocial problems affecting research quality

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the heads
H_1: Opinion is different among the heads

	Level of Agreement							
	SA	**A**	**SWA**	**N**	**SWDA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**Total**
f_o	0	6	3	3	2	6	2	22
f_e	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	21.98
f_o-f_e	-3.14	2.86	-0.14	-0.14	-1.14	2.86	-1.14	0.02
$(f_o-f_e)^2$	9.86	8.18	0.02	0.02	1.30	8.18	1.30	
$(f_o-f_e)^2 / f_e$	3.14	2.60	0.01	0.01	0.41	2.60	0.41	**9.18** = χ^2
df = 6		P =	0.05				χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59	

Table reveals that the calculated value of χ^2 (9.18) at 0.05 level is less than the table value of χ^2 (12.59) for all the responses of the heads of university departments about psychosocial problems affecting research quality. Therefore, it is concluded that opinion response is less significant, and H_o is accepted.



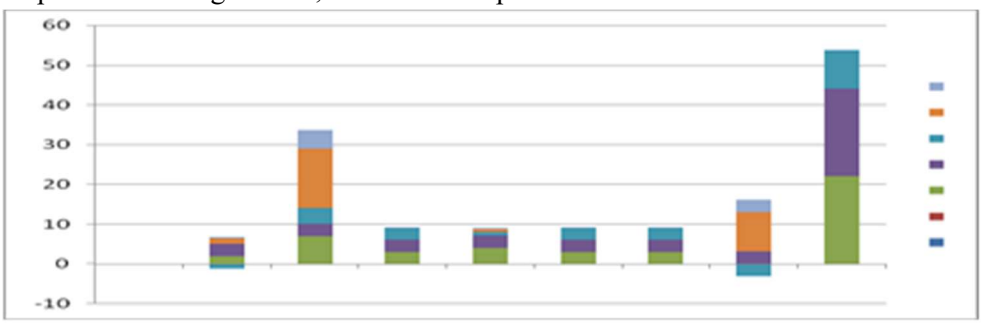
Opinion of University Heads of Departments about MPhil/PhD Scholars (N=22)

Opinion about provision of facilitation and motivation at university departments toward competence, self-actualization and quality research

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the heads
H_1: Opinion is different among the heads

	Level of Agreement							
	SA	**A**	**SWA**	**N**	**SWDA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**Total**
f_o	2	7	3	4	3	3	0	22
f_e	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	21.98
f_o-f_e	-1.14	3.86	3.14	0.86	3.14	3.14	-3.14	9.86
$(f_o-f_e)^2$	1.30	14.90	-0.14	0.74	-0.14	-0.14	9.86	
$(f_o-f_e)^2 / f_e$	0.41	4.75	0.02	0.24	0.02	0.02	3.14	**8.60= χ^2**
df = 6			P = 0.05			χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59		

Table reveals that the calculated value of χ^2 (8.60) at 0.05 level is less than the table value of χ^2 (12.59) for all responses of the heads of university departments about provision of facilitation and motivation at university departments toward competence, self-actualization and quality research. It is concluded that opinion response is less significant, and H_o is accepted.



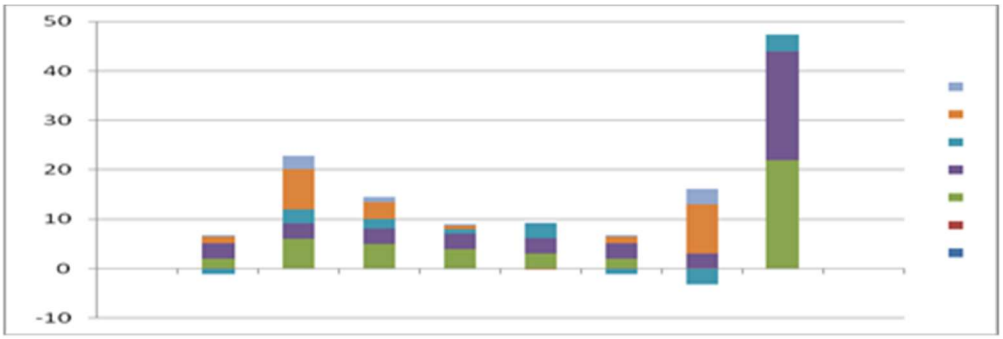
Opinion of University Heads of Departments about MPhil/PhD Scholars (N=22)

Opinion about research reports at postgraduate level complying with the quality standards

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the heads
H_1: Opinion is different among the heads

	Level of Agreement							
	SA	**A**	**SWA**	**N**	**SWDA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**Total**
f_o	2	6	5	4	3	2	0	22
f_e	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	21.98
f_o-f_e	-1.14	2.86	1.86	0.86	3.14	-1.14	-3.14	3.3
$(f_o-f_e)^2$	1.30	8.18	3.46	0.74	-0.14	1.30	9.86	
$(f_o-f_e)^2 / f_e$	0.41	2.60	1.10	0.24	0.02	0.41	3.14	**7.92** = χ^2
df = 6		P =	0.05				χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59	

Table shows that the calculated value of χ^2 (7.92) at 0.05 level is less than the table value of χ^2 (12.59) for all responses of the heads of university departments about English for Specific Purpose (ESP) as a component of research curriculum at postgraduate level. It is concluded that opinion response is less significant, and H_o is accepted.



Opinion of University Heads of Departments about MPhil/PhD Scholars (N=22)

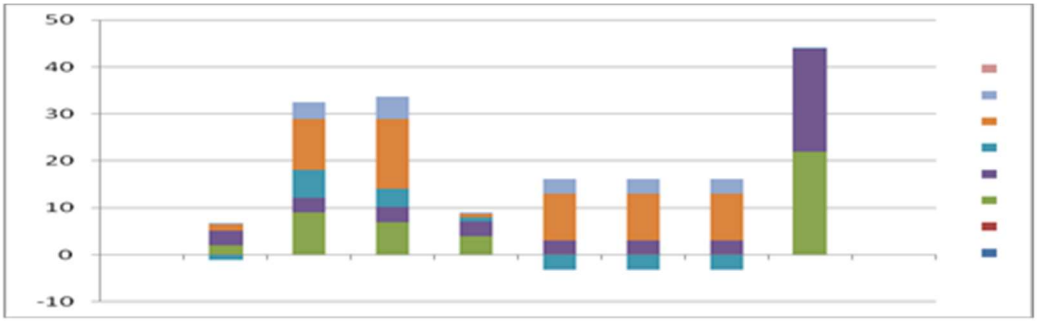
Opinion about research students intelligently managing the problem of self-actualization during research studies

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the heads

H_1: Opinion is different among the heads

	Level of Agreement							
	SA	**A**	**SWA**	**N**	**SWDA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**Total**
f_o	2	9	7	4	0	0	0	22
f_e	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	21.98
f_o-f_e	-1.14	5.86	3.86	0.86	-3.14	-3.14	-3.14	0.02
$(f_o-f_e)^2$	1.30	10.94	14.90	0.74	9.86	9.86	9.86	
$(f_o-f_e)^2 / f_e$	0.41	3.48	4.75	0.24	3.14	3.14	3.14	**18.30** = χ^2
df = 6		P =	0.05				χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59	

Table shows that the calculated value of χ^2 (18.30) at 0.05 level is greater than the table value of χ^2 (12.59) for all responses of the heads of university departments about research students intelligently managing the problem of self-actualization during research studies. The opinion response is significant which implies that the research hypothesis is accepted.



Opinion of University Heads of Departments about MPhil/PhD Scholars (N=22)

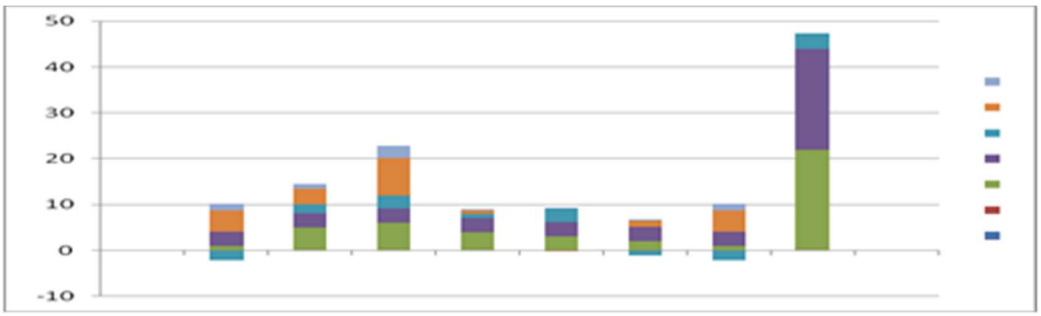
Opinion about Pakistani research scholars having sound psychological environment

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the heads

H_1: Opinion is different among the heads

	Level of Agreement							
	SA	**A**	**SWA**	**N**	**SWDA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**Total**
$\mathbf{f_o}$	1	5	6	4	3	2	1	22
$\mathbf{f_e}$	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	3.14	21.98
$\mathbf{f_o-f_e}$	-2.14	1.86	2.86	0.86	3.14	-1.14	-2.14	3.3
$\mathbf{(f_o-f_e)^2}$	4.58	3.46	8.18	0.74	-0.14	1.30	4.58	
$\mathbf{(f_o-f_e)^2 / f_e}$	1.46	1.10	2.60	0.24	0.02	0.41	1.46	**7.29** = χ^2
df = 6			P = 0.05			χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59		

Table indicates that the calculated value of χ^2 (7.29) at 0.05 level is less than the table value of χ^2 (12.59) for all responses of the heads of university departments about sound psychological environment for Pakistani research scholars. It is concluded that



Opinion of university teachers about sociological factors creating problem for scholars toward self-satisfaction and quality research (N=100)

B.VI(b)01	The clashes of Bilingualism with a single language culture
B.VI(b)02	Symbols and nonverbal communication based on the contexts
B.VI(b)03	Respect for various types of social norms and morality
B.VI(b)04	Impact of social sanctions and penalties differ from society to society
B.VI(b)05	Demand for the reflection of social values in university based research
B.VI(b)06	A culture of cheating and copy right violation that distort the genuineness Pressure
B.VI(b)07	group factor and the social structure of the university research writers
B.VI(b)08	Dominant ideology of powerful social, economic and political interests
B.VI(b)09	Cultural diffusion because of climate, technology, population and geography
B.VI(b)10	Multicultural education and globalization
B.VI(b)11	Ethnocentrism contrasting with cultural clashes and countercultures
B.VI(b)12	Parents' role in the early socialization of the researchers
B.VI(b)13	The researchers' self social image and popularity in the society
B.VI(b)14	Family background and home-centered problems of the researcher
B.VI(b)15	The social acceptance of race and gender with equality
B.VI(b)16	Disparities in schooling and teaching approaches regarding values and customs
B.VI(b)17	The rapid changing role of the mass media and technology
B.VI(b)18	Group work association, coordination and cooperation among the researchers
B.VI(b)19	Guidance centres with socio-cultural resourcefulness
B.VI(b)20	The explosion of population and its impact on the spirit and physique
B.VI(b)21	Extremism and terrorism affecting the mind and act of the researcher
B.VI(b)22	The impact of religion on the life of course of the researches
B.VI(b)23	Influence of heredity and environment on the person
B.VI(b)24	Social injustices and inequalities that demoralize/dishearten the researchers
B.VI(b)25	The impact of bureaucratization on the university research scholars
B.VI(b)26	The modern schools of thoughts affecting society, religion, education, family and way of life

Table (a) shows statements about the sociological factors and the university research writers with reference to self satisfaction and quality research in the opinion of university research teachers or supervisors.

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the university teachers

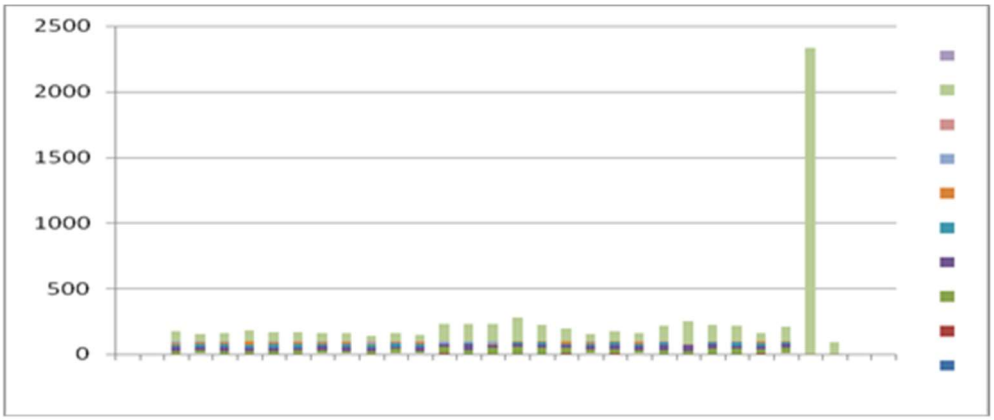
H_1: Opinion is different among the university teachers

Statement No	SA	A	SWA	N	SWDA	DA	SDA	χ^2	P
B.VI(b)01	0	20	38	12	12	18	0	71.85	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)02	4	24	30	22	12	8	0	52.84	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)03	3	17	34	24	12	10	0	59.11	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)04	0	22	28	20	30	0	0	79.69	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)05	0	24	26	30	15	5	0	68.07	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)06	0	30	22	28	15	0	5	69.20	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)07	4	25	35	16	10	10	0	62.47	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)08	6	12	36	22	16	4	4	57.31	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)09	3	15	28	24	5	15	10	36.03	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)10	5	36	16	24	10	0	9	63.31	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)11	4	20	32	20	14	8	2	47.23	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)12	9	48	22	0	0	20	0	130.70	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)13	0	30	45	10	0	15	0	127.37	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)14	0	48	20	0	12	20	0	127.23	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)15	0	56	24	16	4	0	0	178.7	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)16	0	47	23	18	12	0	0	124.3	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)17	9	43	18	10	20	0	0	92.68	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)18	6	32	22	15	20	5	0	53.53	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)19	8	30	32	22	8	0	0	77.46	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)20	5	20	35	18	15	0	7	57.30	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)21	0	28	43	17	0	0	12	114.51	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)22	0	19	54	0	0	0	7	172.69	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)23	0	43	32	15	0	0	10	123.73	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)24	0	44	20	24	0	0	12	113.81	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)25	8	25	28	25	14	0	0	60.54	S(<.05)
B.VI(b)26	5	41	30	20	4	0	0	111.43	S(<.05)
Total of χ2									**2333.09**
Total of χ2 / No of Items = Average χ2									**89.73**

df = 6 P = 0.05 χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59

Table (b) shows the significant chi square values (average χ^2 = 89.73) at 0.05 level for all responses of university teachers about sociological factors creating

problem for scholars toward self-satisfaction and quality research. It reveals the difference of opinions among the respondents. On generalizing the results, it is concluded that the university research scholars faced problem of the clashes of bilingualism with a single language culture; symbols and nonverbal communication based on the contexts; respect for various types of social norms and morality; impact of social sanctions and penalties differ from society to society; demand for the reflection of social values in university based research; a culture of cheating and copy right violation that distort the genuineness pressure; group factor and the social structure of the university research writers; dominant ideology of powerful social, economic and political interests; cultural diffusion because of climate, technology, population and geography; multicultural education and globalization; ethnocentrism contrasting with cultural clashes and countercultures; parents' role in the early socialization of the researchers; the researchers' self social image and popularity in the society; family background and home-centered problems of the researcher; the social acceptance of race and gender with equality; disparities in schooling and teaching approaches regarding values and customs; the rapid changing role of the mass media and technology; group work association, coordination and cooperation among the researchers; guidance centres with socio-cultural resourcefulness; the explosion of population and its impact on the spirit and physique; extremism and terrorism affecting the mind and act of the researcher; the impact of religion on the life of course of the researches; influence of heredity and environment on the person; social injustices and inequalities that demoralize/dishearten the researchers; the impact of bureaucratization on the university research scholars; the modern schools of thoughts affecting society, religion, education, family and way of life. It reflects that the research hypothesis is accepted.



Opinion of university teachers about psychological factors creating problem for scholars toward self-satisfaction and quality research (N=100)

Scale: SDA = Strongly Disagree; DA = Disagree; SWDA = Somewhat Disagree; N= Neutral; SWA = Somewhat Agree; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree

No	Statement
B.VI(c)01	Mental health affecting their research competence and self
B.VI(c)02	Attitudes of the supervisors demoralizing their self
B.VI(c)03	Motivation level and instructional strategies discouraging their performance
B.VI(c)04	Emotionality and subjectivity deteriorating their reports and self image
B.VI(c)05	Hereditary differences affecting their research reports and self image Socioeconomic
B.VI(c)06	stressors deteriorating their competences and self image
B.VI(c)07	Uncertain future deteriorating their competences and self
B.VI(c)08	Adjustment level affecting their competence and self
B.VI(c)09	Intelligence and reflective ability affecting their competence and self
B.VI(c)10	Personality style, attitude and aptitude affecting their competence and self
B.VI(c)11	Threats and insecurity deteriorating their competence and self
B.VI(c)12	Mother tongue and language variation affecting the scholars
B.VI(c)13	Age and gender deteriorating the university based researches
B.VI(c)14	Misperceptions/ wrong judgments deteriorating their researches

Table (a) shows statements about the psychological factors and the university research writers with reference to self satisfaction and quality research in the opinion of university research teachers or supervisors.

H_o: Opinion is uniform among the university teachers

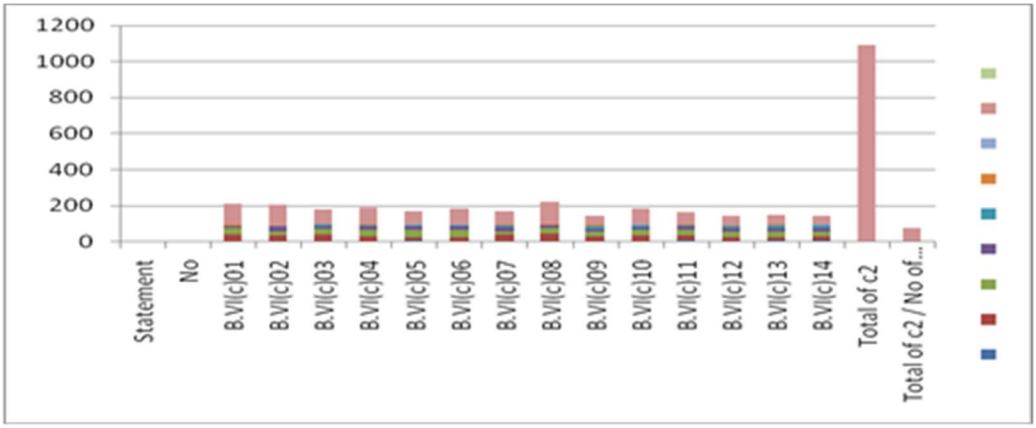
H_1: Opinion is different among the university teachers

Statement No	SA	A	SWA	N	SWDA	DA	SDA	χ^2	P
B.VI(c)01	5	34	40	10	0	11	0	110.03	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)02	0	36	22	32	0	0	0	116.19	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)03	6	36	28	20	10	0	0	83.04	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)04	3	28	37	22	8	2	0	89.88	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)05	8	20	38	22	6	4	2	71.29	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)06	7	19	40	24	8	0	2	85.69	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)07	4	36	18	25	12	5	0	70.04	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)08	2	43	35	12	4	4	0	124.64	S(<.05)

B.VI(c)09	3	28	24	20	13	12	0	45.69	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)10	0	38	28	18	8	4	4	85.29	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)11	9	26	32	21	10	2	0	64.74	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)12	6	21	32	20	11	8	2	46.25	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)13	8	17	32	22	17	4	0	51.58	S(<.05)
B.VI(c)14	10	19	30	21	16	0	4	45.14	S(<.05)
Total of $\chi 2$								**1089.49**	
Total of $\chi 2$ / No of Items = Average $\chi 2$								**77.81**	

df = 6 P = 0.05 χ^2 = at 0.05 level= 12.59

Table (b) shows the significant chi square values (average $\chi^2 = 77.81$) at 0.05 level for all responses of university teachers about psychological factors creating problem for scholars toward self-satisfaction and quality research. It reveals the difference of opinions among the respondents. On generalizing the results, it is concluded that the university research scholars faced problem of self-actualization due to mental health affecting their research competence and self; attitudes of the supervisors demoralizing their self; motivation level and instructional strategies discouraging their performance; emotionality and subjectivity deteriorating their reports and self-image; hereditary differences affecting their research reports and self-image socioeconomic stressors deteriorating their competences and self-image; uncertain future deteriorating their competences and self; adjustment level affecting their competence and self; intelligence and reflective ability affecting their competence and self; personality style, attitude and aptitude affecting their competence and self; threats and insecurity deteriorating their competence and self; mother tongue and language variation affecting the scholars; age and gender deteriorating the university based researches; and, misperceptions/ wrong judgments deteriorating their researches. It implies that the research hypothesis is accepted.



Implications

The current study described the context of psychosocial competence and its impact on research quality and self-actualization of the postgraduate research scholars. These contextual data helped to identify and analyze the opinions of research scholars, their teachers and department heads by eliciting their requirements for using psychosocial competence in classroom situation. As reviewed, this study is the first step to reveal the relationship of psychosocial competence with quality research in real life situation. In addition, it also provides background data to implement the good contextual curriculum from an innovative perspective which may promote psychosocial competence of the research scholars.

To address the embarrassing situation regarding quality research, psychosocial competence and self-actualization of research scholars, a few applicable recommendations are very much obligatory to give here. The researcher assures if the problem is intelligently managed, optimal successful results can be achieved so far. In this regard the following points may be valued for the best solution of the problem:

- To resolve the problem of psychosocial competence and develop communicative ability, necessary basic knowledge and facilitation may be given to the MPhil and PhD scholars. The research teachers and supervisors may facilitate the knowledge and relevant materials in a real context and provide optimum opportunity to their research students for exploiting their competence to communicate.
- The research teachers and supervisors may guide the research students about the distinctive features of foreign language competence as they are different from those of their own language. They may be informed that communicative ability can be achieved if they may give proper attention to the use of language. Moreover, importance may be given to the scholars' needs where they can exploit classroom learning for the real world goals.

- The university departments offering research programmes may develop practical activities on interpretation for developing transcultural abilities in their research scholars and it may be an integral component of research curriculum. Such competencies can be achieved through specific additional courses offered during their studies.
- The university departments may provide opportunity to motivate their scholars to converse in English; arrange meaningful activities with a focus on communicative ability; learn the contextual and situational uses; enjoy a friendly environment with positive feedback.
- University departments may organize professional conferences at national and international levels so that the research students and their teachers could keep pace with the current trends and issues in education, especially in psychosocial perspectives.
- The university departments may guide and facilitate the writers to prepare learning materials according to the psychosocial needs of their scholars. Research curriculum may be integrated with linguistic materials focusing on the research scholars' proficiency level and its specific curricular objectives. Moreover, the research teachers may recommend the available different additional books on technical and syntactic structures with precise details to the scholars for promoting their academic writing and research reports.
- Research writing students may attain expertise in specifically organized materials of technical language that can greatly contribute.
- The research teachers may guide their scholars about research methods and procedures, and the use of established standards and acknowledged guidelines that determine the quality of research. They may help them to conduct an inquiry, use its tools and draw conclusions reflecting validity, reliability, trustworthiness and credibility. They may guide the research scholars toward the use of established research ethics and rules. In this regard, proper guidance about MLA and APA style of research documentation may be given to university researchers.
- The university administration may ensure the availability of language laboratories, digital libraries and orientation programmes for academicians and their research scholars. It can enhance the competence and satisfaction level of the researchers if their participation may be ensured as compulsory along with the provision of some recreational and financial incentives.
- The university administration may develop such a mechanism of management and supervision that could encourage productive criticism of the academicians and their scholars. The university departments heads may keep a close watch on the loopholes that can cause deprivation and

frustration, and they may involve talented teachers and their scholars for supervising the curricular and research activities. It may control the prevailing educational crisis at postgraduate level in Pakistan.

- The university administration may ensure research students' access to libraries, academicians, information technology, other sources and resources necessary for their research activities. In this regard, a collaborative communication among different universities may be exploited for establishing research quality.

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