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Narratives about Immigrant Children Learning to Read in the Finnish Language

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Abstract

The number of immigrant pupils because is constantly growing in Finnish classrooms. Due to the increased number of immigrants in schools sets many new challenges to teachers and learning environments because the backgrounds of children moving in Finland are quite versatile. This study was focused on immigrants' reading skills in Finnish primary education. Knowing the Finnish language can be considered the prerequisite of learning and integrating in the Finnish society. The following research questions were set at this study: What factors are connected to immigrant children's learning to read in Finnish? What are immigrant children's individual learning paths like regarding their learning to read in Finnish? This was a qualitative case study in which the data were obtained through interviewing two class teachers, one special education teacher, and three immigrant children. In addition to these interviews, teaching and children's learning were observed during their Finnish lessons. When it comes to the learning to read, this study highlighted children's own motivation and support from home. This study also provided specific information about children's personal learning paths and thus contributed to the discussion of immigrant children's adjustment to the new country.

Keywords: learning to read, literacy, immigrants, Finland, Finnish language

Introduction

Finland is a country of approximately 5.5 million people, located in the northern Europe next to Russia. The official languages of Finland are Finnish and Swedish, the majority (app. 5 million) of people speaks the Finnish language. According to the recent statistics of the Finnish Family Federation (2009), the number of immigrants has doubled from the 1990s so that today about 29,000 immigrants move in Finland yearly. Therefore, multiculturalism and immigrants are a familiar sight in Finnish classrooms not only in the southern metropolitan area but in the northern Finland, Lapland, as well. It is hard to say the exact number of immigrant pupils because it is constantly growing (Paavola & Talib, 2010).

The increased number of immigrants in schools sets many new challenges to teachers and learning environments because the background of children moving in Finland are quite versatile: while one may come from a refugee camp without any school experience, another may move to Finland because of his or her parent's work, the third can be adopted to Finland, and so on. Teachers need multicultural competence in order to be able to confront the divergent group of immigrants.

This study was focused on immigrants' reading skills in Finnish primary education. Knowing the Finnish language can be considered the prerequisite of learning and integrating in the Finnish society. Learning to read and literacy are important for an active member of a social community. It is more important than we literate people usually realize. The significance of reading skill is increasingly emphasized in the modern society as the demands for it have diversified. At the same time, it has been noticed that weak reading skills, even illiteracy, often lead to exclusion (Kiiveri, 2006). For example, American Researcher Brozo (2002) and Australian Alloway and Gilbert (1997) highlight the negative influence of

illiteracy may have on the success in life. Active members of society have to have the ability to use and read a variety of texts.

Language learning is often divided into four skills: speaking, listening comprehension, reading, and writing (e.g., Alssen, 2012; Levy, 2009). When skills in these areas develop, we can talk about learning a language. Typically, the various areas of language knowledge develop at different pace. More often than not, speaking and listening comprehension can be more developed than literary skills. For example, children usually learn colloquial language fast whereas knowledge over abstract language develops more slowly and requires more practicing (Arvonen et al., 2010).

Indeed nowadays, the concept of literacy includes not only reading and writing skills but also listening and talking. These skills have so much in common that it is relevant to dissect them in a holistic manner (Wilhelm, 2000; Wray & Medwell, 1991). Becoming a reader and author is a part of other linguistic development (Korkeamäki, 1996). During the various phases of linguistic development, a child learns those information processing codes that will later constitute the elements of literacy (see e.g., Goswami, 2002). The elements of linguistic awareness—orthographic, phonological, and phonemic awareness—are considered the key factors for learning to read as they are the means of re-presenting features of language in visual graphic mode (Ahvenainen & Holopainen, 2005; Seymour, Aro, & Erskine, 2003).

Researchers (e.g., Ahvenainen & Holopainen, 2005; Garton & Pratt, 1998; Poskiparta et al., 2003) also emphasize the significance of environment for learning as the awareness of written language develops implicitly if and when someone reads to a child and a child follows reading. Knowing letters is a typical learning outcome. Becoming aware of sounds

means in practice that a child has the ability to hear the length of a word, its syllables, the first or the last sound of a word, take off these sounds and replace them with some other sounds or combine sounds into a word. This linguistic awareness is regarded as the basic skill for a beginning reader, as a bridge from speech to reading and writing.

There are plenty of studies on teaching reading skills (Aro, 2004; Kiiveri, 2006; Snow & Juvel, 2007) and on the prerequisites of literacy (Adams, 1990; Taube, 2004) but not so many on children's experiences the process of learning to read (Vauras et al., 1994). In addition children's language learning in bilingual, usually in immigrant environments is widely studied in many languages: for example, Turkish-speaking children in the Netherlands (Verhoeven, 1990), Arabic-English speaking Canadian children (Abu-Rabia & Siegel, 2002), and Hebrew-English speaking children (Geva & Siegel, 2000).

Basically, most people of the world are bi- or multilingual instead of monolingual. It means that the language spoken at home is not necessarily the same than the language spoken in the surrounding society. Likewise, several immigrants moving in Finland are already multilingual (Arvonen et al., 2010). When arriving in Finland, immigrant children bear the linguistic and cultural identity of their native country, but will develop an additional new identity along with learning the Finnish language and adjusting to the Finnish culture. In Finland, immigrant children are entitled to study their native language according to the Constitution of Finland (17§). Moreover, children's previous learning history and educational traditions have to be given attention in teaching (Nissilä, Vaarala, Pitkänen & Dufva, 2009; The National Core Curriculum for Comprehensive Education, 2004). This study focused on features that helped immigrants learn to read in Finnish. The purpose was to find out

immigrant children's individual paths of learning to read and thus, the aim was to bring out the children's and teachers' voices and experiences.

Method

The purpose of this study was to analyze who immigrant children learn to read in Finnish in the basic education and what factors are connected to the obtaining of the skill. The following research questions were set at this study:

- (1) What factors are connected to immigrant children's learning to read in Finnish?
- (2) What are immigrant children's individual learning paths like regarding their learning to read in Finnish?

This was a qualitative case study in which the data were obtained through interviews (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). The empirical data were collected by interviewing two class teachers, one special education teacher, and three immigrant children. The study also has narrative (Polkinghorne, 1995) and ethnographic (Gerstl-Pepin & Gunzenhauser, 2002) features because in addition to these interviews, teaching and children's learning were observed during their Finnish lessons. However, the observations were not used as data as such but they were regarded as supporting the interview data and providing the researchers with an understanding of the phenomenon in practice (Eskola & Suoranta, 2001; Kangas, 2008).

The research interviews and observations happened in a northern Finnish school in spring and fall 2011. Both class teachers had been working as teachers for over 20 years and the special teacher for about three years. The other class teacher had several years' experience of teaching immigrants while the other had taught immigrants only for a couple of years as had the special teacher. The teachers were asked to suggest immigrant children

suitable for the study. Three children were selected and they are referred here with fictitious names Hajar (boy), Saga (girl), and Ing (girl). The children attend a grade that corresponds to their age, in other words they are on the second grade and aged eight or nine. The purpose of the study was to highlight the children's and their teachers' voices and let them talk about their processes of learning the Finnish language, especially regarding learning to read.

Certain ethical issues concern this research. The selection of the research theme already (Flewitt, 2005; Ford, Sankey & Crisp, 2007) shows that the study addresses not only children but also members of minority groups in Finland. Cultural sensitivity was a key component in this research (see also Keskitalo, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2012). In addition, it was worth discussing how representative the sample of children in this particular study make (Hill, 1997) and how the autonomous space given to each child in the research (Moss & Petrie, 2002). The research purpose was not to provide any generalizable information but describe individual children's learning processes. Thus, having children from various backgrounds provided in this case a rich data which was further complemented their teachers' experiences and opinions as well as observing learning situations in practice. The purpose of this study was not to influence children's learning but to describe it. Naturally, parents', children's, and teachers' consent was asked and the participants anonymity is carefully secured by using fictitious names and by not providing exact location or other information about the school the study was conducted.

Results

Factors Affecting Immigrant Children's Learning to Read

When discussing learning and teaching reading skills, special attention needs to be paid to the structure of the target language. This is important because the development of

reading skills and the learning speed is greatly affected by the letter-phoneme equivalence and orthographical differences. Consequently, learning to read is connected to the language structure. In the Finnish language, the most salient step is to notice the letter-phoneme equivalence which means that phonemes are always written with the same letter regardless of the context. The challenge of reading comprehension in the Finnish language is the morphology of the language. It refers to rules in the word forms, structures, and inflection, consonant gradation, long words and non-finite clauses, and partitive case (Julkunen, 1984; Lerkkanen, 2006).

The Finnish language has eight vowels and 13 consonants; that is 21 phonemes altogether. This is considerably less than for example the number of phonemes in the English language, which is 44. The Finnish language has 20 letters: a, e, i, o, u, y, ä, and ö are the vowels and d, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, and v are the consonants. The phoneme “äng” does not have its own letter. In addition, the Finnish alphabets have letters that occur in words of foreign origin: b, f, c, w, z, x, å, and q (Lerkkanen, 2006). The Finnish language uses vowels abundantly which is manifested, for example, by the profusion of diphthongs, combinations of two vowel sounds. Presenting one vowel as a phoneme is also possible, and therefore, a singular vowel can form a syllable. Consonants cannot do that because they are difficult to pronounce as phonemes alone. What is noteworthy in the Finnish language is also the length of a speech sound: it may be crucial for understanding a word, such as “mato” (a worm) and “matto” (a mat) (Julkunen, 1984; Lerkkanen, 2006).

According to the results, many factors affected immigrant children’s learning to read in Finnish. The most important factors appeared to be learning motivation and support from home, a child’s native language, time spent in Finland, and linguistic experiences before

going to school. When it came to teachers' influence, it seemed that the teacher's role as a supporter and instructor was significant but not so much the method used. Instead, the teacher's familiarity with the child's linguistic and cultural background seemed to matter more. Immigrant children's individual background and their current environment have a major effect to their learning. Factors such as their age when moving in Finland and educational history (whether they have gone to day care or preschool in Finland or not) help predicting their learning. Before a child can learn to read, he or she has to know the target language, in this case Finnish. The child has to be able to cut the words into sounds and thus understand the letter-phoneme equivalence (Kiiveri, 2006).

Before introducing the narratives of immigrant children who participated in this study, their level of reading is shortly given here. At the time of conducting the research, it seemed that Saga and Ing had already realized the letter-phoneme equivalence typical of the Finnish language. Their good reading comprehension supported the notion. When reading, they did not use much energy to identify letters mechanically, in order words decoding, but could concentrate on understanding what they had read. Instead, Hajar had to use time and effort to the recognition of letters and therefore he could not fully focus on understanding the meaning of the text, which is, however, the main goal of reading (Kiiveri, 2006). Hajar's slow reading could be connected to his weak knowledge of phonemes. According to his teacher, Hajar could recognize only a few Finnish letter and phonemes before coming to school.

Three Narratives of Learning to Read

The second research question concerned children's individual learning paths. The purpose of introducing their individual stories is to complement the notion presented with the

first results, namely the influence of one's linguistic, cultural, and educational background to one's process of learning to read.

Hajar. Hajar's native language is Arabic which is spoken at Hajar's home. Hajar had come to Finland at the age of six with his older siblings about three years before the study as a refugee from Iraq. Hajar had attended to a Finnish-speaking preschool before going to school but it had not improved much his knowledge of Finnish.

Learning to read has required plenty of time and work of his teacher, special teacher, and Hajar himself. He could not read in Finnish or in his native language when coming to school. He knew only a few Finnish letters. Hajar did not attend a preparatory grade but his teacher thinks that it would have been the most beneficial:

Then I said that absolutely he should have taken the preparatory grade. This child has a background with a language in which diphthongs are difficult. No doubt it would have been beneficial. (Hajar's teacher)

Hajar had not been able to use the linguistic stimuli from day care and therefore, his Finnish knowledge had developed slowly. At the moment, Hajar is learning Finnish through action similar to language immersion. He is spoken in Finnish at school all the time and all everyday chores are done in Finnish. The idea of language immersion is that the language is learned through use, not just during Finnish lessons (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Cummins, 1998). Hajar's teacher has noted that language immersion is functional among immigrant children: "The teacher has been able to simplify, illustrate, use the language and explain issues, and have children participate." Due to language immersion, Hajar has started to understand and learn Finnish words.

At the beginning of immigrant children's learning, it is important to get them enthusiastic and interested in learning to read the Finnish language although understanding and following directions may be difficult and their vocabulary is limited. Hajar found some typical features of the Finnish language challenging. These were for example diphthongs, short and long vowels, geminates, word endings, and inflection.

In addition, Hajar's native language, Arabic, did not make learning Finnish any easier: some linguistic rules in Finnish appear incomprehensible because similar meaning may not be found in Arabic. Having a special teacher to support teaching was necessary in order to concentrate on Hajar as an individual and help him with the linguistic difficulties and learning to read.

Saga. Saga is an energetic eight-year-old girl from Bangladesh. She had moved in Finland with her family when she was two. The reason for moving in Finland was her father's work. Saga knew Bengali when coming to Finland and soon after that had learned Finnish, too. She had gone to a Finnish-speaking day care and preschool before starting school. Saga told that she knew Finnish already before going to day care.

Saga considers Finnish as her second native language and finds it easier to read and write than Bengali which is her first language. The Finnish language is, however, close and more concrete language to Saga because she uses it in daily communication. Saga's home is bilingual. At home, they speak mostly Bengali but Finnish too. Sometimes, Saga and her mother and brother speak Finnish to each other but Saga's father does not speak Finnish at all. Saga told how she helps her father for example when going to a grocery store:

Sometimes, when dad needs help for example at store, I help when he has to ask something or say something and if I have to ask something in Finnish. (Saga)

Saga remembers that she had learned to read at preschool when she was reading a Moomin book. Saga's other language, Bengali, is not as easy as Finnish. She can read in Bengali, too, but said that "letters are a little bit difficult to read and write." Saga told that reading in Finnish is meaningful because "it just feels so good." According to her experience, "everything is easy" when it comes to reading in Finnish, even easier than in Bengali that she also learns at school. Saga reads a lot Finnish children's books.

Saga has not needed a special teacher's help at learning to read. According to Saga's teacher, her learning has not involved any major challenges but concepts and vocabulary have required some work. Saga appears enthusiastic and read fluently.

Ing. Ing moved to Finland at the age of four with her mother and siblings from Burma as refugees. Ing went to day care where she learned to speak Finnish. She has also attended the Finnish preschool but taking a preparatory grade had not been considered necessary because of her good knowledge of the Finnish language.

Ing speaks Burmese at home but she told that she also speaks frequently Finnish with her litter sister. Ing could speak her native language when coming to Finland but finds Finnish easier. Ing's stimulating linguistic background and motivation are evident in her learning to read. She had learned to read during the first grade at school.

Ing had first started to learn to read in Finnish in a small group with the help of a special teacher. After about six months, Ing had "figured out reading," as described by her class teacher. Ever since that her reading had been fluent. Ing herself tells that knowing how to read in Finnish is nice because "you can talk with your friends and read aloud you diary." Ing also tells that she often plays school with her little sister and she is, of course, the teacher:

“I teach my little sister reading when she wanted to read and write and I told her that I can be her teacher.”Ing also reported that her sister had actually learned a little under her teaching.

Ing’s teacher told that at the beginning of learning, Ing had trouble distinguishing long and short vowels. Even now, she can mix vowels and write short vowels when they should be long. Likewise, Ing writes double consonants sometimes as singular consonants and some inflection is still apparently difficult. However, Ing reads fluently and is a motivated learner.

Discussion

The findings show the factors that are involved in these three immigrant children’s learning to read. The purpose was not to present any generalizable results but to describe three narratives of learning to read. Most of all learning resembled balancing between cultures. This necessitates that the teacher also need to perceive himself or herself as a teacher of a multicultural school. Basic knowledge about the child’s native country, culture, and language are the most beneficial. The similarities and differences between cultures are evident in daily chores and practices, and attitudes and manners.

When it comes to the learning to read, this study highlighted children’s own motivation and support from home. However, the native language affects, too. We have introduced the special features of Finnish language but naturally, the linguistic differences between native language and the language of immigrants’ new living country always exist and influence on learning. For example, Abu-Rabia and Siegel (2002) found out that the characteristic of different scripts may result in different reading and writing problems emerging in the two languages. For example, English does not have a one-to-one relation between graphemes and phonemes; words are not always pronounced as they are spelled and

there are many irregularities whereas Arabic has much more predictable grapheme–phoneme correspondence rules.

An additional challenge in teaching is that tests that are tailored to, in this case Finnish, children cannot be used in testing immigrants’ learning difficulties as such. Namely, these tests are culture and language bound. Yet, it would be important to notice learning problems at the earliest stage possible. The special education teacher interviewed in this study expressed the concern over teachers’ ability to address such problems at school. Special attention should be given to tests that measure learning difficulties among immigrants, and teachers’ education and preparedness. It seems obvious that teachers need preparedness to encounter multicultural students and to work naturally with them. “...it is not a surprise that class teacher training programs could have more multicultural training because there they go in the classroom with those immigrants. So not just theoretical studies but practical training, real encounters that gives the tools to that work”, claimed one teacher.

Another point that this study evinced was the importance of children’s own motivation to learn to read in Finnish. This phenomenon is widely recognized in international research too. Children’s attitudes toward reading are evident quite early (Merisuo-Storm, 2003) and family members’ positive attitude toward reading is likely to transmit to children, for example if children see their parents reading a lot (Bråten, Lie, & Andreassen, 1997). How parents view reading, how much they appreciate reading (Darling, 2005), and how actively they influence their children’s ability to read (Hoover-Dampsey & Sandler, 1997) affect how children adopt the practices of reading (Morrow & Young, 1997).

In addition to the influence from home, peers’ opinions affect children’s attitudes toward reading (Rhodes & Shanklin, 1993), especially among boys (Merisuo-Storm, 2003).

On the other hand, the texts used in teaching are not relevant or interesting enough from the point of view of boys' life (Arnot et al., 2001; Brozo, 2002) but they would for example benefit from reading related to digital media, videos, television, song lyrics, and others in areas they are interested in (Hyatt, 2002). Consequently, the text material at school should be widened: reading books is not the only way of reading (Cope & Kalantzias, 2000; Hughes-Hassel & Rodge, 2007).

However, immigrants' learning to read is not just a matter of attitudes and motivation to read but also to read in the target language (Falicov, 2007). Social and personal variables that reside in the society of origin, the society of settlement, and phenomena that both exist prior to, and arise during, the course of adjusting to the new culture affect greatly the willingness, readiness, and motivation to start learning the new language (see e.g. Barry, 1997). Barry (1997) lists the changes that immigrants have to face at time they move to a new country: (1) physical changes (e.g., urbanization), (2) biological changes (e.g., new dietary intake), (3) economic changes (e.g., new employment opportunities), (4) social changes (e.g., disrupted communities, new friendships), and (5) cultural changes (e.g., language shifts, religious conversions, and fundamental alterations to value systems). The last two might be the most important ones when considering whether the immigrant decides to try to cope actively or passively (Diaz-Guerrero, 1979).

In all, this case study contributes a child-oriented view in immigrant issues, especially when it comes to the learning to read of the target language. Children's learning of the new language appears a multidimensional phenomenon where not just the school and teachers, peers, home and family, and the child himself or herself, but they all together have an important role which determines the child's later success at school and in the society.

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The Mediating Effect of Organizational Commitment on the Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support and Turnover Intention

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Abstract

This study has undertaken to investigate the mediating effect of organizational commitment and its dimensions (affective, normative and continuance) on the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention. The study hypothesized that organizational commitment has partial effect as mediating variable between perceived organizational support and turnover intention. To investigate this effect the questionnaire was made on five point likert scale. Sample from public sector hospital employees (nurses, doctors and paramedical staff) has been taken and 320 sampling size for the study. Results suggest that perceived organizational support has significant and positive relationship with affective and normative commitment. The limitation for the study is cross-sectional design. The future direction for the study is that trust in management, supervisory support and autonomy has found theoretically to be strong predictor or constructs that constitutes up perceived organizational support. Further study should be undertaken to validate these construct to be predictor of perceived organizational support through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Keywords: Organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, turnover intention

Literature Review

The concept of POS (Perceived Organizational Support) in the workplace is still one of the most challenging and researched concepts in the field of management, organizational behavior and HRM. Researchers have investigated relative linkage between organizational support and employee work outcome. Evidence shows that employees who recognize high level of organizational support in which the degree to which the organization cares about their wellbeing (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Wayne et al., 2002), display increased affective commitment (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Van Knippenberg and Sleebos, 2006), Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) (Moorman et al., 1998; Shore and Wayne, 1993), as well as lower rates of turnover intentions (Wayne et al., 1997). POS can be defined as the extent to which the organization values their employee contributions and cares for their wellbeing (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The relationship between POS and organizational commitment to work behavior is broadly conceived within social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964). POS has signified employees' principle that the organization is willing to reward them for the efforts made on its behalf (Rhoades et al., 2002). This leads to employees experiencing organizational commitment and engaging in behaviors that will benefit the organization (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). The link between POS and turnover intentions emerge possibly to explicate choices for managers and supervisors to take affirmative steps to keep hold on valuable employees. When employees head off from an organization, voluntarily or involuntarily, it has substantial impact. Turnover has been directly linked to rising employee recruitment and training costs, low levels of employee morale, job satisfaction, and customer's perception of service quality (Gray et al., 2000).

Social exchange theorist suggests that POS has strength to build expected feelings of obligation to support and carry out organizational goals and supportive in accomplishment of its goals, we might expect high POS to lower turnover (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1990; Wayne et al., 1997). This relationship has signified the importance of OC as mediation in this study which highlighted the monetary and non-monetary cost of turnover to organization. The importance of this point is highlighted because employee turnover can cost bearing to the organization over one and half times the employees' annual salary considering costs of reassigning tasks, recruiting and training a replacement (Cascio, 2006). This turnover will ultimately result in more turnover, low morale and dissatisfaction and low level of commitment with the organization.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is showing the mediating effect of Organizational Commitment (OC) and its dimensions on the relationship between Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and its construct which are trust in management, supervisory support and autonomy and turnover intentions.

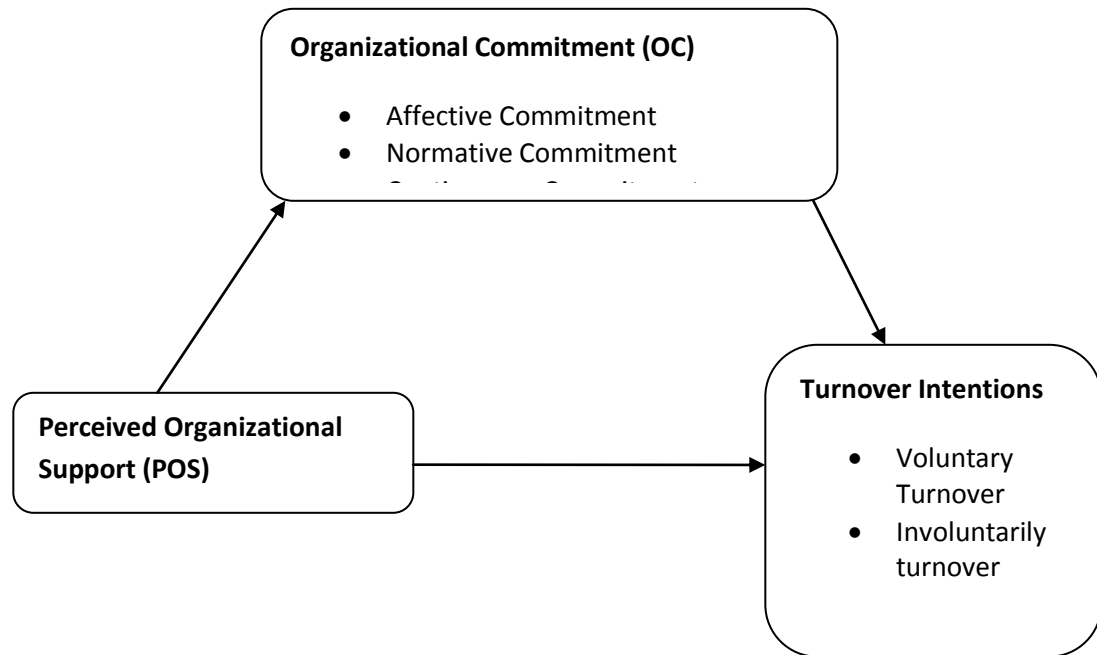


Figure 1: Conceptual Model of POS with turnover intentions and mediating effect of organizational commitment and its dimensions

The above conceptual model show that perceived organizational support has an impact on turnover intentions but the organizational commitment effect as intervening between these variables. The dimensions of organizational commitment such as affective, normative and continuance has been undertaken for the study. This model shows the mediating effect of organizational commitment and its dimensions on the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions. It is illustrating that employee's belief that their employer care about their wellbeing has an impact on turnover in organization and commitment to the organization has intervening effect.

Hypothesis

H1: POS is negatively related to turnover intention.

H2: POS is positively associated with affective commitment.

H3: There is positive association between POS and normative commitment.

H4: POS is negatively related to continuance commitment.

H5: Organizational commitment is negatively related with turnover intentions.

H6: Organizational commitment will mediate relationship between POS and turnover intentions.

Research Methodology

Research Question

This research will carry out following question:

- What factors of perception of organizational support have induced public sector hospital employees to result in turnover?

Sample of the study

It is an empirical study undertaken to determine the mediation role of organizational commitment on the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions. The participants of this study are public sector doctors, nurses and paramedical staff from Rawalpindi/Islamabad hospitals employees having age above 20 with minimum education level of metric. The sample size for the study was 500 but the response rate was 320 (64%). Non Probability sampling i.e. Purposive and convenient sampling was used for collecting data.

Instrument of the Study

The self-developed questionnaire was used to collect data. The questionnaire consisted of 33 items based on five points rating scale (likert Scale) to measure the response. The scale ranged from five (strongly agree) to (strongly disagree).

Data Analysis

Reliability

Firstly, the Cronbach's alpha was calculated to check the reliability of construct taken into account in research. The results for Cronbach's alpha for questionnaire (33 items) are given in the table below (Nunnally 1978, p. 245), suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency. (As Cronbach's alpha above .70 show acceptable data)

Table 1: Reliability of Constructs

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	.51	8
Affective Commitment	.69	8
Normative Commitment	.71	6
Continuance Commitment	.69	8
Turnover Intentions	.64	3

Descriptive Statistics

Before starting any statistical analysis, descriptive statistics has been executed to check the normality of data through skewness and kurtosis. The skewness has value between

range of +1 and -1, while, the benchmark value for kurtosis is +3. The results of skewness and kurtosis show normality of data if the value lies under the benchmark.

Table 2: Skewness and kurtosis for the main variable in this study

	Perceived Organizational Support	Organizational Commitment	Turnover Intentions
Skewness	-.041	.343	.424
Kurtosis	1.254	1.035	.297

The value of skewness for POS (-.041), OC (.34), TI (.42) which illustrates that data is between the range of +1 and -1 under the normal curve. Thus, the results display that no outliers exist in data and data is normal. The kurtosis for POS (1.25), OC (1.03), and TI (.297) which depict normality of data because the value is under the range and it does not exceed from +3.

One-Way ANOVA Analysis

The test was performed to check the influence of demographics (gender, marital status, age, hospital name, education and designation) on dependent variable (turnover intentions). The ANOVA significance value for following demographics in relation to be associated with turnover intentions are: gender (.338 >.05), marital status (.537 >.05), age (.022 <.05), hospital name (.215 >.05), designation (.022 <.05), education (.192 >.05).

Table 3: One-way analysis of variance for all dependent variables across age

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	4.815	3	1.605	3.253	.022
Within groups	155.874	316	.493		
Total	160.689	319			

Table 4: One-way analysis of variance for all dependent variables across designation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	4.793	3	1.598	3.238	.022
Within groups	155.896	316	.493		
Total	160.689	319			

Age and designation was treated as control variables as significant disparities were found between these demographics and dependent variable (turnover intentions) when one-way ANOVA test was applied. The variable having categories “1=20-30, 2=30-40, 3=40-50, 4=50-60” and designation having categories “1=Doctor, 2=Nurse, 3=Paramedical staff”. These two variables have found to be ANOVA significance value which is less than .05.

Bivariate Correlation analysis

Table 5: Bivariate correlation coefficient for the main variables of interest in this study

		Correlations				
		POS	Org Commitment	TI	AC	NC
POS	Pearson Correlation	1				
	N	320				
OrgCommitment	Pearson Correlation	.581**				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
	N	320				
TI	Pearson Correlation	.463**	.398**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
	N	320	320			
AC	Pearson Correlation	.548**	.845**	.305**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
	N	320	320	320		
NC	Pearson Correlation	.208**	.609**	.119*	.383**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.034	.000	
	N	320	320	320	320	
CC	Pearson Correlation	.518**	.791**	.431**	.527**	.132*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.018
	N	320	320	320	320	320

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

*· Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlation coefficients measure the strength of linear relationship between two variables. The correlation coefficients value should range between +1 and -1. The Bivariate correlation disclosed that organizational commitment has fair positive correlation with perceive organizational commitment ($r = .58, p < .01$), in simply we can say that employees having committed to their organization are likely to receive perceived support from their organization. While turnover intentions has weak positive correlation with perceived organizational support ($r = .46, p < .01$) and organizational commitment ($r = .39, p < .01$).

Affective commitment has significant positive correlation with perceived organizational support ($r = .54, p < .01$), highly positive correlation with organizational commitment ($r = .84, p < .01$), and weak positive correlation with turnover intentions ($r = .30, p < .01$). Normative commitment has weak positive correlation with perceived organizational support ($r = .20, p < .01$), turnover intentions ($r = .11, p < .05$) and affective commitment ($r = .38, p < .01$), fair positive correlation with organizational commitment ($r = .60, p < .01$), turnover intentions ($r = .11, p < .05$). Continuance commitment has highly positive correlation with perceived organizational support ($r = .51, p < .01$) and affective commitment ($r = .52, p < .01$), strong positive correlation with organizational commitment ($r = .79, p < .01$), weak positive correlation with turnover ($r = .43, p < .01$) and normative commitment ($r = .13, p < .05$).

Multiple Regressions

To check the mediational impact of organizational commitment on the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention, the multiple regressions was executed to fulfill following assumption of Baron and Kenny (1986) by following equations run:

1. First, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation
2. Second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation;
3. Third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation.
4. If these conditions all hold in the predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second

Condition 1: The independent variable must have effect on the mediator

Table 6: Model Summary on the relationship of perceived organizational support on affective commitment

Model Summary^b										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.548 ^a	.301	.299	.39138	.301	136.822	1	318	.000	1.558

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: AC

Adjusted R Square shows that 29.9 % variance in the perceived organizational support explained by affective commitment which states that when employees perceived support from the organization, they become highly emotionally committed to organization which cause change in their work behavior. The significance F Change value is ($p = .000 < 0.05$) which shows highly significant relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment. The value of Durbin-Watson test for correlation between errors. Durbin-Watson coefficient for independent variable is 1.558 which is less than 2 states that there is positive correlation between perceived organizational support and affective commitment. It is a coefficient satisfied the assumption of independent observations as Durbin-Watson coefficient was found within the benchmarked limits for independence of

observations between 1 and 4. The value of R Square Change accounts that perceived organizational support account for 30.1% change in the affective commitment.

Table 7: ANOVA on the relationship of perceived organizational support on affective commitment

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.958	1	20.958	136.822	.000 ^a
	Residual	48.711	318	.153		
	Total	69.669	319			

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: AC

As F-statistics indicates significance of the model or deviation explained by model in the dependent variable (affective commitment). As F-statistics is fit at 1% which shows that model is fit and deviation as explained by dependent variable. The F ratio in this relationship is 136.822 which is significantly ($p > .01$) which shows that there is significant relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment.

Table 8: Coefficient of variation on the relationship of perceived organizational support on affective commitment

		Coefficients ^a				Collinearity		
		Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.	Statistics	
Model		Coefficients	Coefficients	Coefficients			Tolerance	VIF
		B	Std. Erro r	Beta				
1	(Consta nt)	1.517	.139		10.877	.000		
	POS	.512	.044	.548	11.697	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: AC

The regression equation shows positive relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment. Since slope for regression equation is +0.51, hence, affective commitment can improve by 0.51 units, with every 1 unit increase in perceived organizational support. *p* value is less than 1%, the coefficient is highly significant, and it can be asserted true with 100% level of confidence. The tolerance values against independent variable, which were not less than 0.20 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) against each independent variable, were not more than four. The value of VIF is 1.000, hence, the values of tolerance and VIF both were within the range and fulfill the assumption of multicollinearity, thus no multicollinearity exists between independent variable.

The hypothesis H2 states that perceived organizational support is positively related to affective commitment. The above regression shows that there is positive relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment ($B = 0.51, p = 0.000 < .05$) which accepts H2.

Table 9: Model summary on the relationship of perceived organizational support on normative commitment

Model Summary^b										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.208 ^a	.043	.040	.40060	.043	14.335	1	318	.000	1.916

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: NC

Adjusted R Square shows that 4% variance in the perceived organizational support explained by normative commitment which states that when employees perceived support from the organization, they become obligatory committed to organization which cause change in their work behavior. The significance F Change value is ($p = .000 < 0.05$) which shows highly significant relationship between perceived organizational support and normative commitment. The value of Durbin-Watson test for correlation between errors. Durbin-Watson coefficient for independent variable is 1.918 which is less than 2 states that there is positive correlation between perceived organizational support and normative

commitment. It is a coefficient satisfied the assumption of independent observations as Durbin-Watson coefficient was found within the benchmarked limits for independence of observations between 1 and 4. The value of R Square Change accounts that perceived organizational support account for 4.3% change in the normative commitment.

Table 10: ANOVA on the relationship of perceived organizational support on normative commitment

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.300	1	2.300	14.335	.000 ^a
	Residual	51.033	318	.160		
	Total	53.333	319			

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: NC

As F-statistics indicates significance of the model or deviation explained by model in the dependent variable (normative commitment). As F-statistics is fit at 1% which shows that model is fit and deviation as explained by independent variable. The F ratio in this relationship is 14.335 which is significantly ($p > .01$) which shows that there is significant relationship between perceived organizational support and normative commitment.

Table 11: Coefficient of variation on the relationship of perceived organizational support on normative commitment

		Coefficients ^a				Collinearity		
		Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.	Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.550	.143		17.863	.000		
	POS	.170	.045	.208	3.786	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: NC

The regression equation shows positive relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment. Since slope for regression equation is +0.17, hence, normative commitment can improve by 0.1 units, with every 1 unit increase in perceived organizational support. P value is less than 1%, the coefficient is highly significant, and it can be asserted true with 100% level of confidence. The tolerance values against independent variable, which were not less than 0.20 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) against each independent variable, were not more than four. The value of VIF is 1, hence, the values of tolerance and VIF both were within the range and fulfill the assumption of multicollinearity, thus no multicollinearity exists between independent variable.

The hypothesis H3 states that perceived organizational support is positively related to normative commitment. The above regression shows that there is positive relationship

between perceived organizational support and affective commitment ($B = 0.17$, $p = 0.000 < .05$) which accept H3.

Table 12: Model Summary on the relationship of perceived organizational support on continuance commitment

Model Summary^b										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.518 ^a	.268	.266	.48011	.268	116.513	1	318	.000	1.339

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: CC

Adjusted R Square shows that 26.6% variance in the perceived organizational support explained by continuance commitment which states that when employees perceived support from the organization, they become committed to organization for their cost associated with leaving which cause change in their work behavior. The significance F Change value is ($p = .000 < 0.05$) which show highly significant relationship between perceived organizational support and continuance commitment. The value of Durbin-Watson test for correlation between errors. Durbin-Watson coefficient for independent variable is 1.339 which is less than 2 states that there is positive correlation between perceived organizational support and continuance commitment. It is a coefficient satisfied the assumption of independent observations as Durbin-Watson coefficient was found within the

benchmarked limits for independence of observations between 1 and 4. The value of R Square Change accounts that perceived organizational support account for 26.8% change in the continuance commitment.

Table 13: ANOVA on the relationship of perceived organizational support on continuance commitment

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	26.857	1	26.857	116.513	.000 ^a
	Residual	73.300	318	.231		
	Total	100.156	319			

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: CC

As F-statistics indicates significance of the model or deviation explained by model in the dependent variable (continuance commitment). As F-statistics is fit at 1% which shows that model is fit and deviation as explained by independent variable. The F ratio in this relationship is 116.51 which is significantly ($p > .01$) which shows that there is significant relationship between perceived organizational support and continuance commitment

Table 14: Coefficient of variation on the relationship of perceived organizational support on continuance commitment

		Coefficients ^a				Collinearity		
		Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.	Statistics	
Model		Coefficients	Coefficients	Coefficients			Tolerance	VIF
		Error		Beta				
		B	Std.					
1	(Constant)	1.277	.171		7.466	.000		
	POS	.580	.054	.518	10.794	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: CC

The regression equation shows positive relationship between perceived organizational support and continuance commitment. Since slope for regression equation is +0.58, hence, continuance commitment can improve by 0.58 units, with every 1 unit increase in perceived organizational support. P value is less than 1%, the coefficient is highly significant, and it can be asserted true with 100% level of confidence. The tolerance values against independent variable, which were not less than 0.20 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) against each independent variable, were not more than four. The value of VIF is 1, hence, the values of tolerance and VIF both were within the range and fulfill the assumption of multicollinearity, thus no multicollinearity exists between independent variable.

The hypothesis H4 states that perceived organizational support is negatively related to continuance commitment. The above regression shows that there is positive relationship

between perceived organizational support and affective commitment ($B = 0.58, p = 0.000 < .05$) which reject H4.

Condition 2: The independent variable must have effect on the dependent variable

Table 15: Model Summary on the relationship of perceived organizational support on turnover intentions

Model Summary^b										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.463 ^a	.214	.212	.63006	.214	86.785	1	318	.000	1.365

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: TI

Adjusted R Square shows that 21.2 % variance in the perceived organizational support explained by turnover intentions which states that when an employee receives support from their organization, the lesser chance of turnover in organization. The significance F Change value is ($p = .000 < 0.05$) which shows highly significant relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions. The value of Durbin-Watson test for correlation between errors. Durbin-Watson coefficient for independent variable is 1.365 which is less than 2 states that there is positive correlation between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions. It is a coefficient satisfied the assumption of independent observations as Durbin-Watson coefficient was found within the

benchmarked limits for independence of observations between 1 and 4. The value of R Square Change accounts that perceived organizational support account for 21.4% change in the turnover intentions.

Table 16: ANOVA on the relationship of perceived organizational support on turnover intentions

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	34.451	1	34.451	86.785	.000 ^a
	Residual	126.238	318	.397		
	Total	160.689	319			

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Dependent Variable: TI

As F-statistics indicates significance of the model or deviation explained by model in the dependent variable (turnover intentions). As F-statistics is fit at 1% which shows that the model is fit and deviation as explained by dependent variable. The F ratio in this relationship is 86.785 which is significantly ($p > .01$) which shows that there is significant relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions.

Table 17: Coefficient of variation on the relationship of perceived organizational support on turnover intentions

		Coefficients^a				Collinearity		
		Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.	Statistics	
		Coefficients		Coefficients				
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.910	.224		4.052	.000		
	POS	.657	.071	.463	9.316	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: TI

The regression equation shows positive relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions. Since slope for regression equation is +0.66, hence, turnover intentions can improve by 0.66 units, with every 1 unit increase in perceived organizational support. P value is less than 1%, the coefficient is highly significant, and it can be asserted true with 100% level of confidence. The tolerance values against independent variable, which were not less than 0.20 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) against each independent variable, were not more than four. The value of VIF is 1, hence, the values of tolerance and VIF both were within the range and fulfill the assumption of Multicollinearity, thus no Multicollinearity exists between independent variable.

The H1 hypothesis states that perceived organizational support is negatively related to turnover, but the value for Beta and significance ($B = 0.65, p = 0.000 < .05$) states there is highly positive relationship between them and reject H1.

Condition 3: The mediator must have effect on the dependent variable

Table 18: Model summary on the relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intention

Model Summary^b										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.398 ^a	.158	.156	.65213	.158	59.849	1	318	.000	1.414

a. Predictors: (Constant), Org Commitment

b. Dependent Variable: TI

Adjusted R Square shows that 16 % variance in the organizational commitment explained by turnover intentions which states that when employees have become committed towards their organization, they become lessen their turnover. The significance F Change value is ($p = .000 < 0.05$) which shows highly significant relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The value of Durbin-Watson test for correlation between errors. Durbin-Watson coefficient for independent variable is 1.420 which is less than 2 states that there is positive correlation between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. It is a coefficient satisfied the assumption of independent observations as

Durbin-Watson coefficient was found within the benchmarked limits for independence of observations between 1 and 4. The value of R Square Change accounts that organizational commitment account for 16.8% change in the turnover intention.

Table 19: ANOVA on the relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intention

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	25.452	1	25.452	59.849	.000 ^a
	Residual	135.237	318	.425		
	Total	160.689	319			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Org Commitment

b. Dependent Variable: TI

As F-statistics indicates significance of the model or deviation explained by model in the dependent variable (turnover intentions). As F-statistics is fit at 1% which shows that the model is fit and deviation as explained by independent variable. The F ratio in this relationship is 59.849 which is significantly ($p > .01$) which shows that there is significant relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Table 20: Coefficient of variation on the relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intention

		Coefficients ^a				Collinearity		
		Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.	Statistics	
Model		Coefficients	Coefficients	Coefficients			Tolerance	VIF
		Error		Beta				
		B	Std.					
1	(Constant)	.556	.315		1.768	.000		
	POS	.779	.101	.398	7.736	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: TI

The regression equation shows positive relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Since slope for regression equation is +0.77, hence, turnover intentions can improve by 0.77 units, with every 1 unit increase in organizational commitment. P value is greater than 1%, the coefficient is highly insignificant, and it can be asserted true with 99% level of confidence. The tolerance values against independent variable, which were not less than 0.20 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) against each independent variable, were not more than four. The value of VIF is 1, hence, the values of tolerance and VIF both were within the range and fulfill the assumption of Multicollinearity, thus no Multicollinearity exists between independent variable.

The regression states there is positive relationship between organizational commitment and turnover ($B = 0.77, p = 0.00 < .05$), hence it is stating that there is significant but positive relationship between these variable, and rejecting H5.

Condition 4: All hold in the predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third condition than in the second

Table 21: Model Summary of the organizational commitment as mediation between the relationships of perceived organizational support and turnover intention

Model Summary^b										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.463 ^a	.214	.212	.63006	.214	86.785	1	318	.000	
2	.489 ^a	.240	.235	.62086	.025	10.491	1	317	.001	1.414

- a. Predictors: (Constant), POS
- b. Predictors: (Constant), POS, Org Commitment
- c. Dependent Variable: TI

Adjusted R Square states that organizational commitment as a mediator will have 3.5% variance explained between the relationship of perceived organizational support and turnover intention. The Significance F change value ($p = .001 > .000$) states that organizational commitment will not act as mediation between the relationship of perceived organizational support and turnover intention. R square Change indicates that organizational

commitment will explain 2.5% change between the relationship of perceived organizational support and turnover intention. Durbin-Watson Coefficient for independent variables was 1.441 is coefficient satisfied the assumption of independent observations as Durbin-Watson coefficient was found within the benchmarked limits for independence of observations between 1 and 4.

Table 22: ANOVA of the organizational commitment as mediation between the relationships of perceived organizational support and turnover intention

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	34.451	1	34.451	86.785	.000 ^a
	Residual	126.238	318	.397		
	Total	160.689	319			
2	Regression	38.495	1	19.248	49.933	.000 ^a
	Residual	122.194	317	.385		
	Total	160.689	319			

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

b. Predictors: (Constant), POS, Org Commitment

c. Dependent Variable: TI

As F-statistics indicates significance of the model or deviation explained by model in the dependent variable (turnover intentions). As F-statistics is fit at 1% which shows that

model is fit and deviation as explained by independent variable. The F ratio in this relationship is 49.933 which is significantly ($p > .01$) which shows that there is significant relationship between organizational commitment, perceived organizational support and turnover intentions.

Table 23: Coefficient of variation of the organizational commitment as mediation between the relationships of perceived organizational support and turnover intention

		Coefficients ^a					Collinearity	
		Unstandardized		Standardized			Statistics	
		Coefficients		Coefficients	T	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta				
1	(Constant)	.910	.224		4.052	.000		
	POS	.657	.071	.463	9.316	.000	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	.230	.305		.755	.451		
	POS	.496	.085	.350	5.817	.000	.663	1.508
	Org Commitment	.381	.118	.195	3.239	.001	.663	1.508

a. Dependent Variable: TI

The regression equation shows positive relationship between perceived organizational support, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Since slope for regression equation is +0.38, hence, turnover intentions can improve by 0.38 units, with every 1 unit

increase in perceived organizational support and organizational commitment. P value is less than 1%, the coefficient is highly significant, and it can be asserted true with 99% level of confidence. The tolerance values against independent variable, which were not less than 0.20 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) against each independent variable, were not more than four. The value of VIF is 1.50, hence, the values of tolerance and VIF both were within the range and fulfill the assumption of Multicollinearity, thus no Multicollinearity exists between independent variable.

As it is an assumption of Baron and Kenny (1986) that perfect mediation hold if predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third condition than in the second. But in this case there is partial mediation of organizational commitment hold upon the relationship of perceived organizational support and turnover intention when comparing the value of ΔR^2 and B from the Table 14 and 16 of POS and TI and Table 20 and 22 of condition 4. The value states that Table 14 and 16 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.21$ and $B = 0.65$) which values drop at Table 20 and 22 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.025$ and $B = 0.38$) which states that partial mediation holds upon and it ultimately accept H6.

Discussion

The statistical analysis has revealed that the current investigation has been very crucial in responding to various significant queries extended from literature and theoretical scaffold of this research. The study revealed that perceived organizational support has positive relationship with turnover intention that does not match with previous literature which showed that this has negative relations with perceived organizational support (Chris Perryer and Catherine Jordan, Ian Firms, Antonio Travaglione, 2010). This result identified

that the cultural differences in eastern and western context consist some dissimilarities, hence, this study taken up in Pakistan. The job opportunities are scarce and unemployment is high in Pakistan, so, people are highly less likely to turnover, especially in government sector. Government sector employees are not concerned about that they have supervisory support, their input in decision making, or having autonomy to carry out job in their own ways. The more, they are concerned with job security and pension privilege given to them after retirement. Hence the hypothesis H1 is rejected. The study identified that perceived organizational support is positively related with affective commitment. The hypothesis H2 is accepted in this context the study undertaken and it matches with previous study of Aube, Rousseau and Morin, (2007). The results state that whenever government employees have been taken into account for decision making or sometime their supervisor care about their wellbeing at any time, the ultimate result is that the once effort by their employer will make them emotionally attached to the organization and high commitment to the organization. The study depicts that there is positive association between perceived organizational support and normative commitment that has been accepted (H3 accepted) in Pakistani context and match with previous literature (Aube et al., 2007). These results illustrate that government employees perceived support from employer does not make employees to remain obligatorily committed to the organization. But, this shows that employees do not want to leave their current employer and organization due to lack of alternative jobs and no strategy of job retention is prevailing makes them to remain obligatorily with the organization to be committed. The literature states that there is negative relationship between perceived organizational support and continuance commitment but this hypothesis H4 is rejected in Pakistan context and it does not support with previous literature of (Aube et al.,

2007; Tumwesigye, 2010). It is stating that when employees are having more support from the organization are more associated with cost of leaving of leaving the organization. The study states that organizational commitment is negatively related to turnover intention but the results states that it is positively linked with turnover intention. This result may occur due to cultural differences and particular sample may undertake in the study and therefore reject H5. The other hypothesis H6 states that organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention and it therefore accepts H6 with partial mediation of relationship between them. It states that when low perceived organizational results in high turnover or vice versa, and then organizational commitment can partially mediate the occurrence of this outcome. This mediation result matches with previous literature (Tumwesigye, 2010).

Conclusion

The research has been concluded on the basis of its two fold objectives. To check the mediating effects of organizational commitment on the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention in public sector hospital employees (doctors, nurses, paramedical staff). This relationship in connection with results in Pakistani context states that partially organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention in government sector. It is therefore give us evidence that when employers will take care about their employees and work for their wellbeing in governmental sector, the less likely they will turnover and look for alternative job options, and ultimately the more employees are emotionally, obligatory and cost of leaving to commit with the organization will partially mediate relationship between them. To check the relationship of perceived organizational support and organizational commitment

with turnover intention in public sector contextual. The results that perceived organizational support is positively linked with turnover intention, which state that government employees are more likely to turnover when support from organization have being to them. The result give us evidence that when job opportunities are scarce and higher unemployment rate, the people does not require any perceived support from the organization rather they require job security and fringe benefits from their jobs. The other relationship of organizational commitment and turnover is also positively associated in the context of this study. The result gives us support that when people are highly committed to their organization (emotionally, obligation and cost of leaving), the more likely the turnover take place in public organization of Pakistan.

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The Impact of Macroeconomic Policies on Social Welfare: An Empirical Study of Pakistan

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Abstract

Macroeconomic policies aim at macroeconomic stability not as an end to itself, but as a necessary precondition for social welfare which is critical to poverty reduction. An attempt has been made to analyze the impact of macroeconomic policies on social welfare. The study considered both the quantity and quality channels through which social sector can affect social welfare. Using the Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) the study establishes that the social welfare is found to be significantly affected much more by the rate of output growth than income distribution which – in turn - also accounts for a reasonable proportion of the overall variation in its social welfare. The output growth has been found to be affected positively by public sector expenditures on education and health in either of the channels. The study concluded that high inflation, unemployment and growing public debt have thwarted efforts aimed at improvement of social welfare.

Keywords: Macroeconomic policies, social welfare, income distribution.

Introduction

One of the existing shortcomings of the current welfare concepts and measurements of social welfare is their highly disproportional focus on income. However, when welfare is considered as anti-poor, its measurement based only on income cannot be expected to automatically imply improvement in the non-income or social dimensions of poverty and income distribution of the society. The increased awareness of the need to scale up efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has focused attention on the role on macroeconomic policy in achieving social as well as macroeconomic objectives. The preservation of macroeconomic stability is indeed important, not as an end to itself, but as a necessary precondition for sustained economic growth, which is the single most important factor influencing poverty reduction. Although the analysis of poverty and inequality has often been centered on microeconomic considerations, there has been, recently, a growing awareness of the macroeconomic dimension of distributional issues. This recognition has been strengthened by the need to implement severe stabilization programs in many developing countries, programs which may have had a distributional spillover. The channels through which macroeconomic policies affect income distribution are indeed intricate, with complexities arising from the fact that the impact of individual variables may differ depending on the composition of aggregate policy packages and the nature of the initial shock. Policies which could have, by themselves, clear-cut distributional consequences would, when combined with others, result in quite different outcomes. Moreover, as indicated by Demery and Addison (1987), macroeconomic difficulties, such as inflationary pressures and balance of payments deficits, can originate from factors intimately connected with distributional issues. Excess domestic demand may arise, for example, from political

pressures for higher government spending. The ultimate distributional impact of such spending cannot, therefore, ignore the imbalance that it causes. In addition, even if external shocks are initially responsible for payments problems, vested interests may delay the introduction of appropriate policies and may reshape them in a manner that blurs their ultimate impact. Without a disciplined macroeconomic policy stance, the achievement of sustained economic growth and social objectives becomes much more difficult. However, integrating social and poverty reduction goals with macroeconomic goals is not simply about adding social policies to a pre-designed sound macroeconomic framework. Formulating sustainable macroeconomic and social policies requires an understanding of countries' diversity and social context and more explicit analysis of the links between poverty, livelihoods, and macroeconomic policies. The integration of macroeconomic and social policies therefore requires an interdisciplinary approach that combines social, economic, environmental and political analysis. Macroeconomic policy choices should be articulated not only on the basis of short-term impact—appropriate policies must be sustained over longer time horizons in order to achieve the desired social outcomes. This paper has introduced the multidimensionality of welfare in the measurement of economic growth by applying the growth incidence to income distribution. In fact, the objective of this paper is to ascertain whether or not poor are affected positively from social improvements stemming from linking the development of non-income indicators to the position in the income distribution, and thus keeping the macroeconomics stability in perspective. The probable impact of this scenario is determined by empirically analyzing the relevant historical data for Pakistan for the period from 1973 to 2008.

A review of the recent literature on the relationships between economic growth, income distribution, and welfare has neither revealed the existence of any systematic pattern of change in income distribution over the recent decades nor any systematic link between fast growth and increasing income inequality. However, some recent empirical evidence does tend to confirm the negative impact of inequality on growth. Similarly, some researchers have found that the level of initial income inequality is not a robust explanatory factor of economic growth, though high inequality in the distribution of assets, especially land, has a significantly negative effect on it. Similarly, the rise in income growth led to increasing import requirements which were not met with higher exports receipts, the current account deficit also raised. The low-income groups are also affected by the rise in inflation and by the overvaluation of the exchange rate. Inflation is indeed a regressive tax as the poorest segments seems to bear most of the burden of this tax since both the urban and rural poor cannot protect their real incomes because they do not have indexed wages, and they seldom have any other assets that keep their real value in times of inflation. Upper-income groups were better shielded from price increases by holding a large portion of the real assets of the country. Demery and Addison (1987) provide an insightful review of the theoretical and practical issues involved. They indicate that net effects depend on the relative importance of traded and non-traded goods in the production and consumption baskets of different income earners but that specific aspects, such as the degree of price and wage flexibility and the distributional consequences of the initial dis-adjustment, should not be ignored. Moreover, they rightly stress that, in practice, actual conditions depart from theoretical assumptions about the effects of devaluations, and those departures may be the source of major distributional implications. Thus, elements such as the distinction between the formal and the

informal sectors of the economy, the degree of actual factor mobility, and the speed of supply responses are all bound to play a determinant distributional role that cannot be easily assessed but in a proper empirical context. Devaluation is not expected to have serious adverse effects on the purchasing power of the poor since their consumption basket contains a small share of imported goods. Redistribution was also negatively affected by the fact that this type of regressive expenditures was largely financed through regressive taxation.

The Pakistani tax system relies heavily on indirect taxes which are highly regressive, with very little collection from direct taxes. Most of the poor in the Pakistan live off agriculture. Macro policies had discriminated for years against the sector in the way of price controls, an overvalued exchange rate, export taxes, trading monopolies, and negative effective protection. Similarly, remittances are an important source of earning for a large number of household in third world in general and Pakistan in particular. The impact of remittances on welfare is generally examined initially by looking at the impact of remittance flows on key macroeconomic variables, such as balance of payments, savings and investment, labour and output markets etc. In rural labour market, most of the poor are employed as casual employees; their work is seasonal, which leaves these categories economically vulnerable during certain parts of the year. In most of the under developed countries, the income assessment takes place in peak labour demand periods, where bureaucracy involved can have its share of 'booty'. This leads to data distortions as some of the poor will not thus be captured. Also, some of the non-poor households tend to underestimate their income in order to obtain state assistance due to past experience in obtaining state transfers. Apart from misallocation of household transfers through poverty alleviation programmes, the same occurs even in education and health. Although

governments – federal and provincial – claim to provide free, but hidden costs such as transport, purchase of stationary, uniforms etc. discourage the poor from continuing school or obtaining other vocational training. Similarly, health care, although provided free or at a minimal expense, also has hidden costs like medical supplies etc.

Therefore, possible contributory channels of distribution lead to the accentuation of poverty and are credit rationing. These things reduced opportunities for participation in the political process and as result it increases social conflicts among masses. On the other hand, the strategic elements that contributed to reduced poverty include an outward-oriented strategy of export-led growth, application of new labour-intensive technologies in manufacturing, use of efficient techniques of production in agriculture and rural development, investment in physical infrastructure and human capital, development of efficient institutions that provided the right set of incentives to farmers and entrepreneurs, and adoption of social policies conducive to promote health, education, social capital, as well as safety nets for the poor. In fact, available relevant research evidence shows that the countries that have been successful in achieving good economic growth have also been generally successful in reducing poverty. It may thus be argued that poverty can be reduced if there is sufficient economic growth and it is handled astutely. It may be further argued that the economic growth, in turn, can be enhanced substantially if the right policy and institutional environment is put in place.

The Measurement of Welfare and Economic Development

Economists have debated the concept of development for a long time as touch relevant literature is replete with spectacular arguments about its desirability as well as its

philosophical implications which are not discussed here.¹ The aim of this paper is not to discuss any implication of economic growth what it is concerned with here is the changes in the economic welfare or the living standard of the people. While the economic welfare- like many other social concepts has many interesting dimensions, but this study concentrates only on its following of three aspects: per capita income, income distribution, and poverty. It is assumed that a higher per capita income, *ceteris paribus*, implies higher welfare, whereas greater income inequality and poverty implies lower level of social welfare.²

There is a vast literature on the problems of measuring development. With regard to poverty, the main dividing line is between those measures which are based on income-consumption and those which argue that an exclusive focus on income and expenditures misses those important aspects of well-being that the poor consider as relatively more important than income alone. While the researchers, in general, agree that poverty should be seen as a multidimensional concept, the measurement of poverty by income is favoured for its serving as a convenient means to satisfy other needs. On the other hand, one could argue that poverty should be measured with output indicators, such as infant mortality, literacy, and enrolment rates, rather than with an input indicator such as income. However, the counter argument could be that many social indicators have distributional elements and they may improve in themselves but may not induce any improvement in the well-being of the poorest segments of the society. While the proponents of the measurement of different measurement of social welfare with methods with other than income alone continued to advocate their own

¹ See Sen (1989) for an appreciable discussion of economic growth and its implications.

² This study has concentrated on the above mentioned dimensions of welfare. Some other dimensions of it can also be included in the analysis. For example, while developing a Human Development Indicator, UNDP has considered per-capita income, life expectancy and literacy rate. Many countries are found to have done much better on this index than on per capita income alone, although there is a high correlation between them.

cases, a shift over time towards a consensus, or towards a meaningful amalgamation of certain methods in assessing poverty seems to have taken place. Comparative analyses based on different concepts have detected the existence of correlation among certain indicators of welfare, although some other indicators continued to exhibit independent behavior. Further, inconsistencies in poverty patterns have also been encountered during comparison of quantitative analyses with participatory studies (Narayan et al, 1999). Although, at the aggregate level, a broader definition of poverty does not change the number of poor, it expands the set of policies that are relevant for poverty-alleviation (Kanbur and Squire, 1999). However, despite the consideration of different other factors affecting welfare, income or consumption preference remain an important part of any discussion of the consequences of economic policies and reforms directed towards amelioration of poor (Dercon, 2000). Since the economic reforms will be continued to be judged *inter alia*, on their effects on the gross domestic product (GDP) of a country, and since both GDP and household income (consumption) are usually measured in monetary terms, measures based on household income (consumption) provide at least a reasonable starting point in examining poverty welfare of a society.

The World Bank (2003) has held that relevant institutions at all levels from local to global are necessary to achieve sustainable development in today's dynamic world. It has further stressed that the measures aimed at poverty reduction in any country must pay due attention to four factors: distribution, sustainability, variability, and governance surrounding growth process.

The major objective of this paper is to examine how welfare enhancing policies adopted historically may have affected economic growth in Pakistan. In addition, it also

intends to show by using Sen Welfare Index (1974) as to how some earlier studies had overlooked the key importance of the relationship between economic growth and income distribution in measuring welfare. Certainly, the effectiveness of any social service policy should be checked by how much it helps to improve the welfare of the society. Briefly, the objective is to find empirically whether increasing economic growth or improving income distribution is more effective in bringing about prosperity in larger number of segments of the society.

Methodology

The effect of the economic growth and income distribution on the performance of the social sector of an economy is measured by Gini coefficient. Furthermore, different indicators like public expenditure on health and education sector, unemployment and poverty levels, number of people per doctor, number of teachers in universities and students enrolled in universities also explain the social sector performance. It may, however, be realized that while both social and economic factors affect the performance of the social sector, the analysis at isolating their welfare impact often runs into an almost insurmountable difficulty. This is particular true for determining the welfare impact of macro variables included into a policy package. Such a difficulty is apt to be encountered in this study as well.

The analysis of this study starts from the following Sen Index of Welfare.

$$W_t = Y_t + (1 - G_t)^B$$

Where, W_t is welfare, Y_t is output and G_t is an index of the income distribution, and \square is the share of income distribution in social welfare.

Taking the double natural log of Equation (1) and differentiating with respect to time yields the following differential equation which accounts for the growth process.

$$\frac{\dot{W}}{W} = \frac{\dot{Y}}{Y} + \beta \left(\frac{1 - \dot{G}}{1 - G} \right) \quad (2)$$

Where, dots indicate instantaneous rates of change over time. Equation (2) indicates that the growth rate of welfare W/W equals the growth rate of output Y/Y plus the growth rate of one minus Gini coefficient G/G . In compliance with the objective of this study, first the impact of social indicators on each component of the above equation and then analyse the impact of social indicators on social welfare is analyzed. For the sake of convenience in the empirical analysis performed, the following linear relationship among the chosen variables is specified:

$$\frac{\dot{Y}}{Y} = a_0 + b_j \dot{S}_j + c_j \dot{E}_j + U \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\dot{G}}{G} = \alpha_0 + \beta_j \dot{S}_j + \gamma_j \dot{E}_j + V \quad (4)$$

In Equations (3) and (4), S_j and E_j stand for social and economic indicators of social services. In Equation (3) a_0 measures the exogenous component of economic growth attributed to the pure exogenous progress, b_j ($j=1-----k$) measure the impact of social indicators on economic growth and c_j ($j=1-----l$) measure the impact of economic indicators on economic growth. Likewise, in Equation (4) α_0 indicates the exogenous growth in Gini coefficient that cannot be attributed to any variable of the equation and β_j ($j=1-----k$) and γ_j ($j=1-----l$) show the effect of social and economic indicators on the growth rate of Gini coefficient.

As such, the analysis performed in this study is based on the model made up of equations 2 to 4. The required analysis is based on historical data for the years 1973 to 2009 for Pakistan. The necessary data for the analysis were collected from different issues of '*Pakistan Economic Survey, Household Income and Expenditure Survey, and Hand Book of State Bank of Pakistan*'. The social indicators chosen for the desired analysis were public expenditure on health and education sector, unemployment level, number of people per doctor, number of teachers in universities and students enrolled in universities. Similarly, the economics of welfare considered in performing the stipulated analysis were inflation rate, output gap and debt level.

Following Arellano and Bond (1991), Arellano and Bover (1995), and Blundell and Bond (1997), the Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) was applied wherein the levels of the instruments form the moment conditions for the equation. The GMM is considered just as a generalization of the classical method of moments. A key point in the GMM is a set of population moment conditions that are derived from the assumptions of the econometric model. Given the data on the observable variables in this study, the GMM finds values for the model parameters such that the corresponding sample moment conditions are satisfied as closely as possible.

It is to be noted that if the problem of causality between social sector and output growth is not settled beforehand, the random term will be correlated with the independent variables which create simultaneity biases. However, the estimation procedures proposed in the study handle this problem in the following way: first, the sector specific effect is eliminated in the equation with the first difference; second, the application of appropriate instruments tackles the problem in equations in levels. The study follows the second method

using the software E-Views 7 (Econometric Views), a statistical package for Windows used mainly for time series-oriented econometric analysis. In this method, lagged values are used as instrument in the regression analysis. The model specified in equations 1.4 through 1.6 is estimated by GMM procedure which generates consistent and efficient coefficient estimates. The use of GMM is also called for to address the issue of simultaneity in system of equations thus adopted in the model.

Discussion of Empirical Findings

The estimates of the regression analysis performed are presented in Tables 1 and 2. The regression results depicted in tables show that the output growth and income distribution have significantly and positively affected the level of social welfare in the country. In fact, output growth rate is associated with a very substantial positive effect on social welfare. More specifically, a one per cent increase in the output growth rate has been found to be accompanied by almost 17 per cent increase in welfare. Similarly, the value of R-squared was 0.84, which is also a reasonably high value. It indicates that 84 per cent variation in social welfare is explained by the output growth rates and income distribution in the country.

Table 1: The Coefficients of Regression Analysis.

Variable	Parameter Estimate
Intercept	26.53 (16.91)*
Growth rate of output	1.00 (16.47)*
1-Ginni coefficient	0.98 (03.22)*
R ²	0.84

Note: *, **, and ***: the values are statistically significant at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels of significance, respectively. The values in parentheses are the respective t-values. □

It is known that all the independent variables included in the analysis may not be affecting the dependent variable positively. Under such circumstances which policy government should follow depends on its priorities. However, the results obtained in this analysis do call for a relatively greater emphasis is on policies which improve GDP growth rate.

Table 2 represents the figures reflecting the effect of social sector indicators on welfare of the economy via the quantity and quality channels. The quantity channel refers to the effects of social sector indicators on output growth rate and the quality channel indicates the effect of social factors *. R-square at 0.88 for the quantity channels indicates that 88 percent of the variations in total welfare is explained by the output growth rate that is affected by public expenditure on health and education sector, unemployment level, number of people per doctor, number of teachers in universities and students enrolled in universities. Economic

indicators, on the other hand included inflation rate, output gap and debt level. Results thus obtained are compatible with economic theory; inflation and unemployment affect output growth negatively, mainly because inflation decreases purchasing power of people. As such, it is in line with the Keynesian school of thought which postulates that demand creates its own supply. Similarly, it is also argued that when unemployment increases, unutilized resources including labor increase resulting in reduced household income, which, in turn, reduces the demand for goods and services, all leading to reduced output growth. One of the very interesting results of this study is that university enrollment and public expenditure on education has a negative effect on output growth. This specifically shows that public expenditure on education generates only quantity and may be able to increase literacy rate but not the quality of the public institutions. This may have stemmed from another fact. In Pakistan many students prefer to remain in university for fear of being unemployed because of increased educated unemployment and, therefore, enrollment may have caused a negative impact on output growth. However, the other variables included in the regression function have effected output growth positively and significantly.

A reflection of the results presented in Table 2 will reveal that the level of debt, inflation and public investment on education have affected income distribution negatively. It may be argued that a relatively greater share of the debt burden may have been transferred on to the poor segment of the society. Similarly, inflation which is like a hidden tax may also have dealt a more severe blow to the poor. The public investment on education may have resulted in providing only low quality education to society. As such, it does not seem to be helpful in reducing the poverty in the country. Like in quantity channel, the remaining social

indicators included in the quality channel were found to be helpful in improving income distribution of the society and thereby, the welfare.

As mentioned before, the quality channel refers to the effect of indicators of social sector on income distribution in the economy. Here again, a high R-square value at 0.87 was obtained which indicates that 87 percent of the variations in total welfare is explained by income distribution affected by public expenditure on health and education sector, unemployment level, number of people per doctor, number of teachers teaching in universities and students enrolled in universities and by economic indicators of inflation rate, output gap and debt level.

Table 2: Effect of Social and Economic Indicators on Output Growth

Factors	Output Growth Rate	Gini Coefficient
	(Quantity Channel)	(Quality Channel)
Intercept	5.76 (6.98)*	3.46 (4.56)*
Public expenditure on education	-32.6 (-3.06)*	-.0004 (-1.11)***
Public expenditure on health	60.3 (5.04)*	.0009 (1.81)***
Population per Doctor	78.4 (2.86)**	0.01 (11.92)*
Students in Universities	-13.51 (-1.76)***	7.62 (0.30)
Teachers in Universities	13.5 (1.95)**	0.0003 (1.66)***
Unemployment	-62.7 (4.43)*	2.062 (4.17)*
Debt	5.43 (2.31)**	-1.74 (-2.39)**
Output Gap	25.25 (0.42)	11.76 (6.85)*

Inflation rate	-10.52	-0.33
	(1.77)***	(-2.55)**
R2	0.88	0.87

*Note: *, **, and ***: The values are statistically significant at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels of significance. The values in parentheses are the respective t-values. □*

Conclusion

As consequences of macroeconomic policies for income distribution and the impact of this distribution on social welfare is the area that has become a hot topic for attention and discussion. The present study was an effort to analyze the effects of social sector on social welfare. "Good" policies along with other macroeconomic impacts also have a distributional payoff. Reducing inflationary pressures, avoiding real exchange rate overvaluation, and attaining positive real interest rates all have a desirable incidence, while indiscriminating expansionary fiscal policies, with no attention to public expenditure composition, will probably result in a higher skewness of the distributional curve. The study considers both the quantity and quality channels through which social sector can affect social welfare. Using empirical analysis, the study has found that the social welfare is found to be significantly affected more by rates of output growth of Pakistan, although income distribution has also accounted for a reasonable proportion of the overall variation in its social welfare. The output growth has in turn been found to be affected positively by public sector expenditures on education and health in either of the channels. As most of the regression coefficients were compatible with prior theoretical expectations, the variables of inflation and unemployment

especially affected social welfare adversely. The study on the basis of its empirical results has concluded that high inflation, unemployment and growing public debt have thwarted efforts at improvement of social welfare. Similarly, policy environment and institutional framework regarding especially university level education leading to educate unemployed youth have so far been ineffective in alleviating poverty, and for that matter, in improving the social welfare of the people at large.

Following suggestions are put forth in the light of above mentioned empirical evidences:

- Agriculture production has very low productivity which is an important component of self and under employment. Therefore, productivity improvements are one of the most effective ways of increasing the income of lowest income deciles, especially in rural areas. In addition, government services hardly reach the rural poor since most poor farmers do not use modern inputs but operate simple, largely subsistence farms.
- Inflation takes the form of a regressive tax as the poorest segments seem to bear most of the burden of this tax since both the urban and rural poor cannot protect their real incomes because they do not have indexed wages, and they seldom have any other assets that maintain their real value in times of inflation. Therefore, any policy that is positively inflation bound should not be pursued over a longer period of time in the larger context of most of the population of Pakistan.
- Some types of macroeconomic policies, such as higher real interest rates or a real devaluation could have been, in the specific context of the Pakistan, neutral or even beneficial to the poorest of the poor who have a very low imported component in their consumption basket and do not borrow. Therefore, import substitution is necessary for the overall health of the society.

- Evaluations available on micro finance provided under poverty alleviation programmes show little impact on poverty reduction itself since enterprises started under the poverty alleviation programmes have not been sustained mainly due to financial non-feasibility, lack of non-financial support and lack of markets. At the same time, the influence of the interest groups and monopolies especially in rural and semi-rural markets should be minimized to boost value addition at rural household level and open new channels of exports. The export fares arranged in the rural context and in rural areas can lead the small entrepreneurs to explore their existing and potential talents to expand the household earnings.
- The tax deductions at source on remittances induce the use of un-official channels to reach the household in Pakistan. This not only discourages the investment motive but the distortions in the data thus generated is reflected on macroeconomic policies, such as balance of payments, savings and investment, labour and output markets etc. Therefore, in these times of domestic inflation when most part of remittances are spent in ensuring sustainability of the households, the tax further dampens the prospects of attracting investments from Pakistanis residing abroad.
- In order to be able to identify the poor more accurately, development of a poverty line that captures different aspects and characteristics of poverty is required to design a more focused welfare programme in upgrading their overall quality of life. More frequent conduct of national surveys is not feasible due to cost constraints, but an alternative needs to be developed to fill the information gap, which in turn will affect timely programme and policy planning and interventions. One low cost mechanism to fill the gap is to develop a community based monitoring system with several small

samples of poor population located in different parts of the country. This would serve to cover both spatial and temporal differences in poverty issues of selected population.

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Dimensions of Child Research- A Review

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Abstract

In this paper, we have discussed various points of view to child research starting from describing the position of childhood in society all the way to seeing children as active research partners. It can also be discussed whether the last two perspectives to child research, research for children and positively-focused childhood research, consider children as objects or subjects. According to our understanding research for children have a standpoint that respects children's individuality and citizenship. Genuine aspirations to conduct ethically sustainable and genuinely child-centered research naturally aim at benefitting children themselves.

Keywords: child research, childhood research, research with children, childhood, children

Introduction

Why we should study children and what are the dimensions of child research? This is going to be the focus of this article. Children, who are they and why they should be researched, it was not that long ago when childhood did not even exist. Children were seen as young adults, whereas childhood was not considered a natural category (Puttonen, 1998). Children were merely understood as incompetent and developing 'becoming-adults' (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008).

The 20th century was called the century of childhood. This name originates in the discovery of childhood. As the ultimate target of education is children, plenty of interest was focused on education: how children should be raised and what kind of attention they should

be given (see also Uusiautti & Määttä, 2012). According to Kohlberg and Mayer (1972, p. 449), "the most important issue confronting educators and educational theorists is the choice of ends for the educational process." What are the values that can be defined as some general ends of education? Who has the right to influence the other, the child? Already Dewey (1909) referred to the ideas of moral behavior that should be transmuted into good character or good conduct by education. On the other hand, a commonly shared ideal is that the aim of education is to support the other's autonomy, individualization, and possibilities of self-being in the world (Joensuu, 2013).

Childhood did not become recognized at once. Actually, in sociological and psychological research, childhood as a concept started to become established as late as in the 1960s-1980s. For example, Edwards (1996) refers to the idea that while childhood is considered an important phase of life, it is still the adults' lives that really matter. Barker and Weller (2003) bring the issue of seeing children as a target of adults' action to a head by stating that "Childhood has either been neglected by mainstream social theory, or subsumed within other more 'important' areas of focus" (p. 208). On the hand, Punch (2002) points out that "The way in which researchers perceive childhood and the status of children in society influences how children and childhood will be understood" (p. 321). The concept of childhood has been under development varying from children's vulnerability to the idea of good childhood and so on (Edwards, 1996), which means that simultaneously the adult-child relationship has been under evaluation as well.

The history shows that the concept of child and childhood has been and can be defined in numerous ways. This holds true also when looking at childhood from different perspectives. In educational philosophical sense, children can be defined based on their moral

development. Piaget and et al. (1965) propose that it is necessary to consider the child's ability to moral judgment which develops in stages. Jens (2004) argues that in social research children can be considered objects of protection, autonomous individuals, and active citizens. The latter means that children's "ability to learn and play allows them to give active meaning to their environment" (p. 27). From psychological point of view, it can emphasize childhood as an inevitable developmental phase in the human life span. The child's identity develops along several consecutive or overlapping phases toward adulthood (Erikson, 1994). However, in the modern era, it is reasonable to question the adaptability of traditional theories of human development as today, constant adjustment to and control over new living conditions seems to be more salient: life is not as predetermined and stable as it was before (Baltes & Freund, 2004).

Childhood can also be defined in legal terms and, basically, researchers have to follow these definitions when it comes to permission to do research among children. In Finnish legislation, a child is a person who has not come of age, which at the moment is 18 years. In the United Nation's agreement on children's rights, the term "child" refers to any person under 18 years of age unless the child does not come of age earlier according to the legislation applicable to him/her. For example, in Finland, children have criminal responsibility when they turn 15. Although the constitution of Finland supports the freedom of science, it still requires that research must not harm children and necessary permission must be acquired. Fundamentally, the Constitution of Finland provides the same basic rights to children and adults, which means that children have to be treated as individuals, not just passive targets. In addition, children's well-being and growth must be secured. Children

should have the opportunity to have a say in decisions that concern themselves (Nieminen, 2009).

As it appears, the definition of a child is somewhat flexible and thus, child research does not have specific regulations, at least when it comes to research in social, educational, or behavioral sciences. According to Nieminen (2009), in medical research, it is clearly stated that a minor can be a research target only if the same scientific results cannot be obtained by using other participants and if the research poses only minimal danger or strain to a minor (see also Morrow & Richards, 1996). In medical research, a 15-year-old person can make a decision concerning his or her participation in the research. In other than medical research, researchers usually ask for permission from children's parents. However, it is necessary to acknowledge that children's will must also be respected and researchers cannot oblige children to participate in research just based on the decision of children's parents (Nieminen, 2009; the Constitution of Finland, 731/1999; the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1999). Alderson's (2000) analysis of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) shows that children's participation actually has four levels, and the CRC only deals with the three: (1) to express a view; (2) to be informed about the details and options within a decision; and (3) to have their view taken into account, according to the child's age and ability, by adults who are making the decision. As CRC's purpose is only to raise the standards of children's rights, some countries go beyond the CRC to the fourth level of decision-making: (4) the right to be the main decider in matters which affect the child.

Given the aforementioned definition of childhood, it might be easy to say that child research is research performed among people legally defined as children. However, as the constitution of Finland says that children should be regarded as subjects. Thus, the age-based

child/adult definitions cannot be considered the only definition of child research but child research can have various forms depending on many other viewpoints. We define child research as research focusing on children and childhood but next, we will spend a moment having a closer look at the concept to acknowledge the various forms of it.

What is Child Research?

According to Punch (2002), the fundamental aspect guiding methodological choices in child research is whether children are seen as totally the same or very different from adults. In the first case, any methods can be used while the latter would prefer ethnographic or other child-centered methods, such as drawings and pictures. In addition, child research can also be defined based on how children are situated in the study. Child research can be defined as research *about*, *with*, and *by* children (Alderson, 2001; Mayall, 2008), or *for* children (Prout, 2005). At the same time, it is worth noticing that seeing children as subjects, social actors, who possess certain rights, is critical in today's child research (Christensen & James, 2008). It means that children have various kinds of rights that must be reflected on based on, for example, in which stages of research children will be involved in, the level of their participation, and which methods the research will apply (Alderson, 2001).

Research About and On Children

There are ways of researching children and childhood that do not require actual interaction with children but can be focused on documents or other sources about children and childhood. This can be called research about children or research about childhood. The point is to show that methodological choices can change the meaning of this particular concept of child research. The purpose of such research can be to describe the history of

children's education or measures focusing on children, and their influence on children's lives by analyzing texts, discourses, or for example adults' childhood memories. In this sense, children's lives can be researched in the light of curricula and other school documents and archives (e.g., Turunen, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2012; Heikkilä, & Määttä, 2012; Lakkala, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2013) and adults' memories of childhood (e.g., Hoisko, Uusiautti, & Määttä, 2013; Kilpimaa, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2012; Uusiautti, Paksuniemi, & Määttä, 2013) just to name few examples.

The aforementioned research approaches do not involve children's participation in the research although they are focused on children and childhood. When taking the concept of research about children in the situation in which children participate in the research, the term has a special meaning. In this kind of situation, children are mainly regarded as objects of research (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008) as the term "research about children" implies about children's subordinate position in the research situation. This viewpoint is based on the idea that children's lives are practically dominated by adults and because of that children are not treated as equals. Children inevitably are under adults' power (Punch, 2002). Children themselves are not considered providing valid and reliable data, and a crucial element is how adults share or hold back knowledge and control (Alderson, 2001). When doing research about or on children, a researcher must understand and protect the child's privacy, and the child's development must not be endangered at any point (Kyrönlampi-Kylmänen & Määttä, 2011).

Research with Children

What can be done to get views from children and make them participate in research? On the other hand, the use of participatory approaches that seemingly "appear emancipatory

and democratic, respecting children's agency as individuals in their own right" (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008, p. 499) also have to be reflected on critically. The concept of research with children takes a step further among research approaches pursuing ideal children-centered research (Barker & Weller, 2003). The objective of research with children is to empower them by representing the voices of children through data collection and dissemination, and reflective analysis and interpretations (Barker & Weller, 2003; Keskitalo, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2012; Kyrönlampi-Kylmänen & Määttä, 2011b). The importance of reflectivity concerns every level of research and researchers must be prepared to deconstruct their beliefs and see behind the practices. For example, Harden et al. (2000, 2.4) mention wisely that many traditional contexts of child research, such as schools and family activities, are organized in age specific ways which is likely to produce behavior defined as age specific.

On the other hand, Thomas and O'Kane (1998) argue that using methods and approaches that give children control over the study can increase not only the reliability and validity, but also the ethical acceptability of research. This assumption is based on the idea that when doing research with children, their ways of seeing and relating to their world become better manifested. However, Thomas and O'Kane (1998) acknowledge that certain aspects of research, such as consent, confidentiality, or protection from abuse, can be different in research with adults compared to research with children. However, researchers' reflection at various phases and levels of research can turn research with children into research that respects children's autonomy (Thomas & O'Kane, 1998).

Research by Children

The third viewpoint to child research is research by children. Again, this can be defined in various ways: children do research by themselves at school, in day care, and other

domains of their lives all the time. On the other hand, children can be involved in active role in research planned by adults. According to this standpoint, children should be engaged as participants in the research process, if not as researchers in themselves. According to Alderson (2001), children are an under-estimated, under-used resource because they are the primary source of knowledge about their own views and experiences. Alderson (2001) supports for research by children by stating that “Working with young researchers to consult children, as the largest ‘user group’ of research affecting them, can help to redress inter-generation imbalances of power, open up new directions for research, respect their rights, and draw on children’s unique perspectives to inform social policy and practice” (p. 151).

Shemmings’s (2000) study showed that actually professionals have difficulties in distinguishing between children making decisions and children being involved in decision-making. Research with children means research in which children are involve and in which they can participate actively. While children making decisions illustrates the new approach of research by children. According to this viewpoint, children should be encouraged to autonomous thinking and instead of trying to directly influence or “put thoughts” into children’s minds (Damon, 2010). Seeing children capable of studying their environments and lives can provide the most invaluable information about children’s lives by using their authentic voices and trusting in their abilities as active subjects.

Research for Children

The short review on child and childhood research showed that children’s participation in research can vary from non-existent (in research conducted about children through other sources of data) to full participation (children as researchers). In other words, the child’s position or role in the research can vary between the child as object, the child as subject, the

child as social actor, and a child as a participant and co-researcher (Christensen & Prout, 2002)—the first representing the most traditional view of and the last the new approach to child research. This perspective follows closely the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) emphasizing children's participation rights, seeing children as fellow human beings and as active citizens, and promoting the idea of being involved, informed, consulted, and heard (CRC Christensen & Prout, 2002).

What is common to these various forms of research? The answer is: children. However, Prout (2005) argues that child research should also cover the dimension of *for* the children. Research focusing on children whether it was about, with, or by children usually aims at benefitting or working *for* children. Therefore, it is necessary to contemplate how to find suitable ethical working methods for the research. However, there is not just one exact answer to this question: all depends on the research context, target, and select method (Alderson et al., 2011).

In child research, ethicality has been dissected among other things from the perspective of children's rights (Alderson, 2001). The role of ethicality is especially important when using research methods that involve intimate atmosphere (Young & Barrett, 2001). Often, the relationship between the teacher and the child—in this case, the researcher and the research subject—is extremely close (Mills, 200).

The debate whether child research requires any special techniques but simply rigorous application of general research ethics and methodological requirements (Christensen & James, 2008) will go on. In this paper, we wanted to discuss the general approaches instead of particular methods as our purpose was to show the multidimensional nature of the field of childhood research. However, it seems there is no special method that must be

applied when doing research with children: interviews, questionnaires, observations, and other methods that can be used with adults can be used with children, too. In addition, child research increasingly happens in schools and day care centers, and is action oriented by nature defending the use of participatory methods (Määttä & Uusiautti, 2013; Nieminen, 2009; Peltokorpi, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2011). Thus, a conceptual and methodological shift from research toward child-centered and sensitive child research “is not achieved simply by adopting or adapting a particular methodology or data collection technique but by critically questioning and reflecting on all aspects of the research process from the generation of questions to the dissemination of findings and by trying to learn as much from our shortcomings as from our successes” (Darbyshire, MacDougall, & Schillerp, 2005, p. 430).

Likewise, research ethics concern all (child) research. Christensen and Prout (2002) call the new relationship between adult researchers and child actors in research with the term “ethical symmetry.” The authors suggest that researchers should develop a set of strategic values that guide their decision and action as researchers. Furthermore, these values should be discussed in dialogue with researcher-colleagues and with children as participants in research. This would not just increase the ethicality of research in the long run but also would be in line with the viewpoint of seeing children as more than a means of understanding the adult world better or doing research for adults; namely, doing research for children.

How to Do Research with Children?

We will next focus on describing certain methods that can be used when doing research with children. The purpose is to highlight the many ways of bringing out children’s voices and acknowledging them as active subjects in research. We have selected some

examples of research approaches and methods that exemplify the principle of research with children and the various levels and forms of children's participation in research.

Children Talk about Their World

When the purpose of the research is to focus on children's experiences and how they tell about their action, choices, or other event or issues in their lives, one way of addressing the theme is narrative research. This is a qualitative research approach that does not focus on objective and generalized facts but local, personal, and subjective information; this is actually considered as a strength in narrative research because informants' voices can be heard in a more authentic way (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Narratives can also be used when analyzing the reasons for acts. Fundamentally, narrative research can be defined as a research that utilizes or analyses narrative data collected by narratives or other ways. Thus, narratives can be either a research object or means to study a phenomenon (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998; Polkinghorne, 1995).

In research with children, narrative research can be applied in various ways depending on children's age and the theme of the study. According to Silverman (2005), it is possible to study everyday life and its phenomena through a qualitative research approach of this kind. Human experiences and the meaning they give to things have a central role that is their interpretation of life and reality: how do children perceive their reality?

Naturally, experiences and perceptions can also be studied through other approaches, such as phenomenographic method. Then, the purpose can be to describe children's experiences as they appear to the children themselves. Phenomenological research does not limit the forms of data; instead it emphasizes the manner in which the researcher encounters children. The ultimate goal is to try to see the world from the child perspective: the

fundamental idea in phenomenographic research is that people have quite different and diverging perceptions of the world and its phenomenon. The perceptions can be divided roughly into two dimensions: the qualitatively different ways of understanding a phenomenon and the researcher's interpretation of people's perceptions and their meanings in relation to the phenomenon (Marton, 1981). How does the phenomenon appear in the light of the research participants? Phenomenographic research considers children having the knowledge (Svensson, 1997): their understanding of the research target is what the researcher wants to find out.

Children's world can also be analyzed through other interesting methods, such as discourse analysis and then focus is on the language and its meanings (Fairclough, 1995). Children can produce data, texts, speech, or anything that can be interpreted as a part of the discourse. Language is analyzed in context (Jokinen, Juhila, & Suoninen, 2000). In discursive action, children are given certain positions, which is a position that determines an individual people's viewpoint. Thus, discourses evince individual persons' possible positions, locations, and places where the subject may put himself or herself (Foucault, 1969). Through analyzing the language children use, it is possible to interpret those cultural resources that the subjects lean on.

Children as Actors

Research with children can often involve elements that pursue observing and analyzing children's actions. Next, we will discuss ethnography and action research: the first of them focuses on studying children's lives in various contexts, the second includes a developmental approach to research.

Ethnography aims to describe the nature of those who are studied (i.e. to describe a people) through writing. Usually, ethnography consists of field work and writing and the purpose to understand and describe the research target analytically (Keskitalo, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2011). Children's action can be observed in their natural environments, at school, day care, homes, play fields, etc. (Gordon et al., 2001). Children are seen as active actors and the ethnographer wants to become a part of their reality (Coffey, 1999). Ethnography is interested in children's lives through observing them: the main role is given to children and their action is not guided by the researcher.

Ethnography thus differs from action research. Action research can be defined as a systematic and reflective collaboration process (Borgia & Schuler, 1996; Peltokorpi, Määttä, & Uusiautti, 2011). The motive can be to improve the quality of teaching and learning and, for example, working conditions in teaching. In addition, action research can be used for confronting and solving practical challenges and problems and for testing innovations. In action research, children's participation is necessary: they are part of the study working toward the goal of the action. This requires that researchers have to be able to analyze their actions carefully, to interpret children's experiences, and to observe and reflect practices and events among children.

Using Multiple Methods in Research with Children

Sometimes it is reasonable to combine methods in research with children (Tashakkori, & Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, 2002). For example, narrative research has its advantages but can be also quite challenging. How to obtain good and rich narratives from children? Often, it seems reasonable to combine narrative research approach with other qualitative method according to the research theme: for example, narrative interviews can

have features of theme interviews, and thus, well-designed additional questions will make data collection easier. We can use children interviews, drawings, or stories in order to reach the child's perspective in order to study children understanding of various phenomenons.

Mixed methods research can often be a relevant option: it allows the combination of various approaches, methods, and analyses. The great advantage of mixed methods research is that the researcher can complement the data and seek answers to explanatory and descriptive questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003). When doing research among children, one method might not produce such information the researcher was looking for. Openness to various methods and approaches is needed as much as openness to see various ways children's experiences, opinions, and perceptions can be studied. Children are the experts and the most suitable method might not be the one the adult-researcher had in mind but can be discovered in practical work with children—but only if the researcher keeps his or her mind open to the possibilities and considers children as competent and active participants.

Positively-focused Childhood Research

Whatever the method, there seems to be only a short leap from the ideology of research for children to current trends of positive approach to childhood research. By this we refer to an approach that differs slightly from the previous. We are talking about such research that aim at positive influence on pupils' studying and learning (Beveridge, 2005), for example on school success, finishing homework, and general attitude to studying (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991). The branch of positive psychology is concerned with facilitating good lives and enabling people to be at their best (Linley et al., 2009). Questions of how to enhance children's growth and development, and for example, their discovery and use of signature strengths (Seligman, 2002) illustrate approaches in which researchers'

interests are in positively-focused research for children. The need for such research is recognized and well-justified (Seligman et al., 2009). According to Seligman et al. (2009), such research would function not only as a buffer against malaise and depression but also increase life satisfaction and well-being, promote learning quality, academic success, and creative thinking, enhance the emergence of supportive adult-child and peer relationships, and increase tolerance of diversity (Huebner et al., 2009; Schiffrin & Nelson, 2010; Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004). Child research that is conducted through a reflective process in which children act and produce information together with a researcher represents such a genuine will to understand and make an effort for their protection, support, and development by cherishing their authentic selfhood (Joensuu, 2013). Rigorous research and constant development are the basic means through which the system can secure the well-being and success of families and children. Practical solutions that aim at both providing good childhood experiences and supporting children's positive development are under constant creation and evaluation (Määttä & Uusiautti, 2013). Hutchins (2002) claimed almost a decade ago that the objective of education is to produce virtue because virtue makes people good and, therefore, makes people happy. His eventual conclusion is that happy people are good citizens. When it comes to child research, it seems relevant to find out ways of making people good and promoting healthy attitudes, behavior, and adjustment and preventing problems by, for example, recognizing children's strengths and building on them (Brown Kirschman et al., 2009).

Punch (2002) poses a question whether there actually is anything about research with children which makes it necessary to address issues differently than with adults. Punch

highlights three dimensions on which the difference appears: the position of childhood in adult society, adults' attitudes toward children, and the children themselves.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have discussed various points of view to child research starting from describing the position of childhood in society all the way to seeing children as active research partners. It can also be discussed whether the last two perspectives to child research, research for children and positively-focused childhood research, consider children as objects or subjects. According to our understanding research for children have a standpoint that respects children's individuality and citizenship. Genuine aspirations to conduct ethically sustainable and genuinely child-centered research naturally aim at benefitting children themselves.

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Student Centered Lecture Method in Teaching English at Secondary Level

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Abstract

The study was conducted on student centered lecture method in teaching English at secondary level. The main research questions of the study were the identification of the factors for student centered lecturing and exploration of techniques that ensure active listening. It was a descriptive study. It was recommended that the teacher may communicate the objectives of the lecture to students, respect their needs and interests, and give considerations to developmental stages, socio-economic status and level of intelligence. He may practice the lecture wording, exclude the words that are above the level of students, control the speed in the delivery of the words. Teacher's mannerism, throat problem, delivery pace distracts students in attending the teacher-talk. He may attract the attention of students by altering his posture, sitting upright, leaning slightly forward, stopping or making any random physical movement, increasing eye contact, falling and raising of voice. The teacher may use the support of information technology to update the information and ensure immediate usability.

Keywords: Lecture method, student centered, English language

Introduction

Telling is not teaching and listening is neither learning rather it is very complex, collaborative, interactive and dynamic process. The objects of this learning process are students who perform different activities in the classroom so that the learning process does take place. The words are wasted if they are not attended, understood and internalized by the students for whom you are speaking. Students' reaction in response to lecture varies for different teachers. We come across high appreciation for some teachers for the effectiveness of their lecture whereas remarks about some teachers are not up to the standard, although the teachers have equivalent qualifications and experiences. Its effectiveness depends on the response of the students in form of changes and developments in their skills and abilities. These changes do take place when a teacher/instructor considers the different factors relating to the lesson and students such as their level of interest, needs of listening, background information about topic, pace of the delivery of words, difficulty of vocabulary, sentence structure, sequencing of the lecture, students' feedback etc. (Verderber & Verderber, 2006). National Professional Standards for Teachers (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011) has identified that the ability to communicate effectively as a requirement of all practicing teachers to deliver effective lecture. They need a lot of practice in the performance of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to support student engagement. According to Gibson (2010) to become an effective communicator is an essential part of learning to teach effectively and efficiently in the classroom. The teacher needs to develop interpersonal skills to communicate ideas to students. According to Bower, Cavanagh, Moloney and Dao (2011), a range of elements are included in communicative

competence, such as listening, interpreting, writing, as well as presentation skills (voice projection, body language and gesture). National Communication Association (1998) defines a range of important speaking processes, including the ability to determine the purpose of oral discourse, demonstrate careful choice of words, provide effective transitions, employ vocal variety in rate, pitch, and intensity, articulate clearly, employ language, appropriate to the designated audience and demonstrate nonverbal behaviour that supports the verbal behaviour. The following were the research questions of the study:

1. What are the factors that the teacher may consider for student centered lecturing?
2. What are the techniques that ensure active listening of students in student centered lecturing?

Method of Study

The study was content analysis in nature. The principles of content analysis identified by Fuzzy (2002) were followed in analyzing the content. It was unit analysis review of text material that was placed to them in certain categories like comparing, summarizing, speculating, inference and concluding. For this purpose following documents were analyzed: Effective Speaking by Verderber & Verderber, Listening: Attitudes, Principles and Behaviour by Bownell. The World Almanic Book of Facts, Computer Mediated Communication by Banes, Executive Eloquence by Humphery, Communication and Gender by Stewart & Cooper, Persuasion: Reception and Responsibility by Larson for drawing conclusions of the study. The documents were thoroughly studied and critical analyses were made to get insight and infer meanings relating to the research questions of the study.

Review Analysis

There are some important steps that an instructor/teacher has to follow in sequenced manner so that the conversation in the classroom may take the form of learning. These steps are:

1. Selecting specific lecture goals that is appropriate to your students' intellectual, social, emotional and psychological development. The goals are supported by the sub-topics of the lecture that has been planned by the teacher. They should be properly sequenced and interlinked to one another. They must be tightly organized having transitional phrases to link up with the sub-topics. These sub-topics gradually move towards the conclusions of the lesson (Bownell, 2002). For example, the lecture goals may be organized in teaching the topic of listening skill: Definition of listening skill, levels of listening skill (hearing, aiding, listening), importance of listening skill (ii) types of listening: intensive listening, extensive listening iii) Teaching of listening: skimming practices, scanning practices, bottom up approach, top down approach (iv) Steps of teaching listening skill: establish the setting, establishing the personal link with the situation, listen and repeat silently, listen and perform activity, feedback, follow up.

2. Developing a strategy for students' adaptation needs that the teacher conduct analyses on the basis of the background experiences related to the topic of study, competencies, strengths and weaknesses of students. The teacher may assess what his/her students already know about the topic in respect to descriptive, creative and critical knowledge. He/she links the topic and sub-points that are going to be discussed with the previous learning of the students so that they may be able to develop a cognitive map of their

learning. The students will be frustrated and confused if they are not able to establish link between the learnt concept and the concepts that they are going to learn. It will guide him/her about the selection of the learning content and level of the conversation in the classroom (Almonic Books, 2004).

3. The teacher must develop demographic profile of the students consisting on their ages, socio-economic status, parents' education, area of living, religion, language, occupation and other relating factors. Analyses of demographic factors are very important for effective listening and understanding of ideas. The teacher needs the demographic data about the students so that he/she may predict about the interests and capabilities of the students. The analyses of demographic analyses are made in the form of gender, age, race, ethnicity, religion, geographic uniqueness and language of students. The second aspect of student analyses for effective lecturing is knowledge about the topic that is going to be discussed. The teacher has to assess for what extent he/she repeat the learnt information and what quantity of new information may be delivered and how it is going to be delivered in the classroom. The students may be frustrated, confused, fatigued when the teacher is going to present the new content without linking it with background knowledge of the students. As a result, the information will not be given any attention and the students will not respond positively in the classroom.

4. There are different resources available for the teacher to be used for achieving the objectives of the lecture. They are available in form of electronic and print media. They can be categorized in facts, statistical data, hypothetical statements and expert opinions. The teacher must evaluate the information that whether they are really needed by the students and

for what extent they are understood by them. It is also noted how much time is available to teacher to use this material. The teacher has to assess the level of familiarity with the type of material and how it is going to be utilized by the students. Considering these aspects, he has to make decision about the selection of the content (Barnes, 2003).

5. The teacher should organize and develop information in well-structured outline according to the objectives of the lecture. The transitional steps must be highlighted so that the students may look at different aspects of the lecture into different parts and connect them into one whole.

6. Objects, models, charts, drawing, photographs, maps, graphs, film and video clips are important sources to explain different concepts in the lecture. The selection and use of this material depends upon the expertise of a teacher. He/she has to select the visual aid, its size, when and how it is going to be used in the classroom. Choosing visual aids that support your students in the comprehension of ideas makes the work of the teacher far easier to explain complicated and complex ideas. The teachers also avoid the overuse of the visual aids (Humphrey, 1998).

7. Practicing your lecture wording and delivery is also an important factor in the effectiveness of the lecture. According to Bower, et al., (2011), video reflection also improves the communication competency of teachers when it is based on micro teaching pedagogy. The teacher may use the language that is intelligible to the students' ear. The selection of sentence structure and the use of vocabulary will be given due consideration. There must be no difference between language and meaning. It will mean the same as has been conveyed by the teacher. In this respect, different terms may be given due consideration

for the elaboration of their meanings. Language has got two types of meanings: denotative and connotative. Denotative meanings are the dictionary meanings of the words whereas connotative meanings are those meanings that the speakers attach to the word instead of dictionary meanings. For better clarity the teacher may use specific words instead of general vocabulary. It will leave limited chances of confusion and ambiguity. The precise and concrete words appeal to the senses and narrow the category (Stewart & Cooper, 2003).

a. Speed in the delivery of the words play an important role in the explanation of the concepts. In normal conversation, human beings speak 130 to 180 words per-minute. The nature of the text and background information of the students does impact on the delivery pace of words. Speaking too rapidly or too slowly affects the understanding of the students in the classroom.

Comprehension of the lecture starts from effective listening. It is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken or nonverbal message. We spent more than 50 % of time in listening. According to Carl Rogers Man's inability to communicate is a result of his failure to listen effectively. "It is not merely pass-time game but sequenced steps of concentrating on the lecture. The students must be trained how to improve their attention, their understanding and memory about the information and critical analyses what has been said or taken place in the classroom. Now, we shall discuss the steps that are involved in effective listening.

1. Improving our attention needs training in certain aspects of lecture. Attending is paying attention to what the speaker is saying regardless of extraneous interference. Poor listeners do not control over what they listen and their attention usually drift to surrounding

issues. Sometimes, during the lecture the students are not ready to respond to questions because they are not attentive towards it rather absorbed in some other ideas. Sometimes the teacher's mannerism, throat problem, delivery pace distracts us to attend to the message. There are four techniques that help us in improving our attention. They are:

a. The students may be prepared to get physically and mentally ready to listen. The teacher may do so by telling the students that after two minutes I am going to discuss the points that are very important for examination point of view. The teacher may alter his posture and sit upright, lean slightly forward, stop or make any random physical movement. The teacher may increase eye contact for getting the attention of the students. The fall and rise of voice while delivering lecture may also increase the attention of the students. The teacher may raise his/her head eye movement to get attention of the students (Larson, 2004).

b. The students may be prepared to suspend their judgment while listening to the lecture. The ideas and the manner of conversation that do not tally with the listeners ideas must be listened patiently and objectively. The mannerism, etiquettes and way of dressing usually drift us the main ideas that are discussed. The students may train to be cool down and objectively listen to the teacher instead of reacting violently against him.

c. The students should be trained to approach the lecture not as a pass time game rather they have specific purpose of listening it. They must be pre-told the activities or the tasks that they have to perform after listening. This will keep them attentive on lecture.

d. The students are trained to realize the importance of listening. This will definitely motivate them to pay attention to the content material that has been communicated

to them. They know and realize the use of information in future. It will help them to solve work related problems. Personal benefits motivate people to concentrate on the message.

2. The second aspect of effective lecturing is to understand and remember what is listened from the teacher. Understanding is the ability to assign accurate meaning to what is said. Remember is being able to retain and recall information that the students have heard. There are five active listening behaviours for both understanding and retaining. They are as under:

a. We can understand and remember the lecture effectively when we know the organization in the material presented by the teacher. Without organization, the information is just separate entities that have no relationship as they are very difficult to be remembered. The organization includes the main idea and sub-points discussed in the lecture. The students may be trained and educated to look for the main idea, main points and supporting detail. The organization of teaching writing skill will be done on following headings: Concept of writing, History of writing, writing at primary level, writing at secondary level, writing at higher level, problems of teaching writing skill etc. (Trujillo, 2004).

b. For effective understanding and retaining of the message the students may also be trained to ask questions about the content that is delivered. Therefore, interactive learning methods may be practiced in the classroom. The students and teacher both cooperatively construct the learning. The students are facilitated to ask the questions. For example, we cannot improve the quality of education without improving the quality of teacher education. The students may ask the questions how we can improve the quality of teacher education. The teacher should ask the rhetorical questions to involve the students in

the lecture. The questions must be relevant to the topic, addressed to the whole class, wait time before pointing out student for answer, up to the level of students with appropriate language and sentence length.

c. The students may also be trained to paraphrase the information delivered by the teacher. Paraphrasing is a statement in your own words of the meaning that the students obtain from the talk of the teacher. It is not repeating what has been said by the teacher rather summarizing the gist of the teacher's talk in the classroom.

d. The teachers' lecture can be better comprehended and retained by the students when it is supported by non-verbal cues. The teacher may use these cues judiciously so that he/she may avoid the over use of them. The students pay concentration to the facial expression, tone of voice and gestures of the teachers. They copy them exactly with full attention.

e. Note taking is an important technique for remembering lesson delivered by the teacher. Note taking does not mean recording each and every word delivered by the teacher but recording the key information discussed by the teacher in the classroom. Good notes are brief list of the main points of the lesson. It is just an outline of the lesson.

3. Critical analysis are the process of evaluating what the students hear in the lecture from their teacher in order to determine its completeness, usefulness and trust worthiness. The teacher has to establish his position as far as his/her expertise in the subject area and character is considered. When the students are aware that the knowledge level of the teacher is not solid, then, they will not concentrate on the ideas that are expressed in the classroom. The teacher has to convey high quality information to get credibility in the eyes of

the students. For effective listening of the lecture, the teacher has to earn credibility in the eyes of the students. They believe in the truthfulness, honesty, dedication, commitment and expertise of the teacher. Trustworthiness can be earned by acquiring expertise in the subject area.

4. It is an era of information technology and the students have got latest information about different aspects of the topics that are expressed in the class. Knowledge without application has no advantage and cannot bring any economic development for the nation. The ideas get credibility when they are supported by facts. They appeal to us and convince the students about the viewpoint that is going to be discussed in the classroom.

5. Location of the lecture setting is also an important factor in improving the listening skill of the students in the process of the comprehension of the lecture. Seating arrangement of students and their number may demand from the teacher to speak out at varying pitch of voice and adjust his/her movement in the classroom. The small number of students needs closer approach with the students whereas the large number of students needs less movement on the part of teacher for effective communication.

6. The listening of lecture becomes highly effective when the information in the lecture is useful for them now. The students will be attentive towards the listening material when they know that they have to use the information immediately. In this way the information in the lecture are related to the individual that demands utmost attention on their part. The information comprehension process needs explanation of difficulty vocabulary in literal and terminological terms, creating vivid examples to illustrate new concepts, personalizing information, comparing unfamiliar ideas with those the audience recognizes,

and using multiple methods of development. The teacher must explain the key terms that are used in the lecture so the students may develop conceptual clarity. The terms are interpreted by in different context and the context that is going to be used by the researcher must be focused by the teacher. The teacher may use vivid expression to explain the key terms that are going to be used in the lesson and they may be supported by daily examples of life.

Conclusion

The teacher may communicate the objectives of the lesson, and they should be well sequenced and connected. The students may be aware of their destination as far as the learning process is concerned. They must not be a traveler who does not know where they have to reach. This will not only get them ready to learn the lesson but also stimulate their previous schemata of learning. It will also help them to develop cognitive framework about the lesson. The students' needs and interests will be respected for the success of the lecture. For this purpose due considerations may be paid to developmental stages, socio-economic status, level of intelligence and demographic information. The teacher may pre-decide that what information needed to be emphasized and repeated so that they may be comprehended by the students. The resources available relating to educational technology in the form of internet, computer, and multimedia may be utilized judiciously.

The teacher may practice the lecture wording before the delivery of lecture. He/she may exclude the words that are above the level of students. Speed in the delivery of the words play an important role in the explanation of the concepts. In normal conversation, human beings speak 130 to 180 words per-minute. The nature of the text and background information of the students does impact on the delivery pace of words. Speaking too rapidly

or too slowly affects the understanding of the students in the classroom. The teacher may observe the recording of the delivered lesson and reflect on it for the purpose of improvement.

We spent more than 50 % of time in listening. According to Carl Rogers Man's inability to communicate is the result of his failure to listen effectively. The students must be trained how to improve their attention, understanding and memory, critical analyses about what has been taught by the teacher. Poor listeners do not concentrate on the listening material and their attention usually drifts to surrounding issues. Sometimes the teacher's mannerism, throat problem, delivery pace distracts us to attend to the message. The teacher may alter his posture and sit upright, lean slightly forward, stop or make any random physical movement, increase eye contact, may fall and rise of voice while delivering lecture.

Asking questions enhance retainability of the lecture. The students may also be trained to paraphrase the information with the help of non-verbal cues and develop skill of note taking. It is not recording of word by word but the main points of the lecture. The teacher may use the support of information technology to update the information related to the topic. Immediate usability of the learning attract the attention of the lecture and their comprehension process may be increased when the teacher explain the difficult vocabulary in literal and terminological terms by creating vivid examples to illustrate new concepts, personalizing information, comparing unfamiliar ideas with those the audience recognizes, and using multiple methods of development.

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Language as an Instrument of Power in Colonial and Postcolonial Literature

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Abstract

This paper examines the use of English language as a tool of power during the colonial and postcolonial times. My area of interest in this study is the Indian subcontinent and its people, culture and languages. The role of English language has been particularly poignant in the Indian subcontinent, as it served to strengthen the power of the British colonizers during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Even decades after the departure of the British, their language still reigns supreme amongst the minds and lives of the people of this part of the world. In this paper I take up sections from various English novels written during the colonial and postcolonial times, and examine how their writers have reflected the social, cultural and political aspects of the learning and teaching of English language in this region. My study shows that mimicry, or copying, is at the heart of the linguistic and cultural dilemma faced by the people of this region. They mimic their former masters in all aspects, and so acquire a hybrid identity which is caught between the two extremes of east and west, local and foreign, self and other. I also show in this paper that in the very attempt of copying the power-related language and culture there is a transformation in the languages and cultures of both the subjects and the rulers.

Keywords: Language, Power, Colonialism, Self/Other, Mimicry, Hybridity

This paper examines the use of language as an instrument of power in colonial and postcolonial contexts. Language has always played a central role in the political agenda of colonialism, and the role of the English language has been specifically significant in this regard. Serving as the starting point of a self-ordained civilizing mission of the British colonizers, English language has, over the years, encroached more and more upon the indigenous languages of the subject nation, whether they are the African culture or the Indian vernaculars. The most formidable cultural invasion has been in the linguistic sphere of the Indian subcontinent. Even after the departure of the British imperial forces their Englishness has remained behind them, and has gradually become the most awesome reminder of their legacy. The people of the Indian subcontinent are still living with this colonial legacy. As constructions of a line of distinction based on linguistic discrimination, this legacy has continued to reproduce images of ‘Self’ and ‘Other’, of colonizing languages and cultures and colonized languages and cultures. One is tempted to ask who is this ‘Other’, which has so often been the subject of many literary and political discourses. The ‘Other’ is that person who always remains an outsider to the colonial parameters of acceptability. Whenever two people meet on an unequal footing, whether it is the Englishman meeting with the Indian, the white with the black, the wealthy with the poor, the well-fed with the starved, their interaction leads to one of them being ‘Othered’, depending upon the direction of the power flow. Significantly, the colonial ‘Other’ is always someone else, one who is understood to feel, think and act differently, and from whom the colonial Self takes pride in being different. The present study is an attempt to explore the role of language in creating the Self/Other dichotomy in the colonial situation, as it is reflected in the literature of this sphere. I specifically examine selections from Daniel Defoe’s *The Life and Adventures of Robinson*

Crusoe (1910), Paul Scott's *The Raj Quartet* (1966) and Hanif Kureishi's *The Black Album* (1995) to study the use of language in creating power relations and the Self/Other dichotomy within colonial and postcolonial domains.

The real aim of colonialism, writes Ngugi, has been to control the people's wealth: what they produced, how they produced it, and how it was distributed¹. This could only be done by first controlling the language of the colonized. Thus, an important area of domination was the mental universe of the colonized, since economic and political control can never be complete and effective without mental control. Mental control can mainly be acquired by first colonizing the language of the subject nation. Colonizing of the language deploys two strategies: the deliberate undervaluing of the indigenous people's language and culture, and the conscious elevation of the colonizer's language. The language of the colonizer becomes associated with power, prestige and success, and carries with it the dual attraction of being the master's mode of communication and of being endowed with the mystery of unintelligibility for the natives. It is here that the struggle for power starts to take hold of the colonized, which is the same power that a translator or interpreter for the white master holds for his more ignorant countrymen. The translator occupies an intermediate position between the colonizer and the colonized, since he shares the attributes of both. The indigenous translator is the colonizing subject, the person who is one of the colonized natives but is also superior to them because of his knowledge of their master's language. He is the one who is less 'Other' than the others. With the passage of time, more and more natives try

¹Ngugi, WaThiongo. *Decolonizing the Mind: The Politics of Language in African Literature*. Zimbabwe Publishing House, Harare, 1986, p. 16

to cross this threshold of difference and to enter the sphere of this copied identity by learning their master's language.

Homi Bhabha sees this practice of copying and learning the language of the colonial masters as a kind of mimicry of their manners. In 'Of Mimicry and Man' (1984) Bhabha sees mimicry as a form of colonial control generated by the metropolitan colonizer, which operates in conformity with the logic of the panoptical gaze of power, an idea that is further elaborated in Foucault's *Discipline and Punish*². The colonizer's position of power leads the colonized to adopt the outward forms and internalize the values and norms of the occupying power. In this sense, mimicry becomes the *modus operandi* for the colonizer's 'civilizing mission' to transform the colonized culture by making it copy or 'repeat' the colonizer's culture. Precisely because it operates in the affective and ideological spheres, according to what Foucault might describe as the logic of a 'pastoral' regime, in contrast to policies of domination based on brute force, mimicry constitutes for Bhabha 'one of the most elusive and effective strategies of colonial power and knowledge'³.

The idea of mimicry as a colonial strategy is further discussed in Daniel Defoe's *The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*, especially in the passages dealing with Robinson Crusoe's English lessons to Friday. In Crusoe's lessons to Friday we find signs of the linguistic colonization of the indigenous by the settler. These lessons can be viewed as one of the earliest representations of English linguistic imperialism, in which the master makes it his

² Foucault, *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison* trans. Robert Hurley, Harmondsworth, Penguin, 1975

³ Bhabha, 'Of Mimicry and Man: The Ambivalence of Colonial Discourse', October 28 Spring, p. 85

business to ‘teach him everything that was proper to make him useful, handy and helpful’ (p. 195), and contain the first seeds of viewing English as the language of mental and social advancement. As Phillipson points out, Crusoe’s relationship with Friday reflects the ‘racial structure of western society at the heyday of slavery’⁴. Crusoe’s assumption of mastery over Friday and his making Friday learn his language rather than learning Friday’s language, is a significant moment in the long history of the global spread of English: ‘In a little time I began to speak to him, and teach him to speak to me; and, first, I made him know his name should be Friday, which was the day I saved his life ... I like wise taught him to say master, and then let him know that was to be my name’(p. 102). As Fulton suggests⁵, in the dialogues between Crusoe and Friday we can observe the process of the construction of Self and Other:

Master: Well, Friday, and what does your nation do with the men they take? Do they carry them away and eat them, as these did?

Friday: Yes, my nation eats man’s up too; eat all up. (p. 199)

And in such dialogues, we start to see the relationship not only between the Self and the Other as constructed by colonialism, but also that between these constructions and English. Not only does Friday not get to speak in his own language, but he has been taught very particular, colonizing English words to express his cultural insufficiency and crude beginnings. This idea was expressed more vociferously by Caliban in Shakespeare’s *The Tempest*, when he laments that he had been made to learn Prospero’s language which only served to make him lose his own innocence as well: ‘You taught me language, and my profit

⁴Phillipson, *Linguistic Imperialism*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992, p. 109, as quoted in Pennycook, p. 10-11

⁵Fulton, ‘Dialogue with the other as potential and peril in Robinson Crusoe’, *Language and Literature*, 1994, as quoted in Pennycook p. 15

on't / Is I know how to curse' (I. ii. 365-6). Like Friday, Caliban too has been made to mimic a certain prescribed code of the master's tongue.

However, a problem in this mode of mimicry itself arises out of the consequences of the crucial differentiation which the strategy of mimicry requires between being English and being 'Anglicized'. The difference between the two terms sustains the distinction between the colonizer and the colonizing subject, upon whom the colonial control mostly depends. No matter how hard native Indian subjects might try to master the language of their masters, they still remain secondary to the born Englishmen. In Paul Scott's *The Jewel in the Crown*, Duleep Kumar, an Indian who is fascinated by the British culture, recounts to his son Hari Kumar his dilemma of learning the English language, which remained tantalizingly out of his reach in spite of his best efforts to copy it in the exact fashion of his masters:

Conversely, when I was your age, it was not only that I spoke English with an even stronger *babu* accent than I speak it now, but that everything I said, because everything I thought, was in conscious mimicry of the people who rule us. We did not necessarily admit this, but that is what was always in their minds when they listened to us. It amused them mostly. Sometimes it irritated them. It still does. Never they could listen to us and forget that we were a subject, inferior people. The more idiomatic we tried to be the more naïve our thinking seemed, because we were thinking in a foreign language that we had never properly considered in relation to our own.

(p. 198)

Here we see the making of the linguistic slave or servant at the hands of the imperial masters, who regard the slightest variation in the language of the mimicking subjects as a proof of their essential Otherness. Thus, one element of the colonial discourse envisions the colonizing subject's potential for reformation and gradual approximation to the elevated condition of the colonizer, while another contradicts this with a conception of the ontological difference (and inferiority) of the subject's learnt Englishness.

At the heart of mimicry, then, is a destabilizing 'ironic compromise ... the desire for a reformed, recognizable Other, as a subject of difference that is almost the same, but not quite'⁶. This 'not-quite sameness' acts like a distorting mirror which fractures the identity of the colonizing subject, and 'rearticulates its presence in terms of its 'otherness', that which it disavows'⁷. This idea is further conveyed in Scott's representation of the character of Hari Kumar, the protagonist of the novel. The 'not-quite sameness' of Hari's Englishness makes him enter the unsettled territory of a split identity, since he is neither completely English nor wholly Indian. He lives in that hybridity of existence where even his name gets corrupted (or otherwise) to become Harry Coomer. Thus, we see how the split in the mental identity of the Anglo-Indians is shown in their shifting names. The world of subjectivity is essentially a domain of anonymity, where the code of nomenclature is often defined by a racial collectivity — Blacks, Indians, Natives, and so on. The individuality of a named identity is denied to the subject, as it is denied to animals, and all attempts to acquire it result in a schizophrenic duality which is suffered by Hari Kumar (or Harry Coomer).

⁶ 'Of Mimicry and Man', p. 86

⁷ Ibid., p. 91

This was probably the moment when he began consciously to be critical of his father who spoke English with that appalling sing-song accent, spelled the family name Coomer, and told people to call him David because Duleep was such a mouthful. Duleep had chosen the name Hari for his only surviving child and only son (the son for whom he had prayed and longed and whose life had now been planned down to the last detail) because Hari was so easily pronounced and was really only distinguishable in the spelling from the diminutive of Saxon Harold, who had been King of the English before the Normans came. (p. 194)

Here we see mimicry in all its practical manifestations, where the desire to be counted among the Imperial Self takes the form of naming oneself (or one's children) in a slavish following of the English tradition. Coining an English name for his Indian son, Duleep has unwittingly chosen the name of King Harold who was the last Anglo-Saxon king of England, and who was defeated by William of Normandy in 1066. Thus, Hari has ironically been given the very name that carries within it the ring of the troubled imperial history of England.

The idea of mimicry is brought to a more immediate context by Hanif Kureishi when he explores the practical aspect of the euphoria of adopting an Anglicized lifestyle, especially in the context of the Indians and Pakistanis migrating to England as a haven of European civilization. His novels suggest the dilemma of the disillusioned sons and daughters of the immigrants, who had pursued Hollywood's cinematic portrayal of a Utopian Elsewhere and have landed in an intermediate void between their own cultural background and their cherished English models. In *The Black Album*, Kureishi explores the hybridity of these latter generations of the Anglicized Indians, who have become the impeccable, finished products of

mimicry, only to find out that the Whites would never allow them to discard their Oriental pedigree. Thus, interestingly, the white master's earlier attempts at civilizing the so-called crude Indians are hereby undercut by their penchant for an unpolluted native still immersed in his humble surroundings. As a result, 'authenticity' has become almost a commodity in the neo-colonial era, in so far as the Western consumer often demands that Third World culture, peoples and places be as 'original' and 'unspoilt' as possible, a discourse that is particularly suited to the commercial ideology of tourism. Riaz, the father of Shahid in *The Black Album*, a travel agent based in Kent, makes his living out of precisely this sort of neo-primitivist longing in his customers. As Shahid observes, there is even danger that in certain instances the 'marginal' will become part of the 'center'; in some circles of the neo-colonial metropolis, he comments, and 'there is nothing more fashionable than outsiders' (p. 145) The same sentimental but coercive demand for the authenticity of the Other is evident even in Shahid's supposedly benevolent friend, Strapper:

'I thought you loved the Asian people.'

'Not when they get too fucking Westernized. You all wanna be just like us now. It's the wrong turnin' . (p. 162)

Thus one of the paradoxes of cultural nationalism is that it implicitly depends for its success on the continuing authority of the center. As Derrida cautions, directly oppositional or confrontational modes of decentering the center can simultaneously recenter it⁸.

⁸ Derrida, *Of Grammatology*, p. 302

The second and more far-reaching effect of the use of language as a colonial strategy is the way in which the indigenous languages and culture are gradually engulfed by the overwhelming presence of the colonizer's language. The apparently benign project of grafting Western knowledge with the Indian languages led to the inevitable construction not only of the Indian otherness, but also of presenting the European culture as the only field of knowledge worth achieving. This liberalism, as Metcalf (1995) points out, was informed by a radical universalism:

Contemporary European, especially British, culture alone represented civilization. No other cultures had any intrinsic validity. There was no such thing as 'Western' civilization; there existed only 'civilization'. Hence the liberal set out, on the basis of this shared humanity, to turn the Indian into an Englishman.⁹

Thus the apparently humane project of bringing the subject to acquire the language and culture of the master was based on this very desire to 'turn the Indian into an Englishman'. However, seen from a certain perspective, the learning of the colonizer's language might not be such an unworthy a task; rather, instead of considering it a slavish following of one's colonial masters, the learning of this new language is accompanied by a host of merits, the chief of them being able to gain inroads into a new, and often more advanced culture. It cannot be denied that the English language allows for the expression of a wide range of ideas in a more effective way than can be done by the indigenous languages of the local region. Yet the fact remains that just as the indigenous languages of India cannot fully express the ideas of the English culture, similarly, the English language often falls short

⁹ Metcalf, *Ideologies of the Raj*, Cambridge, 1995, as quoted in Pennycook, p. 81

when it comes to capturing the experiences of the Indian people. The cultural world of the Indian soil cannot be entirely voiced by the English language any more than can the native experiences of the Englishmen be wholly expressed in the Indian vernaculars. The loss of one's language thus becomes tantamount to the loss of one's culture¹⁰. This idea is critically examined in E. K. Brathwaite's theory of 'creolization', elaborated most fully in *The Development of Creole Society in Jamaica*. The expression and preservation of one's cultural heritage is most at risk when the colonizer's language is adopted blindly. The Indian nationalist Bipin Chandra Pal makes a similar point when he observes:

When...the European scientist studies the physical features of our land, when he mensurates our fields, trigonometrates our altitudes and undulations, investigates our animal, our vegetable or our mineral kingdoms, the records of his study are accepted as true and authoritative. But the study of man belongs altogether to a different plane ... Here also the eye sees, the ear hears, but the real meaning of what is seen or heard is supplied not by the senses but by the understanding, which interprets what is heard in the light of its own peculiar experiences and associations.¹¹

Bhabha has dealt with this problem in 'The Postcolonial and the Postmodern' by responding to Roland Barthes' distinction between the 'sentence' and the 'non-sentence'. Whereas for Barthes the distinction between the two terms is absolute — the non-sentence is what is eternally, splendidly, outside the sentence —, Bhabha introduces a third term,

¹⁰ Indeed the British advancement of English language and culture in India has always been based on the firm belief in the superiority of the western knowledge and culture over the Indian ones. Macaulay thus made a sweeping dismissal of Indian literature in the words: 'A single shelf of a good European library is worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia' (Macaulay, 1835, p. 241).

¹¹B.C.Pal, 1958: 8-9, Quoted in Loomba, *Colonialism/Postcolonialism*, Routledge, New York, 1998, p. 46

‘outside the sentence’, which is a space between the sentence and the non-sentence. This outside-the-sentence supplies the space between the polarities of the sentence and the non-sentence, and allows for the cultural values and the social associations to function within the discourse of the language. This third space, this in-between, is something to which Scott again turns in showing Duleep Kumar’s use of the Indian as well as the English language:

Hindi, you see, is spare and beautiful. In it we can think thoughts that have the merit of simplicity and truth. And between each other convey these thoughts in correspondingly spare, simple and truthful images. English is not spare. But it is beautiful. It cannot be called truthful because its subtleties are infinite. It is the language of a people who have probably earned their reputation for perfidy and hypocrisy because their language itself is so flexible, so often light-headed with statements which appear to mean one thing one year and quite a different thing the next. (p. 198)

The domain of Hindi is a world unto its own, which undulates with the music of ages of an Indian heritage. The predicament of Duleep is that when he rivets from Hindi to English he remains at home with neither, since in losing his language he has also lost his home, both linguistically and culturally.

This meeting of opposites in the linguistic domain of English and Hindi is viewed from a more literary perspective by Rudyard Kipling. Kipling explores the use of the two languages in the novelistic form, and attempts to determine the impact of Indian vocabulary on the English narrative. As Afzar Husain points out, Kipling shows himself to be a ‘brilliant translator not only of verbal expressions but also of emotions and cultures. His genius lies in

his ability to transfer successfully contextual features of Indian linguistic term'¹². Husain shows how Kipling uses a number of literary devices, from collocation and hybridization to phonological transfer, to produce a narrative discourse which is often 'significantly different from Standard British English'¹³. This deviation is present not only in the speech of the native protagonists, but also in Kipling's own authorial voice, the best example of which can be found in *Kim*. In *Kim* Kipling not only fully understands the idioms of the Indian vernaculars and the contexts in which they are used, but is also familiar with the emotions of Indian characters which require such language for their expression. Thus the very language of Kipling's novel shows that the linguistic and stylistic norm is mixed with deviation, which may be understood as the Anglo-Indian propensity to 'quaint reflections, borrowed unconsciously from native foster-mother, and turns of phrase that showed they had been that instant translated from the vernacular' (*Kim*, p. 172). Kipling sometimes takes Indian words and places them verbatim in his narrative: references such as to the 'almond-curd sweetmeats [balushai we call it]' (p. 179), or the use of untranslated words like *murasla*, *khud* and *kilta* (p. 303) inscribe the multi-dimensional perspective that such a linguistic hybridity entails. This shows the inevitable inclusion of the vernaculars of India in the novelistic discourse, and conversely, the excessive inflection of Standard British English into a distinctive dialect. Already a significant marker of Anglo-Indian cultural difference by the early nineteenth century, this argot had become sufficiently complex by Kipling's time to merit its own lexica. G. C. Whitworth's *Anglo-Indian Dictionary*, a volume of 370 pages, appeared in 1885, to be followed the next year by *Hobson-Jobson: A Glossary of Colloquial*

¹² Husain, Afzar S. S. *The Indianness of Rudyard Kipling: A Study in Stylistics*, London, 1983 p.125

¹³ *Ibid*, p. 118

Anglo-Indian Words and Phrases. The editors described their project as the explication of words and expressions which ‘recur constantly in the daily intercourse of the English in India, either as expressing ideas not really provided for by our mother-tongue, or supposed by the speakers ... to express something not capable of just denotation by any English term’¹⁴. This shows that the language of the master and that of the subject have ceased to sit at the opposite ends of a binary division, but have become degrees on a continuum.

A study of the above-given literary texts shows that Anglo-Indian literature has performed the twofold function of recording events that occurred in the age in which it was being written, and of serving as an unfailing touchstone with which to guide our study of the present social, political and literary scene. Thus, the learning of the English language being viewed as a mark of prestige in the days of the Empire which Scott records gets the added edge of mimicry when viewed from the literary theory of Bhabha, and then goes on to adopt a palpable, breathing shape when seen in the figures of the Indian and Pakistani migrants who reach the shores of their imperial masters only to find themselves caught in the quicksand of hybridity. Thus, not only do the characters change their guise in the wake of the ever-changing global scenario, but our eyes too learn to discern in the texts the shades of colours which had hitherto eluded our grasp. The dilemma of migrants, so vividly recorded by Kureishi also shows how language, after a certain extent, becomes redundant and, turns over its head to denote not the gaining of new culture, but the loss of old identity; since for the Anglo-Indians the Englishness of their image has always entailed a grotesquely distorted reflection of their lost homeland. Thus we see how literature not only mirrors the changes in

¹⁴ Henry Yule and A. C. Burnell (eds.), *Hobson-Jobson: A Glossary of Colloquial Anglo-Indian Words and Phrases* (1886), London, Routledge, 1985, pp. xv-xvi

the cultural reception of these languages, but also problematizes and critiques the dominant ideologies that accompanied them. The western civilization that we see in Kureishi's novels is not the same center which we had found in the earlier works such as those of Defoe and Kipling. In Kipling's works such as 'On the City Wall' and *Kim* we see how the idea of hybridity takes on a reinforced vision. Like his literary compatriots, Kim asks the elementary and agonized question 'Who is Kim?' (p. 166) which runs as a poetic refrain throughout the literature of the period, culminating in Susan Layton's despair as colonial hegemony finally fragments in Scott's *The Day of the Scorpion*: 'But what am I? What am I? Why — there's nothing to meet all. Nothing. Nothing at all!' (p. 342). Hurree Chander in *Kim* expresses the impossibility of Kim's predicament in his observation 'You cannot occupy two places ... simultaneously. That is axiomatic' (*Kim*, p. 299). It is Kim's misfortune that occupying two places at once is precisely what colonial powers have increasingly demanded of their servants. As with 'On the City Wall', the lesson of *Kim* is that without the intimacy with native culture which Kim's hybridity embodies, security is impossible. Yet hybridity chronically destabilizes the foundational identity upon which colonialism relies for its authority. It is this fracturing of imperial identity and power that is symbolized when Kim dissolves in tears under the stress of his inner conflict, tears which portend the dissolution of imperial agency itself.

However, the use of language as an instrument of power not only affects, or rather hybridizes, the colonized community's actions and thoughts, but also disturbs the language and culture of the colonizer. In 'Signs Taken for Wonders' Bhabha sees a self-defeating corollary in the colonizer's desire to be seen as a model figure to be simulated by the indigenous population. In the very act of having the subject mimic the master's culture and

language, the colonizer's authority suffers from an internal fracturing. Thus, as Bhabha points out, colonial discourse is never quite as authoritative and unified as it claims to be, because of the inherent tendency of meanings to slip, owing to the effects of both 'repetition' and *difference*. Since the 'repetition' of the original can never be identical with the 'original', this process of 'translation' produces a destabilizing 'lack' in that 'original', resulting in an internal slippage in the language of the master. This slippage in the colonial discourse is primarily a consequence of the attempt of 'translation' of particular ideas, narratives and theories from the metropolis, and their hybridization in the course of their rearticulation in a different context in the pursuit of an imperial hegemony overseas¹⁵. Thus, what the mother country produces are not its copies but its bastards, that hybrid breed of mutated progeny which scars the identity of the colonizer as well as that of the colonized. It is such a partial and hybrid produce which is more than the mimetic but less than the symbolic, that disturbs the visibility of the colonial presence and makes the recognition of its authority problematic¹⁶.

Thus we see how the use of language as a means of gaining control over the colonized people has multiple aspects, causes and effects. The most far-reaching effect is that it questions and challenges the cultural and linguistic values of the colonized people, a phenomenon with which most former colonies of the world are still battling. Furthermore, as the above discussion shows, this power oriented use of language also affects the language and culture of the colonizer, whose own ideas and words, when copied and learnt by the colonized subjects, also bring about a change in the masters' 'original' culture and language.

¹⁵ Bart Moore-Gilbert *Writing India*, p. 119

¹⁶Bhabha, 'Signs Taken for Wonders', p. 34

Thus no colonizing mission can remain entirely unaffected and unchanged by this mixture of other cultures and languages within it. Perhaps that is why there have cropped up such a large number of varieties, dialects, accents and even words in English language, turning English into a global force as well as reflecting within its usage the eventful history of its power relations through the ages.

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Stressful Life Events, Depression and Coping Strategies

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Abstract

The present study investigated the relationship between stressful life events, depression and coping strategies among depressives and non-depressives. There were three phases. Phase I was aimed at translating and pre testing of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale and Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire into Urdu. In phase II, the pilot study was carried out on a sample of depressives (N=96) and non-depressives (N=96). In phase III, the main study was carried out on the sample of 200 individuals including 100 diagnosed depressed outpatients and 100 non depressives of public and private sector hospitals of Islamabad. The stressful life events were assessed through the Social Readjustment Rating Scale. Coping strategies were assessed through the Revised Ways of coping Questionnaire. Both scales were translated into Urdu version and then back translated in English version first time in Pakistan and showed highest alpha reliabilities. The impact of stressful life events on depression was explored through regression analysis which showed positive results. Depressives were found to report high level of life stress, depression and more use of emotion focused coping strategies as compared to non-depressives. The moderating effects of coping strategies on the relationship between life stress and depression were also explored by using t test and one way analysis of variance. The Results showed a significant relationship between stressful life events, depression and coping strategies. Problem focused

and emotion focused coping strategies proved themselves as having a good moderating effect on the relationship between life stress and depression.

Keywords: stressful, events, life, depression, coping strategies, stress management.

Stressful Life Events Depression and Coping Strategies

Stressful life events constitute an important research paradigm for clinical and health psychology. They are commonly known as ‘life-stressors’ that lead to a number of positive as well as negative outcomes. These are actually the psychological events or conditions that produce stress. People find themselves under a constant process of responding to environmental stimuli, pressures and changes. Significant stress life events such as divorce, death of a child or spouse, relationship problems, severe trauma or child sexual abuse, domestic violence, parental bereavement may affect an individual’s physical, social, and emotional functioning and may hinder his attempts for survival and comfort and on the other hand may disturb his biological and psychological systems (Brown & Harris, 1989; Clayton & Darvish, 1979; Turner & Lloyd, 1995; Polusny & Follette, 1995; Moss & Moss, 1989; Parkes, 1972). A life event is indicative of or requires a significant change in the ongoing life patterns of the individual. According to Settersten and Mayer (1997), “A *life event* is a significant occurrence involving a relatively abrupt change that may produce serious and long lasting effects”. It refers to the happening itself and not to the transitions that will occur because of the happenings. The figure 1 portrays how these components may be related to one another as they affect adaptation and health (B. P. Dohrenwend & B. S. Dohrenwend, 1980, 1987). The relations among these components of the life stress process hold the strongest clues as to whether, to what extent, and how environmental stress induces

adverse health changes. The most important objective stress-inducing properties of a life event are (1) the event's negative valence (undesirable rather desirable; representing loss rather than gain); (2) its fatefulness – that is, the extent to which the occurrence of a negative event is outside the control of the individual (the less control over the occurrence, the more stressful) and independent of his or her behavior; (3) the extent to which the event is life-threatening; (4) the magnitude of change in usual activities that is likely to be brought about for an average person experiencing the event; and (5) whether the change is likely to be physically exhausting (B. P. Dohrenwend, 1979; B. P. Dohrenwend & B. S. Dohrenwend, 1969; B. P. Dohrenwend & B. S. Dohrenwend, 1980; B. S. Dohrenwend & B. P. Dohrenwend, 1983). Meaning and subjective appraisal provide important information about the processes by which the objective components of life stress are related to one another in determining health outcomes.

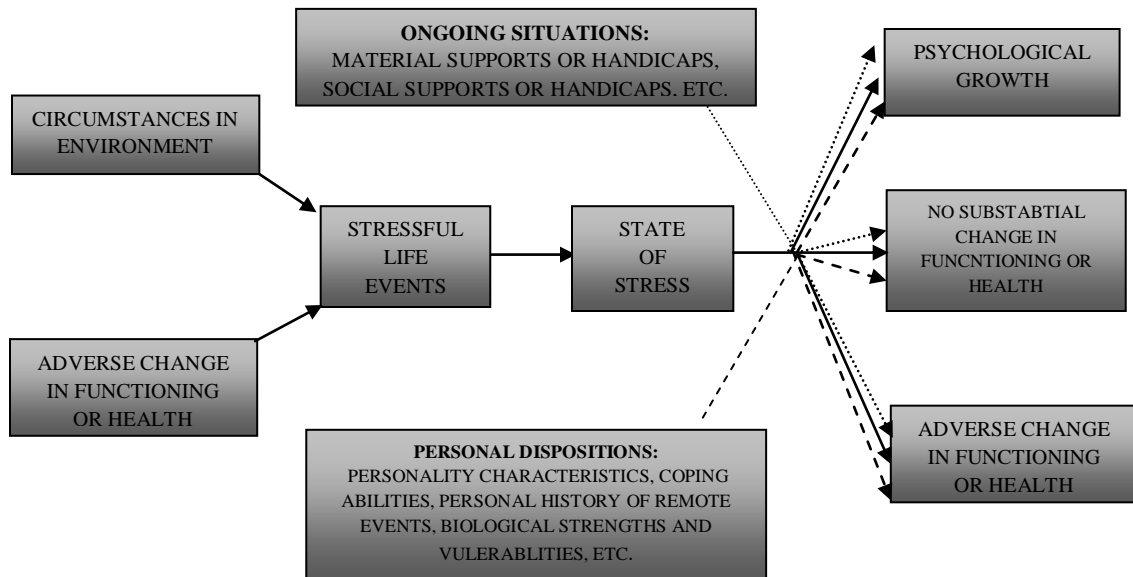


Figure 1. Components of the life stress process (adapted from B. P. Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1980).

The present research was aimed at investigating the relationship between stressful life events, depression and coping strategies among depressives and non-depressives. The study also attempted to find the moderating effects of some coping strategies and differences in stressful life events and coping strategies of depressives and non-depressives. Moreover it also attempted to examine the impact of different demographic variables. The past literature is full of researches that explain the phenomena of stressful life events and ensure its impact on mental health, different clinical disorders and in other areas. Rizvi (2002) conducted a study to sample representative stressful life events experienced by diabetics. The significant findings were obtained only when negative changes were considered. Kumari and Prakash (1986) conducted a research on the impact of life stress on mental health with age and sex differences. Significant negative correlation was obtained between life event scores and G.H.Q scores indicating lesser psychological distress with greater life events. Coping strategies are used to manage situations in which there is a perceived discrepancy between stressful demands and available resources for meeting (Zeidner & Endler, 1996). Coping is broadly conceived as an array of covert and overt behavior patterns by which organism can actively prevent, alleviate, or respond to stress inducing circumstances (Lazarus, as cited in McGrath, 1990). Lazarus and Folkman (as cited in Schafer, 1992) defined coping as: *“Constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person.* Forsythe and Compass’s (2005) study investigated interactions between cognitive appraisals of, and coping with, stressful life events and their relationship with psychological symptomatology. In relation to major life events, symptomatology was high when there was a poor fit between appraisals and coping (e.g.,

trying to change a stressor that was appraised as uncontrollable) and low when there was a good fit between appraisals and coping (e.g., palliating one's emotions when a stressor was perceived as uncontrollable). Variables defined in the study were as follows.

Stressful life event

Any event that places demands upon the individual to take action to reduce the effects of the events itself. The strength of the stressful situation to a person is determined by various factors, person's ability to cope it, prior experiences, and available support systems in the environment and the nature of life events. Any could be stressful for a person but considering the effect, stressful events are negative and positive. Negative events cause many difficulties in individual life, while positive events lead positive growth in individual life (Holmes and Rahe, 1967; p. 215-217). Life stress is defined in terms of characteristics of the stressful events and the individual's reaction to them. It is mainly concerned with an individual's recent traumatic events and the meaning he/she may attach to such events (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1978). The assumptions behind the idea are: (a) life changes require adaptation on part of the individual and (b) persons experiencing marked life changes in the recent past are susceptible to physical and psychological health problems (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1978, Saxena & Mohan, 1982, Selye, 1956).

Depression

Depression (as opposed to other negative feelings such as sadness, unhappiness, frustration, sorrow or grief) is a feeling of helplessness and blaming oneself for being helpless. Depression is a self-directed hatred usually associated with hatred directed towards others. It is a feeling of weakness, inferiority, helplessness and inability to cope with adverse situation, plus self-directed resentment for being weak, most often these are

associated with blaming oneself (Beck, 1960). Depression is characterized by persistent, pervasive feelings of hopelessness and low mood, often accompanied by a number of somatic symptoms such as disturbed sleep, loss of energy, poor appetite, psychomotor agitation or retardation. Depressed patients lose interest in normally pleasurable activities, find it difficult to concentrate or make decision and may experience feeling of guilt and self-reproach. Thought of death and suicide may be prominent (Mazillier 1999, p. 44).

Coping Strategies

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined coping as cognitive and behavioral strategies used to manage the stressful situation. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1980) there are two types of coping strategies. Emotion focused coping is, any response aimed at reducing or managing the negative feelings that arise in response to the threat or loss (Schaefer, 1992, p. 1999). In *problem focused coping* the focus is attempting to deal constructively with the stressor or circumstances itself (Schaefer, 1992; p. 1999). The following figure 2 shows that the environmental system (Panel 1) is composed of ongoing life stressors and social resources in important life domains, such as physical health, finances, and relationships, with family members and friends. The personal system (Panel 2) includes an individual's socio-demographic characteristics; personal coping resources as self-confidence, ego development, and problem-solving skills; personal commitments and aspirations; and prior crisis and coping experiences. The model posits that life crisis or transitions (Panel 3), environmental and personal factors that foreshadow them (Panels 1 and 2) shape cognitive appraisal and coping responses (Panel 4) and their influence on health and well-being (Panel 5).

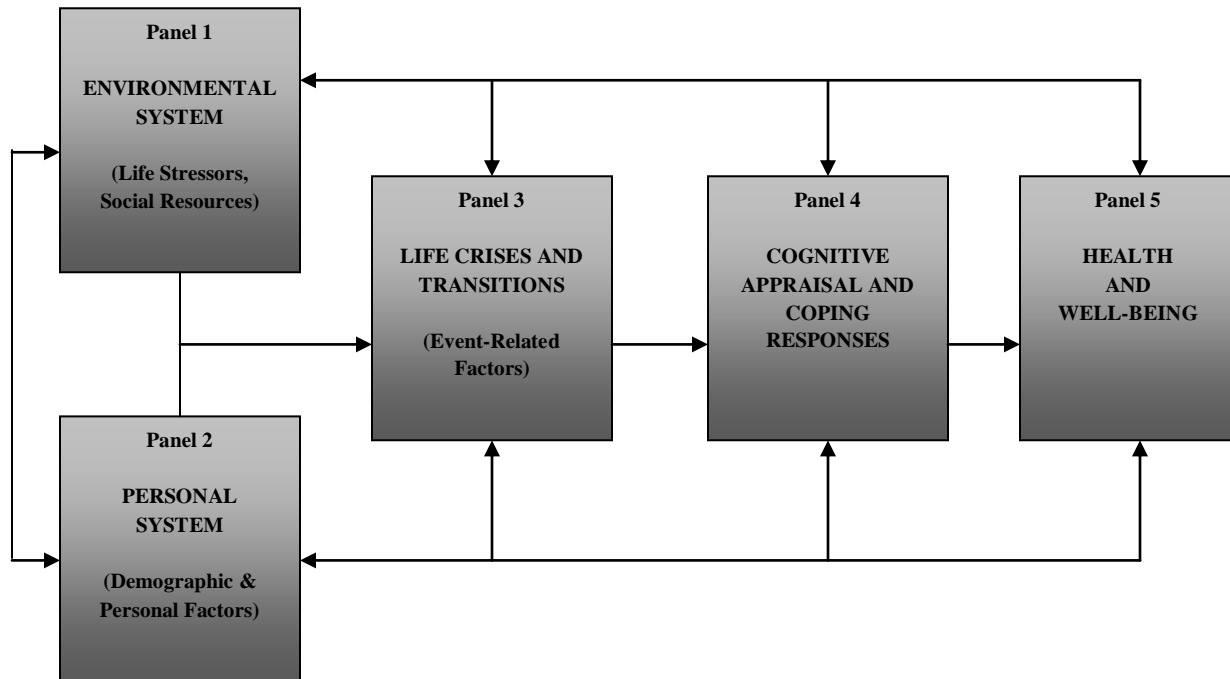


Figure 2. A general conceptual framework of the stress and coping process.

Methods

Research Design

The present study had a case-control research design and was done in three phases. *Phase I* dealt with the translation of the two relevant scales used in the study. It consisted of two steps. *The first step* was aimed at the translation of Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967) for its applicability in the measurement of life-stress among the sample of Depressives and Non-Depressives. Seven bilingual experts were contacted and a committee approach was applied. They selected the best Urdu translation of all the items present in the original scale. After the completion of this task, the back translation of the SRRS was made possible and the scales were given to some

Depressives and Non-Depressives in order to check its generalizability on the main study sample. *The second step* was aimed at the translation of Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R) developed by Folkman and Lazarus (1988) for its applicability in the measurement of coping strategies of Depressives and Non-Depressives. Same procedure was adopted as for translating SRRS. *The phase II* involved the pilot study, which was aimed to find out the psychometric properties of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS), Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R) and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI). The sample of the pilot study comprised of depressives and non-depressives including males and females. the Urdu versions of three scales were used which included Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) for measuring life-stress, Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) for measuring depression and Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R) to measure coping strategies. *The phase III* of the study was the main study and aimed to find out the psychometric properties of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS), Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R) and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI). The Urdu versions of three scales were used to test the formulated objectives and hypotheses.

Participants

Pilot study sample consisted of 192 depressed out patients and non-depressed individuals. The data comprised of the scores of 96 out patients with clinically diagnosed depression (Male = 48 and Female = 48) and 96 non depressed individuals (Male = 48 and Female = 48) on the relative scales. Main study sample consisted of 200 individuals (100 depressed and 100 non depressed). The data comprised of the scores of 100 out patients with clinically diagnosed depression (Male = 50 and Female = 50) and 100 non depressed individuals (Male = 50 and Female = 50) on the relative scales. The age ranges of these

subjects were between 25-55 years which were categorized as younger adults and older adults. Both educated and uneducated people were included in the sample while collecting data. Their educations were Metric, intermediate, bachelors and higher degree including the professional degrees. The marital status of the subjects was grouped into four categories including married people living with their spouses, divorced, separated and widowed people. The socioeconomic status was categorized as low, middle and high for both sample categories. Normal sample was taken randomly from different residents, universities, colleges, and different job officials (both field job & official job). The sample for depressed patients was collected from the Government and Private/Civil and Military/ psychiatric hospitals of three cities of Pakistan: Islamabad, Rawalpindi and Lahore.

Instruments

The following instruments were used in the study:

1. Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS):

Social Readjustment Rating Scale was developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967). A list of 43 events was selected for the study. Before administering, the scale was initially translated in Urdu language by a panel of judges, afterwards it was back translated in original English language, and therefore no significant difference was found in terms of translation. The new Urdu version items did not have any effect in terms of meaning and interpretation. After checking its cultural relevance on the sample of depressives and non-depressives, a list of 30 items was selected for the main study sample and presented in the form of life-stress inventory developed on the basis of SRRS. Its items were arranged in six different categories (health, work, marriage, family and close friends, financial matters, social and personal matters). It was divided into two parts. The first part measured the effects

of the events experienced, i.e. the subjects were asked to mark the life events or changes which have occurred during the past year, by indicating whether the event was considered as having good effect or bad effect or no effect at all. In the other part, the subjects had to rate the level of life stress experienced on a 4-point rating scale ranging from the values 0 to 3 (not stressful=0, slightly stressful=1, moderately stressful=2, extremely stressful=3). In this way the rating scale was printed next to each event and were asked to circle one or more than one (if any) of the events to indicate the level of stress on 4-point scale with its positive or negative effectiveness. The events that have occurred during the past one year were taken into account.

2. Beck Depression Inventory (BDI):

Beck, Ward, Mndelson, introduced Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) in (1961). The BDI was revised in 1971. The Beck Depression Inventory is a 21 item self-report questionnaire that assesses the presence and severity of cognitive, affective, motivational and physical symptoms of depression. Each item is scored on a 4-point scale. Total scores are obtained by adding the items and range between 0 and 84. Higher score indicates greater symptoms severity but are not necessary synonymous with clinical diagnosis. The BDI is one of the most widely used instruments for the assessment of depression in clinical sample and has been successfully used with adolescents as well as with adults. A sensitivity of 100% and a specificity of 93.2% were obtained with a cut-off score of 16 in the selection of a sub sample representative of the adolescent clinical population.

In the main study BDI-Urdu Version (BDI-U) (Khan, 1996) was used to measure depression. It is comprised of 20 items as its one item having sexual connotation was dropped. So score range of BDI-U is 0-80 and construct validity is 0.84 (Khan, 1996).

3. Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R):

Revised Ways of coping Questionnaire was developed by Folkman and Lazarus in 1988. It is a self-report instrument that asks participants to recall a recent stressor and then rate how often they have used 66 different behaviors to cope with that particular stressor. It is designed to identify the thoughts and actions an individual has used to cope with a specific stressful encounter. It identifies the processes people use in coping with stressful situations and can be completed in approximately 10 minutes. Age range is from high school through adult. In present study it was used to assess the coping strategies of depressives and non-depressives, which they use in order to cope with the stressful life events. Before administering it on the desired sample, it was initially translated into Urdu language by a panel of judges; afterwards it was back translated in original English language. The new Urdu version items did not have any effect in terms of meaning and interpretation however after checking its cultural relevance, 50 items were selected for the main study sample. The respondent had to respond on a 4-point rating scale (not used=0, used somewhat=1, used quite a bit=2, used a great deal=3) the extent to which he uses a particular coping strategy. Eight subscales of WAYS – R include: Confrontive coping, Planful problem solving, Escape-avoidance, Accepting Responsibility, and Reappraisal. The ways of coping Questionnaire (WAYS) has been successfully used in related studies (e.g., Neundorfor, 1991, Thompson, Zeman, Franurik, & Sirotkin-Roses, 1992, Vitaliano, Maiuro, Russo, & Becker, 1987). Scale scores were additively derived from individual items and divided by a total score to provide relative scores for a total of 8 subscales. These eight scales used a total of 50 of the total 66 items available. The 8 subscales had been conceptualized as having either problem-focused or emotion-focused coping functions. Two coping strategies were

considered to represent problem-focused coping functions: Planful problem solving, and also confrontive coping which had been identified as being a more aggressive approach to changing a problem. One subscale, 'seeking social support' incorporated both functions of emotion and problem focused coping. It served a problem focused function when it was used to seek tangible or concrete information, and an emotion focused function if the process of asking others for advice was to enable individuals to feel emotionally supported. Relative scores were obtained for all scales by dividing a scale mean by the mean total such that a score of greater than "1" reflected a greater preference for that coping strategy while a score of less than "1" reflected a lesser preference for that coping strategy.

Procedure

The data was collected from different hospitals of Islamabad, Rawalpindi and Lahore. First of all permission to collect data was sought from the concerned authorities. Then, the sample was approached individually. They were selected if they met the criteria of selection in the research. They were briefed about the purpose of the research and assured that the information gained from them will be kept confidential and will only be used for research purpose. After getting their consent, different instruments along with the demographic sheet were administered. Purposive sampling was done to include the participants. There was no time limit and approximately 50 minutes were taken to complete the three questionnaires. Data was analyzed through SPSS.

Results

Table 1: Alpha Reliability Coefficient of the total and Sub Categories of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) (N = 200)

Sub Categories of Scale	No. of items	Alpha Reliability	Depressives	Non Depressives
			(n = 100) Alpha Reliability	(n = 100) Alpha Reliability
Health	4	.83	.72	.78
Work	4	.69	.69	.65
Marriage	6	.70	.80	.51
Family & Close Friends	7	.66	.53	.60
Financial Matters	4	.50	.50	.41
Personal & Social Matters	5	.72	.64	.60
SRRS	30	.87	.81	.71

The Table 1 shows Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) in the present sample and it indicates that all the categories or factors are internally consistent measures. The total alpha coefficient is .87. All the categories also have good reliability i.e., .83 on the sub category of Health, .69 on the sub category of Work, .70 on the sub category of Marriage, .66 on the sub category of Family and close friends, .50 on the subcategory of Financial Matters and on the sub category of Social Matters, the alpha is .72. However the reliability of SRRS and its sub-categories were high on pilot study sample (N = 200) as compared to main study sample but these reliabilities are in acceptable direction. Table also shows the separate reliabilities of Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) on the sample of Depressives and Non Depressives. The result of alpha reliabilities for both samples indicates that this scale has a highest reliability i.e., .71 on the sample of

Non-Depressives and a highest reliability on the sample of Depressives i.e., .81. Both the reliabilities come under the acceptable domain.

Table 2: Alpha Reliability Coefficient of Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (N = 200)

Scale	Number of items	Alpha Reliability	Depressives	Non Depressives
BDI	20	.90	.90	.70

Table 2 shows that the Beck Depression Inventory has a highest reliability (i.e., .90) for the sample of the present study. Table also shows the separate reliabilities of Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) on the sample of Depressives and Non Depressives. The result of alpha reliabilities for both samples indicates that this scale has a highest reliability i.e., .70 on the sample of Non Depressives and Depressives i.e., .90. Both the reliabilities come under the acceptable domain.

Table 3: Alpha Reliability Coefficient of total and Sub Scales of the Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS – R) (N = 200)

Sub-Scales of Coping	No of item	Alpha Reliability	Depressives	Non Depressives
			(n = 100)	(n = 100)
			Alpha Reliability	Alpha Reliability
Problem-Focused Coping	15	.97	.96	.97
Confrontive Coping	6	.94	.92	.95
Planful Problem Solving	6	.96	.95	.97
Emotion-Focused Coping	35	.96	.96	.95
Distancing	6	.84	.85	.81
Self-Controlling	7	.85	.81	.88

Accepting Responsibility	4	.85	.80	.87
Escape-Avoidance	8	.93	.95	.88
Positive Reappraisal	7	.78	.70	.81
Problem/Emotion Focused				
Seeking Social Support	6	.81	.87	.74
WAYS – R	50	.75	.70	.60

Table 3 shows the alpha coefficients of the WAYS-R Scale and its factors and subscales. It indicates that all the subscales are internally consistent measures and has good reliability ranging from .78 to .97. The total alpha coefficient is .75. All the Sub-Scales also have good reliability i.e., .94 on the sub scale of Confrontive Coping, .96 on the sub scale of planful problem solving, .81 on the sub scale of seeking social support, .84 on the sub scale of distancing, .85 on the sub scale of self-controlling and .85 on the sub scale of Accepting responsibility, .93 on the sub scale of Escape avoidance, on the subscale of positive reappraisal the alpha is 78. In this way the alpha reliability coefficients on the two separate dimensions are .97 on problem-focused coping and .96 on emotion focused coping respectively.

The Table also shows the separate reliabilities of Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R) on the sample of Depressives and Non Depressives. The result of alpha reliabilities for both samples indicates that this scale has a highest reliability i.e., .60 on the sample of Non Depressives as well as on the sample of Depressives i.e., .70. Both the reliabilities come under the acceptable domain.

Table 4: Inter-scale correlation coefficients for Sub-categories and total scale scores on Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) (N = 200)

Sub – Categories	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Health	-	.30**	.23**	.67**	.29**	.54**
Work	-	-	.18*	.81**	.15*	.30**
Marriage	-	-	-	.34**	.28**	.47**
Family & Close Friends	-	-	-	-	.50**	.65**
Financial Matters	-	-	-	-	-	.52**
Social Matters	-	-	-	-	-	-

* p< .05, ** p< .01

It is observed from Table 4 that there are significant positive correlations among sub-categories of Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS). Almost all the six sub-categories are positively correlated with each other. A positive correlation between the scores of six domains of SRRS provides the evidence of sufficient construct validity and internal consistency of the scales.

Table 5: Inter-scale correlation coefficients for sub-scales and total scale scores on Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire) (WAYS-R) (N = 200)

Sub-Scales	CC	PPS	SSS	DST	SC	AR	EA	PR
Confrontive Coping (CC)	-	.972**	.629**	-	-	-	-	-
Planful Problem Solving (PPS)	-	-	.631**	-	-	-	-	-
				.547**	.676**	.713**	.685**	.557**

Seeking Social Support (SSS)	-	-	-	-	.247**	.295**	.322**	.331**	.221**
Distancing (DST)	-	-	-	-		.883**	.873**	.907**	.777**
Self-Controlling (SC)	-	-	-	-			.884**	.911**	.781**
Accepting Responsibility (AR)	-	-	-	-				.911**	.834**
Escape-Avoidance (EA)	-	-	-	-					.795**
Positive Reappraisal (PR)	-	-	-	-					-

* p < .01

It is observed from Table 5 that there are significant positive correlations among sub-scales of Distancing, Self-Controlling, Accepting responsibility, Escape – Avoidance and Positive Reappraisal. It indicates that those respondents who exhibit these more coping strategies like Distancing, they will exhibit more coping strategies like Self-Controlling, Accepting responsibility, Escape – Avoidance and thus also exhibit Positive Reappraisal coping strategy and they employ these coping strategies to a greater extent. There are significant negative correlations among sub-scales of Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving and Seeking Social Support. Overall there are significant positive as well as significant negative correlations among the subscales which provide the evidence of considerable construct validity and inter scales internal consistency.

Table 6: Correlation between Scores on Sub-scales of Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R) and Sub-categories of Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) (N = 200)

Dimensions of Coping Strategies	Health	Work	Marriage	Family & Friends	Financial Matters	Social Matters
Problem-Focused Coping	-.190**	-.323**	-.156*	-.197**	-.399**	-.407**
Emotion-Focused Coping	.408**	.231**	.208**	.419**	.458**	.530**

* p< .05 and ** p< .01

Table 6 shows correlation between WAYS – R sub-scales and categories of Stressful Life Events. Problem-focused coping is negatively associated with the five domains of life-stress. The greater the problem-focused coping, the lower the level of stress among certain domains of life is i.e., health, work, family, social activities and financial matters. Results also indicate significant correlation of emotion-focused coping with the six stressful domains of life.

Table 7: Mean and Standard Deviation of Scores of the Sample on the Sub-categories of Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) and on the total Scale (N = 200)

Scale	No of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Depressives (<i>n</i> = 100)		Non Depressives (<i>n</i> = 100)	
				<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
				Health	4	5.16	3.23
Work	4	4.63	2.70	5.35	2.96	3.90	2.19
Marriage	6	6.29	4.22	7.27	5.02	5.31	2.96
Family & Close Friends	7	6.54	3.38	8.74	3.44	4.33	1.12
Financial Matters	4	3.30	2.20	3.95	2.66	2.65	1.32
Social & Personal Matters	5	4.55	3.21	6.45	2.95	2.65	2.17
SRRS	50	30.46	13.00	38.90	12.08	22.01	7.07

Table 7 shows the mean and standard deviation of scores of sample of the total and sub-categories of Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) with the highest mean score on the category of “Family and Close Friends” and lowest mean score on the category of “Financial Matters”. Table also shows the mean and standard deviation of scores of the total and sub-categories of Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) on the sample of Depressives and Non Depressives separately. Among the sample of Depressive there is a highest mean score observed on the category of “Family and Close Friends” and lowest mean score on the category of “Financial Matters” and among the sample of Non Depressives the highest mean score lies on the category of “Marriage” and the lowest mean score lies on the category of “Financial Matters”.

Table 8: Mean and Standard Deviation of Scores of the Sample on the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (N = 200)

Scale	Number of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Depressives		Non Depressives	
				<i>(n = 100)</i>		<i>(n = 100)</i>	
				<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
BDI	20	18.55	10.72	24.57	10.89	12.52	6.24

The Table 8 shows means and standard deviations of scores of the sample on the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) which is 18.55 and 10.72 respectively. The Table also shows means and standard deviations of scores of the sample of Depressives and Non Depressives on the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) which is 24.57 and 10.89, and 12.52 and 6.24 respectively. All the mean scores and standard deviations on BDI were taken on the basis of the diagnostic criteria (DSM-IV) used for major depression.

Table 9: Mean and Standard Deviation of scores of the sample on the Sub-scales of Revised Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WAYS-R) and on the total Scale (N = 200)

Sub-Scales of Coping	No. of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Depressives		Non Depressives	
				<i>(n = 100)</i>		<i>(n = 100)</i>	
				<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Problem-Focused Coping	15	27.46	15.34	26.80	13.71	28.11	16.86
Confrontive Coping	6	10.67	6.72	10.27	6.00	11.06	6.65
Planful Problem Solving	6	10.65	7.12	10.41	6.27	13.61	7.38
Emotion-Focused Coping	35	54.82	23.04	60.68	22.51	48.95	22.15
Distancing	6	5.68	4.58	6.78	4.53	4.57	4.38
Self-Controlling	7	10.48	5.59	11.61	5.29	9.35	4.67

Accepting Responsibility	4	6.44	3.67	6.62	3.34	6.25	3.97
Escape-Avoidance	8	11.37	7.53	13.70	7.88	9.04	6.40
Positive Reappraisal	7	14.91	3.95	15.72	3.25	14.10	4.42
Problem/Emotion Focused							
Seeking Social Support	6	12.09	3.93	12.37	4.07	11.81	3.78
WAYS – R	50	82.27	12.68	87.48	13.09	77.06	9.85

Table 9 shows the mean and standard deviation of scores of the sample on the subscales of WAYS with the highest mean score on the sub scale of “Positive Reappraisal” and the lowest mean score on the sub scale of “Accepting Responsibility”. Table also shows the mean and standard deviation the subscales and total scores of WAYS-R on the sample of Depressives and Non Depressives. The highest mean score was observed on the sub scale of “Positive Reappraisal” in both the samples and the lowest mean score was found on the sub scale of “Accepting Responsibility” among the sample of Depressives and on sub scale of “Distancing” among the sample of Non Depressives.

Table 10: Regression Analysis for variable predicting the depression (N = 200)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Stressful Life Events	.64	.036	.78	17.971	.000

$R^2 = .62, \Delta R^2 = .61, F = 322.953, df = 198$

Table 10 shows that the impact of independent variable was found to be therefore significant, $F(1, 198) = 322.953, p < .0001$.

Table 11: Mean, SD and t-value of Depressives and Non Depressives on the scores of effect of Stressful life events, life stress, depression and coping strategies (N = 200)

	Depressives		Non Depressives		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>(n = 100)</i>		<i>(n = 100)</i>			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Positive Stressful Events	6.66	4.11	13.28	3.15	12.784	.000
Negative Stressful Events	19.37	4.49	14.77	2.92	8.584	.000
Problem-Focused Coping	26.80	13.71	28.11	16.86	.603	.547
Emotion-Focused Coping	60.68	22.51	48.95	22.15	3.715	.000
Life Stress	38.90	12.08	22.01	7.07	12.072	.000
Depression	24.57	10.89	12.52	6.24	9.603	.000

df = 198

Table 11 presents the difference on the mean scores of Depressives and Non Depressives on the positive and negative stressful life events. Significant difference was found on “positive stressful life events” ($t = 12.784, df = 198, p < .0001$) as well as on “negative stressful life events” ($t = 8.584, df = 198, p < .0001$). Significant difference was found on “emotion-focused coping” ($t = 3.715, df = 198, p < .0001$). However mean scores on the problem focused coping was high in the sample of Non Depressives but no significant difference was found on “problem-focused coping” ($t = .603, df = 198, p = .547$).

Table 12: Regression Analysis for Life Stress and Problem-Focused Coping Strategies and their interaction effects in predicting the depression among Depressives and Non Depressives (N = 200)

Variables	B	SEB	β	t	p
Life Stress	.726	.086	.880	8.397	.000
Problem- Focused Coping	.03552	.087	.051	.409	.683
Life Stress* Problem Focused Coping	-.00423	.003	-.185	1.482	.140

$R^2 = .636$, $\Delta R^2 = .631$, $F = 114.294$, $df = 196$, * Interaction effects

In the table 12, the predictors explained 63% of the variance in depression, $F = (1, 196) = 114.294$, $p < .0001$. The impact of independent variable i.e life stress was therefore significant predicting depression ($\beta = .880$, $df = 1, 196$, $p < .0001$). Problem-focused coping had no significant effect on the dependent variable i.e., depression ($\beta = .051$, $df = 1, 196$, $p = .683$) and the interaction effects of life stress and problem-focused coping were also non-significant for Depressives as well as Non Depressives ($\beta = -.185$, $df = 1, 196$, $p = .140$).

Table 13: Regression Analysis for Life Stress and Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies and their interaction effects in predicting the depression among Depressives and Non Depressives (N = 200)

Variables	B	SEB	β	t	p
Life Stress	.327	.106	.397	3.078	.000

Emotion- Focused Coping	-.001139	.055	.002	.021	.984
Life Stress* Emotion-Focused Coping	.003717	.002	.450	2.203	.029

$R^2 = .668$, $\Delta R^2 = .663$, $F = 131.681$, $df = 196$, * Interaction Effects

The results in the table 13 presents, 66% of the variance was accounted for by the predictors, $F = (1, 196) = 131.681$, $p < .0001$. The impact of independent variable i.e., life stress was therefore significant and stressful life events predicted depression ($\beta = .397$, $df = 196$, $p < .0001$). Emotion-focused coping had no significant effect on the dependent variable i.e., depression ($\beta = .002$, $df = 1, 196$, $p = .984$). However, the interaction effects of life stress and emotion-focused coping were significant for Depressives as well as Non Depressives ($\beta = .450$, $df = 1, 196$, $p < .05$). Emotion focused coping served as a moderator between life stress and depression.

Table 14: Regression Analysis for Life Stress and Problem-Focused Coping Strategies and their interaction effects in predicting the depression among Depressives (N = 100)

Variables	B	SEB	β	t	p
Life Stress	.747	.230	.828	3.250	.002
Problem-Focused Coping	.05965	.256	.075	.233	.817
Life Stress* Problem Focused Coping	-.007089	.006	-.318	3.126	.166

$R^2 = .757$, $\Delta R^2 = .746$, $F = 40.211$, $df = 96$, * Interaction effects

Table 14 shows that the predictors explained 75% of the variance in depression, $F = (3, 96) = 40.211, p < .0001$. The impact of independent variable i.e., life stress was therefore significant and stressful life events predicted depression ($\beta = .828, df = 3, 96, p < .05$). Problem-focused coping had no significant effect on the dependent variable i.e., depression ($\beta = .075, df = 3, 96, p = .817$) and the interaction effects of life stress and problem-focused coping were also non-significant for Depressives ($\beta = -.318, df = 3, 96, p = .166$). This result revealed that life stress was a strong predictor of depression but Problem-focused coping as a moderator variable did not have any significant effect on depression amongst the sample of depressives.

Table 15: Regression Analysis for Life Stress and Problem-Focused Coping Strategies and their interaction effects in predicting the depression among Non-Depressives (N = 100)

Variables	B	SEB	β	t	p
Life Stress	.714	.130	.829	3.879	.000
Problem- Focused Coping	-.0360	.102	-.973	3.539	.001
Life Stress* Problem Focused Coping	-.01352	.004	-.772	3.152	.002

$R^2 = .404, \Delta R^2 = .385, F = 21.692, df = 96, *$ Interaction effects

Table 15 shows that the predictors explained 40% of the variance in depression, $F = (3, 96) = 21.692, p < .0001$. The impact of independent variable i.e., life stress was therefore significant and stressful life events predicted depression ($\beta = .829, df = 3,$

96, $p < .0001$). Problem-focused coping had a significant effect on the dependent variable i.e., depression ($\beta = -.973$, $df = 3$, 96 , $p < .001$) and the interaction effects of life stress and problem-focused coping were also significant for Non Depressives ($\beta = -.772$, $df = 3$, 96 , $p = .05$). This result revealed that life stress was a strong predictor of depression and problem-focused coping as a moderator variable had a positive significant effect on depression amongst the sample of Non Depressives.

Table 16: Regression Analysis for Life Stress and Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies and their interaction effects in predicting the depression among Depressives (N = 100)

Variables	B	SEB	β	t	p
Life Stress	.284	.187	.916	3.520	.000
Emotion- Focused Coping	.07658	.140	.958	3.548	.000
Life Stress* Emotion-Focused Coping	.002904	.003	.865	2.994	.020

$R^2 = .609$, $\Delta R^2 = .597$, $F = 49.924$, $df = 96$, * Interaction effects

Table 16 shows that the predictors explained 60% of the variance in depression, $F = (3, 96) = 49.924$, $p < .0001$. The impact of independent variable was therefore significant and stressful life events predicted depression ($\beta = .916$, $df = 3$, 96 , $p < .0001$). Emotion-focused coping had a significant effect on the dependent variable i.e., depression ($\beta = .058$, $df = 3$, 96 , $p < .0001$) and the interaction effects of life stress and emotion-focused coping were also significant for Depressives ($\beta = .865$, $df = 3$, 96 , $p = .05$). This result revealed that life stress was a strong predictor of depression and emotion-focused

coping as a moderator variable had a positive significant effect on depression amongst depressives.

Table 17: Regression Analysis for Life Stress and Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies and their interaction effects in predicting the depression among Non-Depressives (N = 100)

Variables	B	SEB	β	t	p
Life - Stress	1.128	.207	1.278	5.447	.000
Emotion- Focused Coping	.343	.082	1.216	4.204	.000
Life Stress* Emotion-Focused Coping	-.01304	.004	1.572	3.664	.000

$R^2 = .436$, $\Delta R^2 = .418$, $F = 24.729$, $df = 96$, * Interaction effects

The results in the table 17 presents, the predictors explained 43% of the variance in depression, $F = (3, 96) = 24.729$, $p < .0001$. . The impact of independent variable i.e., life stress was therefore significant and stressful life events predicted depression ($\beta = 1.278$, $df = 3, 96$, $p < .0001$). Emotion-focused coping had a significant effect on the dependent variable i.e., depression ($\beta = 1.216$, $df = 3, 96$, $p < .0001$) and the interaction effects of life stress and emotion-focused coping were also significant for Non Depressives ($\beta = 1.572$, $df = 3, 96$, $p = .0001$). This result revealed that life stress was a strong predictor of depression and emotion-focused coping as a moderator variable had a positive significant effect on depression amongst the sample of Non Depressives.

Table 18: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the total scores of stressful life events (Life Stress) by Socioeconomic Status (SES) (N = 200)

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
SES	3018.308	2	1509.154		
Residual	30625.287	197	155.458	9.708	.000
Total	33643.595	199			

The results in the table 18 indicate a significant effect of SES on life stress, i. e, $F = (2, 197) = 9.708, p < .0001$. This finding is also supported by means, standard deviations on the scores of Depressives and Non Depressives belonging to different SES. For this purpose, on the basis of SES we divided Depressives and Non Depressives into three income groups, on the basis of family income from 3000-7000 was grouped as low income group, 8000-14000 was grouped as middle group and the income from 15000 and above treated as high income group of SES.

Table 19: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of life stress scores of Depressives and Non Depressives on low, middle and high groups.

SES groups	N	M	SD
Low	82	33.37	13.02
Middle	96	30.32	12.15
High	22	20.18	11.69

In table 19, mean scores of life stress scores of three groups of Depressives and Non Depressives show that there are many variations in life stress scores as an effect of SES. It indicates that the effect of SES is significant for life-stress scores among Depressives and Non Depressives. These findings suggest that depressives and non-depressives belonging

to different SES experience a different level of life stresses. So our hypothesis that subjects (Depressives and Non Depressives) belonging to low socioeconomic status will experience high level of life stress as compared to subjects belonging to high socioeconomic status is proved.

Table 20: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the total scores of depression by Socioeconomic Status (SES) (N = 200)

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
SES	1371.776	2	685.888		
Residual	21475.819	197	109.014	6.292	.002
Total	22847.595	199			

The results in the table 20 indicate a significant effect of SES on depression, i.e, $F = (2, 197) = 6.292, p < .002$. This finding is also supported by means, standard deviations on the scores of Depressives and Non Depressives belonging to different SES. For this purpose, on the basis of SES we divided depressives and non-depressives into three income groups, on the basis of family income from 3000-7000 was grouped as low income group, 8000-14000 was grouped as middle group and the income from 15000 and above treated as high income group of SES.

Table 21: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of scores of depression among Depressives and Non Depressives on low, middle and high groups.

SES groups	N	M	SD
Low	82	20.96	11.45
Middle	96	17.91	10.05
High	22	12.32	7.71

In table 21, mean scores of depression level of three groups of depressives and non-depressives show that there are many variations in the scores of depression as an effect of SES. It indicates that the effect of SES is significant for scores of depression among depressives and non-depressives. These findings suggest that depressives and non-depressives belonging to different SES experience a different level of life stresses. So our hypothesis that subjects (depressives and non-depressives) belonging to low socioeconomic status will experience high level of depression as compared to subjects belonging to high socioeconomic status is proved.

Table 22: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the total scores of stressful life events (life Stress) by Marital Status (MES) (N = 200)

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
SES	3961.889	3	1320.630		
Residual	32681.706	196	166.743	8.923	.000
Total	33643.595	199			

The results in the table 22 indicate a significant effect of MS on life stress, $F = (3, 199) = 8.923, p < .0001$. This finding is also supported by means, standard deviations on the scores of Depressives and Non Depressives having different marital statuses. For this purpose, on the basis of MS we divided depressives and Non Depressives into four groups. First was a group of married people second was a group of divorced people, third group consisted of separated people and fourth and the last group consisted of widows/widowers.

Table 23: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of life stress scores of Depressives and Non Depressives on the groups of married, divorced, separated and widow/widowers (N = 200)

MS groups	N	M	SD
Married	77	24.75	14.25
Divorced	50	40.90	12.91
Separated	45	30.91	11.59
Widow/Widower	28	28.25	10.85

In table 23, mean scores of life stress of four groups of Depressives and Non Depressives show that there are many variations in life stress scores as an effect of marital status. It indicates that the effect of marital status is significant for life stress scores among Depressives and Non Depressives. These findings suggest that Depressives and Non Depressives having different marital status experience different level of life stresses. So our hypothesis that divorced subjects (Depressives and Non Depressives) will experience high level of life stress as compared to married subjects is proved.

Table 24: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the total scores of depression by Marital Status (MS) (N = 200)

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
SES	2206.964	3	168.988		
Residual	22640.631	196	115.513	6.618	.000
Total	22847.595	199			

The results in the table 24 indicate a significant effect of MS on depression, i.e, $F = (3, 199) = 6.618, p < .0001$. This finding is also supported by means, standard deviations on the scores of Depressives and Non Depressives having different marital

statuses. For this purpose, on the basis of marital status we divided Depressives and Non Depressives into four groups. First was a group of married people second was a group of divorced people, third group consisted of separated people and fourth and the last group consisted of widows/widowers.

Table 25: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of life stress scores of Depressives and Non Depressives on the groups of married, divorced, separated and widow/widowers (N = 200).

MS groups	N	M	SD
Married	77	18.32	11.30
Divorced	50	28.10	9.81
Separated	45	17.76	9.10
Widow/Widower	28	14.43	9.77

In table 25, mean scores of life stress scores of four groups of Depressives and Non Depressives show that there are many variations on scores of depression as an effect of marital status. It indicates that the effect of marital status is significant for scores of depression among Depressives and Non Depressives. These findings suggest that Depressives and Non Depressives having different marital status experience different levels of depression. So, divorced subjects (Depressives and Non Depressives) will experience high level of depression as compared to married subjects.

Table 26: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the total scores of life stress by education (N = 200)

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Education	3508.136	3	1169.379		
Residual	30135.459	196	153.752	7.606	.000
Total	33643.595	199			

The results in the table 26 indicate a significant effect of Education on life stress, $F = (3, 199) = 7.606, p < .0001$. This finding is also supported by means, standard deviations on the scores of Depressives and Non Depressives having different educational statuses. For this purpose, on the basis of Education we divided Depressives and Non Depressives into four educational groups. First was a group of uneducated subjects second was a group of matriculates, third group consisted of subjects with intermediate level and fourth and the last group consisted of subjects with bachelor and above level of qualifications.

Table 27: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of scores of Depressives and Non Depressives on life stress scores of four groups of education (N = 200)

Educational groups	N	M	SD
Uneducated	34	38.65	13.35
Metric	58	31.69	13.63
Intermediate	82	27.12	11.30
Bachelor and above	26	27.50	11.52

In table 27, mean scores of life stress of four groups of Depressives and Non Depressives show that there are many variations on scores of life stress as an effect of Education. It indicates that the effect of Education is significant for scores of life stress among Depressives and Non Depressives. These findings suggest that Depressives and Non Depressives having different education levels experience different stressful life events. But the hypothesis that uneducated subjects (Depressives and Non Depressives) will experience high level of life stress as compared to educated subjects is significantly proved.

Table 28: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the total scores of depression by education (N = 200)

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Education	3656.468	3	1218.823		
Residual	19191.127	196	97.914	12.448	.000
Total	22847.595	199			

The results in the table 28 indicate a significant effect of Education on life stress, $F = (3, 199) = 12.448, p < .0001$. This finding is also supported by means, standard deviations on the scores of Depressives and Non Depressives having different educational statuses. For this purpose, on the basis of Education we divided Depressives and Non Depressives into four educational groups. First was a group of uneducated subjects second was a group of matriculates, third group consisted of subjects with intermediate level and fourth and the last group consisted of subjects with bachelor and above level of qualifications.

Table 29: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Depressives and Non Depressives on scores of depression level of four groups of education (N = 200)

Educational groups	N	M	SD
Uneducated	34	27.35	12.33
Metric	58	19.05	10.97
Intermediate	82	15.41	8.36
Bachelor and above	26	15.77	8.15

In table 29, mean scores of depressive level of four groups of Depressives and Non Depressives show that there are many variations on depressive scores as an effect of Education. It indicates that the effect of Education is significant for scores of depression among Depressives and Non Depressives. These findings suggest that Depressives and Non Depressives having different education levels experience high level of depression. But the hypothesis that uneducated subjects (Depressives and Non Depressives) will experience high level of depression as compared to educated subjects is significantly proved.

Discussion

Based on the previous researches it was hypothesized that stressful life events positively determine depression. The results supported the hypothesis indicating that the stressful life events were the determinants of depression. The findings of the present research were consistent with the past researches. Stressful life events are found in clinical samples (Hammen, 1991; Harkness, Monroe, Simons, & Thase, 1999) as well as in community samples (Davila, Hammen, Burge, Paley, & Daley, 1995; Holahan, 1995). The experiences judged to be most stressful include death of a child, death of a spouse, marital infidelity or separation, business failure, legal trouble, injury, and medical illness. However, when these

experiences are characterized as relatively discrete stressful events, only bereavement has been clearly shown to incur an increased risk for major depression (Jacobs, 1993; Kim & Jacobs, 1995; Zisook & Shuchter, 1991). In particular, general agreement exists those occurrences that are defined as undesirable, major life events are likely to be associated with depressive onset.

Keeping in view the past literature it was hypothesized that depressives experience more negative stressful life events as compared to non-depressives. The results indicated that the significant differences exist among depressives and non-depressives on the positive and negative stressful life events. Some classes of events were especially likely to provoke depressive reactions. The result of the effects of stressful life events on depression represented the significance of interpersonal “loss,” which may include bereavement, separations, endings or threats of separation. Such “exit” events often precede depression, and may be more common in depressed samples than in other forms of psychopathology (Paykel & Cooper, 1992). It is also suggested that relationship stressors, many of which are loss or threatened-loss events are common in depression, especially for women (Tennant, 2002., Kendler et al., 1995). Although it seems that interpersonal loss experiences and dependent stressors may be especially likely to predict depression (Hammen et al, 1985, Kendler et al., 1999).

It was hypothesized that depressives report use of more emotion-focused coping strategies as compared to non-depressives. These findings revealed that depressives reported use of more emotion-focused coping strategies as compared to non-depressives. The reporting of Problem-focused coping strategies were high among non-depressives but these differences were not significant for both the samples. Many researchers have found that

depressed patients report use of more emotion-focused coping strategies than their non-depressed counterparts. Coyne, Aldwin, and Lazarus (1981) found that subjects high in depressive symptoms score higher on emotion-focused coping strategies including wishful thinking, seeking emotional support, and avoidance than subjects who are not symptomatic. Keeping in view the past literature, the moderating effects of coping strategies including the problem-focused and emotion-focused coping were explored. This objective covered two hypotheses of the present research. First it was hypothesized that problem-focused coping strategies negatively affect the relationship between life-stress and depression. Secondly, it was hypothesized that the emotion-focused coping strategies positively affect the relationship between life-stress and depression. Clinicians and researchers have shown increasing interest in the study of the relationship between coping strategies and psychosocial adaptation to stressful life events, loss and trauma, and disease and disability (Billings & Moos, 1981; Endler, Parker, & Summerfeldt, 1993;). Definitions and conceptualization of coping have spanned a wide range of views including: (a) coping as a personality trait or disposition versus coping as a situational-based or state-like effort; (b) coping strategies as inherently adaptive, reality-based, conscious, and purposive approaches versus coping or defense strategies as global, primarily intrapsychic reality-distorting, rigid, and maladaptive processes; and (c) the nature of the coping classification (e.g., approach versus avoidance coping, instrumental/active versus affective/passive coping, adaptive versus maladaptive coping) (Holahan, Moos, & Schaefer, 1987, 1990; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Some individuals may use maladaptive coping styles to deal with a life event or hassle, which may intensify the depressive symptoms (Beck, A. T, 1976; Teasdale, Dent, 1987). Both forms of coping occur in nearly all stressful encounters. However, with respect to life-stress, problem-

focused strategies presumably reduce stress and result in greater well-being in situations that are amenable to change, whereas emotion-focused strategies should give a more positive result in situations considered as unchangeable (Lazarus, 2000). Previous literature has also found that an appraisal of stressful encounter as a challenge is related to problem-focused coping, whereas the experience of a stressful situation as a threat is related to emotion-focused coping (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). The impact of all demographical variables were also studied on stressful life events, depression and coping strategies.

Clinical Implications

An important clinical implication of my study was the determination of the effect of stressors on treatment outcomes. Change in events and difficulties, occurrence of positive events and events that neutralize the effect of an earlier adverse experience have been found to be related to recovery or treatment and as primary intervention for major depression.

By studying the relationship of stressors to major depression, the source of cases and controls were tied to keep unbiased by exposure to stressors. Therefore, use of control samples that were drawn from the general community and not from groups defined by stressful experiences provided better case-control comparisons.

Ethical Considerations

Privacy and confidentiality was maintained for diagnosed depressed out patients and normal individuals especially for females. All the categories of stressful life events were examined in the study on all such stressors like divorce, separation, marital conflicts, personal and financial matters etc so a high level of confidentiality and privacy was

needed for both samples and genders. Females depressed outpatients were contacted separately and they were especially kept far from their marital partners while taking required information on questionnaires. Normal younger and older adults were also contacted in privacy. Similarly divorced, married and widowed were also contacted with due respect and regard and their information was kept in confidentiality.

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Relationship of Job Satisfaction and Occupational Stress of High School Teachers

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Abstract

The present study was conducted to analyze the relationship between job satisfaction and occupational stress of high school teachers. Study was descriptive in nature. Population of this study was teachers of government high schools of Rawalpindi city. The sample was taken randomly and data were collected from three hundred teachers of government high schools of Rawalpindi city. Qualitative and quantitative approaches have been used to explore the relationship of job satisfaction and occupational stress by using a sample of three hundred teachers of high schools. Two research instruments i.e. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and Occupational Stress Inventory–revised (OSI-R) were used to collect data. For data analysis mean, standard deviation and Pearson Correlation were applied. The results show that there is significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and occupational stress.

Keywords: Job Satisfaction, Occupational Role Stress, Personal Strain, Occupational Stress

Introduction

There are many interesting and important professions, however, teaching is considered to be most worthy among all around the world. The education, advance skill and knowledge of a teacher put him in the centre of any education system. However, this center position demands a high level of involvement with an ability to connect with the challenges on which an education system revolves. Therefore, the job of a teacher is extremely demanding and challenging specially those dealing with teen agers and adolescents at primary and middle schools. In this way, teachers can contribute for the betterment for the society. However, for doing so, they required a certain amount of mental satisfaction from

the management, work environment, and job security as well. If teachers are not given such supportive elements, in turn, they will become stressed, and it will negatively affect their teaching ability to deliver to pupils.

There are many types of stress but occupational stress comes from work situations and environments of any job. In this regard, two interrelated concepts of stress, which are job satisfaction and occupational stress received major attention in the field of education research. The present research is attempted to analyze the relationship of job satisfaction and occupational stress of high schools teachers in Pakistan.

Literature Review

General elements and specific elements are included in job satisfaction: general elements include the whole perception of job pleasure while specific elements job security, co-worker, pay, supervision and personal growth and development (Hackman & Okham, 1980). Spector (1956) defined job satisfaction as “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs.”

Some educational researchers consider that job satisfaction is an attitude, which results from many things. Rose (2011) defined as bi-dimensional concepts: extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions. For example job security, attitudes of co-works, personal growth and benefits (pay and pension). Rose (2001) call them as extrinsic sources of job satisfaction and the behavior of management, person’s own ability to take the initiative to improve relations with students and supervisors are considered to be intrinsic sources of job satisfaction (Hackman and Ockham, 1980; Rose, 2001).

Many researchers have talked about job satisfaction; however, most of them almost similar opinion and interpretation of job satisfaction. Spector (1956) summarizes job

satisfaction as “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs”. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) emphasized job satisfaction as feeling that an individual has about his/her work.

Newstrom (1986) defined job satisfaction, as “it is a set of favorable or unfavorable feelings with which employees view their work. Job satisfaction has been defined as the extent to which a staff member has favorable or positive feelings about work or their work environment (De Noble, 2003). It refers to the positive attitudes or emotional dispositions people may gain from work or through aspects of work (Furnham, 1997). Hugh (1983) also shares similar opinion by stating “the amount of overall positive affect (of feeling) that individuals have towards their jobs”. Thus, all aforementioned elements and dimension related job satisfaction are equally important and these can be called as ‘composite measures of overall job satisfaction’. Therefore, if what Rose, 2001 prefers to call ‘composite measures’ are not taken appropriately then a possible negative repercussion can be different types of pressure to the teachers.

The word ‘stress’ is derived from the Latin word “stringers” which refers to tight, hardship arising out of difficult situations (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997). According to the Ugoji & Isele (2009) stress can find mostly when an individual do not match his/her emotional and physical condition with the demands of any given job or unable to the cope with constraints or opportunities. Fevre et al. (2003) have also distinguished two types of stress. Eustress (good stress) or distress (bad stress). According to Fevre et al (2003) eustress related to such situations in which an individual experienced moderate and reduced stress levels, whereas distress is related to high stress level. The impacts of both are slightly different in the sense that in the case of former (eustress) individual still can cope with job

demands, however, in the case of later (distress) it is extremely difficult for individual to the coup with job demands and it may negatively affect their quality of work (Fevre et al, 2003). Coleman (1976) argues that is age of anxiety and stress. Therefore, job satisfaction and job stress have a strong relationship. Numerous studies indicate that job stress negatively affect job satisfaction of employees (Stamps & Piedmonts, 1986, Coleman 1976). Many other researcher and practitioners attempted to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and stress and also factors that stimulate different type of stress. For example, Cooper, et al, (1989) argues that practitioners in England found types of stressors that were related to job dissatisfaction. Another study reveals that organization factors that include work load and working conditions are valid reasons related with job satisfaction. Therefore, job satisfaction and job stress are interrelated as high level of work stress is associated with low level of job satisfaction (Fletcher & Payne, 1980, Vinokur-Kaplan, 1991, Landsbergis, 1988). In the preceding discussion, job satisfaction and job stress have been discussed. In subsequent discussion, further discussion will be made about other concept of stress, which is occupational stress. There are occupations in which level of dissatisfaction is higher and they are reported worse than other factors such as job satisfaction, physical and physiological health, which results in leaving a job from the organization (Sheena, et al 2005, Cummins 1990). In this regard, occupational stress is related with job stress or work stress. On job stress Beehr (1995) argues that “a situation in which some characteristics of the work situation are thought to cause poor psychological or physical health or to cause risk factors making poor health more likely”. However, occupation stress can vary from person to person, as it is not necessary that all people react to events such as frustration, worry, anxiety and depression attributes in the same manners (Kyriacou, 2001; Manthei and Gilmore 1996).

Many studies revealed that teaching can be very stressful occupation and this has been increased in the recent past among the teachers (Kyriacou, 2001, Manthei & Gilmore, 1996, Munt, 2004).

This is found in various studies conducted by various researchers based on sampling techniques on conflicting job roles, inadequate work environment, lack of support from the management, poor relations with coworkers and students, school environment and culture, parental expectations and negative community attitudes etc. (Dinham, 1993; Manthei & Gilmore, 1996; McCormick, 1997b; O'Connor & Clarke, 1990; Thomas, Clarke & Lavery, 2003). The aforementioned variables or factors are identified by researchers and interrelated relationship is found important to academicians. For example, if one factor or variable maintain a clear connection with other, it could be possible to allow sufficient positive action and involvement on one variable to improve other (Koslowsky, et al, 1995). It is found that relationship between job stress and occupational stress is negative. Another study indicates that occupational stress was highest among the most dissatisfied teachers and lowest among the satisfied (Otto, 1986).

Therefore, higher job satisfaction is related to lower occupational stress and vice versa (Borg et al, 1991; Burke & Greenglass, 1994; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Day, Bedeian & Conte, 1998; Laughlin, 1984; McCormick, 1997b). Many studies show different reasons associated with job satisfaction. Some believe that job dissatisfaction arising out of external forces, not from personal issues (McCormick, 1997b). Other argues that satisfaction or dissatisfaction is more linked with lack or acknowledgement and reward by the school management (Smith and Brouke, 1992). Forgoing discussion was based on various research conducted by academicians and practitioners in different countries of the world. It is proved

teaching job is extremely demanding and challenging and various types of stress are associated with this profession play a significant role in shaping and reshaping teaching ability to deliver to the children. Therefore, it demands a healthy teaching environment, moral and Physiological support from the administration, good salaries and benefits so that can contribute in a concrete manner to build the generation.

For this study, it can reasonably be hypothesized in the light of these findings that occupational stress will be negatively related to job satisfaction. Given these findings, it is apparent that there is more work is required in this area. A wide variety of stress and satisfaction variables has been referred to the literature. But there is a lack of this type of research in the context of public high schools teachers in Pakistan. In this study, researcher would like to examine relation between job satisfaction and job stress among high schools teachers in Pakistan.

Methodology

Study was descriptive in nature. The data for this study were collected by personal visit of researcher from teachers of sampled government high schools. The population for this study comprised of 296 government high schools (125 female and 171 male high schools). Due to limited time and the financial constraints only three hundred high school teachers were randomly selected. Two instruments were used to collect the data, for measuring the job satisfaction and stress in work place, the Occupational Stress Inventory – Revised (OSI-R) developed by (Osipow, 1998) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire to measure job satisfaction of teachers. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyze the data in this study. Such as mean, standard deviation, and Pearson correlation were used.

Findings

Table 1: Correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and occupational role stress

Variables	Mean	S.D	N	P	Sig (2-tailed)
Job satisfaction	262.90	44.803	300		
				-.198**	.001
Occupational role stress	188.16	16.989	300		

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

Table 2: Correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and personal strain

Variables	Mean	S.D	N	P	Sig (2-tailed)
Job satisfaction	262.90	44.803	300		
				-.178**	.002
Personal strain	95.25	13.505	300		

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

Table 3: Correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and occupational stress

Variables	Mean	S.D	N	P	Sig (2-tailed)
Job satisfaction	262.90	44.803	300		
				-.189**	.002
Occupational stress	408.38	34.953	300		

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

Discussion

An effort was represented in this study to examine the relationships between job satisfaction and occupational stress of high schools' teachers. (Table No 1) shows that correlation value (-.198^{**}) is highly significant at .01 level of significance, so the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and occupational role stress is rejected and it is concluded that there is a significant negative relationship found between teachers' job satisfaction and occupational role stress. This study congruent with study of Manthei & Gilmore (1996) that higher job satisfaction is related to lower occupational stress. Summers, DeCotiis, & DeNisi (1995) study also found negative relationship between occupational role stress and job satisfaction. (Table No 2) shows that correlation value (-.178^{**}) is highly significant at .01 level of significance, so the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and personal strain is rejected and it is concluded that there is a significant negative relationship found between teachers' job satisfaction and personal strain. (Table No 3) shows that correlation value (-.189^{**}) is highly significant at .01 level of significance, so the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and occupational stress is rejected and it is concluded that there is a significant negative relationship found between teachers' job satisfaction and occupational stress. Previous studies have also found negative relationship between occupational role stress and job satisfaction (Borg et al, 1991; Summers et al, 1995).

Conclusion and Recommendations

Finding of the study showed that there are a few key points that can be used to conclude this research paper. Future generation's education may be affected by unhealthy job stress among the teachers which will eventually affect their intellectual health and social skills.

This study is not without its limitations like to other empirical studies, as only high school teachers in Rawalpindi may not represent all high schools in Pakistan. More disseminated results and findings would be created by involvement of more high schools. High school teachers in Rawalpindi, Pakistan were sample of this study may limit the generalization of the results. The data analysis, results and findings may differ significantly when the sample size is increased or decreased and study can be strengthened by increasing the sample size. Several organizational type, pay etc and personal characteristics like age, education etc. should be further explored. This study further suggests that the capability of teachers to cope with occupational stress may be enhanced by properly managing physiological and psychological stresses in job and this may lead to enhance level of positive moral values, job satisfaction, behavioral and attitudinal outcomes like commitment, performance among high school teachers.

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