

**Biannual**

ISSN 1813-9892

# JOURNAL OF GENDER & SOCIAL ISSUES

Autumn 2015, Volume. 14, Number 2



*Fatima Jinnah Women University*  
The Mall, Rawalpindi-Pakistan

### **Editor-in-Chief**

**Prof. Dr. Samina Amin Qadir**  
Fatima Jinnah Women University,  
Rawalpindi

### **Editorial Committee**

**Prof. Dr. Naheed Zia Khan**  
Fatima Jinnah Women University,  
Rawalpindi

**Dr. Rukhsana Hasan**  
Fatima Jinnah Women University,  
Rawalpindi

### **Editorial Advisory Board**

**Prof. Dr. Michael M. Horowitz**  
Binghamton University, Binghamton NY, USA

**Prof. Dr. Maya K. David**  
University of Malaya,  
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

**Prof. Dr. Tamara Sonn**  
College of William and Mary, Virginia  
Williamsburg, Virginia, USA

**Prof. Shaheen Sardar Ali**  
University of Warwick, UK

**Prof. Mona Siddique**  
Glasgow University, Glasgow, Scotland

**Dr. Collette Morrow**  
Associate Professor of English,  
Purdue University, Calumet USA

**Dr. Douglas Brooks**  
Texas A&M University, Austin, USA

**Dr. Evanthia Lyons**  
University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey  
United Kingdom

**Dr. Kamran Asdar Ali**  
University of Texas, Austin, USA

**Dr. Heather Hindman**  
University of Texas, Austin, USA

### **Dr. Linda Pritchards**

Prof. of History & Member  
Dept. of Women's & Gender Studies  
Eastern Michigan University,  
Michigan, USA

**Dr. Elizabeth Jones Hemenway**  
Director Women Study & Gender Studies  
Loyola University, Chicago, USA

**Prof. Dr. Anis Ahmad**  
Riphah International University,  
Islamabad

**Prof. Dr. Shahid Siddiqui**  
Lahore School of Economics, Lahore

**Prof. Dr. Rukhsana Kausar**  
Punjab University, Lahore

**Dr. Zafar Ishaq Ansari**  
International Islamic University,  
Islamabad

**Dr. AI-Ghazali**  
International Islamic University,  
Islamabad

**Dr. Saiqa Imtiaz Asif**  
Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan

**Dr. Zia ul Haq**  
Allama Iqbal Open University,  
Islamabad

**Dr. Riffat Haque**  
Allama Iqbal Open University,  
Islamabad

**Dr. Surriya Shari**  
GIFT University, Gujranwala

**Dr. Khalid Zaheer**  
LUMS, Lahore Cantt

### **Subscription Rates**

Students Rs. 200.00 per copy  
Others Rs. 250.00 per copy  
Annual Subscription (National)  
Individual Rs.300.00  
Institutional Rs.400.00

Annual Subscription (International)  
Individual US 0.00  
Institutional U ~ 0.00

Printed in March 2016

ISSN 1813-9892

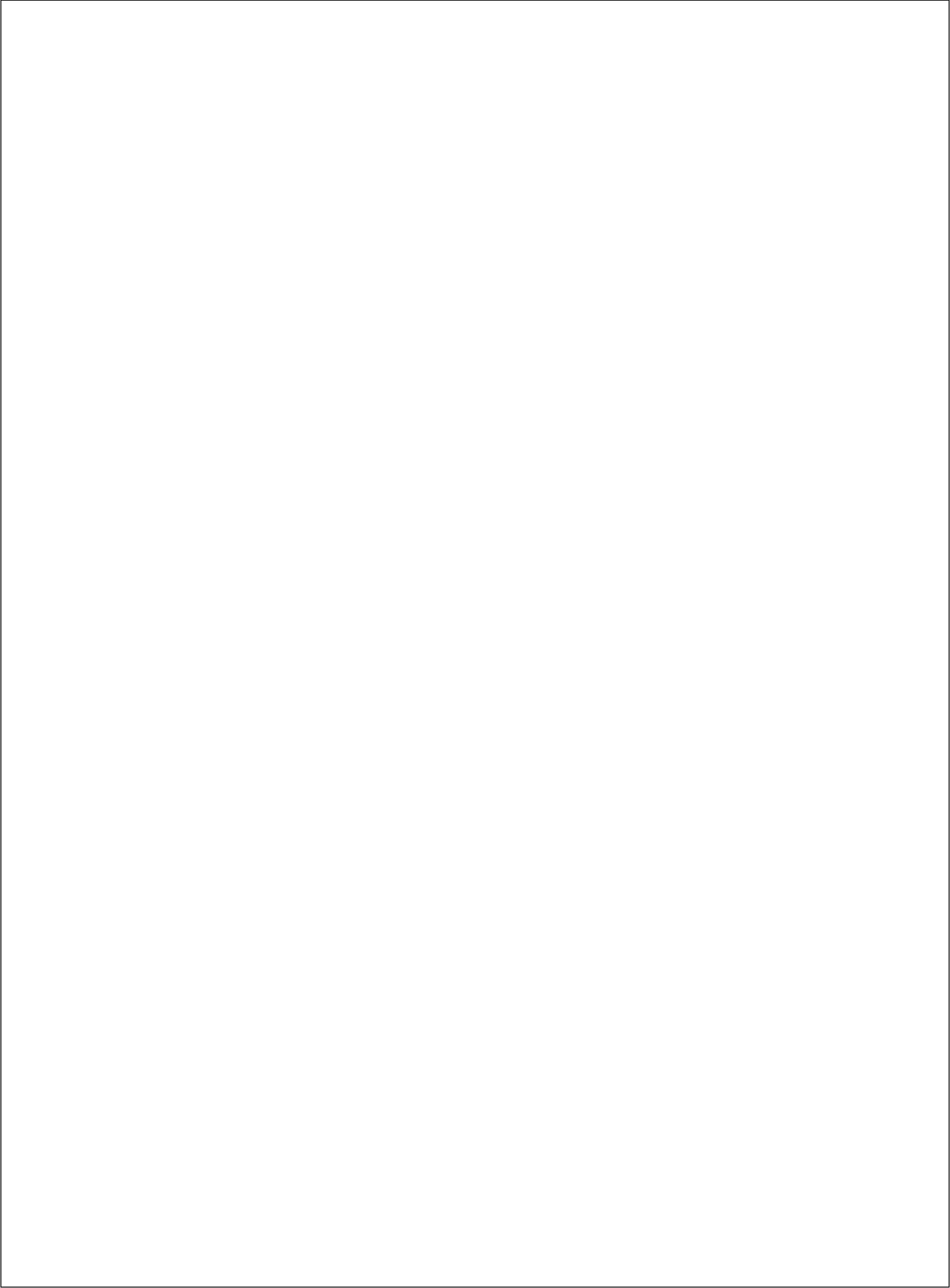
**Biannual**

**JOURNAL OF**

**GENDER &**

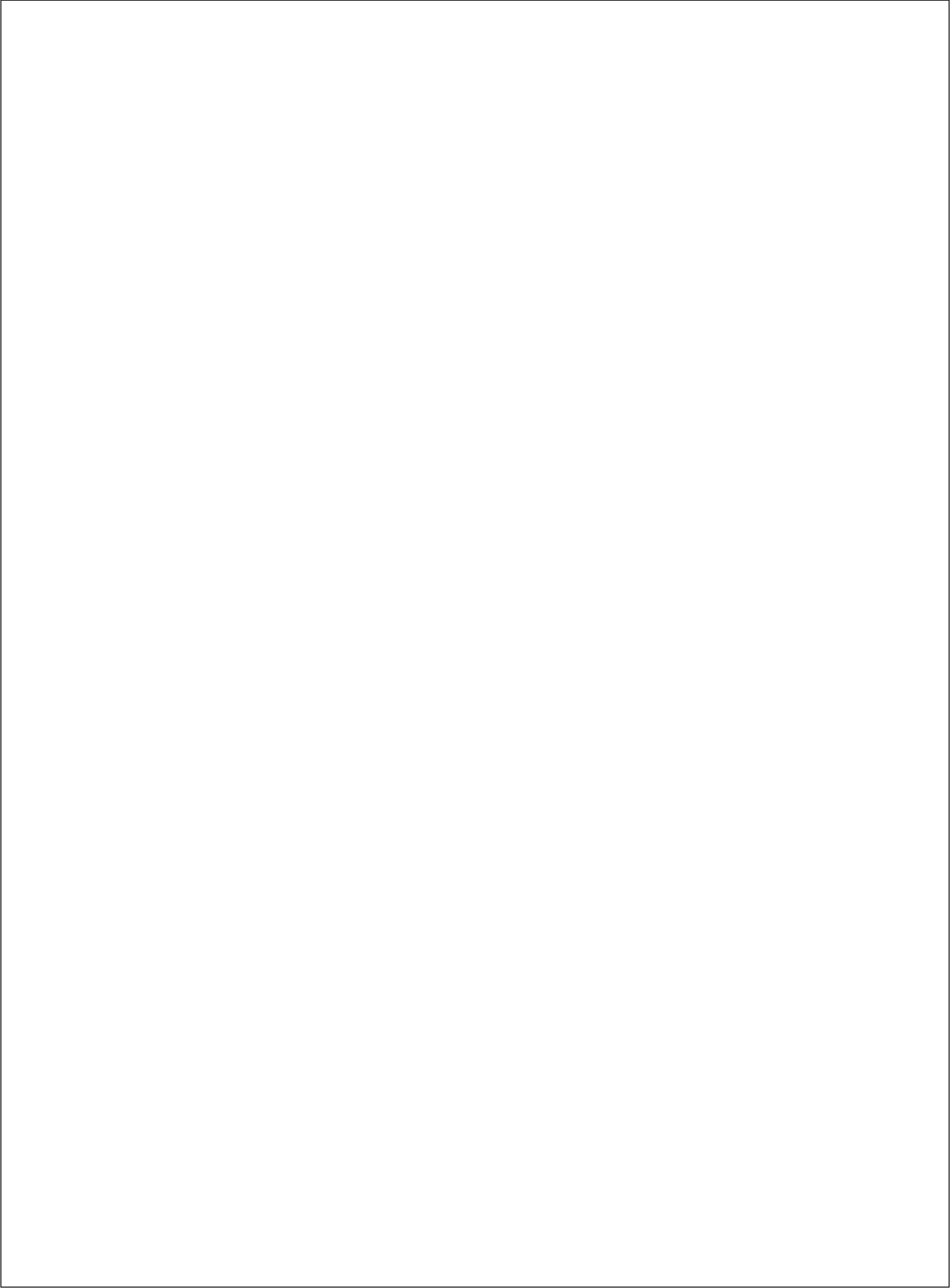
**SOCIAL ISSUES**

Autumn 2015, Volume. 14, Number 2



**Contents**

<b>S.</b>	<b>Title</b>	<b>Page</b>
1	Empowerment Higher Education Nexus: Women Celebrating Change in Hunza  Dr. Rabia Ali Zareena Ali	01
2	Impact Of Classroom Intervention On Secondary School Students' Argumentation Skills  Zaheer Abbas Muhammad Alamgeer Sadia Muzaffar Bhutta	19
3	Women Welfare In Pakistan: Analysis Of Mdg3&5 Through Locally Constructed Indices  Dr. Muhammad Iqbal Prof. Dr. Amir Zada Asad	29
4	Academic Failure At Grade Four: A Quantitative Approach To The Self-concept Of Students  Dr. Bushra Iqbal Chohan Prof. Dr. Rehana Masrur Khan	53
5	A Gender-based Acoustic Analysis Of English Lexical Stress By Khowar Speakers  Dr. Arshad Mahmood Dr. Muhammad Iqbal Butt Dr. Muhammad Uzair	69
6	Perception Of Eunuchs Towards The Entitlement Of Their Legal Protection By Supreme Court Of Pakistan  Dr. Rukhsana Hassan Ms. Maryam Ijaz	85



## **Empowerment Higher Education Nexus: Women Celebrating Change in Hunza.**

### ***Abstract***

*This study was conducted with the aim to explore the factors that motivate young women in Hunza to seek education at tertiary level in various universities across the country. The purpose was also to examine the resources that facilitate women's access to higher education. Qualitative research design was used to investigate the phenomenon. In-depth interviews were taken from ten women who were selected by using purposive sampling method. The women respondents originally belonged to Hunza but they worked in various organizations in different capacities in Gilgit-Baltistan and Islamabad. The study illustrates that the greatest motivation for the women to acquire higher education was the desire for emancipation. The women wanted to reduce dependence on men and they believed education was the only route to achieve this desire. The findings also highlight that the greatest support for women's education came from their parents. Even where the financial status of parents was not sound it didn't act as a barrier. This indicates the fact that higher education of women has become a norm in Hunza. The informants were optimistic about the future status of women in their area. The majority of the women acted as agents of change and some of them were in key leadership positions. The study delineates that women's access to tertiary education is worth celebrating but what also needs to be celebrated is the change in the existing power structure.*

**Keywords:** *Empowerment, higher education, Hunza, personal change*

### **INTRODUCTION**

Education is universally accepted as one of the powerful sources for change in the contemporary world. Discourses about the importance of education have associated it

---

#### **Dr. Rabia Ali**

Department of Sociology,  
International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan.

#### **Zareena Ali**

Department of Sociology,  
International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan.

with career success with personality development and character building (Ahmed, 2000; Rihani, 2006; Scully, 2006). Education is considered as one of the key factors in overcoming the barriers that women face in different contexts. It is believed to be the basic tool to bring women into the mainstream development and to empower them. When it comes to the discussion of women and education there are two different standpoints on the significance of education for women (Ali & Ali, 2015). These are the orthodox development perspective and the feminist perspective.

The orthodox development standpoint on the significance of education focuses on how to prepare women to fit in the capitalist market (Ali & Ali, 2015). Education is believed to enable women to perform their traditional duties in a better way (King & Hill, 1997). It is argued that educated women play a key role in raising their children in hygienic conditions. Education enables girls to actively participate in household decisions as well as political and economic decisions (UNESCO 2005). Educational participation of girls tends to improve infant and maternal mortality rates, fertility rates and health status, nutrition, literacy and economic growth (Hussain et al., 2003). Hence from the perspective of development education is instrumental since it benefits the society by reducing poverty and reinforcing economic growth (Wagner et al., 2008). From the feminist perspective education is important for the personal growth and empowerment of women (Ali, 2013; Kabeer, 2005). Feminist scholars have great faith that education not only provides knowledge and skills to improve health and livelihoods, but it empowers women to take their right place in society and the development process. Education gives status and confidence in decision making. Empowerment here is seen as women's ability to choose independently where they were denied such choices previously (Ali, 2014; Kabeer, 1999).

Academic research indicates that there is a direct relationship between literacy, power and empowerment (Unterhalter & Walker, 2007). By increasing their political and democratic participation and reducing domestic violence education offers empowerment for women (Subrahmanian, 2007). Educated women become more aware of legal rights and they are politically more active. This is especially so for highly educated women. Access to higher education enables women to participate in civic activities and in the process of democratic change by equipping students with critical thinking (Wagner et al., 2008). Higher education of women is also believed to increase women's aspirations and prospect regarding economic, civil, and political participation (Rezai-Rashti & Moghadam, 2011).

Participation of women in higher education around the world has been increasing day by day from 13 million in 1960 to 82 million in 1995 (UNESCO, 2005). In the context of Pakistan, despite the fact that the proportion of female is about 49% of the total population (Government of Pakistan, 2008) the literacy rates for females at all

levels is low. Importance of higher education for females in Pakistan is not well recognized due to lack of awareness about its prospective outcomes and a host of other factors which need to be promoted at all levels (Ahmed, 2005). In contrast to the bleak situation in the country in Hunza situated in Gilgit-Baltistan, literacy rates are reported to be as high as 75%, being the highest in the country (Hussain, 2013). Three quarters of people including the entire youth of both genders are believed to be able to read and write. It is reported that every child in Hunza attends school at least up to higher secondary level (Ghosh, 2014). Parents take special initiatives to offer quality education especially to their female children (Siddiqui, 2009).

The high literacy rates in Hunza can be attributed to a number of factors. Among these the most significant are the efforts of Aga Khan III Sir Sultan Muhammad Shah and the present Aga Khan who have contributed to educational development of the area by providing access to female through a network of the Aga Khan Education Services (Siddiqui, 2009). More recently, private educational institutions are also playing an important role in increasing or upgrading literacy rates. The establishment of the Karakoram University in Gilgit has also provided a space especially for higher education of women locally. Students who were previously unable to pursue their higher education due to financial constraints and other issues can now easily acquire education at their doorstep. This has decreased the cost of higher education and is a relief for those parents who were unable to send their daughters to cities for higher education due to financial constraints. This study was conducted to explore the factors that motivate young women in Hunza to seek higher education at tertiary level. The aim was also to investigate the resources including the socio-cultural factors that facilitate or impede the higher education of women in the context of Hunza. The following research questions were addressed.

- What motivates young women in Hunza to seek education at tertiary level?
- What are the resources that facilitate the higher education of women?

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Previous research identifies several interrelated social, economic and religious factors that have direct or indirect influence on women's education. These include type of family, the education and occupation of parent, religious beliefs, geographical location of schools, and exposure to mass media among others (Hertz & Sperling, 2004; Materu, 2007). Some of these factors will be discussed here. It is important to discuss these factors at the onset since women's education and ultimately their empowerment is deeply interweaved and interrelated with the socio-cultural spaces where they live. Gender composition is one of the factors that have been widely discussed in previous literature in relation to access to women's education (Dancer &

Rammohan, 2004). It is believed that in patriarchal societies gender composition affects educational outcomes of children and hence the education of male children is given priority over female children (Burney & Irfan, 1991; Yu & Su, 2005).

Research in Pakistan has found that age and sex compositions of household matter in the provision of education to young girls and boys (Ahmed, Ali & Khan, 2005). In the context of Turkey it has been argued that gender discrimination at household level effects educational investment in children (Smits & Hosgor, 2006). Besides gender composition, the socio-economic status of parents is of vital importance for providing access to girls' schooling (Burney & Irfan, 1991). Likewise, research shows that occupation of individuals also effects access to education (Hamid, 1993; King & Bellew, 1990). In particular studies in East Asia have found that mothers' occupation has positive effect on the daughter's education (Yu & Su, 2005). In contrast studies in Pakistan have reported that mothers' education may as well be a barrier towards girl's education (Ahmed et al., 2005). This is because it is argued that mother's employment increases the chances of their daughters' staying at home to look after the younger siblings and to do household chores (Tansel, 1997). Nevertheless, there is evidence that unemployed mothers are more likely to support the education of their daughters (King & Bellew, 1990).

Parents' educational attainment has also emerged as a powerful predictor of their children's educational levels in many studies (e.g. Ahmed, 2005; Hindin, 2005). It is believed that the attitude of educated parents towards the education of their children is positive as compared with illiterate parents (Smits & Hosgor, 2006; Maralani, 2004). It has also been found that parents' education, especially the mothers' education has a strong effect on school attendance of girls (Aakvik et al., 2005; Beblo & Lauer, 2004; Jayachandran, 2002; Keng, 2004; Maitra, 2003). It is argued that the children of educated mothers tend to perform well in the academia and in the labor market (Lauer, 2003). Dilli (2006) points out that mothers' education level is an important determiner of children's educational attainment and opportunities. When mothers are educated children, especially girls, have higher level of educational enrolment and attainment (Moghadam & Roudi-Fahimi, 2005). The education of parents has been found to be positively related to educational attainment levels of children in Pakistan as well (Sawada & Lokshin, 2001).

Likewise, the adverse effect of traditional thinking on access to female education at all levels has been illustrated in empirical research. It has been found that the values of family head, traditional beliefs of the family and their attitude towards female education play a significant role in ensuring access to female education (Ahmed, 2005; Buchmann & Hannum, 2001). In addition to the factors discussed above other factors which influence the access to female education include the literacy level of the

community (Burney & Irfan, 1991) and the distance of educational institutions (Sawada & Lokshin, 2001; World Bank, 2005). In addition, income of family also affects access to girl's education. This is believed to be more influential at primary level of education not at university level as such (Aakvik et al., 2005; Dancer & Rammohan, 2006). Importantly, women's reproductive roles and expectations from the society also impede women's access to education (Subrahmanian, 2005) especially in patriarchal societies where women's lives are controlled by men. Hence, the power structure of the society and traditional gender norms play a key role in determining if women gain access to education institutions (Smits & Hosgor, 2006). The above discussion clearly indicates that there are several factors that play important role in providing access to females' education. While the literature gives an overview of the enabling and disabling factors for women's education yet a clear gap exists in terms of presenting the voices of women. What motivates women to go for higher education and how this process of being educated is facilitated? To address this gap the present study aims to explore factors which contribute in providing access towards higher education of girls in Hunza.

## **METHODOLOGY**

This research was conducted by using qualitative research design in order to be able to gain an in-depth insight about the respondent's lives and their experiences of higher education (Creswell, 2003). The target population for this study was highly educated women from Hunza and Gilgit-Baltistan. Ten women belonging to Hunza were selected by using purposive sampling method (Patton, 2002). Purposive sampling is time and cost effective. Snow ball technique was supportive to find more respondents belonging to Hunza valley (Seawright & Gerring, 2008).

The decision to select a small number of respondents was to be able to focus on their experiences from emic perspective. The women were based in Hunza, in central Gilgit and in Islamabad. The respondents were from different backgrounds. All the women had completed their tertiary education from different universities across Pakistan. Three women had the opportunity to study from abroad. Data was collected through in-depth interviews with the women. The interviews were taken either in the respondents' offices or at their homes. Each interview lasted for 40 to 60 minutes. The interviews were recorded with the consent of the respondents and were transcribed and translated later on. The respondents were contacted before each interview. The interview was arranged in a place and on time suitable to the respondents. The respondents were assured that the data will be used for the purpose of research only. Since some of the women were not approachable they were interviewed over the phone. After the data was transcribed it was then coded rigorously. The codes were read repeatedly and categorized into different themes. The

transcribed data was shared with the respondents for cross checking the information. All possible measures have been taken in order to maintain confidentiality of the respondents. Pseudonyms have been used throughout the paper to respect the privacy of the respondents.

## **Findings and Discussion**

In the light of the research questions posed at the beginning of this paper the data has been divided into two main themes including the motivation of women for higher education and resources available to women for gaining access to higher education. These will be discussed in length in the following part of the paper followed by a discussion on the achievements related with women's access to higher education that needs to be celebrated.

### **Motivation for Education**

Academic research shows that providing access to girl's education is a huge problem in patriarchal societies (e.g. Jejeebhoy, 2002). Young girls are believed to be helping hands at home and they are not sent to schools. Likewise young women encounter constraints in gaining access to university education. However, the findings from this study show that the residents of Hunza seemed to be very progressive about education of women. The data illustrates that women aspired to go for higher education and parents too were eager to support the higher education of their daughters. This was evident from the narratives of almost all the respondents who stated that it was quite normal for girls to go for higher studies in contemporary Hunza.

The respondents of this study presented multiple meanings of education. Nevertheless, the responses of majority of the women clearly illustrate that the major motivation for acquiring higher education was the desire for personal growth and empowerment. The respondents were very positive that it was only through higher education that women could change their circumstances in a positive way. Some of the respondents were of the view that through education individual's mental thoughtfulness are enhanced and matured. Relating education to personal growth one of the respondents stated; "education enlightens individuals." The women respondents of this study associated education with positive changes in their lives. The majority of them were of the view that access to higher education had totally changed their thinking and their attitude towards life. For example Mehnaz stated,

I now think positively in every situation and I am capable to analyze things more deeply. Education has given me confidence and I am able to find solutions to problems...I feel proud of myself as an educated person.

The quote indicates that for Mehnaz education was associated with in-depth analysis of issues and the ability to solve problems independently and importantly she associated education with enhanced level of confidence. These are all attributes leading to agency. This is evident from the fact that increased confidence and the ability to make their own decisions had inculcated feelings of worth among the individuals. Maturity, confidence and critical thinking were also evident from the narratives of Sanam who reported, *“I can say this with confidence that my personality has totally changed after my university education. I am mature and I can understand things and I am able to think critically and analytically”*. The majority of the women respondents relating higher education with personal change acknowledged that their entire perspective about the world had changed. They had not only begun to think critically as stated above but they had begun to be reflexive. They reported to analyze things from a different lens. Nosheen stated; *“I can see; now I have entirely different approach towards things. I look at them through different angles. Besides, after getting higher education my love for serving my community has aroused more”*.

The above excerpts clearly demonstrate that education was deeply associated with personal change for the women and it is personal change that basically leads to empowerment too. The respondents' narratives clearly indicate that they felt empowered and they exhibited empowerment. Importantly they related personal empowerment with the empowerment of the community. This indicates that empowerment for these women were not entirely personal it was always entangled with the need to be able to fulfill familial and communal responsibilities. While associating higher education with empowerment, Taiba explained; *“Higher education is a weapon for a women to empower herself in male dominated society because without education a woman is always marginalized.”*

The above excerpt clearly indicates that the women were positive that education was the only source of escape from patriarchal society. The use of the word weapon here is very strong and shows the importance of education for these women. The women had great faith that access to higher education was the only way to reduce male dependence and to have an independent life and to reduce dependence on others. The respondents clearly believed that education not only rescued them from the patriarchal set up and had reduced their dependence on them but it had given them control over what they desired to do. The following quote by Sonya explains this well.

I think when a woman is educated; she is more aware of things and is in control of her life. Besides, when an educated woman starts earning, she is valued more in the family as

well as in the society at large because of the economic value. She also has say in the decision making.

This excerpt indicates that access to higher education was not only linked with empowerment but with respect as well. This respect was believed to be largely related with economic benefit to the family. Women are valued and respected and they are included in decision making because they are contributing to the family income.

The respondents also explained that higher education is important for strengthening the role of women in the household. They were of the view that education is important to benefit the new generation. Taiba for example stated that when a mother is well educated she can bring up her children well and can give them good moral values. Similarly, Sanam explained that since children spend most of their time with their mothers so mothers can play an important role in raising children well. This also illustrates that the women related education not only with personal growth and empowerment but empowerment of the family as well. Higher education of women was also associated with the status of women in the society. The majority of the respondent acknowledged that the status of women in Hunza was much better as compared to women in other rural areas. Sonya narrates this in the following words, *“Although there are several good reasons for women to get education but at the top of all it gives women equal status in the society especially in a patriarchal one”*.

Education was also interlinked with career growth and leadership potentials. A number of women respondents viewed education as a way to construct leadership qualities among individuals. Some of the women were already on job when they had decided to go for higher education and for these women education had proved to be an instrument to be able to experience career growth. Others reported that after they had finished higher studies and gained employment they still had the desire to learn more and to have more in life, to be able to make it to the top, to be able to compete with men, to have better and equal status in the society. Three of the women respondents in this study were in key leadership positions and they were of the view that the purpose of education is not only to gain access to employment but education prepares women to gain equal rights in every sphere of life.

They explained that education should be able to prepare women to become aware of their rights, their role in the family, and their status in the society. These and other women had strong hopes that educated women should be able to change the society. For example, Sanam stated “educated women can motivate and mold any rigid society.” This indicates that education leads to personal empowerment but it also leads to the empowerment of the community. The above narratives of the women clearly demonstrate that education was always linked with personal change,

confidence, and empowerment. So it was the desire for empowerment which motivated the women for going for university education.

### **Resources for Education**

Earlier in the paper it was discussed that occupation of parents is an important predictor of access to higher education. Academic literature shows that parents who were relatively well off tend to send their daughters for higher education (e.g. Ahmed, 2005; Hindin 2005). The data from this study highlights that the people of Hunza were not necessarily landlords or earning very high income. The majority of the women who participated in this study belonged to middle class or lower middle class families. However, they had managed to attend universities at national and international levels.

Hence, support from parents for the education of women was clearly evident from the narratives of almost all the women respondents. Some of them were lucky to have educated parents who motivated them for go for higher education and getting enrolled in the subjects of their choice. For example one of the respondents Asma stated,

Born into an educated family was a kind of motivating factor for me to go for higher studies. The most inspirational figure in my life is my father of course who has always been behind me to encourage me through his own achievements and via his moral support.

Likewise, Asma Mehnaz too acknowledged the support of her father as the person behind her access to higher education and her success in life. She stated; “I always idealize my father. His knowledge and other qualities are the sources that inspired me to get higher education.” Similarly Nosheen explained the support from her family in the following way.

My family has always been an excellent support for me..... my mother has always been a great inspiration for me; she has supported our entire family at the time when my father did not have a job. She has supported me through every thick and thin.

The above statements show that the support of parents is vital to facilitate women’s participation in higher education. The findings indicate that the support for women’s education not only came from educated families but parents who were illiterate too emphasized on the importance of education for their daughters. Importantly the above

excerpts give an important message that the support for women's education came from both men and women. For Mehnaz and Asma the support had been offered from their fathers but for Nosheen it was the mother who had not only supported the family at the time when her husband was jobless but had facilitated the education of Nosheen as well. This also indicates that motivated women tend to provide support for their daughter's education no matter what the financial circumstances may be. Similar kind of support was evident from the narratives of other women. For women whose parents could not support their higher studies financially scholarship was an option. The majority of the respondents reported that women of Hunza were conscious about scholarship opportunities and they strived hard to acquire such opportunities where available. Some of the respondents reported to have availed scholarships at national and international levels. However the women respondents acknowledged that few people got the opportunity to get scholarship and the process of looking for and applying for scholarships was not an easy task. Women had to struggle persistently.

Almost all the respondents were of the view that the people of Hunza were aware of the significance of education. Gulistan expressed this in the following words;

People of Hunza are aware of the importance of education. They send their daughters to cities for higher education. Where finance becomes a problem people tend to seek loan from banks. Therefore the literacy rate of Hunza is high as compared to other regions of Gilgit-Baltistan.

Hence, the women respondents were of the view that the people of Hunza were very supportive about women's right for education. They believed that in modern Hunza people were conscious about the education of their daughters and gave great emphasis to university education. The respondents were of the view that there were many factors which resulted in this change in the attitude of people towards women's education which was not so years back. Nosheen explained this in the following words.

Perception of people of Hunza towards higher education has changed a lot due to the emerging organizations and institutions in the region. These have influenced people's minds so much that their perception about women's education has changed a lot.

This excerpt clearly shows that national and international organizations have played an important role in changing the attitude and perception of people towards women's education in the area.

## Celebrating Achievements

The paper so far illustrated that women have gained access to higher education for the sake of personal empowerment and change and support from families has been a major catalyst for allowing access to higher education. Here, it is important to think about the changes that education has afforded. What have women achieved as a result of access to education in Hunza? The findings highlight that higher education has allowed access to work. The private space for women has increased; women are equally contributing to the family income by their participation in paid work which is a new role they are performing. This indicates that the traditional society in Hunza is changing and women's higher education and work is being accepted as a norm in the area. Nevertheless, this change in gender roles has deep implications. Access to work means the women's responsibilities have also increased and they are performing double roles at home and at work. Hence access to education and work has not relieved women from traditional duties. They continue to perform such responsibilities. In addition, women reported to have faced problems in male dominating professions. Asma expressed this in the following way, *"I have seen a number of law graduates (women) who moved out of Gilgit-Baltistan just because the male dominant society failed to accommodate them"*.

This indicates that women's work remains gendered no matter how progressive societies may seem towards their education. Importantly, the data shows that not only are the gender roles changing in Hunza but expectations from the community about highly educated women too are changing in the local space. The women explained that the society expects that they should be able to give their services to the community; the families expect care and love and support financially as well. For example one of the woman informants Mehnaz stated that, "our society expects that we bring new trends and teach good things to the youth and try to eliminate evils in the society". Further the women were of the view that highly educated women upon return are expected to act as role models and to act as agents of change. The women respondents reported to response to such expectations in different ways. For example some of them reported to have organized different sessions, gatherings, awareness programs, seminars and so on. Asma expressed this in the following words.

Being the first female Judge in whole of GB, I think I have already contributed in developing a new hope and career guidance for the rest of the female's around. I try my best to be a useful part of the society by playing my role. For instance I often deliver voluntarily services, which I believe is my responsibility.

In addition to the societal and familial expectations women's personal expectations were also reported to have changed after university education. For example, Fozia stated, *"I think I have started to dream big and it was only possible because of my university education."* However, the increased expectations from themselves and the desire to meet the expectations of others seemed to have overburdened the women. Nevertheless, the respondents considered this positive. They acknowledged that it was a challenge yet they reported to be content to be a useful part of the society and to be able to serve their community. They considered themselves as active citizens and they took pride in this new status even at the expense of increased workload. This is an example of how the women actually felt empowered. For them empowerment was beyond being able to gain access to education and employment but it was being able exercise agency, having feelings of self-worth, realizing the role they were playing and taking pride in it.

The women respondents were very optimistic and they were ambitious and enthusiastic about their future career and about the future of women in their community. Some of the aspirations they had for future included the desire to set up personal firms and enterprises, to be environmentalists, to be social activists and to be academics. Yet some of the women wanted to be able to have a balanced life, to be good mothers and wives and to be successful women as well. Some of the responses of the women are given below. Asma stated; *"My goal is to establish a law firm from where people not only find counsels to fight their case but also to give legal help to women in my area regarding her legal rights"*.

In this quote the respondent shows her desire to be able to educate women about their rights and she has a clear vision of how this can be done and what role she can play during this process. Likewise, another respondent Nosheen desired to be a social activist so that she could focus on women's issues. She planned to make initiatives to include more and more women in education. This shows the concern of highly educated women for other employed women in the area. Women like Nosheen were eager to be able to play their role by providing support to address the issues of such women. So empowerment for them was to have personal change but also to be an agent of change.

Similarly, Sanam raised her concern towards an important issue that is violence against nature and how she can educate people to have empathy towards nature. She stated, *"I would like to be able to play my role to eradicate the violence against the nature."* Fouzia perceived herself as a successful academic and to be able to support women's education. She was ambitious to be able to get a PhD degree and teach at university. She desired to support the education of women and to act as change agent. Finally, Shehnaz pointed out the need to have a balanced life to be a successful

entrepreneur but at the same time to be a good wife and mother. The excerpt also points out her desire to be able to serve others.

I see myself as a successful woman having a good balance between my business and family life. I see myself to be accomplishing all the tasks that a house wife does and at the same time I would like to be successful in the corporate sector.

The narratives of Shehnaz in the last quote clearly show that access to higher education had not only empowered the woman personally but it had also inculcated a sense of responsibility in her; responsibility to rethink about her role as a woman in relation to the society. She seems to be clearly aware of her personal as well as communal responsibilities and had plans to address them in meaningful ways. All the excerpts given above clearly indicate the change that the women had experienced and the ways they looked at themselves and the ways they looked at the world. They were able to look ahead and they had a sense of responsibility for themselves and for other women in their society. They acknowledged having a sense of inclusion in the community and they were contributing towards the development process in their own unique ways in their capacity.

## **CONCLUSION**

Education is one of the most powerful sources for change and this is a fact accepted universally. This study highlighted that women's access to higher education is a result of their own personal efforts as well as the motivation and support of their parents. It was found that access to university education is playing a significant role in empowering women of Hunza. The women spoke of how education had given them a sense of worth in addition to feelings of independence and confidence. The fact that support for women's education came from men too illustrates that women's empowerment need the support of men and other women. As discussed in the literature in the beginning of the paper gender composition of the family was not necessarily related to women's access to higher education in Hunza. Occupation and education of parents were important but these did not necessarily act as barriers towards women's higher education. Illiterate parents too facilitated their daughters to acquire higher education. The fact that the women of Hunza acted as agents of change indicates a major change in community's perception of women's higher education and work. The power structures may not have changed yet the changes we do see in women's lives is something worth celebrating.

In order to facilitate women's empowerment it is recommended that measures should be taken by the state to provide support for the higher education of women. This can be materialized through need based scholarship programs for women. In addition, quotas can be formed for young women in leading universities across the country. These measures can encourage women to aspire for higher education thus increasing women's participation at tertiary level. Importantly, support is also needed from other stakeholders including civil society, teachers, and family. The findings from this paper have clearly illustrated that support from family is vital for the higher education of women and their empowerment.

## REFERENCES

- Aakvik, A., Salvanes, K. G., & Vaage, K. (2005). Educational attainment and family background. *German Economic Review*, 6(3), 377-394.
- Ahmed, S. (2005). Socio- economic determinants of female education in a Muslim family: An econometric analysis. Paper presented in Global GDN conference on education held on March 31 to April 2, 2005. Organized by Academy of Sciences, Czech Republic.
- Ahmed, M., Ali, K. S., & Khan, K. K. (2005). Bangladesh: Education Sector Mapping. *Institute of Education and Development, BRAC University*. Retrieved March, 26, 2008.
- Ali, R. & M. Ali. (2015). Education and Women's Empowerment in Northern Pakistan: Tracing Accomplishments and Predicaments. *Research on Gulistanities and Social Sciences* 5(5), 109 – 119.
- Ali, R. (2014). Empowerment Beyond Resistance. Cultural Ways of Negotiating Power Relations. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 45, 119 – 126.
- Beblo, M., & Lauer, C. (2004). Do family resources matter? Educational attainment during transition in Poland. *Economics of Transition*, 12(3), 537-558.
- Buchmann, C., & Hannum, E. (2001). Education and stratification in developing countries: A review of theories and research. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 77-102.
- Burney, N. A., & Irfan, M. (1991). Parental characteristics, supply of schools, and child school-enrolment in Pakistan. *The Pakistan Development Review*, 21-62.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method Approaches* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publication.
- Dancer, D. M., & Rammohan, A. (2004). Gender differences in schooling attainment: The role of sibling characteristics and birth order effects. Working Papers ECON2004-5, *Department of Economics*. University of Sydney, Australia.
- Dilli, C. (2006), Zorunlueğitimçağındabulunankızçocuklarınınokulagitmemenedenleri: Şırnakiliörneği. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Fırat University, Elazığ.
- Ghosh, P. (2014, 6 January). Hunza: A Paradise of High Literacy and Gender Equality In A Remote Corner of Pakistan Palash Gosh2014 International

Business Times. Retrieved 16 June, 2015, from <http://www.ibtimes.com/hunza-paradise-high-literacy-gender-equality-remote-corner-pakistan-1524688>

- Government of Pakistan (GOP). (2008). Economic Survey 2006-7. Economic Advisor Wing, Finance Division, Islamabad, Govt. of Pakistan.
- Hamid, S. (1993). A micro analysis of demand-side determinants of schooling in Urban Pakistan. *The Pakistan Development Review-part II*, 32(4), 713-723.
- Hertz, B. & Sperling, G. B. (2004). *What works in girl's education? Evidences and policies from the developing world*. New York: Council on Foreign Relations.
- Hindin, M. J. (2005). Family dynamics, gender differences and educational attainment in Filipino adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 28(3), 299-316.
- Hussain, J. (2013, 28 August). Hunza – An Oasis of Education Friday Times Retrieved from <http://blogs.thefridaytimes.com/hunza-an-oasis-of-education/>
- Hussain, S., M. Zakaria, Y. Hassan, Y. Mukhtar, & S. Ali. (2003). Parents' attitudes in education of their daughters: A case study of district Faisalabad-Pakistan. *International Journal of Agriculture and Biology* 5(3), 306-307.
- Jayachandran, U. (2002). Socio-economic determinants of school attendance in India. Working Paper (103). *Centre for Development Economics, Delhi School of Economics, India*.
- Jejeebhoy, Shireen J. (2002). Convergence and divergence in spouses' perspectives on women's autonomy in rural India. *Studies in Family Planning*, 33(4), 299–308.
- Kabeer, N. (2005). Gender equality and women's empowerment: A critical analysis of the third millennium development goal 1. *Gender & Development*, 13(1), 13-24.
- Kabeer, N. (1999). Resources, agency, achievements: Reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment. *Development and Change*, 30(3), 435-464.
- Keng, C. (2004). Household determinants of schooling progression among rural children in Cambodia. *International Education Journal*, 5(4), 552-561.

- King, E. M., & Hill, A. (1993). *Women's Education in Developing Countries: Barriers, Benefits and Policies*. Washington DC: World Bank.
- King, E. M., & Bellew, R. T. (1990). Gains in the Education of Peruvian Women, 1940 to 1980. *World Bank Publications*, 472(2), 1-49.
- Lauer, C. (2003). Family background, cohort and education: A French–German comparison based on a multivariate ordered probit model of educational attainment. *Labor Economics*, 10(2), 231-251.
- Maitra, P. (2003). Schooling and educational attainment: Evidence from Bangladesh. *Education Economics*, 11(2), 129-153.
- Maralani, V. (2004). Family size and educational attainment in Indonesia: A Cohort Perspective. *California Center for Population Research*. UCLA: California Center for Population Research. Retrieved 16 June, 2015, from: <http://escholarship.org/uc/item/7bw543nm>
- Moghadam, V. M., & Roudi-Fahimi, F. (2005). Empowering Women, Developing Society: Female Education in the Middle East and North Africa. *Population Reference Bureau, Washington, DC*.
- World Bank. (2005). Pakistan Country Gender Assessment: Bridging the Gender Gap. Opportunities and Challenges. Environment and Social Development Unit. South Asia Region.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Method* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Rihani, M. A. (2006). *Keeping the Promise: Five benefits of Girls Secondary Education*. Washington, DC: Academy for Education.
- Rezai-Rashti, G. M., & Moghadam, V. M. (2011). Women and higher education in Iran: What are the implications for employment and the “marriage market”? *International Review of Education*, 57(3-4), 419-441.
- Sawada, Y. & Lokshin, M. (2001). Household schooling decisions in Rural Pakistan. *Policy Working Research Paper 2541*. Poverty and Gulistann Resources Development Research group, World Bank.
- Scully, L. (2006). The Importance of Educating girls and women. Girls Education International. Retrieved from <http://girlseducationinternational.blogspot.com>.

- Siddiqui, S. (2009). Education in Hunza, Dawn Retrieved 16 June, 2016, from <http://www.dawn.com/news/844384/education-in-hunza>.
- Smits, J., & Hosgor, A. G. (2006). Effects of family background characteristics on educational participation in Turkey. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 26(5), 545-560.
- Subrahmanian, R. (2007). Gender in primary and secondary education: A handbook for policy- makers and other stakeholders. London: The Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Tansel, A. (1997). Schooling attainment, parental education, and gender in Cote d'Ivoire and Ghana. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 45(4), 825-856.
- Yu, W., & Su, K. H. (2005). Eldest brother is like father. *The influences of sibling structures in educational attainment in Taiwan*. Institute of Sociology, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Nankang, 11529, Taiwan.
- Unterhalter, E., & Walker, M. (Editors) (2007). *Amartya Sen's Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2005). Education for All- The quality Imperative. Paris.
- Wagner, N., Hassanein, K., & Head, M. (2008). Who is responsible for e-learning success in higher education? A stakeholders' analysis. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 11(3), 26-36.

## **Impact of Classroom Intervention on Secondary School Students' Argumentation Skills.**

### *Abstract*

*This research aimed to explore how female students of a secondary school of Pakistan can be engaged in Argumentation about a Socio-Scientific Issue. An intervention was designed and carried out using Tolmin Model of Argumentation. The intervention consisted of three consecutive lessons in a senior secondary class of a girls' government school in Karachi. Allocated time for each lesson was sixty minutes. There were 39 students in the class. A selected socio scientific issue was explicitly taught with the help of different teaching strategies based on Tolmin Model of Argumentation. The results of the study showed that there was a visible improvement in the scientific knowledge and argumentation skills of female students. This study presents significant insights into students' conceptual understanding and argumentations skills for policy and practice.*

**Key Words:** *conceptual understanding, argumentation skills*

### **INTRODUCTION**

One of the important outcomes of science education is to make students able to use their understanding of the science in making informed decisions about the socio-scientific issues which affect their lives (Driver, Newton, & Osborne, 2000). Further, the understanding of science also helps students to take part and contribute in public

---

#### **Zaheer Abbas**

Student Master of Education Cohort 2011

Aga Khan University, Institute for Educational Development, Karachi, Pakistan.

Email: abbaszaheer71@gmail.com

#### **Muhammad Alamgeer**

Student Master of Education Cohort 2011

Aga Khan University, Institute for Educational Development, Karachi, Pakistan.

Email: alamgeer.muhammad@gmail.com

#### **Sadia Muzaffar Bhutta**

Faculty Aga Khan University, Institute for Educational Development, Karachi, Pakistan.

Email: sadia.bhutta@aku.edu

Debates where science and its effects on society are discussed. For this purpose, schools should provide such environment where students can improve their skills and knowledge to cope with the socio scientific issues. Students also need to be able to find the alternative solutions, possible benefits and risks involved in those solutions and raise questions and evaluate the evidences so that informed decisions can be made (Dawson, & Venville, 2010). Similarly, they also need the skills which help them in oral discussions and argumentation about the socio scientific issues. It is a common observation that the transmission mode of teaching learning is being practiced in most of our schools that does not pave the way for the active construction of knowledge and argumentative skills of the students. For instance, Hussain (2012) finds in his research that the topics related to the concept of socio-scientific issues are taught most through lecturer methods which lead the transmission of factual knowledge about the issues. These methods do not help students to develop problem solving and argumentative skills need to understand the socio-scientific issues. An alternative approach for teaching socio-scientific concepts and development argumentative skills has been presented by Tolmin. The Tolmin Model of argumentation (2003) is an approach which helps to improve the evidence based decision making of students.

The philosophical underpinning of this approach lies in the assumption that science education encompasses the content knowledge, conceptual understanding of science and skills which are truly uphold through observation, experimentation, measurements as well as the social enterprise of science. Keeping this perspective in mind, it is strengthened that social enterprise should be based on the accepted discourse of contemporary knowledge and understanding of science education. Hence this accepted discourse, according to Sadler & Fowler (2006), should be explicitly taught within the science classrooms so that students may take part in social discourse of science and make logical arguments with profound knowledge and understanding of science. This notion leads enriching of science classrooms teaching with Tolmin Model of Argumentation.

This paper deals with the three days teaching practicum during which Tolmin Model of argumentation (2003) was used with the aim to enhance argumentation skills of students on a socio scientific issue “Deforestation”. The Tolmin Model of argumentation provides the guidelines and ways to introduce the argumentation framework in classrooms. The argumentation framework contains different parts which are actually designed as teaching activities for the concept of socio-scientific issues. These activities were used in the form of writing frames with an example of socio-scientific issue of “growth in the population”. The ‘growth in the population’ is relevant to the topic of “deforestation” as both the topics are socio-scientific issues and the argumentation is based on both the Tolmin Model and socio-scientific issues.

The important parts of Tolmin model of argumentation with description are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1**

Different parts of Tolmin’s Model of Argumentation along with description

S. No.	Parts of Argumentation Model	Descriptions
1	Claim	Claim was considered to be the students’ opted responses (“Yes” or “No”) to the given statement.
2	Data/Warrant	Data was considered as the additional information provided by the students to support their claims. Warrant explicitly links the claim provided by students to the data but it is difficult to differentiate between data and warrant and, therefore, these two parts were considered together in one level.
3	Backing	Students’ provided scientific information, about the assumptions which supported the data, was considered as backing.
4	Qualifier	Information provided by the students about the claim under which it is true was considered as qualifier.

### Structure of Intervention

The teaching practicum consisted of three consecutive lessons in a senior secondary class of a girls’ government school in Karachi. Allocated time for each lesson was sixty minutes. There were almost 60 students enrolled in the class but during the lessons maximum 39 students were present. As the medium of instruction in the school was Urdu, therefore, all the activities were planned in Urdu language. The socio-scientific issue selected for the intervention was “deforestation” while an example was also used during the teaching of argumentation that is “Growth in Population” to introduce argumentation in the class. The argumentation concept was introduced in the first class with already developed activities bases on the Tlmin model of argumentation. All the lessons were planned and delivered in a team teaching approach. The researchers were trained about the planning and developing the relevant material and teaching of argumentation with the help of socio-scientific issues before going into the classroom. Each lesson was led by one teacher while the other member was assigned the task of involving students in groups and assists them

in the group work. The roles were interchanged in each lesson. All these steps were the part of the planning of the teaching practicum.

### **Classroom Management and Teaching Strategies**

A combination of teaching and classroom management strategies used, in all the three lessons, were presentation of content through charts, group discussions, whole class discussions, individual and group work, written models of writing frames on argumentation, unfilled writing frame with trigger for students' work and a role play by the authors. In the first lesson, deforestation and its related concepts were shared through chart presentation and then students were involved in group work so that students can make their understanding about basic science of deforestation. Further, students had not read about deforestation as the concept has been introduced in the text of the last chapters, therefore it was necessary to teach the topic of deforestation before introducing argumentation.

Lewis (2003) emphasizes that students need to have enough content knowledge so that they can be successfully engaged in argumentation. In the first lesson, therefore, content about deforestation was focused and taught through different teaching strategies. In the second lesson, three parts of argumentation (claim, data and warrant) were introduced through two writing frames filled by the teachers as models for argumentation on a socio-scientific issue. After modeling, same unfilled writing frames were provided to students in groups to write claims, and support them with evidences and warrants. The purpose of the use of these writing frames was to scaffold students' thinking and argumentation. Similarly, in the last lesson, which was the main focus, students were first provided writing frames with a trigger on deforestation and a statement (deforestation should be banned in Pakistan) individually and then in groups to write their claims, data and warrants. A scenario was developed with a question by the two teachers as trigger for the scientific issue so that students can be engaged in argumentation (appendix B). During the instruction, students were encouraged to argue and provide evidences for their arguments on scientific basis.

### **ANALYTICAL SCHEME AND DATA ANALYSIS**

The data was collected during the intervention through field notes and students' work sheets used as writing frames. In order to analyze the data, the analytical scheme developed by Venville & Dawson (2009) was used. The scheme consisted of four levels (level 1-4) and each of the level has been differentiated on the basis of whether it contains specific parts of the argumentation model of Tolmin. For example, level 1 consisted of students' arguments containing a claim. Similarly, level 2 consisted of students' arguments containing a claim along with a data/warrant. It was difficult to

differentiate between data and warrant and, therefore, these two parts were considered together in one level. Likewise, arguments, consisted of a claim, data and backing or qualifier, were included in level 3. Lastly, level 4 consisted of a claim, data and backing and qualifier. The definitions of the parts of argumentation model are appended (appendix C).

In the first step of analysis, data was coded like “CL” for claim, “DT” for data, “WRT” for warrant, “BCK” for backing and “QLF” for qualifier. After coding, a level was allocated to each student’s work using the analytical scheme. Then, number of students in each level was calculated and the number was changed into percentage to compare the frequency of students in each level. Finally, as students’ work was in Urdu (national language of Pakistan), so after analyzing the data, quotes were translated into English without any changes so that these quotes can be used in the paper as examples.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The data was analyzed, first to find how many students have reached to a particular level by following the analytical scheme, and the complexity of students’ arguments was also explored. The results of the analysis are presented in the figure 1 and Table 1. Figure 1 shows the percentages of students whose argumentations were judged to be at different level. Result shows the difference in the portrayal of women in MJC and FJC in the allotment of semantic roles.

**Figure 1**

### Argumentation level frequencies

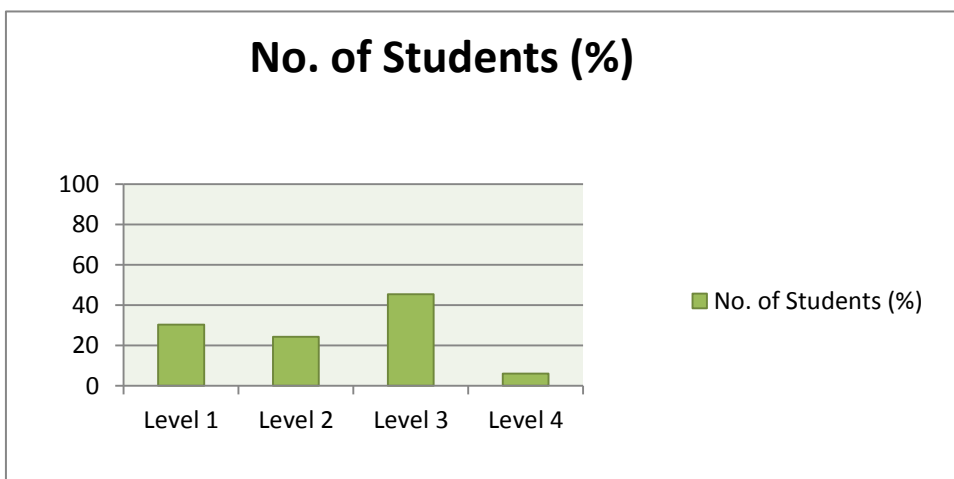


Figure 1 shows that 30% ( $n = 10$ ) of the total students ( $n = 33$ ) were judged to be at Level 1 as they provided only claims. Further, when the data of all these students were again analyzed to see how many of them are at Level 2, i.e. whether they have provided evidences (data/warrant) for their claims, it was found that almost 24% ( $n = 8$ ) of them were at Level 2. Similarly, 46% ( $n = 15$ ) of students were judged to be at Level 3 which means that they were able to provide backing or qualifier along with claims and evidences (data/warrant). Finally, 6% ( $n = 2$ ) of the total number of students was judged to be at Level 4 as they provided claims, evidences (data/warrant), backing and qualifier. Figure 1 also displays the frequencies of each argumentation level. For instance, from the figure it is evident that majority of students were judged to be at Level 3 followed by Level 1, Level 2 and Level 4. It means that students have showed comparatively better understanding the argumentation after three days intervention. Further, it also shows the complexities of students argumentation as majority of students has reached up to Level 3. It might be due to that students were explicitly taught argumentation and its components and then engaged them in whole class and group argumentation about the socio-scientific issue during the intervention. Likewise, the improvement in the argumentation of students may be the result of the use of writing frames adapted and designed by the teachers to support students' argumentation.

Chase (2011), in a study on the analysis of the argumentative writing skills of academically underprepared college students, has demonstrated that students engagement in writing argumentation tasks, combine with the demographic characteristics of the writer, significantly contribute to their overall argumentation. Further, it may be the understanding of students about the topic which influenced the quality and complexity of students' arguments (Sadler, 2004). These findings are consistent with the findings of the quantitative study of Venville and Dawson (2010), in which they also found improvement in grade 10 students' argumentation after a three lessons intervention about a socio-scientific issue. Moreover, to analyze students' argumentation; it is necessary to see how students have articulated their arguments and used scientific knowledge (Dowson & Venville, 2008). For this purpose, Table 1 presents results of the analysis where the description of four levels and examples from students' work are given.

In their most part of discussion about women, male journalists create a picture of women in which they are facing some unwanted actions like violence, gender inequality, social, physical and medical situations. The second more frequent role in MJC is beneficiary, which is 21%, in which women are shown as a receiver of painless or pleasing action. In the extracts given below some beneficiary role in MJC are shown:

**Table 1:** Levels, Description and Examples from Students' Work

Level	Description	Examples from Students Work
Level 1	Claim (statement, conclusion, proposition only)	Yes No
Level 2	Claim, data (evidence supporting the claim) and/or warrant (relationship between claim and data)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Yes (claim). If there will be no forests then we cannot get many types of herbs for medicines and fruits (data/warrant).</li> <li>• Yes (claim). Forests keep safe us from speedy winds and storms.</li> </ul>
Level 3	Claim, data/warrant, backing (assumptions to support warrant) or qualifier (conditions under which claims are true)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Yes (claim). Air pollution is increasing due to deforestation (data/warrant) because forest [trees] absorb CO<sub>2</sub> from air and if forests are cut then the rate [level] of CO<sub>2</sub> will increase in the air (backing) and air will be polluted.</li> <li>• Yes (Claim). If forest will be cut, then environment will be polluted (data/warrant), due to which there will be many diseases (data/warrant) and the earth will also be affected.</li> <li>• Yes (claim). Forests provide food for organisms (data/warrant). Animals and different birds living in forests become homeless (data/warrant). Different types of trees, plants and herbs are found in the forests which are sources of food for organisms (data/warrant). If forests will be [are] cut then these animals will become homeless and their reproduction will also become less (backing).</li> </ul>
Level 4	Claim, data/warrant, backing and qualifier	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Yes (claim). If forests will be cut then environment will be polluted (data/warrant) because the smoke which comes from the factories, it has carbon dioxide which the organisms not so much need and forests absorb it [CO<sub>2</sub>] due to which the environment becomes safe from being polluted (backing). If forests are cut then there should be planning so that the organisms living there will not be affected (qualifier).</li> </ul>

The examples, given in the Table 1, show different levels where students have reached as well as the content knowledge which they have used while making their arguments. For example, the first example in Level 2 indicates that the student has supported her claim with the evidence that if there will be no forests then we will not be able to get fruits and different kinds of herbs which are used in medicines. It means that student has given the scientific information about the use of herbs in medicines and the effect of deforestation on these herbs. Similarly, from the analysis, it is clear that students have shown, to some extent, encouraging scientific knowledge and understanding. There might be many reasons for this encouraging understanding of deforestation. Firstly, it might be possible that the three days intervention impacted students understanding and knowledge of deforestation positively as different strategies were used to first give the content knowledge about the deforestation and

then students were engaged in argumentation. Similarly, it is also possible that students existing knowledge about deforestation matched with the knowledge learnt during the intervention and resulted in the improvement of scientific knowledge about deforestation (Westwood, 2004).

Further, the encouraging understating of students might also be due to students' existing knowledge which was strong enough to build on their existing knowledge easily (Oortwijn, 2008). Moreover, it also seems that the argumentation process helped students in improving their content knowledge about deforestation as the process included different strategies like use of writing frames, group discussions as well as teachers' role in helping students in argumentation (Cross, Taasob, Hendricks & Hickey, 2008). Hence, the relationship between the argumentation and conceptual understanding of students about a topic seems two directional as both argumentation and conceptual understanding might have effected each other. These findings of the study are consistent with the findings of the study of Zohar and Nemet (2002) which examined learning within a unit in which explicit teaching of argumentation skills was merged into the teaching of human genetics. The study found that integrating explicit teaching of argumentation into the teaching of dilemmas in human genetics enhances performance in both biological knowledge and argumentation.

## **CONCLUSION**

In this study, three consecutive lessons were taught in a public school of Karachi, Pakistan. Data was gathered through writing frames designed the teachers and group discussions. Analysis of the data shows that majority of students reached up to the Level 3 of argumentation followed by Level 1, Level 2 and Level 4. Similarly, majority of students' arguments were based on scientific content knowledge of the topic. From the results of the study, it is evident that when the argumentation is explicitly taught by integrating it with the socio-scientific issues; students' argumentation skills as well as the content knowledge of the topic both enhance (Sadler & Fowler, 2006). Some important factors which might have resulted in encouraging argumentation and content knowledge of students are nature of socio-scientific issue, students' content knowledge of the issue and teachers' role in facilitating argumentation because these factors can their role in motivating students towards argumentation. Therefore, it becomes important for teachers to carefully select the issue according to the interest of students. Similarly, teacher's role in the facilitation of argumentation in the classroom is also important as s/he can foster students' skills by different strategies like encouraging, talking, listening and monitoring the group discussions (Dawson, & Venville, 2008).

During the intervention, some challenges were also faced. For example, during the group discussion of students, when my colleague approached to different groups, students became silent but when we moved away from them, they started discussing. It might be because of their unfamiliarity with such activities in the class. In such situation, we had to be careful and encourage them to discuss. Similarly, in the first lesson, it was observed that students were not making arguments on the basis of scientific knowledge. It was also a challenging task to help them in making scientific arguments. It might be because of the effect of their daily life argumentation where arguments are not made on scientific basis. To cope up with this challenge, first we encouraged them to bring scientific knowledge and we also provided them scientific content about the selected topic through different strategies.

The conclusions which have been drawn are subjected to several limitations. For example, there were no comparison groups i.e. students who were taught argumentation explicitly and those who were taught without argumentation. It would be more informative to gain comparative information and to explore whether the improvement in argumentation and content knowledge is significant. Similarly, the total time spent on teaching argumentation might not be enough for all students to comprehend the argumentation skills and content knowledge. Lastly, the context of the argumentation may also have affected students' argumentation because the nature of the socio scientific was not very related to their daily life. Hence this specific property of the context of the present intervention must caution us against making unproven generalizations from the findings. In a different context students' argumentation patterns might have been different. So, additional studies are needed to inspect students' classroom argumentation in other contexts.

Hence, it can be recommended that first, individual teachers should be trained enough to bring and facilitate socio-scientific issues and argumentation in the classroom so that the argumentation can act as a tool to relate students content knowledge with the outside school experiences. For this purpose, professional teaching activities should be tailored to science teachers according to their content knowledge and the experience of using socio scientific issues and argumentation. Similarly, classroom based research should be conducted to explore different teaching strategies which can add in the development of students' argumentation.

## REFERENCES

- Cross, D., Taasob shirazi, G., Hendricks, S., & Hickey, D.T. (2008). Argumentation: A strategy for improving achievement and revealing scientific identities. *International Journal of Science Education*, 30(6), 837–861.
- Dawson, V. M. & Venville, G. (2008). Teaching strategies for developing students' argumentation skills about socio scientific issues in high school genetics. *Research in Science Education*, 40, 133-148.
- Driver, R., Newton, P., & Osborne, J. (2000). Establishing the norms of scientific argumentation in classrooms. *Science Education*, 84(3), 287–312. Doi: 10.1002/ (SICI) 1098-237X (200005)84:3<287::AIDSCE1>3.0.CO;2-A.
- Lewis, J. (2003). Journaling from qualitative research. In J. Lewis & J. Ritchie (Eds.), *qualitative research practice: A guide for social sciences students and Researchers*. London: SAGE publication.
- Oortwijn, M. (2008). Helping behavior during cooperative learning and learning gains: The role of the teacher and of pupils' prior knowledge and ethnic background. *Learning and Instruction*, 18(2), 146-159. Retrieved on Jan 6, 2013, from <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/>
- Sadler, T., & Fowler, S. (2006). A threshold model of content knowledge transfer for socio-scientific argumentation. *Science Education*, 90(6), 986-1004. Retrieved on, January 8, 2013, from <http://www.citeulike.org/user/jsvoboda/articl>
- Sadler, T. D. (2004). Informal reasoning regarding socio-scientific issues: A critical review of research. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 41(5), 513–536.
- Toulmin, S. E. (2003). *The uses of argument* (Updated ed.). Cambridge, U.K: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved on January 25, 2013, from [books.google.com.pk](http://books.google.com.pk)
- Venville, G. & Dawson, V. M. (2010). The impact of a classroom intervention on grade 10 students' argumentation skills, informal reasoning, and conceptual understanding of science. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 47(8), 952–977
- Westwood, P. S. (2004). *Learning and learning difficulties: A handbook for teachers*. Camber well, Vic.: ACER Press. Retrieved on January 6, 2013, from [www.acerpress.com.au](http://www.acerpress.com.au)
- Zohar, A., & Nemet, F. (2002). Fostering students' knowledge and argumentation skills through dilemmas in human genetics. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 39(1), 35-62. Retrieved on, January 8, 2013, from <http://www.citeulike.org/user/jsvoboda/article>

## **Women Welfare in Pakistan: Analysis of MDG 3&5 Through Locally Constructed Indices.**

### *Abstract*

*The threats to instruments and strategies of women empowerment in Pakistan are vivid as far as episodes of the past two decades are concerned. How far these potential threats proved detrimental to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has been an un-answered question of the period. The main objective of this study was to evaluate women welfare in terms of Pakistan's achievement in MDG3&5 and also in comparison with its neighboring countries (i.e. India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka). Being a literature-based study multiple sources of secondary data were accessed through their websites. The analysis leads us to the fact that women welfare in Pakistan is residual in nature. To double-check the results of the analysis made through locally constructed indices, the findings were triangulated by the In-Depth Interviews (IDIs) of 30 welfare personnel of the country as well as by the UN indices (GDI and GEM).*

**Key Words:** *Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Women Welfare, Residual*

### **INTRODUCTION**

Women's status has been considered as an important measure of their welfare in a community. Regarding enhancement of women's status United Nations has devised various instruments and strategies like the **Commission on the Status of Women**

---

#### **Dr. Muhammad Iqbal**

Assistant Professor,  
Department of Social Work, University of Sargodha,  
Sargodha, Pakistan.  
Email: mibasit@yahoo.com

#### **Prof. Dr. Amir Zada Asad**

Professor,  
Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar,  
Peshawar, Pakistan.  
Email: amir\_zada\_asad@yahoo.co.uk

(CSW)<sup>1</sup>, UN Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW)<sup>2</sup>, UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW)<sup>3</sup>, UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)<sup>4</sup> and Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). And from amongst them, CEDAW is the main UN effort in favor of gender equality in the world<sup>5</sup>. Around the world CEDAW is considered to be the Bible of women rights.

Pakistan is a signatory to CEDAW<sup>6</sup>. Gender related Millennium Development Goals (i.e. MDG 3&5) reflect the focal areas of CEDAW<sup>7</sup>. But it is pity that none of the Pakistani government showed seriousness in proper implementation of this Convention in letter and spirit. Same is the case with gender-related MDGs. A Pakistani woman possesses diversified status across classes, regions and areas<sup>8</sup>. No doubt, she enjoys a better status than most of the women in the Islamic world<sup>9</sup>, but it is yet to be ascertained whether she actually enjoys that or not. In this article not only outcomes of women welfare in Pakistan have been measured but a comparison across-the-border (i.e. with India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka) has also been made.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The word “welfare” is a combination of two words: “well” and “fare”. In this combination *well* means good and *fare* means to set off on the road of life. The term, then, means a “journey or arrival to happiness and prosperity”<sup>10</sup>. Historically, the experts have been attaching the word ‘welfare’ to different other words to give a meaning to the activities concerned with their particular field of practice e.g. The term ‘welfare manager’ came to be used in 1904, ‘welfare policy’ in 1905, ‘welfare work’ in 1916, ‘welfare centers’ in 1917 and ‘women welfare’ in 1928<sup>11</sup>.

It is vivid from the body of existing literature that the word ‘women welfare’ is more relative than absolute. It requires an understanding in terms of its historical and

---

<sup>1</sup> [www.uno.org/women\\_watch](http://www.uno.org/women_watch)

<sup>2</sup> *ibid*

<sup>3</sup> [www.un-instraw.org](http://www.un-instraw.org)

<sup>4</sup> [www.unifem.org](http://www.unifem.org)

<sup>5</sup> H. Charlesworth; C. Chinkin C. & S. Wright. (1991). *Feminist Approaches to International Law*. In *American Journal of International Law*. Vol.85 p. 613–645.

<sup>6</sup> Asia Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development (APWLD). (2006). *CEDAW Country Ratification Report: A Digest of Case Law on the Human Rights of Women (Asia Pacific)*. (Thailand: APWLD)

<sup>7</sup> [www.weforum.org](http://www.weforum.org)

<sup>8</sup> Aurat Foundation. (2008). *Overview of the Women Protection Act 2006* (Quarterly Issue No: 24). (Islamabad: Aurat Foundation).

<sup>9</sup> ADB (Asian Development Bank). (2000). *Women in Pakistan: Country Briefing Paper*. (Manila: Asian Development Bank).

<sup>10</sup> R. Williams, (1976). *Key Words: A Vocabulary of Culture and Society* (Glasgow: Fontana). p.31

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid*.

cultural milieu within which it is used. Although so many experts of the welfare field defined it but the conceptual confusion still prevails among the scholarship. That is why the scholarship, despite the lapse of so many years, fails to have any universally agreed upon definition of the term. Relativity of the term is posing problems for those engaged in cross-national comparisons whereas for cross-national comparisons, one must be absolutely clear about ‘what women welfare is?’ and ‘how it can be measured?’<sup>12</sup>. Although women welfare had been widely misused and considered synonymous to charity for the women<sup>13</sup> yet it is measured quantitatively as human development. US Department of Health, Education and Welfare had already called women welfare a set of activities related to human development<sup>14</sup>. As far as the today’s literature is concerned, the terms such as social well-being, social welfare for the women and human development are often used as equivalent or analogous terms.

Willensky and Labeaux (1918) are of the opinion that social welfare refers to those formally established organizations and socially sponsored institutions, agencies and programs which are aimed at maintaining or improving the economic conditions, health or interpersonal competence of a population partially or totally<sup>15</sup>. After Willensky and Labeaux (1918) a long silence prevailed upon the scholarship when Kendall (1961) broke the inertia by relating social welfare to human resources. He, in very clear words, revealed:

The purpose of social welfare is to strengthen human resources and to maximize human potential for handling successfully the many stresses and strains which seem to characterize this era of rapid political, social, economic and cultural change<sup>16</sup>.

This strong definition of social welfare is self-explanatory. Unlike the previous ones it gives direction to the enhanced human potential toward handling stresses and strains of life. This definition was no doubt a widely accepted one but could not lower down the intellectual heat of the scholars. Seeing that the United Nations had to intervene the situation, The United Nations defined social welfare as: *A wide range of socially sponsored activities and programs directed towards community and individual well-being*<sup>17</sup>. But as usual no consensus was developed among the

---

<sup>12</sup>Bent Greve. (2008). *What is Welfare?* In *Central European Journal of Public Policy*. Vol. 2:No.1: p. 50–73; See also V. George & R. Page,(1995). *Modern Thinkers on Welfare* (London: Prentice Hall),p.14

<sup>13</sup>James Midgley. (1984). *Op.Cit.*

<sup>14</sup>Palmore, E., and C. Luikart.(1972).”Health and Social Factors Related to Life Satisfaction”. In *Journal of Health and social Behaviour*. Vol.13:p.68-80

<sup>15</sup>H. Willensky and C.Labeaux, (1958). *Industrial Society and Social welfare* (New York: Russell Sage)

<sup>16</sup>Kendall, Catherine A. (1961).The Significance of Social Welfare in the World Today. In *Social Service Review*. Vol 35(1961), p.235-245

<sup>17</sup>United Nations. ( 1963). *Report on the World Social Situation: the State of the World* .(New York: UNDP),p.51

scholars. However, individual strives continued when in 1980 two scholars from the field tried to define social welfare somewhat differently. Dolgoff and Feldstein (1980) related social welfare to human development. They called social welfare as intervention intended to enhance social functioning of human beings i.e. human development.

But Johnson and Contributors (1994) favored Dolgoff and Feldstein (1980) in calling social welfare synonymous to human development. According to them social welfare is considered to be the sum of societal activities aimed at maintaining and improving human well-being. To them improvement of human well-being is human development. To sum up, if one wants to measure women welfare one will have to measure it in context of human development. The objectives of this study were:

- 1) To evaluate women welfare in terms of Pakistan's achievement in MDG 3&5;
- 2) To compare women welfare in Pakistan with its neighboring countries (i.e. India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka); and
- 3) To verify the results through UN indices (GDI and GEM).

There are two reasons for choosing 'Women Welfare in Pakistan' as the theme of this study. First, Pakistan is a developing country struggling with complex and contentious development issues. Persistent poverty is one of them and the worst hit segments of this problem were women. In Ayub regime, Pakistan enjoyed significant reduction in poverty as a result of successful economic and rural welfare programs like Village Agriculture and Industrial Development Program (V-AID), Basic Democracies and Rural Works Program<sup>18</sup>. Second, despite the persistence of poverty as a major problem, this segment of society received little attention both from the state and from the scholarly community. It is, therefore, need of the hour to evaluate social welfare reforms for them from the ideological level down to the implementation level.

## **METHODOLOGY**

As has been said above in the section 'Review of Literature' that social welfare of any segment society is measured in terms of human development as human development is synonymous to social welfare. Every year UNDP issues its report on human development which reveals countries' progress in Millennium Development Goals. As the gender related Millennium Development Goals (i.e.MDG3&5) reflect

---

<sup>18</sup>Muhammad Khalid.(2001). *Social work Theory and Practice with Special Reference to Pakistan* (Karachi: Kifayat Academy),p.535

the focal areas of CEDAW<sup>19</sup> therefore in order to measure women welfare of a country we will have to measure its progress in MDG3 and MDG5. Following the statistical methodology of the widely-used Human Development Index (HDI), the indices using indicators of MDG5 and MDG3 were constructed to measure women welfare in Pakistan. The results were triangulated by the In-Depth Interviews (IDIs) of 30 welfare personnel of the country. For this purpose an interview guide was used as a tool of data collection. These interviews were simply coded as ‘SWPI’ standing for ‘Social Welfare in Pakistan Interview’.

The general formula for the construction of indices was:

$$\text{Index} = \frac{\text{Given value of the indicator} - \text{Minimum value of the indicator}}{\text{Maximum value of the indicator} - \text{Minimum value of the indicator}}$$

In order to decide level of progress the researcher(s) made cut-offs based on range of values as follows:

Range	0.000-0.166	0.167-0.333	0.334-0.500	0.501-0.667	0.668-0.834	0.835-1.000
Level	Lowest	Low	Low-to-Medium	Medium-to-High	High	Highest

The chief reasons of selecting the above neighboring countries were their similarities with Pakistan with regard to their political environments and welfare systems. The researcher incorporated only those indicators of MDGs which are unanimously adopted by all the four countries. The evaluation is based on United Nations Asia Pacific MDG Report 2010-11. The reasons of making the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as basis of analysis are justified in the fact that (i) they address nearly all aspects of human welfare in terms of development; (ii) they do not represent abstract ambitions but are fixed and time-bound ; and (iii) they are basic to addressing poverty in its many dimensions. The Goals adopted by Pakistan are provided in Annexure-I. All the Eight (8) goals clearly advocate gender equality. But only two measures are directly related to women welfare which are: MDG 5. Improve maternal health: A mother’s education, income, and empowerment have a significant impact on lowering maternal mortality<sup>20</sup>

MDG 3. Promote gender equality & empower women: This central goal dedicated to gender equality and women’s empowerment depends on the achievement of all other goals for its success.

<sup>19</sup> www.weforum.org

<sup>20</sup> C. Grown; Gupta Rao ;and A. Kes .(2005). *Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women*, UN Millennium Project Task Force on Education and Gender Equality, (London and Sterling, VA: Earth scan)

## ANALYSIS

### **MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health**

This goal and its underlying indicators are related to women health. This goal will be evaluated by constructing a Women's Health Index (WHI).

### **Women's Health Index (WHI)**

The major indicators involved to construct this index were: (i) Life Expectancy and Maternal Mortality Ratio; (ii) Ante-Natal Care (ANC) and Skilled Birth Attendance (SBA); and (iii) Contraceptive Prevalence (CP) and Fertility Rate (FR):

- (i) Life Expectancy and Maternal Mortality Ratio: Maternal mortality is considered to be the major cause of women's death in the world. About 1500 women die daily in the world from pregnancy- or childbirth-related complications. A total of 99% of maternal deaths occur in the countries where 85% of the world's population resides. More than one third of these deaths occur in South Asia. Maternal mortality ratio in developing countries is 450 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births versus only 9 in developed countries<sup>21</sup>. Bangladesh and India are worst regions in Maternal Mortality Rate having 570 and 450 respectively during the year 2010, whereas Pakistan and Sri Lanka are somewhat better having 320 and 58 respectively. The situation in Sri Lanka is, hence, very encouraging in the region<sup>22</sup>.
- (ii) Ante-Natal Care (ANC) and Skilled Birth Attendance (SBA): MMR depends upon ANC and SBA, which are particularly neglected areas of health in South Asia<sup>23</sup>. Pakistan and Bangladesh lag in both of these indicators. In ANC Sri Lanka scores 99, India 74, Pakistan 61 and Bangladesh 51 whereas in SBA Sri Lanka, consequent upon the high ANC, tops the region with a percentage of 99, followed by India with 47. But both Pakistan and Bangladesh at 39 and 18 respectively<sup>24</sup>. The proportion of births attended by skilled birth attendants, for Pakistan, has declined from 48 percent in 2004-05 to 41 percent

---

<sup>21</sup> www.unicef.org

<sup>22</sup> UNDP (United Nations Development Programme).(2010).*Human Development Report 2010*.(New York: United Nations)

<sup>23</sup> UNDP (United Nations Development Programme).(2010).*Human Development Report 2010*.(New York: United Nations)

<sup>24</sup> Ibid

in 2008-09 and then to 39 in 2010-11. The situation demands immediate attention and consistent effort<sup>25</sup>.

The major reason of this fall is that majority of women reported that they are not allowed to go to a health facility unaccompanied and have to seek permission for that, typically from a male household member<sup>26</sup> who usually refuses.

- (iii) Contraceptive Prevalence (CP) & Fertility Rate (FR): Fertility rate is defined as number of children born to a woman till her childbearing age<sup>27</sup>. More contraceptive prevalence can reduce fertility rate<sup>28</sup>. Pakistan and India are the countries with high fertility rates. Pakistan has very high FR in the region (i.e.4 births per women)<sup>29</sup> which is due to its very low CP (29.6 percent)<sup>30</sup>.FR of Sri Lanka is 2.3, of India is 2.8 and of Bangladesh is 2.4 respectively<sup>31</sup> whereas CP of Sri Lanka 68,India56 and Bangladesh 55<sup>32</sup>. A UNICEF Report had already warned that lack of trained and appropriately deployed health providers is an underlying cause of Pakistan's health problems<sup>33</sup>.

The formula used for computation of WHI is:

$$WHI = \frac{1}{5 \left\{ LEIndex + ANCIndex + SBAIndex + CPIndex - \frac{1}{2(MMRIndex + FRIndex)} \right\}}$$

WHI value of Pakistan is 0.173.It is far less than that of Sri Lanka, slightly more than India and far more than Bangladesh. This low WHI value is due to low percentage of SBA and CP indices. (It should be noted that Maternal Mortality Ratio and Fertility Rate are negative indicators and each has been assigned a weight as 0.5 or ½ for this study).Lankan health model is a victory in the region with 68.00%. Among the rest India is at Low-to-Medium (39.10%), while both Pakistan (low SBA, very low CP and very high FR) and Bangladesh show a Low level progress with percentages 28.90

<sup>25</sup>Government of Pakistan. (2010). Op.Cit.

<sup>26</sup> Save the Children. (2009).*Opportunities for Newborn Survival in Pakistan*. (Save the Children Secretariat: London).p.45

<sup>27</sup> UNDP (United Nations Development Programme).(2009).*Human Development Report 2009*.(New York: United Nations).p.20

<sup>28</sup>National Health Policy,2009

<sup>29</sup> UNDP. (2009). Op.Cit.

<sup>30</sup> UNDP. (2010). Op.Cit.

<sup>31</sup> Ibid

<sup>32</sup> UNDP. (2009). Op. Cit.

<sup>33</sup>UNICEF. (2011). *The State of the World's Children 2011*. New York: United Nations

and 25.80, respectively. Bangladesh is deficient in nearly all the constituents. It is a country with a very high MMR with 570 per 100,000 live births, lowest ANC and SBA (i.e. 51% and 18% respectively) and very low CP (i.e.55.8%).

**Table No.1**

The Efficiency of Pakistani Health Model in Comparison with the Neighboring Countries

HDI Rank 2009	Country	LE Index	MMR Index/2	ANC Index	SBA Index	C P Index	F R Index/2	Women Health Index (WHI)	Progress	
									Level	%
102	Sri Lanka	0.837	0.018	0.988	0.989	0.741	0.138	0.680	High	68.00
134	India	0.683	0.263	0.675	0.411	0.604	0.157	0.391	Low-to-Medium	39.10
<b>141</b>	<b>Pakistan</b>	<b>0.726</b>	<b>0.182</b>	<b>0.513</b>	<b>0.322</b>	<b>0.289</b>	<b>0.225</b>	<b>0.289</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>28.90</b>
146	B'desh	0.690	0.338	0.388	0.089	0.598	0.138	0.258	Low	25.80

**Source:** .UNDP, 2010 & UNDP, 2009

It can be concluded from this discussion that except Sri Lanka, the rest three countries possess a residual type of health services. Lack of facilities as well as poor access to the available facilities has come out to be the major reasons of the above weak areas. About the lack of facilities an officer is being quoted here verbatim: *“Best quality state-based health services must be available to every woman at her doorstep. But unfortunately this doesn't happen. In otherwise case, usually family or household takes this responsibility”*<sup>34</sup>. Defending the state another officer said: *“State should not be blamed in this matter. Services are there. But it is due to the Pakistani culture that women are not allowed to avail them”*<sup>35</sup>. But state is responsible:

We spend only 0.8% of the GDP on health. Do you think this amount sufficient to provide good health cover for all the segments of society? Certainly not! The government fails to provide adequate health cover to the vulnerable segments of the society including the old-aged and the in-firm<sup>36</sup>.

<sup>34</sup>SWPI No.01/Q.1

<sup>35</sup> SWPI No.06/Q.1

<sup>36</sup> SWPI No.17/Q.1

On the other hand, Sri Lanka, India and Bangladesh spend 2.0 %, 1.1% and 1.1% respectively. Per capita government expenditure on health (in US\$) show nearly the same trend. Sri Lanka spends 105 US\$, Bangladesh 26 US \$, India 21 US\$<sup>37</sup> whereas Pakistan is at the lowest with 8 US\$. That is why a Pakistani family has to bear the brunt of purchasing private health services for its member from its usually meager resources. Another official justifies the same in these words: *“Household is handicapped in resources. How much can it afford for major surgery and chronic diseases. And if at all it does what will be left for the kids”*<sup>38</sup>.

Except Sri Lanka, the level of women’s health progress of the rest three countries (India, Pakistan and Bangladesh), as has been evaluated above, is low. Generally speaking Pakistani women have to cope with the lack of public-level health facilities by purchasing for them from the private hospitals, clinics and medical centers. There they have to spend their resources saved in different form of reared animals, a patch of land, jewelry and as food grains.

### **MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women**

This goal includes following three areas of gender equality and women empowerment: Education; Economic Participation; and Political Participation. Therefore in order to evaluate gender equality and women empowerment through this goal we will have to construct three indices namely:

1. Women’s Education Index (WEI),
2. Index of Women’s Economic Participation (IWEP), and
3. Index of Women’s Political Participation (IWPP).

The main emphasis of the National Policy for the Development & Empowerment of Women (2002) is women’s compulsory primary education<sup>39</sup>. But education in Pakistan suffers from countless issues like poverty, public-private discrimination, class distinction, violence against women, non-availability of educational facilities, coupled with lack of curriculum reforms .

### **Women’s Education Index (WEI)**

The indicators utilized for this purpose were :(i) Adult Literacy Rate (ALR); (ii) Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER); and (iii) Gender Parity Index (GPI) in Primary, Secondary and Tertiary.

---

<sup>37</sup>www.unescap.org

<sup>38</sup>SWPI No.07

<sup>39</sup>Government of Pakistan. (2002). *NPDEW (National Policy for the Development & Empowerment of Women) 2002*.(Islamabad: Ministry of Women Development Social Welfare and Special Education)

- (i) Adult Literacy Rate (ALR): Sri Lanka leads South Asia with 90.6 percent of ALR whereas Pakistan is at the lowest i.e.53.7. India and Bangladesh are better than Pakistan with ALR 62.8 and 55 respectively<sup>40</sup>.
- (iii) Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER): GER of Sri Lanka, 69.9, is the highest among all the countries to be compared here. Whereas Pakistan lags to have 34.4.India and Bangladesh have GER 57.4 and 52.5 respectively<sup>41</sup>.
- (iv) Gender Parity Index (GPI) in Primary, Secondary and Tertiary: One of the most effective ways of enhancing women wellbeing is girls' education. Gender Parity Index (GPI) is the ratio of gross enrollment of girls to boys in primary schools<sup>42</sup>. GPI of Bangladesh is at the highest (i.e.0.887) and Pakistan at the lowest (i.e.0.813).Whereas India and Sri Lanka possess the value of this indicator as 0.843 and 0.833 respectively. Bangladesh, hence, exhibits more gender parity than other countries in terms of access to education<sup>43</sup>.

Women's performance in education has been determined in the light of WEI. The formula used for the index is:

$$WEI = \frac{1}{3(ALR_{Index} + GER_{Index} + GPI_{Index})}$$

It can be noted from the Table No.2 below that like the health status, Pakistani women lag in educational status too. The EI (Education Index) value of Pakistan is at the bottom (0.453) while that of Sri Lanka at the top (0.768).The reason for this low EI is due to two factors: ALR and GER discussed above. As far as efficiency of model is concerned, Sri Lanka as usual exhibits best performance in women education. It falls in the High success level with a percentage of success 76.80%. Pakistan is the lowest among all the four nations showing Low-to-Medium level progress with percentage 45.30. Its efficiency is deplorably low (see Table No.2).

<sup>40</sup>United Nations. (2009).*World Bank: Annual Report 2009*. (New York: United Nations); UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) (2010).*Human Development Report 2010*.(New York: United Nations)

<sup>41</sup>United Nations. (2009).*World Bank: Annual Report 2009*. (New York: United Nations) p.181; United Nations. (2009).*World Bank: Annual Report 2009*. (New York: United Nations)

<sup>42</sup> Save the Children. (2009).Op. Cit.

<sup>43</sup> World Bank. (2009); UNDP.(2010).Op. Cit.

**Table No.2**

The Overall Educational Status of Pakistani Women in Comparison with their Neighboring Countries

HDI Rank 2009	Country	Index of A L R	Index of GER	Index of GPI(Average)	Women Education Index (WEI)	Progress	
						Level	%
102	Sri Lanka	0.872	0.599	0.833	0.768	High	76.80
134	India	0.465	0.445	0.843	0.584	Medium-to-High	58.40
<b>141</b>	<b>Pakistan</b>	<b>0.289</b>	<b>0.257</b>	<b>0.813</b>	<b>0.453</b>	<b>Low-to-Medium</b>	<b>45.30</b>
146	B'desh	0.388	0.367	0.887	0.547	Medium-to-High	54.70

**Source:** World Bank, 2009; MDGs Report 2010/2011& UNDP, 2010

India and Bangladesh also exhibit almost similar possessing 58.40% and 54.70% respectively. The weak areas responsible for this residual progress are: ALR; GER; and GPI in primary, secondary and tertiary. Quite similar to women's health, we conclude that the educational services, too, at public level are in no sense better than those at private level. Therefore, the only well offs can (and do) spend on private education services. The second reason, as usual, is culture. About the low level educational services one of the respondents of this study said in these words: "*Some resourceful families spend lavishly upon women's education. But most of the poor families avail facilities from the public sector*"<sup>44</sup>. But a witness of the public level educational institutions is quoted here saying: "*I would simply ask: Despite the spacious buildings, free books to the students and low fees the overall performance of public level educational institutions is disappointing. Why*"<sup>45</sup>?" Pakistan is at the lowest in South Asia in women ALR (i.e. 53.7%). It is worst in GER (i.e. 34.4%) and also in GPI (i.e. 0.813). (see Table No.2 above). An officer revealing the cause of this state of affair says: "... *Again the problem lies with the peculiar Pakistani culture. In various media reports we have watched so many girls schools set ablaze and (or) blasted-off*"<sup>46</sup>.

Local religious leaders, in tribal areas as well as in Baluchistan, usually exert their pressure against female education. In Friday prayers and in tribal gatherings they label girl's school as: *Centers of immoral activities and Western culture*<sup>47</sup>. But it is an undeniable fact that: *Educating a boy will be equal to educating one person while*

<sup>44</sup> SWPI No.16

<sup>45</sup> SWPI No.17

<sup>46</sup> SWPI No.15

<sup>47</sup> ibid

*educating a woman will be equal to educating one nation*<sup>48</sup>. Also, “A healthy woman has healthy sons and daughters; an educated woman has educated sons and daughters and an empowered woman has confident sons and daughters”<sup>49</sup>.

This obviously demands a change in culture and particularly the change in deep-rooted regional as well as tribal traditions of not sending their girls to school. The story of robust and rampant deterioration in the system does not end here. We must not overlook the deterring role of poverty, public-private dichotomy and class discrimination in women education also<sup>50</sup>. This demands a consensus of all the stakeholders, from state functionaries to the service recipients. The above discussion has revealed that except Sri Lanka, the rest three countries (India, Pakistan and Bangladesh) fall at the low progress level in women’s education. Pakistan, however, is at the bottom among all the four nations. Again the reasons are: (1) Low public spending (2) Orthodox tribal and family norms and (2) Bad governance of public-level educational institutions.

### **1. Index of Women’s Economic Participation (IWEP)**

The indicators needed for this index were: (i) Labor Force Participation Rate; (ii) Male & Female Share of Earned Income Ratio; (iii) Ratio of Administrative & Managerial Positions; and (iv) Ratio of Professional & Technical Positions

- (i) Labor Force Participation Rate: Sri Lanka tops in labor force participation in the non-agricultural sector with a 38.5 percent of women employment while Pakistan is at the bottom with 13.2. Bangladesh is somewhat better than Pakistan with 21.1 percent share. India’s data is not available<sup>51</sup>.
- (ii) Male & Female Share of Earned Income Ratio: Ratio of estimated female to male earned income of Pakistan is 0.18 which is very low in this region whereas Sri Lanka tops with 0.56. Bangladesh and India are at 0.51 and 0.32 respectively<sup>52</sup>.
- (iii) Ratio of Administrative & Managerial Positions: (discussed under Index of Women’s Political Participation (IWPP))
- (iv) Ratio of Professional & Technical Positions: Professional and technical positions include physical, mathematical and engineering science, life science and health and teaching

---

<sup>48</sup> SWPI No.22/Q.1

<sup>49</sup> SWPI No.22/Q.1

<sup>50</sup> SDPI.(2008).Op. Cit.

<sup>51</sup> World Bank. (2009); UNDP. (2010).Op. Cit.

<sup>52</sup> UNDP. (2009).Op. Cit.

professionals<sup>53</sup>. Percentage of female professionals is highest in Sri Lanka (46%) and lowest in Bangladesh (22%). India has provided no data while Pakistanis at 25 percent<sup>54</sup>.

The formula for computation of IWEF is:

$$\text{IWEF} = 1/3(\text{Index of Women Employees} + \text{Ratio of Male \& Female Income} + \text{Index of Women Professionals})$$

Comparing the performance of the countries based on IWEF, we note that progress of none of the four countries is beyond Low-to-Medium level. Sri Lanka is, however, the best performer in economic participation of women with respect to high percentage (48.90%) nearly equal to that of Bangladesh. Whereas both India and Pakistan show a bottom level performance with a least percentages in the table to be 32.30 and 19.60 respectively (see Table No.3). Among the four constituent areas of Pakistani women's economic participation we found none to be strong. Our women's labor force participation rate is very low i.e. only 13.2 %; male & female share of earned income ratio of is also low being at 0.18; and the ratio of professional & technical positions is 25 percent. The factors responsible for this state of affair are: Uncongenial and insecure surrounding of a woman at her workplace; exploitation on the part of employer and cultural impediments to women employment.

### Table No.3

The Overall Economic Status of Pakistani Women in Comparison with their Neighboring Countries

HDI Rank 2009	Country	Index of Women Employees	Ratio of Male & Female Income	Index of Women Professionals	Index of Women's Economic Participation (IWEF)	Progress	
						Level	%
102	Sri Lanka	0.353	0.56	0.554	0.489	Low-to-Medium	48.90
134	India	0.323	0.32	---	0.323	Low	32.30
<b>141</b>	<b>Pakistan</b>	<b>0.176</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>0.231</b>	<b>0.196</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>19.60</b>
146	B'desh	0.594	0.51	0.185	0.430	Low-to-Medium	43.00

Source: UNDP, 2009+ World Bank, 2009+ UNDP, 2010+ Own Calculations

A professional of social welfare shared his views regarding uncongenial and insecure surrounding of a woman at her workplace in these words:

<sup>53</sup> UNDP.(2009).Op. Cit. p:209

<sup>54</sup> ibid

The working environment has never been congenial to the female employees. Most of the working women are teased on the way and (or) at the work place. The Pakistani society has never been encouraging to the woman's participation in the economic activities. She ultimately has to leave the job to seek pro-feminine atmosphere at her work place<sup>55</sup>.

Asian Human Rights Commission in its report about Pakistan confirms women's exploitation at work place in these words:

Women have to contend with lower salaries and uncongenial working environment<sup>56</sup>. Pakistan, culturally, is 'male breadwinner model'. A woman's income especially her bringing home salaries, wages or anything in return of her out-of-home work is considered to be hideous in this culture. The same has been said by a seasoned professional in the field of social welfare in these words: In my understanding women's being away from the labour market is due to the reason that Pakistan is 'male breadwinner model'. The female has to depend upon the resources of the male. She is not empowered. That is why she is exploited the most<sup>57</sup>.

This discouraging state of affairs for the female employees is one among the causes of household poverty. Pakistani women's participation in the labor market is at the bottom (13.2%), female to male earned income ratio is 0.18 which is also very low while the percentage of Pakistani women's professional & technical positions is only 25 (Table No.3). The factors responsible for this state of affair are: Uncongenial and insecure surrounding of a woman at her workplace; exploitation on the part of employer and cultural impediments to women employment. These are the vivid signs of poverty and misery of a household.

## **2 Index of Women's Political Participation (IWPP)**

The fourth index constructed for this study is an Index of Women's Political Participation (IWPP). The indicators needed to construct this index are: (i) Women's Seats in the Parliament; (ii) Women as Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers; and (iii) Women in Ministerial Positions

---

<sup>55</sup>SWPI No.26/Q.1

<sup>56</sup><http://material.ahrchk.net/>

<sup>57</sup> SWPI No.19/Q.2

- (i) Women's Seats in the Parliament: Nordic countries lead the world in women seats in the parliament. Parliament in these countries is thronged with women members (usually more than 40%)<sup>58</sup>. South Asia has been slow in political empowerment and representation of its women<sup>59</sup>. In the present parliament, Pakistan leads South Asia with 22 percent women parliamentarians. Bangladesh is close to it with 19, India 11 while Sri Lanka is at the lowest with 6 percent of women members in the present assemblies<sup>60</sup>.
- (ii) Women as Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers: Women's positions include senior government officials, directors and chief executives, legislators, traditional chiefs and heads of villages etc.<sup>61</sup>
- (iii) We find greater percentage of women decision-makers in Sri Lanka (24%) than other countries. India provided no data for this indicator. Condition of Bangladesh is not very discouraging. But the condition of Pakistani women in this regard is desperate (i.e. only 3%)<sup>62</sup>.
- (iv) Women in Ministerial Position: It includes heads of departments or agencies where a woman exercises a ministerial function in the government structure<sup>63</sup>. Comparing women's ministerial positions India tops the rest with 10 percent women ministers in the present national cabinet. Pakistan has only 4 percent female ministers whereas Bangladesh has 8 percent and Sri Lanka 6 percent<sup>64</sup>. In order to calculate IWPP the following formula has been derived:

$$\text{IWPP} = 1/3(\text{Index of Women's Seats in Parliament} + \text{Index of Women Legislators} + \text{Index of Women Ministers})$$

Based on the values of IWPP we witness that all the four countries fall in the range of low progress whereas Bangladesh at the lowest with 13.90 percent progress in this indicator. (See Table No.4)

---

<sup>58</sup> [www.ipu.org](http://www.ipu.org)

<sup>59</sup> Dr. Pareet Rustagi. (2004). Women and Development in South Asia. In *South Asian Journal*, April-June.2004.

<sup>60</sup> UNDP.(2009).Op. Cit. p:28

<sup>61</sup> UNDP.(2009). Op.Cit.

<sup>62</sup> Ibid

<sup>63</sup> Ibid

<sup>64</sup> Ibid

**Table No.4:**

Overall Status of Pakistani Women's Political Participation in Comparison with their Neighboring Countries

HDI Rank 2009	Country	Index of Women's Seats in Parliament	Index of Women Legislators	Index of Women Ministers	Index of Women's Political Participation (IWPP)	Progress	
						Level	%
102	Sri Lanka	0.106	0.400	0.100	0.202	Low	20.20
134	India	0.167	...	0.167	0.167	Low	16.70
<b>141</b>	<b>Pakistan</b>	<b>0.386</b>	<b>0.051</b>	<b>0.067</b>	<b>0.168</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>16.80</b>
146	B'desh	0.115	0.167	0.134	0.139	Lowest	13.90

Source: UNDP, 2009; World Bank, 2009; UNDP, 2010 & Own Calculations

It may be suggested after these findings that women should not confine themselves to the households only. They should utilize their potential for the society also. Her role in the society can be best described as a decision-maker at national level. No doubt women's seats in the national parliament increased i.e.22% in the present parliament, the highest among the South Asian countries. But still the strong cultural constraints deter them play their due role in the society. In its report of 2008, US State Department presented an adverse situation regarding women's rights of decision making: *Religious and social conservatives in some parts of Pakistan prevented women from becoming candidates*<sup>65</sup>. Another source described the situation in these words: *In by-election of National Assembly Seat-26 on 29 March 2007, KPK tribal elders barred women from casting their vote*<sup>66</sup>. The same source added: Former CM Sindh Dr. Arbab Ghulam Rahim said, *women's leadership was a 'curse' on society during his election campaign on 26 August 2007 in Thatta*<sup>67</sup>. The source added further that:

In Upper Dir district of KPK most of the lady councillors have not attended sessions of district and union councils since 2005 on account of a ban imposed by a local jirga. These sessions are, instead, attended by their fathers, sons, brothers and husbands<sup>68</sup>.

<sup>65</sup><http://www.state.gov>

<sup>66</sup><http://www.achrweb.org/>

<sup>67</sup> Ibid

<sup>68</sup> Ibid

### **Composite Index of Women Empowerment (CIWE):**

This index is the composite of all the previously worked-out indices related to women health and empowerment. Simply a mean of the above four an index has been calculated to have this index as:

$$\text{CIWE} = \frac{1}{4} (\text{WHI} + \text{WEI} + \text{IWEP} + \text{IWPP})$$

The final results noted in Table No.5 are based upon CIWE .Here we find Sri Lanka scoring very high (68%) exhibiting Medium-to-High progress. Both India and Bangladesh are next to it with score 36.60 and 34.40 percent respectively.

**Table No.5**

The Overall Status of Pakistani Women in Comparison with their Neighboring Countries

HDI Rank 2009	Country	WHI	WEI	IWEP	IWPP	Composite Index*of Women Empowerment (CIWE)	Progress	
							Level	%
102	Sri Lanka	0.680	0.768	0.489	0.202	0.535	Medium-to-High	53.50
134	India	0.391	0.584	0.323	0.167	0.366	Low-to-Medium	36.60
<b>141</b>	<b>Pakistan</b>	<b>0.289</b>	<b>0.453</b>	<b>0.196</b>	<b>0.168</b>	<b>0.277</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>27.70</b>
146	B'desh	0.258	0.547	0.430	0.139	0.344	Low-to-Medium	34.40

\*Average of Indices

Source: Own Calculations

Pakistan (27.70%), however, stands at Low progress level in both of the gender-related MDGs: MDG5&MDG3. It can easily be concluded that all the three countries (India, Pakistan and Bangladesh) possess residual type of women welfare.

### **Gender-related UN Indices**

As a result of UN efforts, two indices to evaluate the state of women in a country had been constructed. Around the world these indices are frequently used to evaluate the state of women in a country. These indices are: Gender Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure GEM.

- 1. Gender Development Index (GDI):**It is an index of gender development. In 2010, GDI score of Norway was the highest of all countries. Very rarely GDI differs from the HDI

(which is not gender-specific). Pakistan's ranking of HDI was 125 while GDI was 131 in 2010.

2. **Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM):** It is an index of gender empowerment. With respect to the ratio of women in the parliament, nearly all the countries belonging to the Nordic model, especially Norway, top the rest in the world. In past and present no other country in the world has as many women in the legislature as the Nordic countries<sup>69</sup>. GEM values of these countries is the highest in the world. On the other hand, Sri Lanka tops GEM values in the region while Pakistan and Bangladesh touch the bottom. (As shown in Table No.6). It can be verified from Table No.6 that GDI values fluctuate between 0.5 to 0.7 and 1.00 being the ideal value showing maximum gender development whereas GEM values fluctuate between 0.3 to 0.5 and 1.000 being the ideal value showing maximum gender empowerment. It means that level of gender development is higher in the world than gender empowerment.

However, in Nordic countries the GEM value is usually beyond the figure 0.900 and nearing 1.000 GDI is concerned with women's health, education and the matters related to their economic development while GEM is related to the enhancement of women's decision-making power pertaining to all matters of their lives. GEM, in this regard, is more comprehensive than GDI. It is very difficult for a country to GEM (or to gem) its women. That is why its value falls in the lower slots than that of GDI.

Seeing Table 5.6, we once again see Sri Lanka leading the course while rest to follow. In GDI, however, performance of all the countries is dazzling. But in case of GEM we find all the four countries at residual level, India and Bangladesh somewhat deplorable.

---

<sup>69</sup><http://worldsavvy.org>

**Table No.6**

Showing Women Empowerment in Pakistan and its Neighbors on the basis of GDI&GEM

HDI Ran k200 9	Country	GDI	Progress		GEM	Progress	
			Level	%		Level	%
102	Sri Lanka	0.756	High	75.60	0.389	Low-to-Medium	38.90
134	India	0.594	Medium-to-High	59.40	0.308	Low	30.80
<b>141</b>	<b>Pakistan</b>	<b>0.532</b>	<b>Medium-to-High</b>	<b>53.20</b>	<b>0.386</b>	<b>Low-to-Medium</b>	<b>38.60</b>
146	B'desh	0.536	Medium-to-High	53.60	0.264	Low	26.40

Source: UNDP, 2009 (GDI) + (GEM)

The contents of this table also verify the claim that the Women Welfare in Pakistan and its neighboring countries, especially India and Bangladesh, is residual in nature. Differently put Pakistan exhibits very low progress in women development especially in women economic empowerment (as shown in Table No.6).

## CONCLUSION

Results based on the self-constructed index namely Composite Index of Women Empowerment (CIWE), values of GDI and GEM for Pakistan and its neighbors and the expert opinions of the welfare personnel indicate that women welfare in all the three countries (India, Pakistan and Bangladesh) gives a residual look. Pakistan (27.70%) stands at Low progress level in both of the gender-related MDGs: MDG5&MDG3. Pakistan also exhibits very low progress in women development especially in women economic empowerment. And this residual shape of women welfare in all the four countries (Sri Lanka included) is due to low welfare spending.

We conclude the discussion with this statement: A Pakistani woman's life is very miserable than those in the highly developed countries i.e. Sweden, Germany and USA. A Pakistani woman has to fight against the dearth of state-level health facilities, a culture-bound education, a teasing workplace environment and above all a bad governance of all the services meant for her.

- (1) As noted above women welfare in Pakistan is at a residual level. Low public spending, bad governance and regional norms are the main reasons of this residual progress.
- (2) Taxation is solution to the low public spending.
- (3) For good governance the previously mentioned strategy can be adopted but with the consensus of the stakeholders.
- (4) To address the cultural constraints on women's access to out-of-home facilities of health, education, employment etc. it is strongly recommended that media, both electronic and print, should intervene the situation. Electronic media should play its role in highlighting the issues attached with ante-natal care, skilled birth attendance, and importance of contraceptive use .It should also play its role in changing the norms and values against women's education, training as well as their access to the labor market. Similarly the print media should play its role of a 'watch dog' to implement gender instruments adopted by the State.
- (5) The Ministry of Social Welfare, as being focal machinery at federal level, should seek inter-ministerial partnership in implementing CEDAW, GRAP, Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action effectively.

## REFERENCES

- ADB (Asian Development Bank). (2000). *Women in Pakistan: Country Briefing Paper*. Manila: Asian Development Bank
- APWLD (Asia Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development). (2006). *CEDAW Country Ratification Report: A Digest of Case Law on the Human Rights of Women (Asia Pacific)*. Thailand: APWLD
- Aurat Foundation. (2008). *Overview of the Women Protection Act 2006* (Quarterly Issue No: 24). Islamabad: Aurat Foundation
- Charlesworth H., Chinkin, C. & Wright, S. (1991). Feminist Approaches to International Law. In *American Journal of International Law*.85,613–645
- George, V. & Page, R. (1995). *Modern Thinkers on Welfare*. London: Prentice Hall
- Government of Pakistan. (2002). *NPDEW (National Policy for the Development & Empowerment of Women) 2002*. Islamabad: Ministry of Women Development Social Welfare and Special Education
- Government of Pakistan. (2009). *National Education Policy 2009*. Islamabad: Ministry of Education
- Government of Pakistan. (2010). *National Health Policy 2009*. Islamabad: Ministry of Health
- Greve, Bent. (2008). What is Welfare? In *Central European Journal of Public Policy*.2 (1), 50–73.
- Grown, C., Rao, G. & Kes, A (2005). *Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women*, UN Millennium Project Task Force on Education and Gender Equality. London: Earth scan
- Kendall, Catherine A. (1961). The Significance of Social Welfare in the World Today. In *Social Service Review*. 35(1961), 235-245.
- Khalid, M. (2001). *Social work Theory and Practice with Special Reference to Pakistan*. Karachi: Kifayat Academy
- Midgley, James. (1984). *Social Security, Inequality and the Third World*. Cheshire: John Wiley & Sons

- Palmore, E., & C. Luikart. (1972). Health and Social Factors Related to Life Satisfaction. In *Journal of Health and social Behaviour*.13, 68-80.
- Rustagi, Dr. Pareet. (2004). Women and Development in South Asia. In *South Asian Journal*, April-June.2004.
- Save the Children. (2009). *Opportunities for Newborn Survival in Pakistan*. London: Save the Children Secretariat. p.45
- SDPI (Sustainable Development Policy Institute). (2008). *Pakistan: Country Gender Profile Final Report 2008*.Islamabad: SDPI
- UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). (2009). *Human Development Report 2009* (p.20). New York: United Nations.
- UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). (2012). *Human Development Report 2011*. New York: United Nations
- UNICEF(2011). *The State of the World's Children 2011*. New York: United Nations
- Willensky, H, & Labeaux, C. (1958). *Industrial Society and Social welfare* .New York: Russell Sage
- Williams, R. (1976). *Key Words: A Vocabulary of Culture and Society*. Glasgow: Fontana
- World Bank. (2009). *World Bank: Annual Report 2009*. New York: United Nations  
<http://material.ahrchk.net> Retrieved on 15.02.13
- <http://worldsavvy.org> Retrieved on 07.07.2012
- <http://www.achrweb.org> Retrieved on 12.06.12
- <http://www.state.gov> Retrieved on 10.12.11
- [www.ipu.org](http://www.ipu.org) Retrieved on 13.10.13
- [www.unescap.org](http://www.unescap.org) Retrieved on 12.11.13
- [www.unicef.org](http://www.unicef.org) Retrieved on 09.12.13
- [www.unifem.org](http://www.unifem.org) Retrieved on 07.12.12

[www.un-instraw.org](http://www.un-instraw.org) Retrieved on 05.09.12

[www.uno.org/women](http://www.uno.org/women) watch Retrieved on 12.04.11

[www.weforum.org](http://www.weforum.org) Retrieved on 11.01.12

## APPENDIX

### Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

#### **Goal 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger**

**Target 1.** Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than a dollar a day

**Target 2.** Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

#### **Goal 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education**

**Target 3.** Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling

#### **Goal 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women**

**Target 4.** Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015

#### **Goal 4: Reduce Child Mortality**

**Target 5.** Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate

#### **Goal 5: Improve Maternal Health**

**Target 6.** Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio

#### **Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases**

**Target 7.** Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS

**Target 8.** Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

#### **Goal 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability**

**Target 9.** Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources

**Target 10.** Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation

**Target 11.** Have achieved, by 2020, a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers

#### **Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development**

**Target 12.** Develop further an open, rule based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system

More generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction

**Target 15:** Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long run

(Goals and targets adopted by Pakistan, Sri Lanka, India and Bangladesh)

## **Academic Failure at Grade Four: A Quantitative Approach to the Self-Concept of Students.**

### ***Abstract***

*This study examines the impact of academic failure on the self-concept of the students. The students studying at grade four in public primary schools of the urban areas of Rawalpindi were taken as study sample. A two-phase panel study was designed to collect quantitative data, i.e. at the start of the last term of preceding academic session and in the first month of successive academic year. The self-concept of the students (N=305) was measured through Urdu translation of Beck Youth Inventory for Self-Concept of Children (BSCI-Y). In phase two, the study sample was divided into two main groups on the basis of annual school results, i.e. failed and promoted students. A series of analysis were performed with the quantitative data to analyze the variations in the self-concept of the two groups. The findings of the study revealed highly significant and negative impact of academic failure on the self-concept of the students.*

**Key words:** *Self-concept, Success, Failure, Public Schools*

### **INTRODUCTION**

Assessment is an essential component of the instructional process. Assessment process helps the teachers and educationists to make judgments about students' academic performance. The success of any education system directly depends on the efficient practice of its assessment process. For effective functioning of the instructional process, the teachers require certain information regarding the levels of students' achievement. Through this process, the teacher can locate the under achievers and also the students who are capable and ready for the next class.

---

#### **Dr. Bushra Iqbal Chohan**

Prof. of Education, Government College for Women,  
Zafar ul Haq Road, Rawalpindi, Pakistan.

Email: bushrachohan@hotmail.com

#### **Prof. Dr. Rehana Masrur Khan**

Dean, Faculty of Education  
Allama Iqbal Open University,  
Islamabad, Pakistan.

Email: rehamasrur@yahoo.com

The formal process of learning has evolved from thousand years' of experience. Historical evidence has revealed that the earliest classrooms were those of the Sumerian civilization, from which the clay tablets on which students practiced their writing have been recovered.

--- The long history of educational assessment can be dated from at least 2200 BC when the Mandarins set up a civil-service testing program. ---For the most part, oral examinations (viva voce) were used, until the late 1800s, to evaluate the achievements (Athanasius & Lamprinou, 2005, p. 5).

The basic aim of these assessments was to determine the academic achievements of the pupils. As a consequence of these assessments, the students were placed in a "pass" and "fail" category. Those who had passed move on to the next level, while those who failed were compelled to repeat the same grade or leave the system. In this way, the students have been retained since the days of the earlier formal schooling. More or less the same practice is seen in the modern schooling. "The debate over the effectiveness of grade retention continues since those days" (Tomchin & Impara, 1992, p.200).

A fundamental characteristic of modern schooling is the homogeneity of children in a class in respect of mental capability and age. Transitions through the grades are primarily based on mental capability of the child, but, due to individual differences, all children do not progress at the same rate. This fact forces the educationists to think about how to manage the growing inequality of academic status among the students. One option is to continue the traditional policy of grade retention. Under this policy, students showing poor academic performance are retained in their existing grade rather than being promoted to the next grade. The major aim of retention is considered to improve academic performance by giving children, who are not ready for promotion, an extra year to develop adequate academic skills. Such a policy is often justified as an essential practice for maintaining grade level standards and accountability of students. Due to this policy, the heterogeneity of age within one grade is increased, but a homogenous environment in respect of academic achievement is created within classroom, thus making the instruction practices more efficient.

Quite a large number of research studies indicated that school failure is a major cause of low self-concept<sup>70</sup> in students. School failure damages their self-image and they

---

<sup>70</sup>The self-concept is said to be a set of planned self-attitudes that are relatively established and "characteristic" of an individual (Demo, 1992, p.303).

often start disliking themselves. Trethewey (1999) affirmed that “being rated as “unfit for promotion” at the end of a year frequently undermined a child's self-respect and confidence” (p.280). Likewise, M.C. Martin (1995) endorsed that “failure in school plays a significant role in forming a negative self-image, especially when the child’s self-concept is negative to begin with” (p.68). Similarly, Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, and Rosenberg (1995) stated in their study that “children with poor academic self-concepts are often described as having low self-esteem<sup>71</sup>” (p.143). Consistent with this view, Westbury (1994) was of the opinion that, “the emotional strain attached to repeating a grade would lower self-esteem among repeaters” (p.248).

Chetcuti & Griffiths (2002) revealed in their study of the “implications for student self-concept of ordinary differences in schools of Malta and England that the self-concept of students is affected by their perceived ability, especially as formalized from test results or other assessments” (p.544). Similarly, Psacharopoulos, Rojas, and Velez (1993) also found in their study of cognitive achievement of third and fifth graders that “repeaters had a negative self-esteem” (p.272).

Rodney, Crafter, Rodney and Mupier, (1999) found that “retained students displayed exacerbated behavior problems” (p.185). Consistent with this view, Westbury (1994) explored in her study that “the emotional strain attached to repeating a grade would lower self-esteem in repeaters” (p.248). Furthermore, Anderson (2000) also endorsed in his study that “repetition has an effect on dropout statistics: it lowers self-esteem and isolates the student from his/her friends and peers” (p.121). In the same way, Stearns, Moller, Blau, and Potochnick (2007) demonstrated in their study that “retained students have lower self-esteem than continuously promoted students” (p.231).

Rosenberg, Schooler and Schoenbach (1989) indicated that “the well-established relationship between self-esteem and academic performance is primarily attributable to the effects of school marks on self-esteem” (p.1014). The authors used “a panel of 1886 adolescent boys to explore the reciprocal relationships between self-esteem and poor school performance” (p.1004). The findings showed that “school marks have a significant effect on self-esteem” (p.1015). Moreover, this study also revealed that “the relationship between self-esteem and school performance is primarily attributable to the effect of school performance on self-esteem” (p.1004). Similarly, the findings of another study by Rosenberg, et al (1995) indicated that the “degree to which specific academic self-esteem affects global self-esteem, particularly the positive component of global self-esteem, is a function of how highly academic

---

<sup>71</sup> Self-concept and self-esteem are often used as synonyms in research literature.

performance is personally valued” (p.141). Owens (1994) used non-recursive linear structural equation models and collected data from the “Youth in Transition” study, to compare the reciprocal interrelations of self-deprecation (negative self-evaluations), positive self-worth (positive self- evaluations), and global self-esteem (which includes both positive and negative evaluations) on high school grades” (p.391). The data indicated that “school achievement is important to adolescent self-worth, as theory suggests, and that it may foster positive feelings when grades are high, and stimulate self- reproach when grades are low” (p.405). Consistent with this view, Burfeind and Bartusch (2006) stated that “poor school performance leads to frustration and anger and subsequently to delinquent behavior” (p.320). Gipps and Tunstall (1998) endorsed in their study that “the development of a favorable self-concept in children is dependent upon perceiving themselves as successful, this in turn may depend on the way the child interprets the teachers' reaction to his/her performances” (p.151). Similarly, Chetcuti and Griffiths (2002) stated that “the self-esteem of students is affected by their perceived ability, especially as formalized from test results or other assessments” (p.544).

In line with the international commitment of Millennium Development Goals, Government of Pakistan has decided to implement the policy of automatic promotion in the first three grades of primary level (with some variations across the provinces) in all public schools of Pakistan in 2002. The basic aim of this policy was to increase the enrolment ratio by lowering the dropout rate at primary level, for achieving the target of universal primary education. Due to this policy, almost all students of first three grades in the public schools are automatically promoted ignoring the academic performance they have shown throughout the year. As a result, majority of poor performers reach grade four and then they are retained here as they are considered academically wanting to appear in the departmental examination. In this way, the first experience of grade retention affects them severely and they feel very disturbed and shocked. Most of these students leave school in order to avoid expected insult by peers and teachers. The latest official statistics have confirmed this fact also (Government of Pakistan, 2006; AEPAM, 2008, AEPAM, 2009).

**Table 1**

Dropout Rates by Grade and Gender at Elementary Level for Public Sector Institutions (2005)

<u>Grades</u>	<u>Dropout Rates</u>		
	Total	Male	Female
Between Grade I and II	14.1%	16.1%	11.2%
Between Grade II and III	3.7%	8.6%	-
Between Grade III and IV	5.0%	7.4%	1.5%
<b>Between Grade IV and V</b>	<b>8.5%</b>	<b>9.9%</b>	<b>6.5%</b>

**Source:** National Education Census, 2005, Government of Pakistan, 2006, p.32

As revealed by Table 1 that the dropout rate between grade four to five is 8.5 % , higher than the dropout rate between grade two to four, i.e. 3.7 % , 5.0 % respectively. The existing educational practice in primary education system is said to be one of the possible causes of this high dropout rate. This fact is also described by a high number of repeaters at primary level by the data taken from latest report of Pakistan Education Statistics as revealed in Table 2 respectively.

**Table 2**

Enrolment Statistics at elementary level in public schools of Pakistan

Grade	<u>% of Repeaters compared to Total Enrolment</u>	
	2006-2007	2007-2008
1	4.5%	3.5%
2	3.9%	2.8%
3	3.9%	2.6%
<b>4</b>	<b>7.0%</b>	<b>4.5%</b>
5	1.3%	0.6%

**Source:** Pakistan Education Statistics 2006-07, 2007-08, (Government of Pakistan, 2008, Government of Pakistan, 2009)

Table 2 reveals that, greater numbers of students repeat grade four as compared to the other grades, except grade one of primary level in the public schools of Pakistan. This sad situation is perhaps due to the current policy of automatic promotion in the first three grades along with final departmental examinations at the end of 5<sup>th</sup> grade. The official statistics evident that the current governmental policy and attitude of the schools' authorities towards slow learners has severely affected the performance of 4<sup>th</sup> grade students. Poverty is a major social problem in Pakistan, and when a student fails in some grade having low socio-economic background, his/her parents do not

agree to spend money and time for an extra year. So, majority of the students leave the school for doing some work, thus increasing dropout rate. In addition to this, the students who repeat the same grade are subject to continuous criticism of class fellow even their teachers also criticize them, because primary school teachers are not very well-aware of the concepts like self-esteem and other personality development factors of the students.

On the basis of above discussion, it was needed to identify the impact of failure on the self-concept of fourth grade students, especially in the context of a developing country like Pakistan. Therefore, the present study is designed to investigate the possible effects of academic failure on the self-concept of students of grade four in public schools in the context of Pakistan. It is anticipated that, this study would be useful in identifying issues related to academic failure of primary grade students. The study is also useful in developing effective strategies in the primary education system of Pakistan, where the high dropout at primary level is considered a big hurdle in the way of achieving the target of universal primary education.

## **METHODOLOGY**

The present study was descriptive in nature and quantitative techniques were applied to achieve the study objectives. As the automatic promotion policy is homogeneously implemented at primary level in all public schools of Pakistan, so by employing convenience sampling technique, the 4<sup>th</sup> grade students (N =305) of the public schools (N=42) of Rawalpindi city were selected as the study sample. A two-phase panel study was designed to collect quantitative data.

For the study of self-concept of the students, “Beck Youth inventory<sup>72</sup> for self-concept (BSCI-Y)” was adapted (Beck, Beck, Jolly and Steer, 2005) and translated in Urdu by the researcher for Pakistani students, and its validity was checked by two experts. The Cronbach’s Alfa reliability of the Urdu version, of this 20 item scale, was measured by using SPSS<sup>73</sup> 13.0. The data was measured by taking a sample of 48 students in pilot testing phase, ranging between the ages 11 to 14, studying in grade four of the public schools of Rawalpindi city. The reliability level of .88 was attained, that was quite near to the reliability (0.89 for girls and, 0.91 for boys) measured by the authors of the scale, with a sample of 400 children (girls= 201 and boys=199) of age 7 to 10 (Beck et al., 2005, p.39). The Urdu translation of the scale was administered to the sample students in the two phases. In the first phase, the self-concept scale was administered to the sample at the start of last term in January 2013.

---

<sup>72</sup> The Beck Youth Inventory for self-concept (BSCI-Y) used to assess self-concepts in children between the ages of 7 and 10 years old.

<sup>73</sup> SPSS, Statistical Package for Social Sciences.

The report of the annual school examination served for the purpose of dividing the sample into two groups, i.e. failed and promoted students. The result record of annual examination held in March 2013 of the grade four in the sample schools was taken for this purpose. The sample students (both promoted and failed) were reassessed by the same scale in the first month of the successive academic year.

## ANALYSIS

Following the collection of data and coding of completed self-concept scale, the statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 13.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). T-test sampling techniques were carried out to demonstrate how the performance in annual examination affects the self-concept of students. There were total 305 cases of grade four which were taken from forty two public primary schools of Rawalpindi city. The sample included both poor performers and the normal students. After announcement of annual school result, this sample was divided into failed and successful students. The failed students repeated grade four, whereas the successful students were promoted to grade five.

The situation analysis of the whole study sample in the next academic year is described as follows:

**Table 3**

Detailed Account of the Original Sample of the Study (N=346)

Successful	failed	Left <sup>74</sup>	Remaining Sample
199	147	41	305

Table 3 presents the detailed account of the original sample of the study. There were 199 promoted, 147 failed and 41 left cases. Due to left cases, the remaining sample of the study was reduced to 305.

---

<sup>74</sup> Here, left cases included both dropouts and left the sample school for carrying their studies in some other schools

**Table 4**

Gender Description of the whole Study Sample (N=346)

Category	Frequency	Left	Retained
Boys	148 (42.7%)	34 (22.9 %)	114 (77.1%)
Girls	198 (57.3%)	07 (3.6%)	191 (96.4%)

The Table 4 presents the situation analysis of study sample on the basis of gender. There were total 148 (42.7 %) boys' sample, among them 34 (22.9 %) left the school and 114 (77 %) retained in school and continued their studies in the same school. There were 198 (57.2 %) girls in the whole sample, 07 (3.5 %) left the school and 191 (96.4 %) remained in the same school and continued their studies

**Table 5**

Sample Division (pass/fail) of the sample on the basis of Annual School Result (N=346)

Category	Frequency	Dropout/left	Retained
Successful	199(57.51%)	11 (5.5%)	188 (94.6 %)
Failed	147(42.48%)	30 (20.4%)	117 (79.6 %)

The Table 5 presents the distribution of the whole study sample (N=346) on the basis of annual school results. Out of total 346 fourth grade students, 199 (57.51%) were declared successful in annual examination, among them 11(5.5%) left the school, whereas 188 (94.6%) remained in the same school and continued their education. There are 147 (42.48%) students who failed in annual examination, out of them, 30 (20.4%) were dropped out<sup>75</sup> from the school, whereas 117 (79.6%) continued their studies and repeated the same grade.

**Table 6:**

Gender wise Description of the study sample on the basis of Annual School Result (N=305)

Category	Frequency	Passed	Failed
Boys	114 (37.4%)	74 (64.9%)	40(35.1%)
Girls	191 (62.6%)	114(59.6%)	77(40.3%)

<sup>75</sup> As according the schools' report, these students left school without taking school leaving certificate, so they considered as dropout.

Table 6 presents the gender description of the study sample excluding drop out and left cases. There were 114 (37.4 %) boys and 191 (62.6 %) girls included in the sample i.e. total of 305 fourth grade students. Out of 114 boys, 74 (64.9%) were passed and 40 (35.1%) were declared fail in annual examination. In the girls' sample, 114 (59.6%) were passed and 77 (40.3%) failed in examination. The reason of greater percentage of female students was the greater number of girls' enrolment ratio in public primary schools, included in the study sample.

In order to see the impact of success and failure on the self-concept of the students, the self-concept scores of the failed and promoted group of sample students before annual examination (Phase 1) was compared with their self-concept scores after examination (phase 2).

**Table 7**

Descriptive Statistics regarding Self-Concept<sup>76</sup> (N=305)

Variables	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Mean	Std. deviation
SC-1 <sup>77</sup>	30.00	65.00	47.69	7.84
SC-2 <sup>78</sup>	28.00	65.00	47.43	7.66

Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics regarding self-concept scores of the study sample in Phase 1 and Phase 2. The self-concept scores of the study sample in both phases also demonstrated some similarities. The minimum self-concept score in Phase 1 was 30.00 that declined to 28.00 in Phase 2. The maximum self-concept score of the study sample was same in both the phases. The mean score for self-concept of students in Phase 1 was 47.69 with a standard deviation of 7.84, whereas the mean score for self-concept of the students in Phase 2 was 47.36 with a standard deviation of 7.80.

As discussed earlier, the whole study sample was further divided into two sub categories i.e. failed sample and promoted sample, so their separate descriptive statistics were also calculated in order to get clearer picture of the whole sample.

<sup>76</sup> Total score for Self-Concept (SC) =65

<sup>77</sup> SC-1= Self- Concept score in phase 1(before annual school examination).

<sup>78</sup> SC-2= Self-Concept score in phase 2 (in the first month of successive year).

**Table 8**

Descriptive Statistics regarding Self-Concept of Failed Sample (n=117)

Variables	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Mean	Std. deviation
SC-1	30.00	62.00	47.56	7.59
SC-2	28.00	60.00	44.64	7.29

With respect to failed sample, the Table 8 indicates that the minimum self-concept score in Phase 1 was 30.00 and maximum score was 62.00. The mean score in Phase 1 was 47.56 with a standard deviation of 7.59. In the Phase 2, the minimum self-concept score of failed students was 28.00 whereas, the maximum score was 56.00. The mean score of self-concept in phase 2 was 42.65 with a standard deviation of 6.48.

**Table 9**

Descriptive Statistics regarding Self-concept of Promoted Sample (n=188)

Variables	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Mean	Std. deviation
SC-1	30.00	65.00	47.77	8.01
SC-2	30.00	65.00	49.16	7.55

Table 9 presents the descriptive statistics of promoted sample regarding their self-concept scores in both the phases. In Phase 1, the minimum self-concept score of promoted sample was 30.00 and maximum score was 65.00. The mean score in Phase 1 was 47.77 with a standard deviation of 8.01. In the Phase 2, the minimum self-concept score of promoted students was 30.00, whereas the maximum score was 65.00. The mean score of self-concept in phase 2 was 49.16 with a standard deviation of 7.55.

**Table 10**

Comparison of Self-Concept (Phase 1 &amp;Phase 2) of Failed sample (n=117) and Promoted sample (n=188)

Failure	Promoted			
	Mean	t-value	Mean	t-value
SC-2	44.64		49.16	
vs.		- 6.80***		5.51***
SC-1	47.56		47.77	

\*\*\* Significant at .000

Table 10 presents the comparison of self-concept of failed and promoted sample in two times, i.e. before annual examination and after examination. The mean of self-concept score of failed sample, after examination (phase 2), was 44.64 and before examination (Phase 1) was 47.56. The mean difference ( $t = -6.80$ ) between the two set of scores was found highly significant at .000 alpha. The negative sign of  $t$ -value indicated a decrease in the self-concept of this sample after failure. The mean of self-concept, of promoted students, after examination was 49.16 and before examination (Phase 1) was 47.77. The findings of the  $t$ -test for self-concept scores ( $t = 5.51$ ) of the before - annual examination and just after examination revealed significant results at .000 alpha. The analysis presented in the Table 10 depicted highly significant impact of academic failure on the self-concept of the students. The analysis demonstrated that the mean differences of self-concept scores of failed students revealed negative impact of academic failure, whereas, the mean differences of self-concept of promoted students showed positive significant results after success in annual examination.

## CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study was to find out the impact of academic failure on the self-concept of the students. This objective was achieved by applying quantitative techniques on the self-concept scores of the failed and promoted students before annual examination (phase 1) with their self-concept scores after examination (phase 2). The statistical analysis demonstrated that mean differences of failed sample revealed negative impact of failure, whereas, the mean differences of self-concept score of promoted students showed positive and significant results of success in annual examination. This conclusion is also supported by a number of research studies, (Pomplun, 1988; Westbury, 1994; Gottfredson et al., 1994; Trethewey, 1999; Anderson, 2000; Stearns et al., 2007). The findings of this study reveal that, the first experience of academic failure affects them severely and they feel very disturbed and shocked. It was also found that 30 students left school after failure in annual examination without taking school leaving certificate<sup>79</sup>. In this way, they dropped out from education system. Most of these students leave school in order to avoid expected insult by peers and teachers in the repeated year. It may be because of their limited financial resources as the entire sample schools located in the economically deprived areas of Rawalpindi city. The latest official statistics have confirmed this fact also (GoP, 2006; AEPAM, 2008). The statistics clearly reveal that the automatic promotion in first three grades and then high rate of retention at grade four has proved an unsuccessful practice.

---

<sup>79</sup> School leaving certificate is a necessary requirement for admission in other school.

Literature on grade retention and automatic promotion policy demonstrates that these policies would prove workable if accompanied by other helping measures, such as special coaching and summer classes etc, (Tomchin and Impara, 1992; Gomes-Neto and Hanushek, 1994). Moreover, the literature review clearly demonstrated that other factors such as socioeconomic status of the parents and parent-child affection are also main contributing factors in the development of self-concept of the students (Wiltfang & Scarbez, 1990; Roberts & Bengtson, 1993). Further research in this area could explore the significant role of these factors.

### **Recommendations of the Study**

The current study has uncovered an important issue related to primary education at grass root level. The researcher realized that some recommendations based on the conclusion of the study will also prove valuable in the promotion of Universal Primary Education in Pakistan. These recommendations are related to different categories and are given below.

### **Relating Alternatives to Grade Retention**

The findings of the present study suggested that the current practice of automatic promotion policy in the first three grades and grade retention in the last two grades of primary level needs revision after careful analysis of grass root problems. These policies can be workable if they are accompanied by other reform measures. The literature has offered a number of alternatives to grade retention. Stone and Engel (2007) proposed that

--- as an alternative to (or, at least, in parallel to) “doing retention differently,” investment in other efforts at the levels of both scholarship and practice may yield more promising outcomes, systematic efforts to develop individualized, classroom, and school strategies to address differing learning needs within students, as well as differing densities of these students across classrooms and school (p.630).

Similarly, Stearns et al. (2007) had suggested the alternatives to grade retention, including “summer schools and academies that keep children with their same-age peers while ensuring that they gain mastery of the academic content and skills that had previously caused them difficulty, can be attractive” (p.231). In the same way, Meisels and Liaw (1993) proposed in the concluding remarks of their study of examining the phenomenon of retention in kindergarten through eighth grade that “retention should be used only in rare exceptions, and new approaches to curriculum development, school restructuring, and individualized student instruction should

become the focus of efforts to improve academic outcomes” (p.76). It is therefore strongly recommended that the policy of automatic promotion at the first three grades of primary level should be modified after careful survey of ground realities, and thus be implemented with other reform measures as discussed above. Moreover, the high ratio of grade retention at grade four should also be noticed, and must take effective steps to minimize the negative consequences of this phenomenon.

### **Relating Teacher Education and Training Programs**

The major findings of the present study are related to the psychological aspect of the students’ personality that significantly affects their academic performance. Presently, the child psychology has a dominant place in the curriculum of teacher education. In practical situation, the teachers’ attitude especially at primary level does not present a learned behavior. It reveals that the teacher education and training programs are based on theoretical knowledge and not on practical know-how and are not as effective as they should be. The researcher recommends that while designing teacher training programs the practical aspects of child psychology along with theoretical considerations ought to be build up, as depicted in the conclusion of the present study. If the practical aspects of child behavior are incorporated into the training programs, they may become more viable, relevant and acceptable for the teachers.

### **Relating Classroom Teachers**

The findings of the present study revealed that the psychological aspect of self-concept is associated with the phenomenon of grade retention. The teacher should encourage students in a manner, that they perceive themselves as efficient individuals, through their own effort and responsibility during the learning process. In the light of study findings, the researcher recommends that primary teachers should realize the significance of psychological aspect of the child development in teaching practice. They should be more caring and considerate about their students' needs and interests and should help them define their personal goals.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

The present study is said to be a base-line study on the topic of grade retention in the field of primary education in Pakistan. During the whole study process, a number of issues arose that need further exploration. During this research, the phenomenon of grade retention of the fourth grade students was studied in relation to their self-concept. The failed students were compared with promoted students. The findings of this study also highlighted many interesting possibilities for future research in Pakistan, such as gender differences among repeaters and the link between grade retention and drop out of students from education system etc. There are a number of

individual level differences, between repeaters and promoted students, which were not included in the study such as relationship of repeaters with successful peers, the contribution of family support factors in success or failure etc. The impact of grade retention needs further exploration. Moreover, the aspect of engagement with schooling was also beyond the scope of this study and thus needs to be investigated. In addition to this, further research on the topic of grade retention could involve parents and school administration, for looking at the relationship between grade retention and the factors related to the personality development of student.

Finally, the researcher realized during data collection process, that there is need of some kind of comprehensive investigation about the dropout cases. The students, who left school after passing the annual examination, took school leaving certificates for getting admissions in some other school. On the other hand, those who left after failure in examination and without taking school leaving certificate emerged as drop out cases. Nobody knew about the status of those drops out cases, whether they started their studies in some other private schools or left the education system. There should be a comprehensive study on such cases as they appear as wastage in education system.

## REFERENCES

- AEPAM (2008). *Pakistan Education Statistics 2006-07*. National Education Management Information System, Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Ministry of Education, Islamabad, Pakistan.
- AEPAM (2009). *Pakistan Education Statistics 2007-08*. National Education Management Information System, Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Ministry of Education, Islamabad, Pakistan.
- Anderson, J. B. (2000). Factors Affecting Learning of Mexican Primary School Children. *Estudios Económicos*, 15 (1), 117-152. Retrieved on December 3, 2015, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/>
- Athansou, J. & Lamprianou, L. (2005). *A teacher's guide to Assessments*. Thomson Social Science Press, Australia.
- Burfeind, J. W & Bartusch, D. J. (2006). *Juvenile Delinquency: An Integrated Approach* Jones and Bartlett Publishers, Sudbury, Massachusetts.
- Chetcuti, D & Griffiths, M. (2002). The Implications for Student Self-Esteem of Ordinary Differences in Schools: The Cases of Malta and England. *British Educational Research Journal*, 28 (4), 529-549. Retrieved on March 12, 2015 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>

- Demo, D. H. (1992). The Self-Concept Over Time: Research Issues and Directions, *Annual Review of Sociology*, 18, 303-326.
- Gipps, C. & Tunstall, P. (1998). Effort, Ability and the Teacher: Young Children's Explanations for Success and Failure. *Oxford Review of Education*, 24 (2), 149-165. Retrieved on December 3, 2015 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Gomes-Neto, J. B. & Hanushek, E. A. (1994). Causes and Consequences of Grade Repetition: Evidence from Brazil. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 43(1), 117-148. Retrieved on December 3, 2015 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Gottfredson, D. C., Fink C. M. & Graham N. (1994). Grade Retention and Problem Behavior. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31(4), 761-784. Retrieved on March 6, 2015 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Government of Pakistan. (2006). *National Education Census, Highlights*, Ministry of Education, Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Statistics Division, Federal Bureau of Statistics
- McMartin, J. (1995). *Personality Psychology A Student Centered Approach*. Sage Publications, USA.
- Meisels, S. J & Liaw F. (1993). Failure in Grade: Do Retained Students Catch Up? *The Journal of Educational Research*, 87 (2), 69-77. Retrieved on March 6, 2015 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Owens, T. J. (1994). Two Dimensions of Self-Esteem: Reciprocal Effects of Positive Self-Worth and Self-Deprecation on Adolescent Problems. *American Sociological Review*, 59 (3), 391-407. Retrieved on December 3, 2012 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Rodney, L W; Crafter, B; Rodney, E & Mupier, R M (1999). Variables Contributing to Grade Retention among African American Adolescent Males *The Journal of Educational Research*, 92( 3), 185-190, Retrieved on March 12, 2013 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Psacharopoulos, G., Rojas, C. & Velez, E. (1993). Achievement Evaluation of Colombia's "Escuela Nueva": Is Multigrade the Answer? *Comparative Education Review*, 37(3), 263-276. Retrieved on October 11, 2012 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Roberts, R. E. L., & Bengtson, V. L. (1993). Relationships with Parents, Self-Esteem, and Psychological Well-Being in Young Adulthood. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 56(4), 263-277. Retrieved on December 3, 2013 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>

- Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C. & Schoenbach, C. (1989). Self-Esteem and Adolescent Problems: Modeling Reciprocal Effects. *American Sociological Review*, 54 (6), 1004-1018. Retrieved on October 11, 2013 from <http://www.jstor.org>
- Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C. Schoenbach, C. & Rosenberg, F. (1995). Global Self-Esteem and Specific Self-Esteem: Different Concepts, Different Outcomes. *American Sociological Review*, 60 (1), 141-156. Retrieved on March 6, 2014 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Stearns, E., Moller, S. Blau, J. & Potochnick, S. (2007). Staying Back and Dropping out: The Relationship between Grade Retention and School Dropout. *Sociology of Education*, 80 (3), 210-240. Retrieved on March 6, 2014 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Stone, S. & Engel, M. (2007). Same Old, Same Old? Students "Experiences of Grade Retention under Chicago's Ending Social Promotion Policy. *American Journal of Education*, (113) Retrieved on March 12, 2015 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Tomchin, E. M. & Impara, J. C. (1992). Unraveling Teachers' Beliefs about Grade Retention. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29 (1), 199-223. Retrieved on December 3, 2014 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Trethewey, L. (1999). Solving "The Retardation Problem" in Primary Education: The Case of South Australia. *History of Education Quarterly*, 39(3), 263-290. Retrieved May 6, 2014 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Westbury, M. (1994). The Effect of Elementary Grade Retention on Subsequent School Achievement and Ability. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 19 (3), 241-250. Retrieved on March 6, 2014 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>
- Wiltfang, G. L., & Scarbecz, M. (1990). Social Class and Adolescents' Self-Esteem: Another Look. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 53 (2), 174-183. Special Issue: Social Structure and the Individual. Retrieved on October 11, 2014 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable>

## **A Gender-Based Acoustic Analysis of English Lexical Stress by Khowar Speakers.**

### ***Abstract***

*The nature of English lexical stress is quite unpredictable and at the same time this supra segmental feature of English cannot be ignored by its foreign learners due to its dominant presence in the language. Because of such inherent nature, foreign learners of English generally find it hard to produce lexical stress of English correctly. The present study was carried out to analyze acoustic differences between the male and female speakers of Khowar language in the area of English lexical stress after they had studied it for one month. The researchers selected 6 commonly used English words to be pronounced by a sample of 20 Khowar/Chitrali speaking students studying at Diploma level in the Department of English, National University of Modern Languages, and Islamabad, Pakistan. The study sample (N 20) was equal in gender-wise distribution. The study sample was audio recorded in a language lab. The data was analyzed with the help of Praat, version 5.4.08. The given words were analyzed with the help of Waveform analysis and Spectrographic Analysis with a focus on Pitch and Duration which are two main contributing factors to lexical stress. The analysis of the data suggests that there are Pitch and Durational differences between the male and female speech though the performance in the area of lexical stress was same; most of them pronounced the given words either in a flat and unstressed manner or placed stress on the wrong syllable. The results suggest that English lexical stress is a difficult phenomenon for its foreign learners.*

**Key word:** *Lexical stress, Khowar, Pitch, Duration, Acoustic analysis, Praat*

---

#### **Dr. Arshad Mahmood**

Associate Professor,  
National University of Modern Languages, Islamabad, Pakistan.  
Email: margalla458@gmail.com

#### **Dr. Muhammad Iqbal Butt**

Associate Professor,  
Government Zamindara Postgraduate College, Gujrat, Pakistan. Email: profib@hotmail.com

#### **Dr. Muhammad Uzair**

Assistant Professor,  
National University of Modern Languages, Islamabad, Pakistan. Email: prof.uzair@gmail.com

## INTRODUCTION

Khowar is spoken in the north mountainous region of Pakistan and it is used as the *lingua franca* in Chitral District. It is an Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan (Indic) language of the Dardic, Chitral sub-group. Khopeople are its native speakers, concentrated mainly in Chitral in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, in the Ghizer district of Gilgit- Baltistan and in parts of Upper Swat. Khowar is spoken as a second language in the rest of Gilgit and Hunza. *Arniya* is the name given to Khowar speakers by the Shina-speaking people. Pakhtoons call the people and language *Kashgari* (sometimes spelled *Qashqari*). The Kalasha call Khowar speakers *Patu*. In Swat, Khowar speakers call themselves and their language *Kashgari* or *Chitrali*. Although the precise date is unclear, it is certain that by the late 1950s an alphabet had been adapted for Khowar based on Arabic and Urdu writing systems (Morgenstierne 1961; Strand 1973).

### Lexical Stress and Related Issues

Supra segmental features of a language are not less important than its segmental features since they also significantly contribute to what we call successful and effective communication. This means they can cause a serious threat to intelligibility if they are faulty or their articulation is not up to the mark (Anderson-Hsieh, Johnson & Koehler, 1992; Derwing, Munro, & Wiebe, 1998; Hahn, 2004; Kang, Rubin & Pickering, 2010). Some linguists carry this notion further by suggesting that faulty production of L2 supra-segmental features has a more significant role to play with regard to foreign accent than inaccurate execution of segmental features (Magen, 1998; Trofimovich & Baker, 2006).

English as a foreign language is not an easy task for its learners in terms of its segmental as well as supra-segmental features but supra-segmental features become more difficult since they cannot be studied and taught like the segmental features. Among all supra segmental features of English, its lexical stress seems to be the most difficult one and, as a matter of fact, English is heavily stress-timed (Abercrombie, 1967; Pike, 1966; Baker & Goldstein, 1990; O'Connor, 1980). Different linguists have defined stress differently. Some name it loudness, the others call it prominence and yet others call it syllabic loudness (Jones, 1976; Cleghorn & Rugg 2011; Crystal, 1995, 1992; Ou, 2004). The biggest problem of English lexical stress is its unpredictable nature even though linguists and EFL teachers across the globe have been assisting and facilitating learners by formulating sets of 'rules' to both describe and predict stress placement (Arnold, 1957; Burzio, 1994; Chomsky & Halle, 1968; Fudge, 1984; Halle & Keyser, 1971). Despite all these efforts, this phenomenon of English seems to be uncontrollable and unmanageable for foreign learners due to its

complicated nature (Archibald, 1993,1997; Flege & Bohn,1989; Benrabah, 1997; Low & Grabe,1999). A large number of studies suggest that L1 interference is the most prominent contributor to wrong treatment of English lexical stress at the hand of its foreign learners. This trap set by the L1 hoodwinks learners of English into pronouncing English lexical stress according to their L1 prosodic features (Erdmann,1973,cited in Guionetal., 2004; Maris, 1989, cited in Guionetal.,2004; Archibald, 1992, 1993, 1997;Chen et al., 2001a; Juffs, 1990; Hung, 1993; Nguyen & Ingram 2005).As regards the issue of gender vis-a-vis use of language, it seems to be quite crucial since different studies suggests that women use language differently from men. These studies suggest that women are more careful users of language and they opt for linguistic choices which may be termed as more formal and careful (Lakoff 1972, 1973, 1975; Holmes 1998; Trudgill, 1972, 1978, 1998; Portz 1982; Fasold 1990).

Lakoff (1975) suggests ten different speech features which distinguish women from men. These features are hedging, tag question, rising intonations on declaratives, empty adjectives, specialized vocabularies (precise color terms), intensifiers, hypercorrect grammar, super polite forms, avoidance of strong swear words, and emphatic stress. As far as gender-based pronunciation is concerned, it is something well researched. Researchers believe that pronunciation of words by women is more formal and careful. In a study conducted by Lakoff (1973), it was found out that there is a peculiar sentence intonation-pattern found in English only among women. A similar study was carried out by Permatasari (2010) which suggests that women use more rising intonation. Another study conducted by Pan (2011) establishes the same fact. Pan found out that women use rising intonation, higher pitch and standard pronunciation as compared with their male counterparts. According to Elgin (1993), one distinguishing feature which differentiates men and women with regard to pronunciation is that women tend to pitch their voices higher than men.

A study carried out by Mills (1995) suggests that the important difference between men and women speech lies in their vocal tract resonance. It is because of the fact that male's vocal tract tends to be larger than female's vocal tract. A study conducted on the pitch patterns of men and women by Elgin (1993) establishes that women tend to pitch their voices higher than men and strike against them in almost every language interaction, whereas men have lower tone in their speaking. The present study is thus an attempt to find out how female and male learners with Khowar language background are different from each other in terms of lexical stress of English with special focus on Pitch and Duration.

## Research Questions

1. How do female learners of English with Khowar background differ from their male counterparts in the area of English lexical stress?
2. What are the Pitch and Durational differences which distinguish pronunciation of female members with Khowar language background from that of their male counterparts?

## Objectives

The researchers undertook the study with the aim to find out:

- How learners of English with Khowar language background produce lexical stress of English
- How these male and female learners differ from each other in terms of pitch
- What duration they consume in producing stressed syllables of the given English words.

The present study will be a useful contribution to the existing knowledge in the area of acoustic phonetics with regard to English lexical stress. The analysis carried out with the help of Praat will provide a great deal of insight into gender-based performance of the study sample with special focus on Pitch and Duration.

## Delimitation

The present study was delimited to the Department of English, National University of Modern Languages (hereafter NUML), Islamabad and it was conducted at Diploma level. The researchers selected 6 commonly used English words for the study sample to pronounce. The primary stress given to the words was studied with the help of Praat. The main focus was on the Duration and Pitch of the tonic/primary syllable.

## METHODOLOGY

The current study seeks to find out how Khowar speaking learners of English produce English lexical stress. The researchers selected (10) Khowar speaking boys and (10) girls studying at Diploma English in NUML, Islamabad Pakistan. The members of the study sample were asked to pronounce a short list of 06 words. The division of the given words with regard to syllabification is as follows:

Words with 2 syllables: 2 (**Cassette** and **present** {verb})

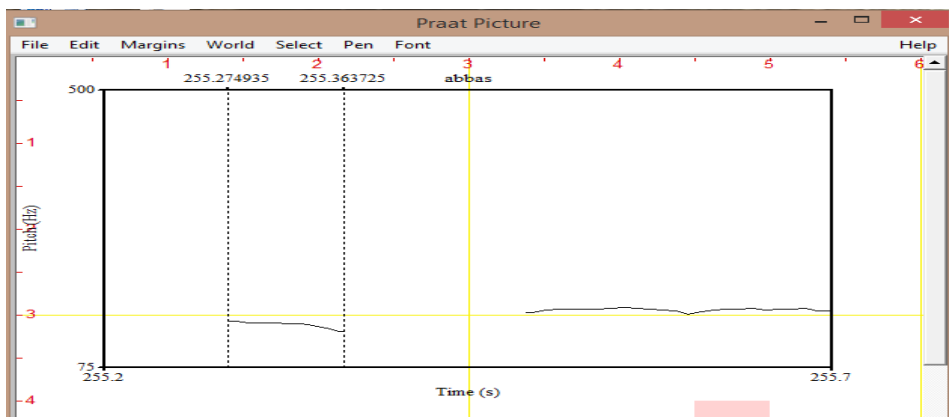
Words with 3 syllables: 2 (**tobacco** and **establish**)

Words with 4 syllables: 2 (**democracy** and **invitation**)

The subjects were recorded in a language lab. These recordings were made with the help of a mobile phone (Lenovo A328, Baseband version: MOLY. WR8. W1315. MD. WG. MP. V34. P6). The recordings were studied one by one with the help of Praat 5.4.08. The main focus was on the tonic stress with special focus on the values of *Duration* and *Pitch* of tonic stress.

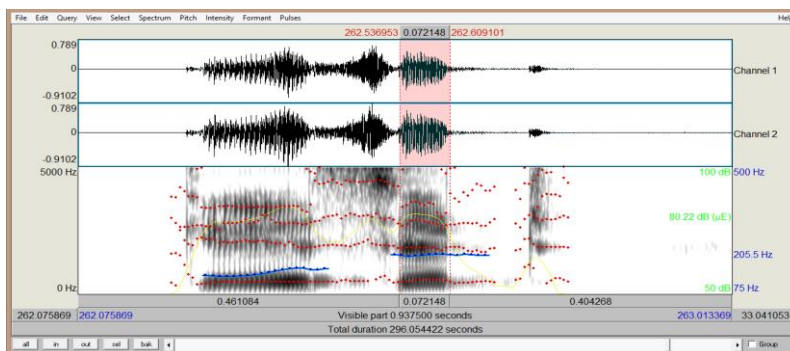
## ANALYSIS

The section below deals with the Waveform analysis and Spectral Analysis of English stress as produced by the members of the study sample with Khowar speaking background. The main focus of the analysis is on the Pitch value and Duration value of the members of the study sample since the main aim of the present study is to find out these differences. The window on the top shows the wave form of the recorded word and the window below shows the spectrogram along some horizontally marked lines in different colors. The dotted lines in red color show the vowel formants of the recorded words. The blue line pictures the *pitch* of the given word and the yellow line in the form of peaks shows the *intensity* produced for each syllable (the present study does not focus on the issue of *intensity* since it is mainly concerned with *Pitch* and *Duration* only). The area at the bottom shows time duration in milliseconds whereas the vertical window shows the values of formants/ formant frequencies in Hertz (one cycle per second). The researchers randomly selected the following recordings by male and female members for the word ‘cassette’ for the presentation below. The first window below shows the pitch contour of one of the members of the study sample. The data for the other words has been analyzed with the help of pie charts at the end of the following analysis.



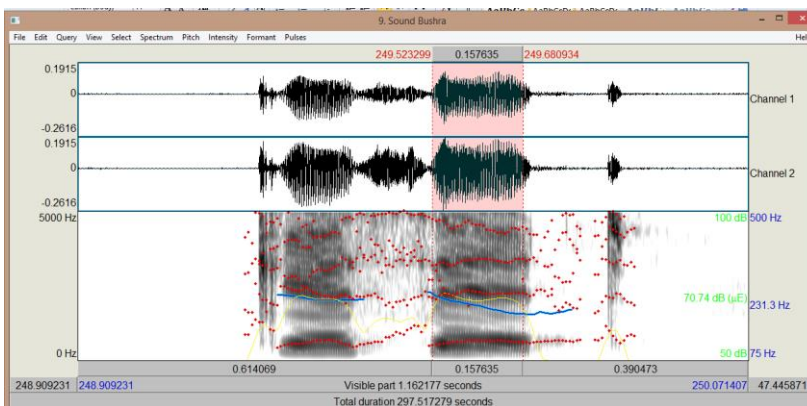
**Figure 1:** Pitch analysis of ‘cassette’ produced by a male speaker

The pitch window above shows the state of pitch as produced by the vocal cords for both the syllables of the word ‘cassette’. The first syllable ‘CA’ shows pitch going down whereas we find a far more diverse pitch contour for the second syllable ‘SETTE’, which is also supported by the pitch values given in the table below.



**Figure2:** Waveform and spectrographic analysis of ‘cassette’ produced by a male speaker

The figure above shows the waveform window on the top where we can easily compare the two syllables of the word ‘cassette’ produced by one of the male members of the study sample. This shows that the subject had no idea of tonic stress of this word. The blue lines show pitch of both the syllables where it can be observed that the second syllable was produced with higher pitch as compared with the first syllable. The second window shows the spectrographic analysis of the same word.



**Figure3:** Waveform and spectrographic analysis of ‘cassette’ produced by a female speaker

This figure shows waveform and the spectrographic analysis of the word ‘cassette’ as produced by one of the female members of the study sample. The waveform shows longer duration consumed by the second syllable of the said word as compared with the first syllable. Looking at the pitch contour in the spectrographic analysis, one can notice that the first syllable takes higher pitch as compared with the second syllable that should have been produced with a higher pitch instead.

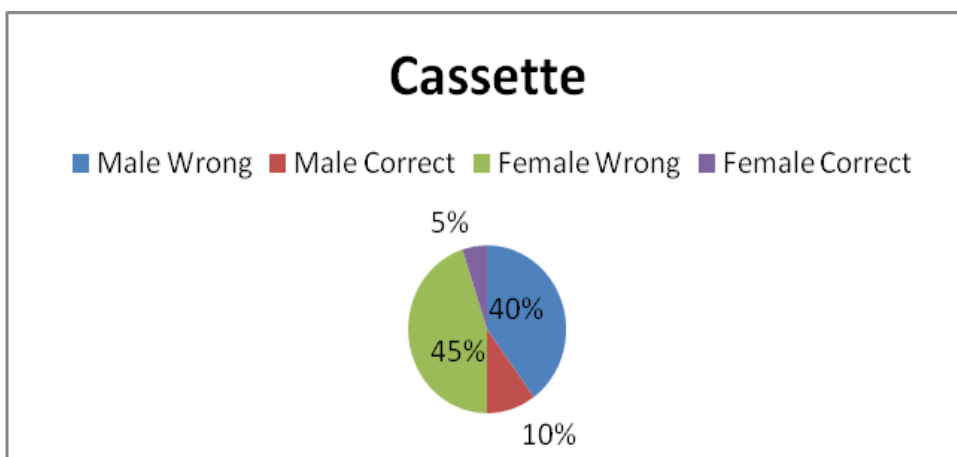
**Table 1**

Pitch and duration values of ‘cassette’ produced by male and female members of the sample

	pitch		Duration		stress
	Ca-part	Ssette-part	Ca-part	Ssette-part	
Female	260.868 Hz	259.512 Hz	0.1218 seconds	0.1576 seconds	Wrong
	to247.238 Hz	to208.093 Hz			
	235.337 Hz	265.103 Hz	0.2146 seconds	0.1331 seconds	Wrong
Female	to229.985 Hz	242.830 Hz			
	234.1328 Hz	265.0252 Hz	0.2173 seconds	0.1113 seconds	Wrong
	to230.2038 Hz	to252.7455 Hz			
Male	145.402 Hz	162.261 Hz	0.0855 seconds	0.0898 seconds	Wrong
	to129.861 Hz	to165.770 Hz			
	136.703 Hz	168.548 Hz	0.0860 seconds	0.0672 seconds	Wrong
Male	to127.860 Hz	to159.955 Hz			
	137.644 Hz	204.090 Hz	0.1460 seconds	0.0721 seconds	wrong
	to162.692 Hz	to208.700 Hz			

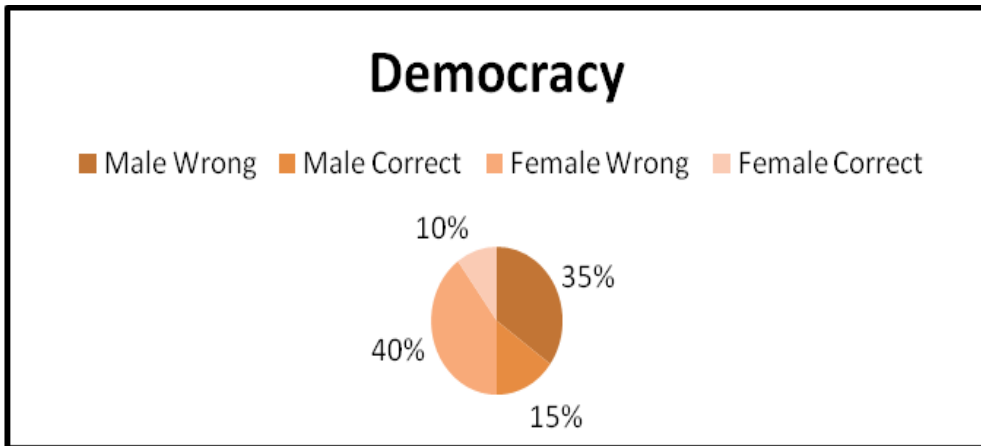
The table above shows production of the word ‘cassette’ by three female members and as many male members of the study sample. Looking at the table horizontally from the top, we find pitch values for both the syllables of the word in two different subcolumns. After that, there are two subcolumns for the durational values of both the syllables. The third column shows the state of lexical stress produced by these subjects. The different pitch values given above clearly indicate that the female members of the study sample produced all the syllables with a higher pitch as compared with the pitch produced by their male counterparts. The maximum pitch value produced by one of the subjects is 265.103 Hz whereas the lowest pitch value is 208.093 Hz. On the whole, the pitch values produced by the female members are higher than 208.093 Hz showing higher F0 produced by the vocal cords of these subjects. Conversely, the highest pitch value produced by one of the male members is 208.700 Hz and the lowest value is 127.860 Hz which shows the state of F0

produced by the vocal folds of these male subjects. As far as the duration is concerned, it was observed that the execution of both the syllables took longer when produced by the female members of the study sample, where the durational values range between 0.1113 seconds and 0.2173 seconds. Comparing these values with the ones produced by their male counterparts, we can see marked difference in the form of duration range between 0.0672 seconds and 0.1460 seconds. As regards lexical stress, almost all the members produced it wrongly; there was something wrong either with the Pitch or Duration which resulted in the wrong placement of the tonic stress. The analysis of the whole data shows that the female members of the study sample have produced the given words with higher pitch and longer duration. The following section presents the gender-based performance of the study sample in the form of a pie chart for each word.



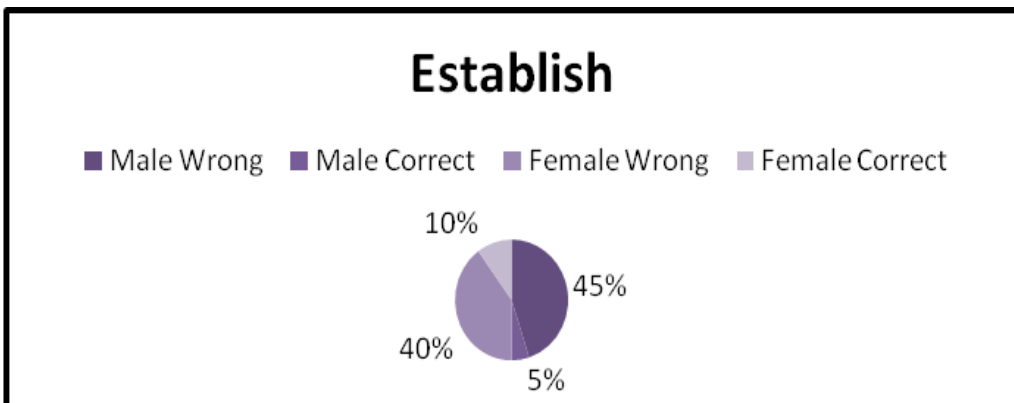
**Figure 4:** Pie chart of ‘cassette’ produced by Khohar speakers

The figure above shows the gender-based performance of the members of the study sample in articulation of the word ‘cassette’. As the chart shows, 40% male subjects pronounced the word with stress at the wrong place whereas 10% pronounced it with stress on the correct syllable. The performance by their female counterparts is not good either. As we can see, 45% of them placed stress on the wrong part and only 5% of them did it correctly.



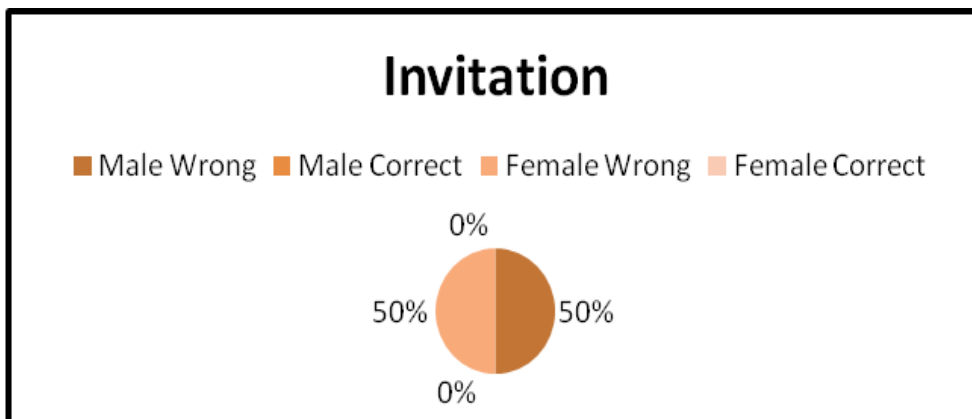
**Figure 5:** Pie chart of ‘democracy’ produced by Khowarspeakers

Figure 5 shows the pronunciation of the word ‘democracy’ by the members of the study sample. As the chart shows, 35% male subjects pronounced the word with stress on the wrong syllable whereas 15% of them pronounced it with stress on the right syllable. Similarly, only 10% of the female sample produced the stress correctly and the rest of them did the whole job wrongly.



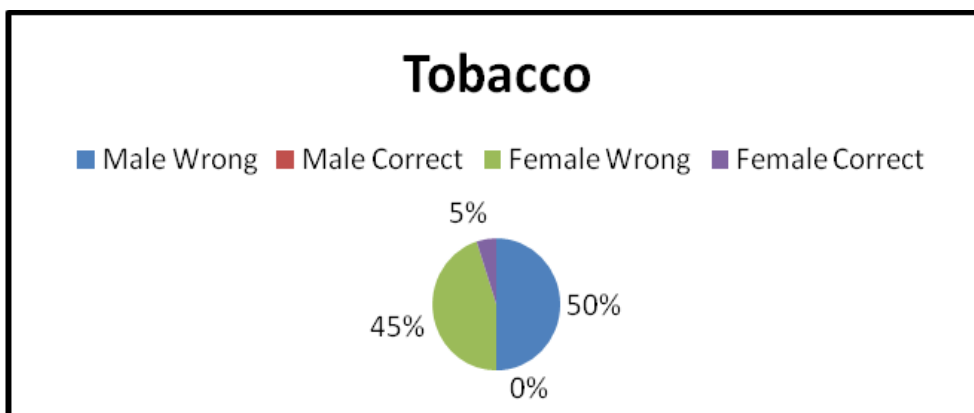
**Figure 6:** Pie chart of ‘establish’ produced by Khowar speakers

Figure 6 shows the pronunciation of the word ‘establish’ by the members of the study sample. The word has 3 syllables and most members of the study sample put lexical stress at the wrong place. As indicated above, only 5% males and 10% females pronounced the word with stress on the right syllable.



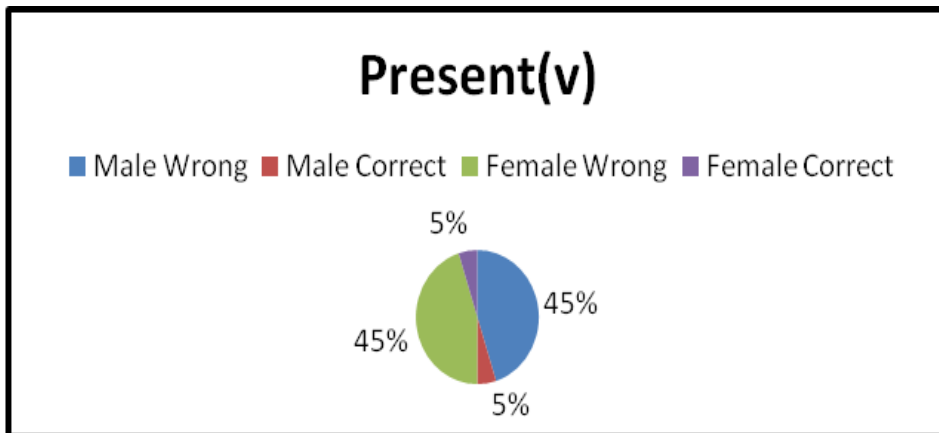
**Figure 7:** Pie chart of ‘invitation’ produced by Khowarspeakers

Figure 7 shows the pronunciation of the word ‘invitation’ by the members of the study sample. As the chart indicates, it is the worst performance shown by the study sample where none of the male or female members pronounced the word with stress at the right place.



**Figure 8:** Pie chart of ‘tobacco’ produced by Khowar speakers

The figure above shows the performance of the members of the study sample in articulation of the word ‘tobacco’. As the chart shows, only 5% female members of the study sample pronounced the word with stress at the right place and the male members put up even worse performance where none of them could pronounce the word with stress on the right syllable.



**Figure 9:** Pie chart of ‘present’ produced by Khowarspeakers

The figure above shows the performance of the members of the study sample in the articulation of the word ‘present’. As the chart shows, only 5% male members and 5% female members of the study sample pronounced the word with stress at the right place.

## FINDINGS

1. The analysis and interpretation of the data shows that Khowar speaking learners of English have no idea of lexical stress in English, though a few of them placed the stress on the given words correctly.
2. Looking at the analysis of data in terms of gender, it was found that the female members of the study sample produced the given words with a far higher pitch than their male counterparts.
3. The analysis of the data shows that male members of the study sample consumed lesser time in the execution of most of the syllable as compared with the female members.
4. Gender does not appear to be a crucial factor in terms of lexical stress.

## CONCLUSION

The present study was conducted with the aim to find out how Pakistani learners of English with Khowar background deal with English lexical stress. The researchers studied the lexical stress as produced by the members of the study sample with special focus on *pitch* and *duration*. The analysis shows that the female members produced syllables of the 6 given words with higher pitch as compared with the male subjects which supports the study conducted by Elgin (1993). Similarly, their

production of different syllables of the given words consumed longer duration as compared with their male counterparts. The analysis of the data shows that *pitch* and *duration* are heavily gender dependent but production of correct tonic stress has got nothing to do with gender. The detail analysis of the data suggests that Khowar and English are two distinct languages in supra-segmental terms and this factor leads to wrong pronunciation of English words by the Khowar speakers.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

Based on the findings of the research, the researchers have put forward the following suggestions and recommendations:

1. English lexical stress is a difficult phenomenon for its foreign learners due to its unpredictable nature. Therefore, it should be taught more seriously by language teachers.
2. English lexical stress can be better taught and learned with the help of speech analyzers.
3. Similar research can be conducted to study ‘intensity’ with regard to lexical stress in English.

**REFERENCES**

- Abercrombie, D. (1967). *Elements of general phonetics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Anderson-Hsieh, J., Johnson, R., & Koehler, K. (1992). The relationship between native speaker judgments of nonnative pronunciation and deviance in segmentals, prosody and syllable structure. *Language Learning*, 42(4), 529-555.
- Archibald, J. (1992). Transfer of L1 parameter settings: Some empirical evidence from Polish metrics. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics*, 37, 301-339.
- Archibald, J. (1993). Metrical phonology and the acquisition of L2 stress. In F. R. Eckman (Ed.), *Confluence: Linguistics, L2 acquisition and speech pathology* (pp.37-48). Amsterdam, NL: John Benjamins.
- Archibald, J. (1997). The acquisition of English stress by speakers of non-accentual languages: lexical storage versus computation of stress. *Linguistics*, 35(1).
- Arnold, G. F. (1957). *Stress in English words*. Amsterdam: North-Holland.
- Baker, A. & Goldstein, S. (1990). *Pronunciation pairs*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Benrabah, M. (1997). Word stress a source of unintelligibility in English. *IRAL* XXXV/3, 157-165.
- Burzio, L. (1994). *Principles of English stress*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. A. & Halle, M. (1968). *The Sound Pattern of English*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Cleghorn, T. L., & Rugg, N. M. (2011). *Comprehensive articulatory phonetics: a tool for mastering the world's languages*. N M Rugg.
- Collins, B. & Mees, I. M. (2003). *Practical phonetics and phonology: a resource book for students*. London: Routledge.
- Crystal, D. (1992). *An encyclopedic dictionary of language & languages*. Oxford: Blackwell publishers.

- Crystal, D. (1995). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 379-379.
- Derwing, T. M., Munro, M. J. & Wiebe, G. (1998). Evidence in favour of abroad framework for pronunciation instruction. *Language Learning*, 48,393-410.
- Doughty, C. J., & Long, M. H. (Eds.). (2003). *The handbook of second language acquisition*.
- Dupoux, E., Pallier, C., Sebastián-Gallés, N. & Mehler, J. (1997). A distressing 'deafness' in French, *Journal of Memory and Language*, 36, 406-421.
- Dupoux, E., Peperkamp, S., & Sebastián-Gallés, N. (2001). A robust method to study stress Eckman (Ed.), *Confluence: linguistics, L2 acquisition, and speech pathology* .Edition, vol. 2, ed. by B. Lewis, Ch. Pellat and J. Schacht, Leiden: E.J. Brill.
- Elgin, Suzette Haden. (1993). *Gender Speak: Men, Women and the Gentle Art of Verbal*
- Elgin, Suzette Haden. (1993). *Gender Speak: Men, Women and the Gentle Art of Verbal Self-Defense*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Flege, J. E. & Bohn, O.S. (1989). An instrumental study of vowel reduction and stress placement in Spanish-accented English. *SSLA11*, 35-62.
- Fudge, E. (1984). *English word-stress*. London: George Allen and Unwin.
- Guion, S.G., Clark, J. J., Harada, T., & Wayland, R.P. (2003). Factors affecting stress placement for English non-words include syllabic structure, lexical class, and stress patterns of phonologically similar words. *Language and Speech*, 46(4).
- Guion, S. G., Harada, T., & Clark, J. J. (2004). Early and late Spanish-English bilinguals' acquisition of English words tress patterns. *Bilingualism Language and cognition*, 7(3), 207-226.
- Hahn, L. D. (2004). Primary stress and intelligibility: Research to motivate the teaching of supra-segmentals. *TESOL Quarterly* 38,201-223.

- Halle, M., & Keyser, S. J. (1971). *English stress: Its form, its growth, and its role inverse*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Hung T. T. N. (1993). "The role of phonology in the teaching of pronunciation to bilingual students," *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 3, 249–256.
- Jones, D. (1976). *An outline of English phonetics (9th Edition)*. Cambridge: W. Heffer and Sons Ltd.
- Kang, O., Rubin, D. and Pickering, L. (2010). Supra-segmental measures of accentedness and judgments of language learner proficiency in oral English. *Modern Language Journal* 94(4), 554-566.
- Levis, J. (1999). Intonation in theory and in practice, revisited. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 37-54.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned (Rev. ed.)*. Oxford, England: UK.
- Low, E. L. & Grabe, E. (1999). A contrastive study of prosody and lexical stress placement in Singapore English and British English. *Language and Speech*, 42.
- Magen, Harriet. S. (1998). The perception of foreign-accented speech. *Journal of Malden, MA: Blackwell*.
- Mills, Sara. 1995. *Language and Gender: Interdisciplinary perspective*. New York : Longman.
- Moon, C., Cooper, R & Fifer, W. (1993). Two-day-olds prefer their native language.
- Morgenstierne, Georg (1961). Dardic and Kafir languages. *The Encyclopedia of Islam*, New
- Nguyen, T. T. A. & Ingram, J. (2005). Vietnamese acquisition of English word stress. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(2), 309-319.
- O'Connor, J. D. (1982). *Better English pronunciation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ou, S-C. (2004). An optimality-theoretic approach to word stress: evidence from Mandarin-English inter-language. Proceeding of 15<sup>th</sup> ICPH Sat Barcelona.

- Pan, Q. (2011). 'On the Features of Female Language in English.' *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 1, No. 8, pp. 1015-1018, August 2011, 2011 Academy Publisher Manufactured in Finland.
- Permatasari, F. (2010). Women's Speech Features Used by the Characters of Sex and the City Movie, Unpublished MA Thesis, Maulana Malik Ibrahim State Islamic University of Malang, Indonesia.
- Pike, K. L. (1966). *Phonemics: a technique for reducing languages to writing*. USA: The University of Michigan Press.
- Self-Defense. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Strand, Richard F. (1973). Notes on the Nuristani and Dardic languages. *Journal of the American Oriental Society*.
- Trofimovich, P. & Baker, W. (2006). Learning second language supra-segmentals: Effect of L2 experience on prosody and fluency characteristics of L2 speech. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 1-30.

## **Perception of Eunuchs Towards the Entitlement of Their Legal Protection by Supreme Court of Pakistan.**

### ***Abstract***

*The main objective of the research was to explore the perception of Eunuchs regarding the legal protection of their rights that Supreme Court has given to them. Research technique used was qualitative in nature. By using convenient sampling technique 12 eunuchs and 3 gurus from Dhok Khaba and Murree road Rawalpindi were included in the study in order to get their perspective regarding the decision. The tool used for the study was semi-structured interviews guideline and interviews were conducted. The Supreme Court of Pakistan in its landmark decision has given Eunuchs the basic human rights, like health, education; identification and security, to name a few. The Action of the Supreme Court of Pakistan has resulted in a verdict that make it obligatory for the Government to entrust the basic human rights to this marginalized section of the society. Result of the study was based on thematic analyses of the interviews conducted. The study has revealed that the eunuchs have very low social status in the society. Their deprivation is grounded in their non-recognition as a separate gendered human being beyond the male-female dichotomy. Majority of them have to face rejection from their families and are discriminated right from the beginning. The research has indicated that in fact, after Supreme Court Action there has been some change in the society's attitude towards them, yet they still face difficulties in getting access to these facilities. Eunuchs as citizens, and a part of society's diversity, have citizenship rights that need to be protected.*

**Key words:** *Eunuchs, Gurus, Supreme Court Decision, Basic human rights, Pakistan*

---

### **Dr. Rukhsana Hassan**

Assistant Professor,

Head Department of Gender Studies, Fatima Jinnah Women University, The Mall,  
Rawalpindi, Pakistan.

Email: [drukhsanahassan@gmail.com](mailto:drukhsanahassan@gmail.com)

### **Ms. Maryam Ijaz**

Lecturer, Department of Gender Studies Fatima Jinnah Women University, The Mall,  
Rawalpindi, Pakistan.

## INTRODUCTION

Sex is biologically determined, whereas gender refers to the socio-cultural construction of man and woman based on roles and characteristics assigned to them. The Eunuchs, or the *third gender* refers to individuals who do not fall in the category of males or females, and whose gender roles are not defined yet (Schultz & Robart. 2001). As they do not conform to conventional notions of male or female gender but combine or move between the two, and are usually understood as others therefore their vulnerabilities, frustrations, and insecurities have been historically overlooked by mainstream societies, similarly the social deprivation and harassments they face have never received attention in development sectors. It is estimated that there are around 80,000 eunuchs in Pakistan but the official documents card denotes their identity as men. According to the census carried out by Social Welfare Department about transvestites in Pakistan, 1500 registrations in Punjab and about 800 in Sindh. Bindiya Rana utilized eight volunteers, managed to get 900 *Khawaja Sirahs* in their district to fill out the government registration forms. According to Bindiya Rana, there are over 16,000 transvestites in Karachi and over 0.4 million throughout Pakistan (Ashraf, 2010). Talbott (2006) research has examined that Eunuchs have recorded history of more than 4,000 years and the ratio of eunuchs is increasing all over the world. Eunuchs are those people who have ambiguous genital organs, or infertile men. According to Talbott (2006) there are two types of eunuchs, i.e., those who are born with ambiguous genitalia and second are the castrated young men.

The term third gender or sex refers to individuals who are categorized by their will or social consensus as neither men nor women. There are different names used to acknowledge third gender. The third gender is known as "*hijra*", "*khusra*" and "*Khawajasirah*" in Pakistan, India and Bangladesh. *Hijra* is a Hindi /Urdu term translated in English as "Eunuch". There are also known as "*Kinner*" in India (Nanda, 1999). Eunuchs are neither complete men nor complete women, therefore they are also not considered as complete human being. It's hard to attribute any gender identity and to assign them gender role accordingly. As describe by Nanda (1999) they are "*man minus maleness*" and "*man plus woman*" means that they are men but lack masculinity and they are men with feminine behavior. And because of inability to reproduce, they have separate identity that doesn't fit into either category as a result they are being categorized differently. According to Chang (1965) the word 'eunuchs' has been derived from Greek "*keeper of the bed*" because castrated men were appointed to guard palaces. They were considered non-threatening enough to hold sensitive positions in the palaces of sultans and Mughal emperors as courtiers and guardians of the palaces. Third genders, (eunuchs) have an ancient community in the Indian subcontinent with members scattered all over the region. The history of

*Hijras* in the sub-continent dated back to Mughal era where they were referred to as *Khawajasarah*. *Khawajasarah* were eunuchs or hermaphrodites who were employed by Mughal rulers as care takers of the women quarters. They were powerful in courts, state affairs and as confidantes of rulers. They were highly valued for their strength, for protection of female loyalty and trust worthiness. They used to serve as messenger, watchmen, attendants and guards. Due to availability of high status jobs for eunuchs, it became a norm for the poor families to convert one of their sons into a eunuch so that he can work in Imperial palaces and have chance to earn a better income for the family. This practice of castration was banned throughout the Empire in 1668 by Aurangzeb. They lost their status with the desolation of Mughal era. Gradually, with no other job opportunities, they end up begging and as a result they were considered as social outcastes (Tufail, 2006).

Third gender refers to different sexual minorities which all comes under this term. It include intersex (hermaphrodite), transvestite (Cross dresser), and transgender (transsexual). In Islam also, the division of gender is in four groups: man, woman, *Khansa* (hermaphrodite), *Mukhannas* (Transvestite or cross dresser), and *Mukhannis* (transgender or transsexual). Intersex includes those individuals who have genetic, hormonal, and physical features of both male and female. They could be male with female features, females with male features or no clearly defined sexual features at all (Organization Intersex International [OII], 2003). Nanda (1999) has stated that their acceptance in Hindu society is more due to their religion Hinduism particularly because many Hindu deities are linked to the *hijras* such as *Arjun*, *Vishnu*, and *Shiva*. According to Jaffrey (1996), the Ancient Indian religious text (*Kama Sutra*) also informs the reader about the prevalence of third sex (*tritiyapraktiri*).

According to article “Intersexuality and Muslims” (2010), males hermaphrodite are those individuals who have male sex organ but at certain stage of development they started to physically appear as female like growth of breast and having female characteristics. Similarly, female hermaphrodite who have female sex organ but at certain age or during development, her behavior and appearance eventually started to look like a man like growing of mustache and beard on her face and thickness of vocal cord. In Islam those hermaphrodites who have both male and female genital organs are referred to as *Khansa Mushkil*, (Muheet Burhani Book 32 Hadees 454). In case the child (*khunsamushkil*) at the age of puberty shows the signs of man, like growth of beard then according to *Shari’a* that person will be considered as man. And if the child at puberty shows the signs of woman like growth of breast than she will be considered as woman (*Mukhallis Az Badaye us Sanaye Book 6 Hadees 418*). If the child at age puberty shows signs of both woman and man e.g. growth of breast and

beard than at this condition s/he'll also be taken under *Khunsa Mushkil* category. According to Zafar (2004) in Pakistan there is only 1% hermaphrodite (real hijras), whereas around 99% of Hermaphrodites are genetically male. These males consider themselves as females and are attracted toward masculine men. They usually have the relationship with males and play feminine role in this relationship (Tufail, 2006).

Marginalization is a multi-layered and complex concept. Leonard (1984) defined the social marginality as “being outside the productive activity or social reproductive activity”. By marginalizing means, there is the loss of a person's potential for social and economic contribution. It is a social process by which larger part of the people exclude the individual or smaller number of people from the normal function of the society and the medium of natural selection where only fittest or apparent completion matters (Marshall, 1998). Generally, conformity is defined as an effort to uphold a standard set by a social group. Simply means that the smaller group must have to try hard, to achieve a certain level of acceptance or conformity by the society. It is a direct outcome of our social values and prejudice. These values express themselves in many subtle but all-pervading ways through the legislative framework that governs our society.

Marginalization is often the unintended outcome of policies formulated to achieve stated objectives and few official policies are formulated with the intention to "marginalize" specific sections of society. It creates the imbalance between the mainstream and marginal groups (Friedman, 2006). Mullaly (2007) is of the opinion that because of the non-conformity to values of larger group various ethnic groups, religious minorities, homosexuals, transgender and aboriginal communities have to face issues like, fewer opportunities for survival, i.e., right to education, employment, and freedom of expression. The situation becomes sever when the prevailing structural inequalities and unjust policies directly linked to those marginalized groups are not into consideration. It is a well-known fact that the marginalization of individuals with different attachments of disabilities is prevalent today (Leslie, 2003) despite the presence of number of human rights treaties. Marginalization is a conduit that lead individuals and groups to social exclusion.

Beall and Piron (2005) define ‘social exclusion’ as “a process and a state that prevents individuals or groups from full participation in social, economic and political life and from asserting their rights. It derives from exclusionary relationships based on power.” Thus, the excluder rejects social relations denying access to resources and services, violating citizenship rights to particular individual and groups. Social aspects of exclusion refer to limited or no access to social, educational, legal and health services, resulting from ruptured social protection and social cohesion, such as kinship, family, neighborhood, and the community. Cultural aspects of social

exclusion refer to subordination of certain norms, behaviors, cultural practices, and lifestyles. Political aspects of exclusion include deprivation of citizens' rights, restricted access to organizations, voter rights, legislations, constitutions, and decision-making in policy. Economic aspects of social exclusion include barriers to employment opportunities, constraints access to commodities and livelihood opportunities such income, housing, land and working conditions. Social exclusion approach leads to understand various aspects of the life of third gender and mechanism of being excluded from the normal social life

Human rights are the fundamental rights of every human being, regardless of culture and societal norms. Articles 1,2,3,5,6,7 and 16 of the Universal Declaration of the Human Rights (UDHR) address, respectively, the rights to equality; freedom from discrimination; life, liberty and personal security; freedom from torture and degrading treatment; recognition as the person before the law; equality before the law; and the rights to marry and have a family. Some groups, specifically, some minority communities like transgender, as well as people with sexual deformity are in many places and circumstances denied their claim to the full set of human rights (Marks, 2006). Pakistan is one of those societies in which they are facing multiple forms of oppression including sexual, social, cultural and political issues.

*Hijras* are one of the most neglected groups in our society. On April 25, 2011 the Chief Justice directed NADRA to issue National Identity Card to third gender as a specific category of *Khawaja Siras*. This is first step towards providing them individual identity and dignity and also recognizing them as human and citizen of Pakistan. They can enjoy full citizen rights and can take part in the normal social life. In order to achieve the full realization of the rights as a fundamental component of the human rights, a broader understanding of the rights based approach must be adopted. A right based approach to third gender community is critical to the improvement of their life. This approach requires state to directly intervene in order to fulfill the right to manage and utilize their potential for the betterment of the society also.

## **Objectives**

- To find out the legal protection Supreme Court has given to eunuchs.
- To explore the perception of eunuchs about their Supreme Court Action

## **METHODOLOGY**

The research design was qualitative, and the instrument used to get information was in-depth interviews from eunuchs and their *gurus*. Sample size for semi-structured interviews was fifteen. Twelve interviews were conducted from eunuchs and three from gurus. Convenient sampling technique was used for data collection. The criterion for the selection of sample was based on the awareness of eunuchs about their legal protection and rights. Primary data was collected from two different areas of Rawalpindi city. Semi-structured interviews and content analysis of Supreme Court document of eunuchs' rights were used as the research instruments. After pretesting of the tool some of the questions were rephrased and modified. The interview guideline contained 32 questions. Twenty four questions were asked from eunuchs and 8 from their gurus.

Thematic analysis was used to analyze the data collected through interviews. Emerging themes and subthemes were identified as they appeared in textual data transcribed from the interviews. The categorization process included identification of salient themes, recurring ideas, meanings and language, and logical relationships. The research design, research process, and concepts used in this study can be used for comparative studies in other settings. Methods and theoretical propositions used in the research process can also guide similar studies. The focus of the study was to explore the perception of Eunuchs towards Supreme Court Action, i.e., what they perceive and what changes are expected from this decision in their lives. Therefore, in order to find out about Eunuchs' perception interviews were conducted from the both eunuchs/Gurus.

Supreme Court of Pakistan took a Suo-Motto action in Jan. 2009, on the report of Police abuse and manhandling of Eunuchs in Taxila city, while they were performing at the wedding party. The Action of the Supreme Court of Pakistan resulted in a verdict that has specified the legal rights of this marginalized section of the society. As per the decision of the Supreme Court of Pakistan, following basic human rights should be entrusted upon eunuchs.

### **Registration and identity cards of Eunuchs**

*The Supreme Court has ordered its advocate Generals to arrange a survey of all provinces through Secretaries Social Welfare Department and put up facts and figures of eunuchs, register their names and from where they are. The court also ordered provincial government that in future no deformed child be handed over to the gurus*

**Financial support**

*The court ordered the federal and provincial governments to support them financially through Benazir income support program and Bait-ul-Mal. Supreme Court also ordered that the government should use the services of eunuchs to recover the money from bank loan debtor as practiced in India for recovery of loans.*

**Education and jobs**

*The court has also ordered that eunuchs should be facilitated to get education (primary, middle, matriculation or higher level) and respectable jobs. They are also denied the right to employment, as they have no quota in employment opportunities.*

**Provide sexual security**

*The court has ordered to direct the In-charge Officers in each Tehsil and District headquarters to provide security to eunuchs from those people who misuse them and take advantage of their sexual weakness. Supreme Court Order to protect eunuchs from the police violence and harassment*

**Health facility**

*The court has ordered to provide them free of cost health facilities, particularly to the persons who are suffering from serious diseases which are not curable and can cause epidemics in the society like hepatitis, HIV etc.*

**Inheritance right**

*The court has recognized the status of the eunuchs as a respectable citizen and gives them right of moveable and immovable property left by their parents/elders. Their legal and Islamic right to property and inheritance is negated as they are not given such inheritance from their parents.*

**Vocational training**

The court also ordered to address the vocational training for eunuchs.

## Forced castration

*The court has also ordered to take serious action against castration.*

The interviews were conducted to find out the perception of eunuchs and their gurus towards their legal protection that Supreme Court of Pakistan had given them. The thematic analysis of the interviews has revealed that all the respondents, including the *Gurus*, introduced themselves by female names, which were pseudonyms, indicating that they are not willing to disclose their identity as Eunuchs. This signifies the biased and discriminatory attitude which they have to face from the society. The women names are used to hide their identity. According to the respondents majority of the eunuchs are illiterate but those belonging to middle and upper income group have the opportunity to get education While lower socio economic families do not support their third gender financially that is why illiteracy ratio among them is high. Apart from it the parents are not willing to send them to schools because of fear of they been ridiculed. Regarding professional association all respondent answered that they earned their living through dancing, singing, begging and prostitution because they do not have an alternate source of employment.

Eunuchs usually refer to themselves as female and dress as women. *"We embody a woman's soul caught in a man's body."* This shows that they believe that their physical appearances are like men but their actions are like women. Transgender people view themselves as women born in a man's body. But in reality *"Hamara dono me shumar nahi hota"* (we are not counted as men or women). Their upbringing and socialization emphasize or lead them to adopt feminine ways of life. They want to look like women and are attracted towards males for their sexual satisfaction. Most of the respondents were in the *hijras* community from 5-10 years. This negates the general perception that they are given to *hijra* community at birth. All of them were aware about their parents. They said that every individual knows about his/her parent but not living with them is a separate issue. As one of the respondent said *"Our parents feel embarrassed for us to be called khusra,"* This indicate the general attitude of the society towards them. According to all of them, they are deprived of their rights as human beings and their basic human rights are violated in almost all aspects of their lives. For example they are put in male wards in hospitals and jails, their wards are not separate. In the public transport system, they are denied a place in the female section. Similarly, they do not have the right to vote, national cards, driving license, employment, education and health benefits.

All of the respondents were grateful to the Chief Justice of Pakistan and appreciated his commitment to improve the status of eunuchs as a community. They were of the

opinion that before the action of Chief Justice, no one else has given any consideration to their rights. In Pakistan history 2009 was the best year for them that somebody has thought about eunuchs. But they are disappointed that Supreme Court Action is not implemented in the society properly. Some respondent said that they had made their national identity cards that show them as a third gender and have registered themselves. They all believe that although Constitution of Pakistan talks about equality irrespective of gender but at the same time Constitution does not treat them equally. They are considered and perceived as sub human in society. Basically because of the low literacy level amongst eunuchs is high that is why Supreme Court has ordered for them free education. But according to respondents this free education for them has not yet started in any area. With respect to right to inherit property majority of the respondents were from low socio-economic group and their family had no substantial property to inherit. A few respondents who had property they did access court for asking their inheritance right. According to them law is not always biased towards them as in law word “person” is used and they are the people that is why law is obliged to help them, so they were satisfied with law. According to them law is always helpful for them and are highly satisfied with laws but police treats them in a humiliating way. They are hopeful that Chief Justice Action will be implemented in the society. They believe that although the first step has been taken but it will take years for the change of the attitude in general. They believe that after getting job their situation will automatically get improved, society attitudes will change.

After the decision of the Supreme Court of Pakistan, although they got the entitlement to health facilities, in fact they were able to avail this facility in very few hospitals. Still, all of the respondents expressed their gratification that the implementation of the decision of the Supreme Court of Pakistan has been started. According to respondent guru “*people are recognizing that we are also human beings.*” But at the same time they do not get separate beds in the hospitals and wards in the jail till yet. There is a need of separate wards for them only then their gender will be recognized in a real manner. Many cases came in front that eunuchs do not get wards in hospitals because medical staff was not certain regarding their placement in either male / female ward. This shows the attitude of state and society towards them.

## **DISCUSSION**

The socially-deprived lives of Eunuchs demonstrate that gender has been inadequately taken into consideration in the broader framework of social exclusion. Gender is included in the social and cultural dimensions of social exclusion. Available literature on social exclusion has analyzed gender inequality as the basis of

exclusion and has primarily focused on women. Many government and non-government sectors have taken a gender-sensitive approach in their organizational culture to reduce physical, sexual, organizational and gender-based harassments. Nevertheless, gender is considered from a deficit perspective of male and female. In most cases, gender is meant as a woman's issue, and gender-based harassment means abuses committed by men against women. Gender-equality policies of most organizations primarily focus on interest of female staff and do not recognize the transgender people. The study has indicated that Eunuchs are treated as sub human in society as they do not fit in societal division of genders. It has revealed that most deprivations in the lives of Eunuchs are grounded in non-recognition of a Eunuchs as a separate gendered human being beyond the male-female dichotomy. This has prevented them from positioning themselves in the greater society with human potential and dignity. Eunuchs have to face extreme discrimination in health, housing, education, employment and law. Eunuchs families have discriminatory attitude as compare to other children. They started to live with people of their own gender because of family's indifferent attitude. Their literacy level among eunuchs is low because there is no separate education system for them. According to one of the respondent *"Our people don't like to go to male colleges because they get teased, so we need separate schools, too."* The research has indicated that people belonging to upper socio economic class are more concerned about raising their sexually deformed children in a normal way as a result they make efforts to educate them.

The findings of the study also indicated that mostly eunuchs are not only denied entry to schools and in the hospitals, but also refused to rent or purchased properties. According to respondent *"We want separate residential colonies because, generally, people don't want us in their neighborhoods,"* because most of the respondents think that all society members have derogatory attitude towards them. Eunuchs face discrimination in health. As one of the respondent said *"We cannot visit good doctors or private hospitals, but when we go to government hospitals they mock and shout at us.* Pakistan's transgender community is one of the most marginalized communities of the country as harassed by police, ridiculed, pitied as out casted people of Allah and often rejected by their own families. Supreme Court has given them hope for their rights to be respected. According to respondent guru *"we are just fighting for our rights; this Pakistan belongs to us also."* They all appreciated Chief Justice Action *"It's good for eunuchs because no one respects them."* They believed that because of Supreme Court's action they may be able to get jobs, which will provide them the opportunity to leave their disrespectful profession. They believed that the Chief justice's decision will give them a whole new identity, as a recognized minority. At the same time they were not very hopeful about the implementation of Supreme Court decision.

## **CONCLUSION**

Although the scope of the research is quite broad however some conclusions have been drawn based on the research and knowledge gained as a result of it. The main objective of the research was to find out perception of eunuchs towards their legal protection that Supreme Court has given to them. The findings have indicated that eunuchs are not considered sexually normal in societal division that is why they are discriminated and marginalized. Eunuchs usually are not accepted by their parents and society. Males and females are considered members of the society but eunuchs are completely ignored. Respondents believed that they do not think that Supreme Court Action will be fully implemented in the society and can change the existing inequalities especially the society's attitude that is really disheartening towards them. According to eunuchs they did not try to claim the community and society about their rights after Supreme Court's decision because this seems useless to them. Supreme Court of Pakistan has taken a major decision in order to bring this marginalized section of the society in the mainstream so that they may be able to consider themselves as productive and equal member of the society.

The decision has given them the identity of their own without being categorized as men or women. In fact, eunuch community praised the decision and believed that the decision will eventually enabled to gain all the basic rights of citizenship, like registration, national identity cards, free health, castration and education etc. Although, they were apprehensive about the full implementation of the decision, still they were hopeful that the decision is an encouraging developments and hoped that will lead to an improvement in the societal status of eunuchs. The respondents also specifically mentioned the change in the attitude of the police and society in general, towards them. This research was able to disseminate & increased the knowledge about the topic but also has cleared certain concepts that contribute to the reasons of biased attitudes towards eunuchs by various sections of the society

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Government is taking various steps to upgrade the status of the eunuchs. Now that the Supreme Court has tried to raise the status of that community, the government has the responsibility to protect their rights. But there is need of more their rights.

1. The media should educate the society about eunuchs' rights. As it is needed to change the mind sets of the people and the civil society regarding eunuchs.

2. Public awareness regarding treating Eunuchs as individuals having rights, through media and educational institutions, so that they may become productive members of the society.
3. There is need of researches that question about eunuchs names. As their existing names show their identity as female having male physical structure.
4. Civil society and NGOs should formulate ways to cater to the psychological issues related affecting eunuchs.
5. Civil society and NGOs should collaborate to develop programs to create awareness about AIDS to the hijras.
6. Academics can also play a part in changing society's mindset regarding eunuchs.

**REFERENCES**

- Agrawal, A. (1997). Gendered Bodies: *The Case of the 'Third Gender' in India*. In *Contributions to Indian Sociology*, new series, 31: 273–97.
- Altaf, K. (2008). The Hijras in India. Anonymous. (2010). Intersexuality and Muslims. *SHAALOM 2 SALAAM: A MUSLIMAH'S JOURNEY ALONG THE WAY FROM JUDAISM TO ISLAM*. Retrieved from: <http://www.shaalom2salaam.com/2010/01/intersexuality-and-muslims.html>
- Ayalon, D. (2001). *Eunuchs and Sultans: A study of Power Relationships*. Magnes Press, The Hebrew University. xi +376.538.121 (3), 535.
- Beall J, Piron L-H. DFID. (2008). “Social exclusion review” London: Overseas Development Institute: 32-7
- Chang, R. T. (1965). *The Structure of Government by Close Attendants*: Taisuke Mitamura, Published by: Association for Asian Studies, 24(4), 690-691.
- Crawford, R. B. (1961). *Eunuch Power in the Ming Dynasty*. T'oung Pao, Second Series, Published by: Brill, 49 (3), 115-148.
- Coser, L. A. (1964). *The Political Functions of Eunuchism*. American Sociological Review, Published by: American Sociological Association, 29(6), 880-885.
- Dale, M. S. (2010). *Understanding Emasculation, Western Medical Perspectives on Chinese Eunuchs*: Social History of Medicine 23(1), 38-55. doi:10.1093/shm/hkp139
- Duparcq, E. (2010). *Male, female or eunuch?* 20(2), 117-119.
- Edwards, C. (2003). The American Historical Review: American Historical Association. Published by: American Historical Association, 108(4), 1200.
- Hambly, G. (1974). *Trade in Eunuchs in Mughal Bengal*, 94 (1), 125-130. And Retrospect of the Medical Sciences, 1843 BMJ Publishing Group, 5,125.
- Jaffery, Z. (1996). *The invisibles: A table of the Eunuchs of India*. New York.

Jami, H. (2005). Condition and Status of Hijras (Transgender, Transvestites etc.) in Pakistan, National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University.

Leonard, P. (1984). Personality and ideology: Towards a Materialist Understanding of the Individual. London: Macmillan.

Malloy, R., L. (1997). Balaji, M. Hijras: *Who We Are*. Toronto: Think Asia.

Nanda, S. (1999). Neither Man nor Woman: The Hijras of India. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

# Notes To Contributors

The Journal of Gender and Social Issues (JGSI) is a research journal published on a biannual basis by Fatima Jinnah Women University, Rawalpindi. The JGSI provides a forum for the dissemination of findings related to Gender and Social issues from related academic disciplines. The journal aims to enhance the understanding of social, environmental and cultural factors affecting individuals and society as well. The journal welcomes articles from all disciplines allied to social and gender issues. Importance is given to original and empirical research. However, comprehensive and up-to-date review articles and book reviews are also considered for publication. The JGSI follows the blind peerreviewing policy.

**Submission of Manuscripts:** The original manuscript along with two copies should be submitted to the Editor. Authors are requested to include with each copy of the manuscript a cover sheet, which shows the title of the study, the author's name and the institutional affiliation. The first page of text should omit the author's name and affiliation. However, it should include the title of the research. It is desirable to duly acknowledge the contribution of all authors, organizations and institutions involved in the research. Certification of sole authorship must be provided in the case of a single author. Coresearchers must be equally recognized. The journal is not responsible for any conflicts dealing with authorship.

The authors are strongly encouraged to submit manuscripts on disk/CD or soft copy via email prepared using MS Word. The file should be clearly labeled with the author's names, file name and software version. Each manuscript should be accompanied by a statement that it has neither been published nor been submitted simultaneously for publication elsewhere. Authors are responsible for obtaining permission to reproduce copyrighted material from other sources. The author will be responsible for ensuring that the article contains no plagiarism and contains no material that has been reproduced verbatim from any other sources. All accepted articles will become the property of the publisher.

All parts of the manuscripts should be typewritten and printed on one side of the paper,

font size 12, Times New Roman, left aligned, double spaced with margins of at least one inch on all sides. The manuscript should be numbered consecutively throughout the paper. Authors should also supply a shortened version of the title suitable for the running head, not exceeding 50 character spaces. Each article should be summarized in an abstract of not more than 250 words.

Manuscripts including tables, figures, illustrations and references, should be prepared in accordance with the publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (5th Edition). Instructions can also be obtained from the university web page at [www.fjwu.edu.pk](http://www.fjwu.edu.pk)

**Graphics:** Maps, tables, and figures should not be embedded in the text, but should be included as separate sheets or files. A short caption should appear above each table with a clear legend and any footnotes suitably identified below. All units must be included. Figures should also be completely labeled.

Authors are also encouraged to submit photographs that are relevant to their articles. Photographs (high quality) must be captioned, labeled and presented on separate pages with their position in the text indicated. The size should not exceed 16 x 12.5 cm (5" x 8"). Electronic images may also be submitted in high resolution digital format (at least 300 dpi). Images on disk or CD-Rom should be supplied as high resolution TIP or JPEG files. If not produced by the author, the photograph source must be mentioned.

**Reprints:** A copy of the journal and twenty reprints will be supplied free of cost to the first author. Additional reprints may be obtained by ordering in advance from the Editors. For this prepayment is required.

**Correspondence and submission** of manuscripts should be addressed to: The Editor, Journal of Gender and Social Issues, Fatima Jinnah University, The Mall, Rawalpindi.

**Online submission** of articles can be made to [journal@fjwu.edu.pk](mailto:journal@fjwu.edu.pk)

